Regina Egetenmeyer (ed.)

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in Europe and Beyond

Comparative Perspectives from the 2015 Würzburg Winter School

PETER LANG
EDITION

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in Europe and Beyond

This volume presents comparisons of adult education and lifelong learning with a focus on educational policies, professionalization in adult education, participation in adult learning and education, quality in adult education, and educational guidance and counselling. The essays are based on comparisons discussed at the international Winter School "Comparative Studies in Adult and Lifelong Learning", held in Würzburg, Germany, February 2015. Sub-topics of lifelong learning were chosen for an in-depth comparison and analysis of the situation in various European countries and beyond.

The Editor
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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in Europe and Beyond

STUDIES IN PEDAGOGY, ANDRAGOGY AND GERONTAGOGY

Founded by Franz Pöggeler

Edited by Bernd Käpplinger and Steffi Robak

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Bernd Käpplinger & Steffi Robak

Preface

The parable of 'The Blind Men and the Elephant' originated in South-East Asia from where it has widely diffused in manifold versions. One version says that six blind men were asked to determine what an elephant looked like. They then touched different parts of the elephant. A blind man who touched a leg said the elephant is like a pillar; the one who touched the tail said the elephant is like a rope; the one who touched the trunk said the elephant is like a tree branch; the one who touched the ear said the elephant is like a hand fan; the one who touched the belly said the elephant is like a wall; and the one who touched the tusk said the elephant is like a solid pipe. The parable illustrates a range of truths and challenges. It has been interpreted very differently, but it implies that one's subjective experience can be true, but that such experience is inherently limited by its failure to account for other truths or a totality of truth. Experience is a source for learning but often also a main barrier.

Scholars in international or even comparative adult education research sometimes encounter the very same challenges as the six blind men (cf. Käpplinger et al., 2015). Countries or regions are described simultaneously and juxtaposed. Practices in one context are often judged to be desirably beneficial, and it is often attempted to transfer these practices to other contexts. The popular benchmarking approach is based on the assumption that outputs, outcomes, or evidence can be directly compared, and that the best performers give orientation to the underperformers. Huge crowds of policy-makers, administrators, scientists, or practitioners went on pilgrimages to the best performers in order to find the Holy Grail of education, teaching, and learning there. It is a kind of paradox that nowadays the desire and willingness to adapt to simple truths might be bigger than ever. The world is increasingly complex, and we live in an era of extremes and new gruesome fundamentalisms. There seems to be a hunger for less complexity instead of an acceptance of the fact that understanding complexity is a continuous and challenging journey with many pitfalls. Tarc's (2013, p. 21) reading of the parable is 'that one's understanding of the world depends upon how one is positioned and upon what "part" of reality one is "in touch with"… We also learn that despite our incapacity to perceive the whole or sense what another sees from his or her distinct vantage point, we have a propensity to cling to our own limited understandings and spend our energies convincing others of the "rightness" of our

version of reality, rather than attempting to learn with and from the lived realities of differently located others.'

This volume is different from many books dealing with international or comparative research. It is more sophisticated, and it goes far beyond assembling papers from authors coming from different regions. The diverse teams of authors are often engaged in the endeavour of really learning from and with each other. This is valuable in many respects, as Regina Egetenmeyer explains in much more detail in her introduction. It is even more striking when reading the various interesting papers. Here, people from many different backgrounds and levels of proficiency have actively engaged in different phases of collaboration. Learning from and with each other requires time and space. It is anything but accidental that this volume is the final result of a winter school and continued efforts before and after. Modern technologies like emailing, skyping, and the like help a lot in our daily work, but physical presence and meeting people face-to-face still makes a big difference in terms of quality. The results in this volume are very impressive. The methodological approach can inform real comparative research. It could be even a kind of blueprint for future international winter or summer schools and their results. The content of the book offers a diverse richness to build on in many respects.

Overall, this book challenges one obvious but far too simple conclusion that might be drawn from the parable of the six blind men. The parable is sometimes interpreted as a plea for relativism and the subjective opaqueness of knowledge. Of course, we can, even as a group, only touch parts of our realities. And groups of people or disciplines can easily turn onto uncreative conformism. This was all well known in philosophy long before constructivism or even radical constructivism became popular as a learning theory in adult education research. Nonetheless, we as humans can communicate or even go into meta-communication. By real and engaged communication, we can learn from and with each other despite many, many misunderstandings and irritations. But even irritations can very frequently be starting points for learning if we give learning a chance and do not stick to our personal or cultural experiences, preferences, or even prejudices. Perhaps we have to irritate ourselves and others much more often, despite the sometimes assumed or acquired high levels of proficiency and the comfort of the well-established and unquestioned perceptions of our cultures and academic disciplines? For example, why aren't there any women in the parable of the six blind men, and how did the elephant feel, being touched only as an object to be studied?

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Regina Egetenmeyer

Comparing Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in Europe and beyond: An introduction

Context: Würzburg Winter School 2015

This book is the result of a ten-day Winter School at Julius Maximilian University of Würzburg in January and February 2015 on 'Comparative Studies in Adult and Lifelong Learning'. The Winter School was dedicated to analysing and comparing international and European strategies in lifelong learning. Based on social policy models, lifelong learning strategies in Europe were subjected to a critical analysis. Furthermore, subtopics of lifelong learning were chosen for in-depth comparison and an analysis of selected topics of (European) adult education and lifelong learning.

The Winter School was offered for the second time in 2015, following a first event in 2014. It brought together 51 participants (master's and doctoral students) and 20 professors and lecturers from six European countries, India, North America, and Africa. Most participants are enrolled in programmes that have a focus on questions of adult education and/or lifelong learning. The Winter School is offered in collaboration with diverse partner universities and one partner institute: Universidade do Minho, Portugal; Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal; Universitá di Padova, Italy; Università degli Studi di Firenze, Italy; Technische Universität Chemnitz, Germany; Pécsi Tudományegyetem, Hungary; University of Delhi, India; Jawaharlal Nehru University, India; and the International Institute of Adult & Lifelong Education, New Delhi, India. Academic experts in adult education of the partner universities are involved in the teaching programme. They also send students from their universities to Würzburg and support them in advance. The winter school was public announced and reached also participants outside of other universities in Germany, Europe, North America and Africa. Participants meet in Würzburg for an in-depth study of European policies in lifelong learning, their relevance in adult and continuing education practice, and the comparison of selected aspects of adult education and lifelong learning. The inclusion of Indian partners in particular brought a new challenging perspective for the comparison of adult and lifelong learning. This perspective was experienced to be as valuable as the European perspectives.

This volume gives young researchers a possibility to publish the results of their discussions in Würzburg and their further work. Due to the sponsorship of the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) as part of a program for supporting young German education researchers, the volume has a special focus on supporting German fellows. They, together with their international fellows, have contributed comparative papers on questions in adult education and lifelong learning.

From a didactical perspective, the Winter School is divided into a preparatory phase and two main parts. Participants prepare for the two main parts of the Winter School: (Part 1) Lifelong learning strategies in Europe, and (Part 2) Comparing lifelong learning. In preparation for Part 1, participants get a reading exercise based on some research papers and a study guide on *European strategies in lifelong learning*, authored by Licinio Lima and Paula Guimarães. Master's students who study at one of the partner universities attend local tutorials for preparing, discussing, and understanding the texts. For Part 2 of the Winter School, all participants choose one comparative group (e.g. training the adult education trainers, adult learning, and adult education participation). Based on their selection, they prepare a country report on the situation in this field in their home country. All participants submit this country report two weeks before the Winter School. Each group has an international expert on their topic as moderator. The moderators provide online support to the participants in advance to help them prepare the paper. This means an intensive preparation phase for the participants and high-quality discussions throughout.

All participants met in late January 2015 in Würzburg to start Part 1 of the Winter School, which was moderated by Licinio Lima and Paula Guimarães in two different groups. Part 1 lasted from Wednesday till Tuesday. Participants developed a shared understanding of international discourses and the international terminology in adult and lifelong learning policies. Furthermore, all participants were introduced to the analysis of lifelong learning strategies of European stakeholders and local actors in adult and continuing education. Therefore, three models of education were distinguished: the democratic-emancipatory model, the modernisation and state control model, and the human resources management model (cf. Lima, Guimarães, & Touma, in this volume). During the discussion of the models several practice examples from participants' home countries were discussed. Afterwards, an analytical scheme was developed, and participants were introduced to practice observation. Based on this analytical background, participants went on field visits to local adult and continuing education providers (civic education, vocational and professional continuing education, and family education). Moreover, representatives of European

associations in adult and continuing education were invited (Gina Ebner, European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA); Dr. Alexandra Dehmel, European Centre for Vocational Education and Training (CEDFOP)) to discuss their lifelong learning strategies. Based on these insights into practice, participants researched lifelong learning strategies of that practice based on their theoretical models. This analysis gave the participant group a shared vocabulary, which they went on to use for the comparisons in Part 2 of the Winter School.

Part 2 was dedicated to the comparison of selected topics in adult and lifelong learning and lasted from Tuesday till Friday. During Part 2, the group was divided into six comparative sub-groups, which worked on the following topics: 'Training the Adult Education Trainers', 'Adult Learning and Adult Education Participation', 'Quality in the Adult Learning Sector', 'The Policy and Practice of Lifelong Learning for the Knowledge Economy', 'Professionalisation in Adult and Continuing Education', and 'Educational Guidance and Counselling'. The comparative groups were made up in a way to reflect participants' research interest (e.g. in PhD thesis) and to ensure an international mix with participants from different countries. Each comparative sub-group used the following structure (see also Section 2 of this introduction): introduction to the topic, country presentations by participants, development of categories, testing of categories, as well as interpretation and comparison. From Wednesday afternoon, participants worked independently in their groups, which ended on Friday with an open space presentation during which all groups presented the results of their group work.

Figure 1: Würzburg Winter School 2015 (Egetenmeyer, 2014).
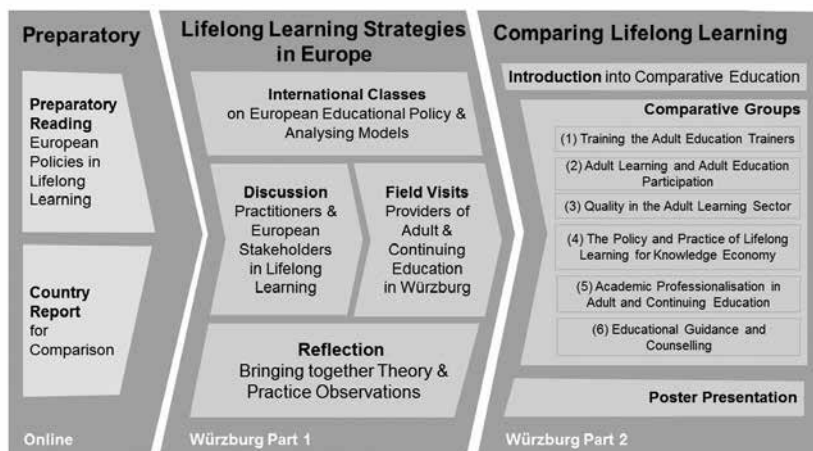
This volume is based on the result of these two phases, expanding on the comparisons of the second phase. Therefore, participants of the Winter School were invited to identify selected comparative aspects (categories) of their groups and choose relevant countries. Whereas the comparative group work included five or more comparative countries, the papers collected in this volume focus on fewer countries. This allows for a deeper interpretation of similarities and differences. And whereas the group work during the Winter School only achieved the stage of juxtaposition for the most part (i.e. identification of similarities and differences in a side-by-side comparison), the papers also include initial interpretations of these juxtapositions.

Current bibliometric analyses of research papers in adult education (Käpplinger, 2015, Rubenson & Elfert, 2014, Fejes & Nylander, 2013, 2014) show that there are only few papers available that were written by authors from different national backgrounds. So-called 'international papers' in adult education frequently focus on a limited range of countries (e.g. Anglo-Saxon countries). Käpplinger (2015, p. 17) summarises: 'Encouraging multiple authors with bi- or even trinational backgrounds might be one way in order to encourage more comparative research.' The Würzburg Winter School gives participants an opportunity to publish together in multi-national teams for supporting qualitative comparative research in adult and continuing education. Based on the papers, we see a strong potential for further collaboration between the young researchers focusing on questions in adult and continuing education.

Comparative Approach of the Winter School

Adult and continuing education is a discipline that has a long tradition of international comparisons, but those international comparisons are also highly fragmented (cf. Schmidt-Lauff & Egetenmeyer, 2015). As adult and continuing education is a phenomenon that has evolved very different from one country to the next, looking to experiences of other countries is an obvious activity. But as adult and continuing education is a rather small discipline in many countries, comparison hardly goes beyond single research projects. Comparing adult and continuing education in different countries means getting familiar with very different systems, contexts, and developments. A proposal for a joint research frame, as the one proposed by 'the cube' (Bray & Thomas, 1995) in school education, is not available in adult and continuing education. Even the development of internationally comparable classifications (e.g. ISCED) has only begun to inform discussions of the European Qualification Framework. Moreover, this classification only covers parts of adult education. In Germany, comparative research in adult and

continuing education is currently available in four ways (cf. Egetenmeyer, 2015a): subject-related country studies, juxtapositions and interpretative comparisons, comparisons with a focus on cultural theories, and methodological studies.

According to Chaters and Hilton (1989), the interpretation of comparative data can be understood as the main target in comparative research:

> *A study in comparative international adult education must include one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries or regions. Comparative study is not the mere placing side by side of data concerning one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries. Such juxtaposition is only a prerequisite for comparison. At the next stages one attempts to identify the similarities and differences between the aspects under study and to assess the degree of similarities or differences. Even at this point the work of comparisons is not complete. The real value of comparative study emerges only from stage three – the attempt to understand why the differences and similarities occur and what their significance is for adult education in the countries under examination and in other countries where the finding of the study may have relevance. (Charters und Hilton, 1989, p. 3)*

To reach this interpretation, several interpretation variations can be used (cf. Egetenmeyer 2015): The interpretation can be understood especially as a challenge concerning large-scale data. These are available through the Adult Education Survey (AES), the Continuing Vocational Education Survey (CVTS), or the data of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC). Therefore, adult and continuing education are starting to use theories of welfare-state regimes (Esping-Andersen, 1990) as a theoretical model to subsume single countries under one type of welfare-state regime. Markowitsch et al (2013) distinguish between social-democratic welfare states, conservative welfare states, family-oriented welfare states, liberal welfare states, and neo-liberal and neo-conservative welfare states (from a Euro- and Western-centric perspective). From a more global perspective, Saar, Ure, and Holford (2013) developed a 'typology of skill formation systems', which differentiates four global models: market model, corporatist model, development state model, and neo-market model. All typologies have in common that they subsume selected countries and adopt a macro-perspective. These typologies are very helpful for understanding and explaining similarities and differences on a macro level and understanding long-term developments. But the typologies are very limited in terms of explaining short-term developments and antagonisms on the meso or micro level of adult and continuing education (e.g. adult learning participation).

The Würzburg Winter School, by contrast, is focused on understanding multiple analytical levels (mega, macro, meso, micro) and also intends to compare issues on the meso and micro level. To that end, the two parts of the Winter School provide

two different models for comparison: a deductive, theory-oriented approach in the first part, and an inductive approach in the second part.

During the first part of the Winter School, the group works with educational models developed by Lima and Guimarães (2010): the democratic-emancipatory model, the modernisation and state control model, and the human resources management model. Studying these models gives the participants of the Winter School a shared terminology for comparison. Furthermore, the models serve as ideal types, which in practice typically only occur as mixed-models. Based on the models, participants present developments in their home countries and reflect on how they relate to the models. Furthermore, they learn about and discuss developments in adult and continuing education in the countries of the other participants. Through the presentation of regional or national developments during the Winter School, participants receive first insights into the situation in other countries, compare it with that in their home countries, and refer it back to a theoretical model. It gives participants initial comparative insights into similarities and differences and opens perspectives. This 'incomplete' comparative approach is what is called 'comparative perspectives' in this volume. The contribution of Lima, Guimarães, and Touma (in this volume) not only provides a rich example of these comparative perspectives but also takes the comparison one step further.

The second part of the Winter School features an inductive approach—based on the shared terminology developed in the first part. Participants in each group prepared country reports presenting the situation in their home countries. All comparative groups start with an introductory phase during which they work on the key terms. Once they have reached a shared terminology, country presentations follow, given by the participants based on their country reports. During the presentations, the group members started doing implicit comparisons and developing transnationally applicable comparative categories. After the country presentations, comparative categories were developed in more detail to make them more precise. Based on these developments, groups decided which categories to use for the ensuing comparison. The categories were tested by selecting information from each country for a side-by-side presentation (juxtaposition). Afterwards, the categories were further developed. Based on the finished juxtaposition, the groups worked to identify similarities and differences between the countries and worked on joint explanations for these similarities and differences. As these last two steps were very marginal in several groups during the Winter School, this volume allows for further elaboration on the interpretation of similarities and differences.

Beside its academic and analytical objectives, the Winter School also aims to promote peace: Bringing young people together for comparative research allows for starting a process of understanding international and intercultural phenomena. Comparisons in international groups provide new insights into other countries and into new aspects and variations of new models. They also facilitate a better and more detailed understanding of the situation in one's own home country. Furthermore, they give participants a sense of how difficult it is to compare situations in other countries. For promoting peace, another step is necessary: to understand in a cognitive, emotional, and social way the limitations of our understanding of our own and other phenomena. Ideally, this insight leads to an attitude of further questioning one's own understanding in an ongoing endeavour to working on deeper understanding. An ideal 'result' of the Winter School is to never have a final result, but to continue the never ending journey of personal efforts to try to understand each other. This also means searching for the things that link us to each other: to be aware of the always existing boundaries of our own understanding while developing an attitude of 'constantly trying'. In this way the approach of the Winter School goes beyond Charters and Hilton, because it doesn't only ask for explanations of similarities and differences but also cultivates a comparative attitude of students, which explicitly includes emotional and cognitive aspects of non-understanding.

Summer 2015—the time this volume is being finalised—is characterised by deep international crisis. We realise that internationalisation and globalisation not only pulls the world closer together, it also means that international conflicts of various kinds are coming closer: the world-wide refugee situation; political conflicts that also affect Europe, and the fiscal challenges within the Eurozone. These are just some examples from a European perspective. All these challenges ask for people who are willing and able to work further on understanding each other. This can be understood as a key foundation for peace development. The Würzburg Winter School aims to qualify young people to do comparisons in their academic discipline to be analytically equipped for working on deeper understanding.

An overview of the papers in this volume

The volume is roughly structured along the comparative groups.

The chapter 'Comparing policies in lifelong learning' consists of two papers. Lima, Guimarães, and Touma outline the theoretical and analytical approach that formed the basis of the first part of the Winter School. Based on this approach, the authors develop four categories with which to compare adult and continuing education in Portugal, Germany, and Sweden: political-administrative orientations;

political priorities, organisational, and administrative dimension; and main conceptual elements of public policies. For their analysis, they use the country reports of CONVINTEA VI. The analysis shows that all three public (educational) policy models are present in the three countries but to different degrees. Modernisation and social control policies can be observed in all country reports, but the increasing presence of a human-resource model is notable as well. The emancipatory model is much less present and mostly found in Sweden. Furthermore, the authors show the strong influence of European policies, which drive national policies in adult education and lifelong learning.

Singai, Gioli, Riemer, Regmi, Mastrokoukou and Singh take a European-South Asian perspective, comparing the development of the knowledge economy and demographic change in a transcontinental comparison. The paper focuses on the different demographic challenges in Europe and South Asia and the different influences of international organisations on national policies. Whereas the European Union is a strong influencing actor in European countries, UNESCO's policies in lifelong learning seem to be the main influence in South Asia. In Nepal, the influence of the World Bank is shown. It is the World Bank that puts lifelong learning on the national agenda of Nepal. The authors conclude that lifelong learning and the development of a knowledge economy have entered the agenda of all countries. Analysing the terminology in South Asia, one can even find EU influences.

The chapter 'Comparing professionalisation in adult and continuing education' brings together the papers of the comparative groups 'Training the Adult Education Trainers' and 'Academic Professionalisation in Adult and Continuing Education'. Both groups focus on people employed in the contexts of adult education. Liszt, Toko, and Yan focus on the questions: What is meant by 'adult education', and who are the key actors? For their comparison, they researched the European Union, India, and China. The interpretation shows that adult education has different meanings in the three contexts. Whereas the term *adult learning* became more and more important in the European Union, China has a strong focus on professional development for everyone. In India, by contrast, the authors found a strong emphasis on literacy education. Nevertheless, the authors identify a common focus on promoting lifelong learning as a 'new attitude of living' in all three contexts.

Boffo, Kaleja, Sharif-Ali, and Fernandes compare curricula of study programmes in adult education in Italy, Germany, and Portugal. They analyse challenges for developing a curriculum with regard to graduates' potential employment market. The authors conclude that a professional path of professionalisation in adult and continuing education is not available in all countries. Nevertheless, there are

initiatives for developing a joint European study programme in adult education. Although the traditions are different in each country, the authors conclude that the development of applicable knowledge and competences for adult educators through university programmes is a joint challenge. Keeping in mind the employment market for graduates also means being aware of the different legislative contexts.

In a second paper, Boffo, Kaleja, and Fernandes take a comparative look at the regulations and working conditions of trainers in adult education. The authors analyse the role of trainers in contributing to democracy, employability, and the economic and social development of a country, criteria in line with European policies. They outline the joint challenges on flexibility, low salaries, and working conditions faced by adult education trainers in all countries.

Semrau, Vieira, and Guida analyse university courses in adult education in Germany, Italy, and Portugal. The authors can show the influence of the Bologna process on the development of all study programmes. In Germany, there was a shift from the 'old' *Diplom* programmes to the bachelor's and master's programmes. In Portugal and Italy, it seems that the importance of adult education as an academic discipline began to improve. The authors could show that in an overall rough perspective, bachelor's programmes take a more general perspective on education, whereas master's programmes are more focused and profiled in adult and continuing education. They conclude that all programmes offer ways of linking academic knowledge to practice during the master's programmes, but that further developments are needed for the interconnection of academic knowledge and practice.

The chapter on 'Comparing participation in adult education' consists of one paper, which compares the situation in Europe and India. Europe is represented by Portugal, Italy, and Hungary. The paper shows common trends in Europe, such as rising participation rates in adult education and learning activities. India is also seeing rising participation rates in literacy. Besides the obvious difference that India concentrates on literacy and Europe on participation, the paper also shows differences between the European emphasis on participation or input and India's stronger focus on outcomes. Furthermore, the reasons given for participation and non-participations in each country indicate a focus on the individual in Europe and a more collective orientation in India.

The comparative group on quality provided two papers in the chapter 'Comparing quality management'. Hilbig, Thom, and Tursi compare quality management procedures in Italy and Germany. They show that quality management systems are mainly implemented in a top-down process by national and regional authorities. Furthermore, the authors stress that the influence of the European Union is

growing. They show that quality management for adult education means to 'fulfil in particular economic requirements', referring to a German model which pays strong attention to the learning process. The authors conclude that quality in adult education is not only produced by management systems, but that the trainer has a strong influence on quality in adult education as well.

Everett and Müller compare two quality management models in the United States and Germany. They conclude that no overarching seal of quality exists in either context, and that the general process of the two models (LQW in Germany, regional accreditation in the U.S.) is quite similar. But there are also differences: Whereas regional accreditation in the U.S. is focused on higher education institutions (not on individual degree programmes), LQW in Germany is mainly used in adult and continuing education outside higher education.

The chapter 'Comparing guidance and counselling in lifelong learning' consists of two papers. Tomei, Carp, and Kröner compare guidance and counselling in higher education in Germany and Italy. As a common trend, they identify an increasing demand of the employment market for career service guidance and counselling in higher education. The authors see the Bologna process as a milestone for implementing career services in higher education. Moreover, the employability approach is an overarching theme for career service activities. However, the framework of these services varies in terms of strength and adaption between the countries, as well as concerning the role and the interplay between higher education and the labour market.

Grasso, Tomei, Balasz, Goswami, and da Silva Ribas analyse processes, methods, and activities of guidance and counselling in Hungary, India, Italy, and Portugal. Based on the different understandings and practices in guidance and counselling, the group analyses some common aspects in all countries, which are linked to coping with the needs in the respective contexts. Guidance and counselling is strongly linked with lifelong learning strategies and the 'wellness of nations and people'. The paper also shows the strong influence of the European Union on non-EU countries.

The volume ends with a chapter called 'Country reports', which give an insight into some outstanding country reports provided by participants of the Winter School. Nicoletta Toumei presents the tutorship and adult guidance tool in Tuscany. Shalini Singh provides an overview of lifelong learning strategies in India in the context of global demographic challenges and inclusive developments in India. Kapil Dev Regmi shows an overview of adult literacy and lifelong learning policies in Nepal by connecting it to international policies.

Overall comparison

Like the bibliometric analysis in adult education, this book also presents a strong representation of female fellows in adult and continuing education. Likewise, topics such as systems and policies and professional acting—named by Käpplinger (2015) as frequent research topics—can be found in this book. The question of adult learning can be found in the group on participation in adult learning and education.

The overall comparison shows a strong influence of European policies in the national and regional context of adult and lifelong learning. Although the European Union is formally prohibited from harmonize the education systems of its member states, the European policy on lifelong learning became strongly relevant in all European contexts. Despite the highly critical discourse on this influence, European policies in lifelong learning have generated a shared terminology in academic contexts, allowing academic experts in adult and lifelong learning to work, develop, dispute, and hesitate together. This shared terminology became especially obvious during the Winter School when comparing countries in Asia. Several papers highlight the influence of the European Union on educational policies in South-(East) Asia. In can be summarised that European policies in lifelong learning have an influence far beyond the EU although formally they only have an advisory function, not a regulatory mandate! However, this influence could not be observed in the U.S.

The view from outside of Europe—represented during the Winter School by India in particular—not only contributes to identifying a kind of European identity in the context of adult and lifelong learning. It also shows the weaker presence of UNESCO's educational policies in European states. The insights into the Indian situation allow us to realise the influence of UNESCO's educational policies (e.g. Education for all). The example of Nepal also gave an insight into the influence of the World Bank's educational policies in developing countries (Regmi in this volume). The authors from these countries summarise a two-fold effect of these international actors: On the one hand, they push national policies towards adult and lifelong learning. On the other hand, they seem to lack sensitivity regarding existing developments to promote adult and lifelong learning. This would be important, however, to match policies with specific cultural contexts and traditions. This is especially important when policies from so-called Western contexts are transferred to the Asian context: The highly individualised, post-modern lifelong learning policies centred on individual freedom and self-actualisation frequently ignore group- and family needs in Asian countries. There is a big danger that individualised concepts disregard collective needs in Asian contexts. It is very likely

that an individualised kind of education that doesn't include collective aspirations will be a misleading approach–because it hurts central motives.

Despite all the different contexts, the comparisons also show similarities in adult education and lifelong learning in all the countries studied: All over the world, adult literacy is understood as central requirement for democratic developments. Adult education acts as starting point for making societies literate. The literacy experiences of parents can serve as a starting point for valuing education for children. Without adult education, interventions in primary education will surely be limited.

A central challenge for getting people to participate in adult education and lifelong learning is to make it match their needs and contexts. This seems to be true all over the world, underlining the analysis of contexts as a central issue in adult education. Singh (in this volume) refers to the skill development initiative in India, which customises adult literacy programmes to people's needs. Thereby, adult education centres create links between the educational, financial, and social needs of adults. The employment market also forms an important context—in European countries as well. The papers in this volume show that adult education can contribute to the development of societies only by a sensitive analysis of people's situation, contexts, and needs. The specific living conditions have to be the starting point for societal developments.

Although the influence of international organisations varies in the countries studied here, it can be said that there is a strong influence of international organisations in most countries. More research would be necessary for the U.S. to find out if this is true in this context, too. For the other countries, it can be stated that we live more and more in a shared adult education and lifelong learning policy context, which affects national and regional autonomy in adult education. Adult education cannot be understood as a purely regional activity. Moreover, the analysis of local adult education and lifelong learning needs reveals their connectedness to international policies. This is exactly what participants of the Winter School did during their visits of local adult education providers.

In terms of Lima and Guimarães's educational models, the influence of the market—and hence a resources management model—can surely be observed in the European Union. Maybe there is potential that UNESCO will provide a stronger modernisation and state control model of lifelong learning, which will also be promoted in specific modifications by national governments. Is it the role of adult education, as an academic discipline, to promote a democratic-emancipatory model? With regard to the Asian context, collective needs also have to be respected for an international approach towards adult education and lifelong learning.

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Comparing Policies in Lifelong Learning

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Adult learning and education policies in Germany, Portugal and Sweden: An analysis of national reports to CONFINTEA VI

Abstract

The chapter presents a theoretical proposal of three analytical models of Adult Learning and Education (ALE) policies. Some analytical categories and the corresponding dimensions are organised according to the ALE rationale which is typical of each social policy model. Historical, cultural and educational features are mentioned in connexion with the different policy models and its interpretative capacity to making sense of policies and practices implemented in Germany, Portugal and Sweden. The analysis includes the states of the art and the official representations of ALE produced by the respective national authorities through national reports which were presented to CONFINTEA VI (2009).

Introduction

The analysis of adult learning and education (ALE) policies is a complex task, but it is crucial to understanding the multitude of supranational guidelines, governmental measures, strategies of public and private organisations, educational practices developed by schools, educational centres, social movements and civil society organisations, in addition to the study of certain individual lifelong learning dynamics.

Whenever we study educational reforms, priorities and objectives, projects and activities, ALE methods and practices in national and local, organisational or micro level contexts it is impossible to escape from certain core questions: What ALE conceptions are present? What are the priorities and goals to achieve? What are the most important concepts, methods of education, forms of organisation, administration and financing? What are the teaching methods, and who are the target groups and participants in educational activities? And on what grounds are they these and not others? Why is there not always consensus on these options? What are the dominant approaches and interests at national, local and international level? Who has the power to shape the educational guidelines that are followed by most national, regional and local governments? Why is public funding available for certain ALE activities but not for others? What are the most influential international and supranational organisations and how do they build and spread

their political agendas for ALE? What is the role of the state, civil society and the market in developing the policies and practices of ALE?

Considering that learning and education are cultural, socially constructed phenomena, its political nature, i.e. its politicity, is always based on worldviews, on choices that depend on certain agendas and certain interests. Even when, as now, the consensus seems evident and is apparently shared worldwide, resulting in ALE policy guidelines we call hegemonic or dominant guidelines, there are always other possibilities, divergent interests, alternative projects. There is always political activity (politics), not only in the state context but also dependent on different conceptions of the role of the state in social policies. This political action gives rise to decisions and choices that are then translated into legislation, programmes and measures, educational conceptions and learning modes, forms of regulation and provision of education we generically call education policy.

This means that ALE policies always result from discourses and practices, guidance and actions, the global setting of priorities and rules not only located in the transnational and supranational level (mega level) and national level (macro level), but also in concrete organisational contexts (meso level) and even through different forms of reception and action in small contexts of social interaction (micro level). Although the available resources, authority and power differ widely between these levels of analysis, levels whose scale is at a lower level, are certainly affected but not fully determined by the higher levels. The learning and education of individuals in specific contexts of social action is always influenced by the decisions of the most powerful political and institutional actors, but it is never a simple copy or perfect reproduction of these influences.

There are contextual, cultural, educational and other circumstances that can facilitate the exercise of margins of relative autonomy by states, organisations, social groups and individuals. The study of policies in action, of the recontextualisation of political decisions in different social contexts and of any distinct educational appropriations already requires empirical studies. It requires analysis of actors and educational activities in specific social contexts, which, while of great relevance in the investigation of policies and practices, is not, however, the purpose of this chapter.

This chapter will briefly introduce some analytical models of ALE social policies that can support the interpretation of the action developed by international institutions (such as the United nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation – UNESCO), by supranational actors (like the European Union – EU), or by national and regional governments, public and private organisations and others. We shall only use the proposed analytical models to interpret some policy

documents produced by government agencies from three countries of the EU that sought to offer a "state of the art" of ALE for presentation at the International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) organised by UNESCO in 2009 in Brazil, in the city of Belém do Pará. This does not mean that the theoretical proposals presented here are not useful for the analysis of concrete ALE actions and models and lifelong education practices, just that this task would not be possible within the objectives and limits of this text.

Analytical models of adult learning and education

The theoretical proposals that are presented here have their origin in research work that was initially developed by Lima (2005) and the subject of several courses in universities in Germany and other European and Latin American countries. This research work, as well as the accumulated teaching experience, were later resumed and deepened. In this process of review and academic development, which was incorporating other authors and other theoretical approaches, the doctoral work of Guimarães (2011) is emphasised, and this led the two authors to present an integrated joint proposal on analytical models for ALE social policies (Lima & Guimarães 2011). The authors have subsequently published analytical work on ALE policies, including a historical interpretation of the Portuguese situation from the democratic revolution of 1974 to the present day (Lima & Guimarães, 2015), an analysis of certain shorter historical periods, and government programmes developed in recent years in Portugal (Guimarães, 2013; Lima 2013). They have also directed courses and seminars in various countries and have developed educational tools on the interpretation of ALE policies in various national and international contexts. With another author they also produced a preliminary analysis and comparative policy documents on the participation of EU countries in CONFINTEA VI (Barros, Guimarães, Lima, 2012). In this chapter, they decided to work in collaboration with a young researcher from Germany (Nathalie Touma) to provide an interpretation of government representations on the state of the art of ALE in Germany, Portugal and Sweden, focusing on certain categories of analysis that are set out below and which include the above-mentioned publications.

Theoretical and methodological considerations

Three ALE social policy analytical models will be briefly described, referring readers who wish to look at this proposal in more detail to the book by Lima and Guimarães (2011):

the democratic-emancipatory model, in which democratic participation and critical education are very important in relation to ALE actions, in particular popular and community education; *the modernisation and state control model*, based on public provision, the intervention of the welfare state and generally dominated by second-opportunity education guidance; and *the human resources management model*, in search of economic modernisation and the production of skilled labour, led by vocationalist ideologies for the production of human capital.

These are models that, thanks to their breadth, seek to understand the very different public policies adopted in countries and regions that are themselves also very different.

Despite the identification of three distinct ALE public policy models, independent of each other, it is important to note that their construction is part of a continuum or imaginary theoretical line where each model occupies a specific position. This means that the three models, although different from one another, are not exclusive and can even coexist. So cross-fertilisation or hybridisation is possible: rather than rigid and artificial possibilities of analysis, it is expected that these models can be regarded as heuristic devices for understanding public policies on ALE. The discussion on the developments in ALE based on policy documents and public policies implemented by various countries therefore shows that, in a particular period, one or two models had a higher profile than the others, or other. But the dominant character of any one model at a particular time, at the expense of the previous ones, does not mean that the subordinate models simply vanish from the scene, tending towards a *marginal survival*, sometimes offering active resistance and at others persisting in a restricted, muted or modest form. In fact, though many countries favour policies based on the human resources' management approach and on appeals to the market and civil society, other models are also used: some are linked to strong state intervention in the development of adult education and training systems or to engaging civil society in the promotion of various public provisions. Since there may be some crossovers in the models the reality can be marked by a considerable hybridism of policy decisions, which should be examined in light of the models proposed.

The public policy models on ALE are characterised through different categories of analysis, each of which comprises several intrinsically consistent dimensions. These analytical categories are: *political-administrative guidelines*, *political priorities*, *organisational and administrative dimensions*, *main conceptual elements of public policies*.

Political-administrative guidelines

These orientations relate to the laws, rules and norms that allow a public policy to be adopted. They consist of the legislative apparatus that provides the means for a policy to be implemented and include the establishment of conditions for accessing ALE initiatives and the involvement of the people attending them, the financing, controlling and evaluation of the actions proposed, and the organisation and management related to the development of these activities.

Political priorities

The political priorities concern the ends assigned to ALE, and the domains that a public policy focuses on, the relevant objectives and targets, target-groups and the amount of public funds allocated.

Organisational and administrative dimensions

These relate to the organisation, administration and management involved in adopting a public policy, including centralised and decentralised structures, the procedures and technical processes involved in carrying out ALE activities, quality assurance processes, evaluation and accountability procedures.

Conceptual elements

These are concerned with the theoretical references underlying the ends, methods and processes inherent to implementing a public policy, for instance, ALE conceptions, pedagogical models, forms of participation and assessment, etc.

The democratic-emancipatory model

One of the most significant aspects of this model is the influence of critical pedagogies that uphold an idea of education as lifelong, humanist, aimed at social development, and promoting social responsibility, a collective destiny, and democratic and cosmopolitan citizenship (cf. Lima 2005). From this viewpoint, public policies are instruments of social, economic, political, and cultural action for the state. The state is thus a determining agent for planning and intervention (Griffin, 1999a, p. 334), although open to challenge with respect to bureaucratic state control and under pressure to undertake democratic and participatory reinvention, particularly through social movements. A multi-faceted view of development (social, economic, cultural, and political) and participation (social, political, and civic) is allied to this understanding. One of the political priorities of this model is to build a democratic

and participatory society by means of a fundamental social right: education. Concerns with solidarity, social justice, and the common good are important and justify the establishment of basic education and education for democratic citizenship programmes, and the setting up of a broad range of initiatives to promote a civic sense and a critical and thoughtful capacity (cf. Guimarães, 2011).

With respect to the conceptual elements of this model, attention is drawn to the educational (not simply instructional) nature of the initiatives, through which local cultural traditions are valued, along with the adults' own life experience and understanding of the world. Based on ethical and political principles, often associated with participatory action-research in coordination with programmes backed by social policies (for childhood, the third age, vocational training, or for fighting poverty, including local job promotion, rural development initiatives, etc.), these actions' chief goal is to promote critical-based education, aimed at the transformation of decision-making power, and at social change.

There is a concern here to connect the individual facet of the act of learning to the collective facet of what is learned. The goals of learning are above all of a social and indirectly academic nature. Learning starts in social relations, continues throughout life, in all its aspects, based on social needs and leading to educational programmes that are meant for adults and their perceived needs. Here, the education and learning contexts are expanding to other areas (apart from school) in life, and there is a flexibility of times and spaces in which to learn, as there is in content and methods (cf. Sanz Fernández, 2008, p. 82).

In terms of the political-administrative guidelines, the actions implemented under the democratic-emancipatory model are noted for the decentralised control of education policy and administration and for the high degree of autonomy enjoyed by the organisations that stimulate ALE actions, including those linked to civil society and social movements.

This critical education model has had a major impact in different contexts of ALE. Until the mid-20th century in Europe, workers' groups and trade unions, folk high schools, social movements, pedagogical missions, and so forth sought to build a "project to promote political and civic awareness in citizens" (Finger & Asún, 2001, p. 97). Influenced by the ideas of the Enlightenment or by others that are about workers' and trade union education, many of these projects were designed to solve the problems faced by societies and benefited from charitable and voluntary work.

For example, in Sweden, a number of bodies were created after 1868 to implement actions to promote education (*folkbildning*). These organisations were notable for their freedom, independence of thought and autonomy and they developed

group activities, open classes, and other initiatives that aimed to meet specific educational needs. At first these popular education initiatives were attended by landowners, and later the workers used them as a way of gaining power (cf. Norbeck, 1979; Vallgårda & Lima, 1985; Larsson, 1998, 2001).

Among the popular education actions undertaken in Sweden and other Scandinavian countries, study circles have turned out to be particularly significant initiatives in terms of fostering democracy, self-management and critical and transforming education (cf. Vallgårda & Norbeck, 1986; Larsson, 1998, 2001).

In Germany, the Society for the Propagation of Popular Education, founded in 1871, was set up to support the development of popular emancipation movements. This body worked to set up other organisations that would spread culture and knowledge, establish public libraries and increase the number of classes and presentation sessions open to the public. University outreach was also invigorated and here the aim was to disseminate academic knowledge in accordance with the principles of the Enlightenment (cf. Nuissl & Pehl, 2000, p. 11; Lattke, 2008, p. 41). This Society's efforts, and those of others in the field of popular education, led to that very expression, *popular education,* becoming widespread. Popular education started out as education of ordinary people who were distinguished from those who had an erudite culture. It was an elementary, entry-level, education that expressed boundary between the various social groups and between other bodies that stimulated job-related training actions and received public funds in return (cf. Nuissl & Pehl, 2000, p. 12; Lattke, 2008, p. 41). This was how civil society gained strength, becoming self-organised and demanding, with respect to both the state and the market.

Portugal developed later and it was not until, initially, in the First Republic (1910–1926) and then after the democratic revolution in 1974, that democratic and emancipatory initiatives were developed with government support. These actions were fostered by state bodies, but to an even greater extent by non-state ones, in all kinds of projects and programmes. The popular education activities that were developed in the wake of the 1974 revolution (April 25th) elucidated this aspect, in particular the work done between popular associations and the Ministry of Education through the General Directorate of Permanent Education. Several quite separate initiatives were implemented, in particular the literacy programme, cultural and socio-educational projects, basic education actions, etc. In this complicated historical context there was an explosion of highly varied initiatives, actions included in community development projects undertaken by popular associations, by relatively informal groups that were motivated to respond to requests that emerged in local communities.

The modernisation and state control model

This model values education in a context of social and economic modernisation. In light of the interplay between democracy, economics, society, and culture, education policies seek to unite functions that favour the processes of accumulation and legitimation, emphasising the interventionist, dirigiste character of state action. With a backdrop of a Fordist work pattern, the state controls the means and ends of public policies, for which it profits from a mandate to achieve certain goals and outcomes that target social justice, equality, family and community solidarity, and social cohesion. As education is an essential pillar of social policies in the construction of a democratic capitalist state, it involves a set of processes that are directed at ensuring equal opportunities for everyone, especially for those who are less able to get education and training. The rules associated with increasing and expanding opportunities of access to successful education are getting more and more attention from the government. Its impact is therefore increasingly evident in practice, leading to the formalisation and bureaucratisation of processes (cf. Lima, 2005). This model stresses the *functional* nature of education, in which the welfare state fosters economic growth and full employment. Education, seen above all as the teaching given in school, is essential to training citizens (cf. Griffin, 1999a).

The most striking conceptual elements are related to reducing the field of adult education to formal and second chance education and to stressing the importance of targeting vocational training at promoting economic growth. This is why the conception of ALE in this model is largely reduced to the tasks of "reading, writing, and arithmetic", to learning of an academic, educational nature and to school-type vocational training. Memorising is emphasised and read texts are the main source of dialogue with the reader. Sanz Fernández says that it therefore promotes "receiving and mastering literacy". Seeking to "discipline the adult population" and to "educate to obey", it advances the instrumental (not social) use of reading and writing, and the results of education practices illustrate the efforts at social control and the reproduction of social inequalities (Sanz Fernández, 2008, p. 75 ff.).

In the European countries that share the welfare state format adult education took a form that is reminiscent of the centrality of the state in the context of specific historic circumstances (cf. Guimarães, 2011). These circumstances led to some countries putting in place mechanisms for formal education (for example, instruction and compensatory education) and non-formal education (retraining and professional adaptation, promotion of social participation, etc.) that were more structured than those seen up to the 2nd World War.

But there were variations. These are evident in the political ends which aimed to integrate workers as citizens into the modern state; they were intended to meet

the expectations of the people (and their children); and they guaranteed the public funding of education and training (cf. Esping-Andersen, 1990; Mishra, 1995; Giddens, 1999; Law, 1998; and others).

In post-war Germany, for example, adult education was directed toward new goals related to *re-education for democracy*, through political education (*Politische Bildung*) promoted by community education centres, by the education centres in the *Länder*, and by foundations. Companies, faith-based organisations and trade unions kept up the impetus for educational formats that already prevailed (cf. Nuissl & Pehl, 2000, p. 13). The schools, meanwhile, proposed a varied range of evening courses, lectures, courses on literature, religion, history, politics and music, the teaching of German and foreign languages, improving health, and so forth. They were voluntary activities and often involved people who already had some knowledge of the topics covered. On the whole these bodies did not offer courses that led to a diploma. Despite the range of programmes not many workers took advantage of them. It was different for boarding schools, since the content varied in terms of the trade union, religious, economic or social tendencies favoured by whoever ran them. Diversity also characterised the adults who took part in these initiatives; it was argued that these boarding schools helped to forge a high degree of social cohesion since they brought together people from different social groups (cf. Raapke, 2001, p. 188).

ALE played an important part in promoting the ideas of the Enlightenment until the 1960s and, as since then it integrated education policies, the responsibility of the state was obvious. It seemed that actions run by civil society bodies in the same decade had these goals diverted, since in an increasingly more plural context the organisations were more reliant on their ideological positions (religious and trade union related, for example) (cf. Nuissl & Pehl, 2000, p. 14).

But it was felt that the state should be responsible for stimulating a *fourth sector in the education system*, one that was stable and solid. This new sector included areas like continuing vocational training, political education and liberal education for adults (cf. Lattke, 2008). In 1970 the state, through the national education council, sought to incorporate different facets of the education system. It aimed to structure and organise *centrifugal tendencies* that were apparent in education, especially in adult education. That was when another expression emerged, continuing education (*Weiterbildung*), to describe the rebuilding of adult education; this expression came to include continuing vocational education, vocational retraining and compensatory adult education of a non-formal nature (cf. Raapke, 2001, p. 188 ff.). The older expression for ALE (*Erwachsenenbildung*) kept its association with liberal, general, civic and political education (cf. Lattke, 2008).

In Sweden, after World War II, popular education (*folkbildning*) emerged as the fundamental domain for promoting social change. In this it was a progressive force, *a reformist project in development*, since "the study circles have been educational arrangements which have chosen contents, forms and participants so as to promote social change" (Larsson, 1998, p. 58). But the dialectics established between popular education and Swedish society became less obvious after World War II. For example, since then the state has been supporting folk high schools and paid the monitors of the study circles, the teachers and the administrative staff. It has also given scholarships to students. It should be noted that these institutions nonetheless enjoyed a high degree of autonomy; they could set goals, decide on the nature of the education (usually comprehensive), teaching methods (usually active) and the participants, who came from various social groups (though these mostly belonged to the working middle class), and the length of most of the courses (short, medium or long duration) (cf. Vallgårda & Lima, 1985).

Meanwhile, with consolidation of the welfare state, the minimisation of social problems and increasing income earned for work led to the emergence of *active social policies* as a determining factor for economic stability and the promotion of full employment. As a result, training programmes aimed at integrating people into the labour market were implemented and so, as Rubenson says, the reform of adult education demonstrated the influence of the theory of human capital (cf. Rubenson, 2004). In the same vein, the successive reforms in the second half of the 20th century allowed the formal education system to expand to include more and more people. *Recurrent education* appeared as a basic idea used to argue that everyone should enjoy equal rights with respect to education, regardless of their social origin, gender, etc. (cf. Rubenson, 1994).

In Portugal this rationale became clearer after the Basic Law for the Education System and Portugal's membership of the European Economic Community (EEC). In terms of priorities, therefore, we should note the return to educational guidance and second-chance education, i.e. compensatory education. This return was confirmed by the emphasis given to second-chance education in evening classes. Supplementing the endeavour to modernise the economy, this rationale downgraded issues of literacy, basic education and popular education. These were areas of intervention seen, as far as public policies were concerned, as being generically incompatible with the idealised place and coveted status of an EU country whose main challenges were identified with its economic modernisation and in relation to infrastructure, with the efficacy and efficiency of public and private management, increasing productivity, and internationalisation and competitiveness in the economy (cf. Lima, 2005).

The human resources management model

This model stresses the withdrawal of the state that is justified by the internationalisation of the economy, global competition, and diminishing public resources (cf. Guimarães, 2011). Despite the problems arising from an adverse economic, social, and political context, public policies favour the maintenance of redistributive principles, given that lifelong learning remains a way of providing education and training (a function of the state) and that it embraces the concern of preserving the state's strategic ability to establish policy, albeit on an increasingly short or medium-term basis. But the state is also losing control of the purposes of education. The reduction of its ability to determine the results of these policies has become clearer, despite the efforts to regulate and the adoption of measures of enforcement (cf. Griffin, 1999a, 1999b).

Although education retains an important collective dimension, the individual acquires new responsibilities. Among these are "learning to adapt oneself" to the changes being faced, and "being able to choose and decide" about the best options for the social and economic transformations taking place. This is where we find education and economics drawing closer, in an appeal for greater productivity, competitiveness, and flexibility; and it is in this context that we find an understanding of education (training and learning) as an investment, with frequent analogies between training and financial capital. In these policies, learners are those who "learn throughout life" in places and at times outside the school context, and those who are "better educated", that is, those who have spent more time at school, and are "better trained" in terms of knowledge and skills related to the workplace. Some degree of interaction between the school and the lifelong learning strategies outside this organisation is thus sought. Although they have different emphases, these policies are backing the maintenance of state involvement, while they denote a distance from training policy and planning and a nearness to "government strategies" (Griffin, 1999a, p. 339).

The human resources management model focuses on the acquisition of competences (which are not promoted in the provisions currently available in the education systems). The term *competence* may embrace a wide variety of meanings; here, it is taken to be something that adults should have, because it is believed that each individual must have the "competence needed to compete", namely to gain employment (cf. Lima, 2005). Despite its relevance, competence has been viewed as knowledge acquired by each individual from his/her experience in different non-formal and informal contexts. Above all, it has a utility value. It shows that individuals are able to carry out a specific task. In addition, competence has been seen as measurable ability and knowledge that has yet to be assessed and formally

documented. Consequently, learning is to convert one-self "into one of the most attractive investments for businessmen and one of the priority claims (besides pay and health) of workers". In this scenario, "the productivity and competitiveness of economic agents are based on their ability to process and apply knowledge effectively" (Sanz Fernández, 2008, p. 94).

In Germany the possibility of establishing a permanent training market was discussed in 1984. It would be linked to giving adults qualifications with the aim of combating unemployment. Although it was not fully followed, according to Nuissl and Pehl, this discussion marked the start of the steady withdrawal of the state from ALE by instituting competition between promoters of adult education, at federal level and within the states (*Länder*). But even today the *Länder* retain certain control and regulatory functions, typical of the welfare state (cf. Nuissl & Pehl, 2000).

Since then, according to Raapke (cf. 2001), though deregulation has not been complete, there have been important reductions in the financial, material and human resources bestowed on adult education. These reductions had an un-equal distribution: in some places ALE seemed to strengthen its position since some public organisations still had some budgetary independence, but market mechanisms appeared to rule in others. But the overall responsibility of the state declined and it now has fewer responsibilities for adult education; in fact it was often argued that adults should take charge of their own education and training and that state support could only be justified in very special circumstances or for particular social groups. So training for the common interest involved some tension, since the state and local authorities still controlled and funded some initiatives, though this represented only a small part of continuing education (*Weiterbildung*).

In Portugal the policies adopted from the end of the 1990s, like adult education and training, which can be related to this model, tended toward modernisation "so as to respond positively to the so-called *challenges* of European integration, requiring the state and public administration to make a greater structural effort and devise active policies for integration and convergence". These concerns were not completely unknown in Portugal since, even in the 1950s, the significance of modernisation and the content of measures dependent on efforts to develop the economy were discussed. But after Portugal joined the EEC and adopted policies influenced by guidance issued by this supranational body, the emphasis was on ideas like "useful learning", "acquisition of skills to compete", "lifelong upskill-ing" and "education for employability". It was asked to adopt measures that were "instant and short term that chose 'trainability' over education, and individual

responsibility over social responsibility and collective destiny, as pillars of the proposed policies" (cf. Lima, 2005, p. 46).

The recognition of learning acquired throughout life became a central issue in policy discourses in recent times in Sweden. This involved several risks. With respect to the Northern European models of the welfare state and adult education, in the last twenty years universalist and focused on employment, they have faced two threats, according to Rubenson. The first concerned political discourses in which education was strengthened as long as it considered the needs of the market and individual responsibility in adapting to the challenges that the knowledge economy entailed. In these discourses the needs of individuals, especially those arising "from the needs of the labour market", were the starting point for planning the provision of education. The second threat was linked to lifelong learning as public policy and individual project. In this context the collective efforts of the social movements and the associations that were promoting the study circles, for example, were downplayed and the traditional connection between civil society and popular education came out weaker (cf. Rubenson, 2004, p. 44).

This reasoning is based on the idea popular in political discourses that Swedish society, like other countries, is at risk and so the skills of its people are important to the construction of a knowledge economy. Everyone should have the competences that make them employable, and in this context the recognition, accreditation and validation of competences are essential. The skills that people develop during the course of their life should be utilised. In this regard, Andersson and Fejes state that the validation of competences was introduced into the discourse and public policies in Sweden in 1996, thereby increasing the chance of gaining qualifications. It also allowed education and training to develop to be more useful and relevant to people, since "there was no need to learn what was learned in the past". Competence took on a new meaning, stressing its usefulness (cf. Andersson & Fejes, 2005).

Analytical categories and dimensions

The three analytical models briefly presented here simultaneously comprise heuristic dimensions of research and didactic dimensions. They should be viewed as proposals open to social research and to the historical, cultural and educational diversity of the different contexts under study. This means that there may be a need to increase the number of models or to build sub-models and specifications within some or all models now presented. They are not the realities and political specificities of ALE that are expected to integrate perfectly into the

three analytical models proposed, instead they are the analytical models that should prove sufficiently open and flexible to handle the multiplicity of social policies of ALE.

A greater degree of openness is required in the case of aspects which are indicated below for each of the four categories of analysis presented earlier (Table 1). The inventory offered by the authors is merely indicative, in terms of both theoretical consistency and empirical occurrences in various contexts that have been studied over the last decade. Just as policy documents such as the national reports submitted to CONFINTEA VI are often marked by a certain "rhetoric" (Keogh, 2009, p. 9), by normative and mobilisation aspects that are typical of the role historically played by UNESCO (Milana, 2014), by dominant approaches and concepts of fashion, so, even in the case of our interpretation of instruments, it is necessary to avoid the nominalist approaches that reduce complexity, contradictions and paradoxes present in political speeches to the search for certain words or concepts. It is not, for instance, because legislation or a government report repeatedly mentions the words *democracy* and *participation* that they can immediately be integrated in the *democratic-emancipatory model*. There are, of course, several concepts and very distinct practices of democracy and participation, so it is necessary to understand the political-educational rationale and the historical and cultural context in which these concepts should be interpreted. In practical terms, it is more plausible to find practical situations that are characterised by the need to muster different analytical models simultaneously rather than a single pure and internally consistent mode.

Table 1: Analytical policy models of ALE (Adapted from Lima & Guimarães, 2011)

Rationales predo-minating in adult learning and edu-cation policies (Social Policies Models) Categories	Democratic-Eman-cipatory Model (Dimensions of DEM)	Modernisation and State Control Model (Dimensions of MSCM)	Human Resources Management Model (Dimensions of HRMM)
Political-adminis-trative guidelines	* Polycentric educa-tion systems based on participatory democracy * Decentralised control of policy and administration of education * Appreciation of bottom-up dyna-mics * Support of local, self-managed initi-atives * Leading role of education associ-ations and social movements […]	* Appreciation of edu-cation in the effort to modernise, encoura-ging efficacy, efficiency of public and private management, increa-sing productivity, the internationalisation of the economy and competitiveness in capitalist democracies * Centralised control of policy and adminis-tration of education by the state (supply-side) * Appreciation of state intervention as guarantee of universal, free public education […]	* Leading role ascribed to the market, civil so-ciety and the individual (demand-side) * Adoption of active policies for integration and convergence in EU context * Combination of logic of public service and programme logic, although the program-me logic in EU backed projects dominates * Promotion of part-nerships between state and other institutional actors […]

Rationales predo-minating in adult learning and edu-cation policies (Social Policies Models) Categories	Democratic-Eman-cipatory Model (Dimensions of DEM)	Modernisation and State Control Model (Dimensions of MSCM)	Human Resources Management Model (Dimensions of HRMM)
Political priorities	* Construction of a democratic and participatory society * Integration of basic, non-governmental groups in the definition and adoption of public policies * Solidarity, social justice, common good * Education established as a basic social right * Political, economic and cultural change * Education and training as process of empowerment […]	* Literacy programmes and encouragement of functional literacy * School education as means of social control * Appreciation of school-based guidelines * Second-chance education * Recurrent education and evening school for adults * Vocational training with school influence * Support for formal education according to formal rules and bureaucratic processes established by the welfare state […]	* Fostering employability, competitiveness, economic modernisation through education and training * Education and training as instruments of human capital and adaptation to economic imperatives * Education for adaptive function; citizenship for the market of consumers' economic freedoms * Development of vocational training * Upskilling, economically valuable skills * Certification of knowledge acquired by experience (from school and vocational) * Appreciation of market logic and individual choice […]

Rationales predominating in adult learning and education policies (Social Policies Models) Categories	Democratic-Emancipatory Model (Dimensions of DEM)	Modernisation and State Control Model (Dimensions of MSCM)	Human Resources Management Model (Dimensions of HRMM)
Organisational and administrative dimensions	* Appreciation of intervention of civil society (associations and community sector concerned with adult education, popular associations) * Local self-organisation, autonomy and creativity of bodies behind initiatives * Participatory forms aiming at collective decisions, i.e. participatory budget […]	* School as central organisation in public adult education policies * Courses for young people and adults * Strongly educational administrative and management procedures […]	* Adoption of managerialist, procedures for induction and management of human resources * Appeal to non-state organisation (third sector and market) involvement * Partnerships * Creation of state management and administration structures having some independence, though with limited scope for educational intervention (minimalist structures, for induction, mediation) […]

Rationales predominating in adult learning and education policies (Social Policies Models) Categories	Democratic-Emancipatory Model (Dimensions of DEM)	Modernisation and State Control Model (Dimensions of MSCM)	Human Resources Management Model (Dimensions of HRMM)
Conceptual elements of public policies	* Adult education as a sector characterised by heterogeneity and diversity * Appreciation of basic education, popular education, basic literacy, socio-cultural and socio-educational animation * Educational nature of the actions, appreciation of collective knowledge and experience * Ethical and political dimension of education * Participatory action-research projects, participatory research * Basic civic education (aims at political and economic democratisation, power relations transformation, social change, empowerment) […]	* Formal education of adults as a social right * Integration of non-formal education into the public education system according to the latter's rules * Education as instrument for promoting equal opportunities * Appreciation of vocational training (according to educational guidelines) * Adult education as second-chance education and recurrent education *Education for modernisation and economic development of the nation state […]	* Vocationalism and continuing vocational training * Production of human capital * Continuing training aimed to remedy obsolescence of vocational knowledge, retraining, recycling * Useful learning and education for employability * Lifelong upskilling and acquisition of skills to compete * Recontextualisation of active methods and participatory techniques (like collaborative work) * Resemanticisation of ideas like democracy, participation, autonomy, freedom * Promotion of trainability and individual responsibility […]

National reports as policy documents and representations of ALE

National reports submitted to CONFINTEA VI are ALE policy documents that are particularly useful for drafting a preliminary analysis based on the three analytical models proposed by Lima and Guimarães (2011). Indeed, these documents represent rational choices made by government authorities in each of the participating countries as to what in that historic moment they understood to be the organisation, priorities and the development of ALE. They are, therefore, government representations of social policies of ALE that have been adopted internationally, involving historical and cultural aspects, and perhaps some diversity of policy guidelines. In each national report we can find normative statements and implicit and explicit definitions of ALE as a field of policy and practices. The limitations of these documents are, moreover, those which depend on the greater or smaller distance between policy statements and the dominant social representations on the one hand, and effective and practical achievements in terms of specific activities and projects of ALE, on the other.

Political-administrative guidelines

As mentioned before, Germany has a tradition in the field of public policies on ALE (Nuissl & Pehl, 2004), as stated in the report under consideration. In line with this expression and with that tradition, this domain refers to processes that happen after primary education and carry on throughout life but not including higher education. Over the past four decades, public policies for this sector have been framed by the *Deutscher Bildungsrat* of 1970, which states that ALE is the "the necessary and lifelong complement to initial education (…), the continuation or the recommencement of organised learning following completion of the training phase of whatever length" (Germany, 2008).

This broad definition of ALE could fit a wide range of policies. The role assigned to the state of defining values and principles of action plays a part in this finding, particularly when the report in question states that

> *"The activity of the state in the area of continuing education is generally limited to the stipulation of principles and basic parameters and to the introduction of rules to ensure that continuing education is properly organised and supported" (Germany 2008, p. 147).*

It goes on to say that "Continuing education is less regulated by the state than other areas of education. The field of continuing education features a high level of pluralism and competition among providers" (Germany, 2008, p. 147). This raises the possibility that aspects of a range of ALE policies are likely to be found.

This likelihood is reinforced in the document under review since it mentions the intervention of other local actors such as non-governmental and non-profit organisations that could be closer to democratic and emancipatory policies and critical adult education practices of a participatory and transforming nature. But the German report emphasises the implementation of activities by state and non-state organisations related to work and employment, both commercial and non-profit. Therefore, although it can be said that in terms of principles and values the possibility is mentioned that the principles of three different models of public policy could be adopted, stress is nonetheless placed on aspects consistent with the models of modernisation and state control and of human resources management.

The range of entities involved in the public provision of ALE and the implementation of very varied provision indicates the importance accorded to the intervention of the *Länder*. The *Länder* have expertise in setting priorities and specific targets, taking into account the local dimensions in educational provision. This is why instances arise that can play a significant role in establishing and controlling the public provision (Germany, 2008, p. 156), in monitoring and evaluating the educational provision and in setting up local networks (Germany, 2008, p. 152). Because of the contextualised nature of the intervention of the *Länder*, possibilities of alternative intervention with respect to the state may arise. However, due to the centrality ascribed to the economic development in public policy on ALE in this country, there seems to be a strong relationship between the state and entities related to vocational training, private, for-profit and sectoral, which can be seen, for example, in the level of funding allocated to this sector (Germany, 2008, pp. 161–173). This option seems to favour the adoption of public policies to modernise and control, coordinated with other human resources management policies that cater to concerns about economic growth and increased productivity.

The Portuguese report differs from the other two because it takes adult education to mean "adult education and training". In keeping with this expression, this document only gives importance to basic education, i.e. to school certification, and to vocational training by obtaining the professional qualification and there is no mention of other sectors such as local development, which has a long history in this country, popular education, socio-cultural activities and so on. This preference for a more restricted expression for ALE certainly comes from a lack of tradition in public policy, as well as the intermittent and discontinuous nature of many of the programmes implemented in Portugal in the last five decades (Lima, 2005).

In implementing ALE public policy, the state seems to be a key player in the context of just one action programme, the New Opportunities Initiative. Accordingly, the focus is on central government bodies in the formulation and

adoption of this policy strategy. While the two other reports talk about different levels of intervention, central and local, the Portuguese paper highlights the role of public state bodies at central level, with no mention of other agencies, state or non-state, in the definition of public provision.

It says, however, that to achieve the goals of ALE public policy, other state and non-state entities, commercial and non-profit, are involved, but does not address the role of these organisations in other areas of ALE, nor is any kind of autonomy foreseen in the design, development or evaluation of provision included in the New Initiatives Opportunities. Moreover, it is envisaged that local-level entities should develop public provision, although the report in question does not make it clear what tradition these entities have in ALE, or what interaction can be achieved between a pre-defined intervention programme that has strict operating rules and these entities, with their knowledge of the localities in which they operate. It thus seems to note an instrumentalisation of various entities regarding political purposes chosen based on problems that seem to have a national meaning, such as the Portuguese "educational backwardness" and the lack of competitiveness of the national economy, without any consideration of the needs, expectations and motivations of local promoters and individuals.

As for the Swedish report, this has been drafted in a country with a long tradition in ALE public policy, particularly in the context of popular and non-formal education (Larsson, 1998). Regarding state action, there is a commitment to coordination between principles and priorities, actors and different levels of intervention. The report under consideration stresses the role of the state in setting policy priorities and intervention strategies. In this regard, it says that,

> "The role of the state is to create the opportunities for versatile learning and the national strategy to support both organised and non-organised learning situations" (Sweden, 2008, p. 4).

While the state has the task of establishing the principles, values and guidance of public policies, it is at local level that the public provision is developed, specifically the setting of goals and the educational outcomes to attain. Thus, ALE in this country is decentralised (Sweden, 2008, p. 3), as it is locally, in the municipalities that public provision is organised and implemented.

Like the German and Portuguese reports, this document also states that the purpose of the educational policies is to make Sweden a nation with a lifelong learning system of high quality, directed at economic growth and in line with the model of public policy for modernisation and social control. But, unlike the two other reports, there is a strong emphasis on ALE, which this document identifies as "adult education" on promoting social justice, democracy and citizen participation

(Sweden, 2008, p. 4). Thus, it stresses interaction between the collective and individual dimensions of education, between promoting economic development and enhancing democracy, and between achieving equal opportunities and meeting the interests and educational needs of citizens. While the state retains the tasks of establishing priorities and developing public provision, through, for example, the allocation of funds (Sweden, 2008, pp. 13–15), this report contains a clear focus on the individuals, their interests and motivations, and their social and personal development. In this context, the intervention of local ALE entities has proved to be essential. There seems to be a commitment to interaction between the state, which provides conditions for the development of ALE policies, and local authorities, very varied, whether state or non-state, and the individuals in developing relevant learning that is useful to them (Sweden, 2008, p. 5), under the democratic and emancipatory guidelines and in light of other modernisation and social control guidance.

Political priorities

Participation in ALE arises in the three reports in question as a key political priority. This priority follows the trend of increasing adult participation in ALE actions recorded in many other countries (Bélanger & Federighi, 2001) particularly noticeable from the 1990s. In line with this trend, the reports in question underscore the importance of maintaining and increasing levels of participation, though in different ways.

In the German report, the main priorities identified suggest there are public policies that seek to create a comprehensive system of lifelong learning, which can refer to a combination of models, with the spotlight on democratic and emancipatory policies. In this regard, it says that adult education aims "to enable [people] to develop their personal, professional and social prospects free from the daily pressures of work in a way that extends beyond merely updating their skills for the workplace" (Germany, 2008, p. 171).

This document highlights the need to encourage all citizens to take part in ALE, by accomplishing equality of opportunities and respect for the voluntary nature of participation by adults. It also looks closely at strategies for the social inclusion of certain social groups, such as the elderly, the 50-plus initiative (2007), and immigrants, with reference to the 2005 Immigration Act and the National Integration Plan, 2006. It also includes the development of provision in areas as diverse as combating poverty, basic education, vocational training, environmental education, for example, in the context of UN Decades and political and civic education (Germany, 2008, pp. 158–160).

Many of these initiatives are intended to strengthen inclusion and social cohesion and share the educational goals specified by the state, in order to build an integrated lifelong learning/training/education policy. Note however that this report also emphasises that increased participation in ALE should consider economic development, particularly when it states that "Continuing education and lifelong learning are key prerequisites for the strengthening of innovative potential in Germany" (Germany, 2008, p. 160). This emphasis falls on the priorities of modernisation and social control and human resource management. At the same time, the focus of various programmes on the elderly and immigrants is based on a desire to make the German economy competitive within Europe and worldwide, and there is a perceptible stress on the role of ALE in increasing productivity and flexibility of the individuals in the labour market. These concerns clearly approach the human resources management approach.

The Portuguese report mentions the aim of increasing participation rates in ALE by increasing the levels of basic education and vocational qualification certification of the Portuguese population in an effort to accomplish modernisation and social control policy guidance. That purpose is stated in a single programme: the New Opportunities Initiative. This purpose is supplemented with another that envisages ALE public policy interacting with economic development strategies such as the National Employment Plan and the Technological Plan (Portugal, 2008, p. 2), in which case the concern with the principles of modernisation and social control and human resource management is evident.

These purposes arise in the context of globalisation and the restructuring of the Portuguese economy, also in keeping with the lifelong learning perspective established by the EU as part of human resources management principles, and with values related to social cohesion aimed at the integration of different participants in ALE, in line with the modernisation and social control and democratic and emancipatory models.

Concerns about participation are important in the Portuguese report, although there are no explicit references to particular social groups that may be in disadvantaged situations in educational terms. While this is an interesting justification, it is still strange to choose a single priority, that of including a significant number of adults in two ALE certifying and/or qualifying provisions in a short time, given that the established time frame runs from 2000, when the indicated provisions were created and 2010, the end of the New Opportunities Initiative. We can thus see the temporary nature of a programme that calls for an urgent solution to a longstanding problem in Portuguese society, with strong generational impacts, as some tables in the report show (Portugal, 2008, p. 5). For this reason as there

is no structural policy on ALE in Portugal, the report seems to have bet heavily on the New Opportunities Initiative to solve problems that have long been a feature of the national economy. This finding becomes clearer when we look at the example of the elderly and of immigrants. All the reports analysed contain references to immigrants, accompanied, in the case of the German and Swedish reports, by data concerning population ageing and specific public provision for this social group (e.g. German and Swedish courses for foreigners). Quantitative data in the Portuguese report indicate the existence of an ageing population and a foreign population (Portugal, 2008, p. 8), although there is no mention anywhere of educational and/or training provision aimed at these individuals.

In line with the objectives established for its public policy on ALE, Sweden's report stresses the role of this domain in the interplay between economic growth and consolidation of democracy, pointing to features of the modernisation and social control and democratic and emancipatory models. In this regard, the report cites the Education Act Chapters 1–9 when it states that,

> *"The activities within the national adult education system shall be structured in accordance with fundamental democratic values. Each and every person who is active within that school system shall promote respect for the intrinsic value of every human being and for our common environment" (Sweden, 2008, p. 9).*

In connection with the consolidation of democracy through the stated purposes, special emphasis is given to the individual, particularly the personal aspect of life in society, though the collective aspect of individual action is not ignored, i.e. with respect to social differences. Thus it says that, "Adult education should also contribute to providing the individual with opportunities for growth and development and reducing gaps between groups in society" (Sweden, 2008, p. 4).

In the report, state action is addressed relative to the individual dimension, particularly when it says that it is responsible for this task of promote opportunities for individuals to develop learning in a variety of times and contexts. For this reason, it mentions principles that entities locally entrusted with implementing the public provision must respect, such as educational flexibility (particularly in methods and information and communication technology) and favouring conditions for learning to continue throughout life. It also reinforces the idea that these principles must meet the interests, needs and abilities of individuals (Sweden, 2008, p. 4), particularly those at greatest educational disadvantage. As it says, ALE is,

> *"Primarily to those who have received the least education shall here be given an opportunity to strengthen their position in working life and in cultural and political life" (Sweden, 2008, p. 8).*

The Swedish report also highlights the importance of gender equality in the public provision as well as the valuing of knowledge acquired through experience, through validation. It also stresses the importance of ALE in integrating individuals with special needs, including immigrants who can attend different educational activities about Swedish culture and language, organised by the municipalities and publicly funded (Sweden, 2008, p. 10).

It is within priorities that focus mostly on the subjects, according to a humanistic view of education, which can be taken as the characterisation of adult participation in ALE. While, in the German report, increased attendance of ALE activities is particularly linked to the intervention of the *Länder* whose priority is to facilitate access and increase participation, in the Swedish report another factor seems to contribute to participation levels that are already high compared with those of other countries: the range of provision open to people, including basic education, upper secondary education, supplementary education, municipal education for adults with learning disabilities, Swedish tuition for immigrants, independent supplementary education, advanced vocational training, distance education provided by the Swedish Agency for Flexible Learning as well as folk high schools and study circles (Sweden, 2008, pp. 16–20).

Thus, in Sweden, the call for participation is made in the context of diversification of educational provision, both formal and other non-formal. The need for ALE to meet the interests, motivations and needs of the individuals is highlighted at various points throughout the document, and these may or may not be linked to problems related to employment and work, depending on the principles of the democratic and emancipatory model.

One cannot help but notice that, to add to the range of provision available in Sweden, the report also highlights the 1997 Adult Education Initiative, designed to improve the skills of the workforce, particularly in the case of social groups with poorer skills. As with the political priorities identified for this country, this programme also seeks to combine several objectives:

> "The initiative has had four vital perspectives – the renewal of labour market and education policies, more equitable distribution and increased economic growth" (Sweden, 2008, p. 19),

and for this reason it accentuated the role of ALE in economic development and human resources management.

Organisational and administrative dimensions

It is in the organisational and administrative areas that aspects that fall into the policy models of modernisation and social control and human resources

management in all countries. In the German report, national public policies are defined by the Federation and, in an effort at decentralisation, (Germany, 2008, p. 158), they are implemented by the *Länder*. There, the State, through the Federation and the *Länder*, has "the responsibility for continuing education (…) through legal rules and the earmarking of appropriate financial resources" (Germany, 2008, p. 243). The decentralised nature of ALE public policy depends on strong educational management procedures, particularly in the case of private organisations and those public sector adult education ones that have to apply through a tender process (Germany, 2008, pp. 204–209). As responsibilities are transferred to levels closer to the people and entities that promote ALE locally, there are worries about the control and the quality of educational provision, because the number and variety of organisations involved in public provision should be taken into consideration. As is emphasised in this document, a

> *"(…) reporting system [was] set up for the long term and designed to produce information on all aspects of the education system every two years in future." (Germany, 2008, p. 206).*

While the *Länder* have important responsibilities for ALE public policy, many tasks are carried out by non-state entities. These entities differ in terms of size, internal structure, legal status, the goals that guide their actions, the activities and projects they implement and the participants involved. Now, these various education providers have been accompanied since the 1980s by the construction of an education market. As it is said in this report, "Commercial continuing education market has become increasingly established" (Germany, 2008, p. 176) as a result of a fall in public funding given that the last decade has seen "clear falls in the subsidies provided by the *Länder* for continuing education"(Germany, 2008, p. 167).

Consequently, the implementation of these public policies is accompanied by various evaluation and quality control mechanisms, including evaluation studies for different programmes and provision, impact surveys, work on the quality of ALE activities and programs as well as the certification system (Germany, 2008, pp. 205–206). These works are used by entities that promote ALE so that they can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their education proposals in line with the public policy models of modernisation and social control and human resource management.

The Portuguese report also highlights the role of the state in implementing the ALE policy through the intervention of central government entities, such as the ministries of education, labour and solidarity, and the National Agency for Qualification (ANQ), which, as it says, coordinates and controls the activity of 457 local centres. Regarding these centres, the report notes the rapid expansion of these centres since 2000, when six were set up, further emphasising the urgent

need of results. These centres should concentrate on participants who are "poorly qualified" and already working, fostering their employability so that they can overcome "their precarious situation due to their low level qualifications" (Portugal, 2008, p. 10). It also indicates that these centres can be accommodated in very diverse entities, from general education school organisations, vocational training centres, non-profit organisations and civil society, business, professional, labour and sectoral agencies, etc. (Portugal, 2008, p. 11).

If the purposes assigned to centres that differ so widely are legitimate, given the characterisation of the education circumstances of the Portuguese population described in the report, the goals that the New Opportunities Initiative intended to be achieved by 2010, the year that the programme should be ended, seem ambitious. This programme was intended "to qualify 1,000,000 active workers by 2010" (Portugal, 2008, p. 3), which corresponds to about 10per cent of its population. In greater detail, the Portuguese report aims at the certification and qualification 350,000 individuals at the compulsory education levels of 9 and 12 years, attendance of adult education and training courses, and 650,000 individuals certified and qualified through the recognition of prior learning (Portugal, 2008, pp. 10–11).

To achieve these results, taking into account the involvement of so many different bodies, a system to control and monitor the public provision was set up, called the "Integrated System for Management of the double certification training provision" that should contribute to the " efficacy, efficiency and quality assurance" of the ALE system built within the New Opportunities Initiative (Portugal, 2008, p. 11). This system is given some attention in the report, together with other mechanisms such as the New Opportunities Centres Quality Charter that "aims to improve and promote quality assurance" in the recognition of prior learning processes. The monitoring meetings held with all of those involved in the public provision (Portugal, 2008, p. 23), and also the external evaluation of the New Opportunities Initiative developed by the Portuguese Catholic University were also referred. Regarding this assessment, it states that,

> "*The aims of the evaluation study [the external evaluation study of the New Opportunities Initiative] are to assess the political measure, its intervention structure and the procedures implemented, as well as the quality of the outputs and the satisfaction level of the adults involved. These studies aim also to produce or improve tools to assess permanently the system procedures out outputs*" (Portugal, 2008, p. 23).

Thus, the control and evaluation mechanisms mentioned in both the German and Portuguese reports suggest the possibility of entities competing for funds, which implies the adoption of principles of modernisation and social control model, but, above all, of human resources management model. The situation is quite different

in the Swedish report. This document highlights state intervention and, above all, intervention by the municipalities under the provision of formal education. Thus,

> *"The division of responsibilities is based on the main principle that the Riksdag and the Government should control educational activities by defining national goals, while central authorities, municipalities and the organisers of the different institutions are responsible for ensuring that educational activities are implemented in line with the legislative framework and that the national goals for the education are achieved." (Sweden, 2008, p. 8).*

It goes on,

> *"Instruments used to promote adult education include: Setting up overall goals for publicly funded adult education, Regulating the rights of adults to education and the obligation of educational providers, Wide-ranging financial support to municipalities, folk high schools and adult study associations and educational organisers, A generous system for study support to adults" (Sweden, 2008, p. 4).*

These policy guidelines encourage the achievement of establishing the right to education, i.e. formal education, which encompasses the provision of basic adult education, upper secondary adult education and supplementary education, education for adults with learning disabilities and tuition for immigrants. This commitment chimes with the principles of the modernisation and social control model. In addition, the scope of action of the municipalities covers: the obligation to offer a range of provision, in the form of courses and it should eventually be possible to call on non-municipal entities to do this, if municipalities lack the conditions; facilitating access and thus stimulating the participation of all, regardless of gender, age, and level of education; the development of courses that match the demand for education and the needs of individuals, such as immigrants aged over 16, for whom municipalities must offer Swedish courses within three months of the need of these individuals to attend such courses being known, so that they can learn the language and culture and become socially and professionally integrated as quickly as possible (Sweden, 2008, pp. 9–11).

In order to further involve the municipalities in educational provision, the same report also indicates that,

> *"A major part of liberal education is closely connected with popular movements and other organisations that are either members of study associations or connected with folk high schools. Unlike other educational institutions, folk high schools and study associations are not required to follow centrally established curricula." (Sweden, 2008, p. 11).*

We can see, therefore, that apart from state action through the municipalities Swedish public policy tasks civil society with carrying out non-formal education activities. The priorities of these entities are in line with the values and principles

established by ALE policy and must strive to "bridge educational gaps" by target-ing people "who are disadvantaged educationally, socially and culturally" such as those of foreign descent, the physically or mentally disabled and the unemployed (Sweden, 2008, p. 11). Furthermore, these priorities allow the individuals who attend these activities to take part in setting objectives and content, thus meeting their expectations and needs. For these reasons, as stated in the Swedish report, the actions implemented by the folk high schools and study associations include a significant range of activities (music, theatre, health promotion, etc.), with about 300,000 courses being held per year, involving a very large number of adults (about 1.5 million).

   Given the range of entities involved in ALE provision, the emphasis placed by the Swedish report on the systems for monitoring and evaluating the public provision relate the increased autonomy granted to local entities with increased responsibility and accountability. The public provision is monitored and evalu-ated via: i) inspections carried out by state agencies; ii) national and international evaluations that result in the presentation of public reports on a regular basis (Sweden, 2008, p. 21). In this regard there is a focus on monitoring and evalu-ation carried out by the state through various strategies, noticing the relationship between the results obtained in these studies and state funding to be granted to public provision. These quality control mechanisms endeavour to increase the responsibility of the local actors (notably promoters and adult educators), in line with the model of modernisation and social control, and they can also support an emerging competitive system of entities promoting ALE, depending on the human resources management model.

Conceptual elements

The programmes and activities described in the German report are as diverse as the entities that are involved in ALE. This document indicates general education, cultural and civic initiatives. These actions include second chance formal educa-tion, language learning, courses related to information and communication tech-nology, education initiatives for citizenship, and other cultural, health promotion and environmental protection education actions. Other general, civic and cultural education activities can be found in adult education centres. These may include content such as information and communication technology, language learning and also broach related topics such as health (Germany, 2008, pp. 181–185).

   This variety could suggest principles of the democratic and emancipatory pub-lic policy model. However, the importance given to vocational training actions should be noted: initial; continuous, which is the most significant in terms of the

number of programmes; retraining; further development. This is in keeping with the principles of the modernisation and social control model, and with human resources management, too, because companies are the entities with the most ALE provision and highest volume of participation involved (Germany, 2008, pp. 180–181). In the same vein, this report states that the promotion of education and lifelong learning with objective to equip

> *"People with the tools they need for mastering the challenges and using the opportunities of globalization (…) Lifelong learning must become a matter of course in our rapidly changing society. No one should be left behind in the process of modernisation because of inadequate opportunities for education and training. (…) We must continue our efforts (…) to gear adult education programmes to the interests of people and the demands of a changing economy" (Germany, 2008, p. 5).*

It is also indicated in this report that,

> *"(…) there is a need for greater responsibility and civic commitment on the part of the individual. This is an area in which continuing education can help to inform people, open up prospects for action and promote the development of positive values." (Germany, 2008, p. 161).*

We find an emphasis on economic development, while individuals are given responsibility for building their paths of education and training. This trend fits with the legislation recently adopted in this country in relation to ALE that seeks to coordinate with the EU guidelines, influenced by principles of human resources management (Field, 2006 and Milana & Holford, 2014, among others). This coordination between German ALE public policy and EU guidance has been helped by an extended national consultation on the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, which took place in 2000/2001, the Fourth Recommendation on Continuing Education, 2001, the adoption of the Strategy for Lifelong Learning in the Federal Republic of Germany, 2004 (Germany, 2008, pp. 153–156). These documents show us the building of a "comprehensive system of lifelong learning" (Germany, 2008, p. 152), in an "information and knowledge society", in "Europe as the world's most competitive economy". This is the route by which, in addition to programmes that favour sectors such as vocational training and basic education, in harmony with strategies linked to EU purposes, others are linked to reinforcing "the concept of individual responsibility and self-direction on the part of the learner" and "to improve the ease of movement around the education system and to improve the link-up between all areas of education (through, for example, modular courses and the recognition of skills" (Germany, 2008, p. 152).

The connection of public policy on ALE to EU guidance is even more evident in the Portuguese report. Although both the German and Swedish reports contain

references to learning throughout life, to build a society and an economy based on knowledge, as well as more consistent keywords with discourses that propagate the EU guidance, it is in the Portuguese report that the presence of such ideas is most evident. This is particularly noticeable in the narrow understanding of ALE, limited to education (formal) and training (through obtaining vocational qualifications) that lead to the development of economically useful knowledge and skills. As stated in that report,

> *"Over the last decades, Portugal has made a significant effort to qualify the general population, and the adults in particular, so as to make up the lag separating us from the other developed countries. (…) Being insufficient and slow the recovery, the actual Government decided to do more, better and deeper to overcome the low levels of education and qualification of the Portuguese population and stated in 2005 the New Opportunities Initiative as a national strategy within the scope of the National Employment Plan and the Technological Plan" (Portugal, 2008, p. 2).*

Two public provisions are so named in this report, i.e. the recognition of prior learning and adult education and training courses. These two provisions cover basic education equivalent to 9 and 12 years of compulsory schooling, and vocational training that leads to professional qualification (Portugal, 2008, pp. 10–11). Informal education is also rated highly, through the recognition of prior learning, which is expected to yield the largest number of certifications by 2010.

This focus can also be noticed in the funding of ALE under the New Opportunities Initiative. In this context, support for the development of public provision had two sources, namely, the EU, through the European Social Fund, 75per cent of the total funds, and 25per cent from Portugal, provided through the national budget. The data show a progressive increase in funding of this sector since the beginning of the 2000s (Portugal, 2008, p. 14).

The German and Swedish reports both indicate a significant number of ALE activities, but there is a particular emphasis on liberal adult education. In this case, the Swedish report says that this type of ALE is carried out by the folk high schools and study associations, with a view to the participation of "all groups in society" covering "a broad range of subjects at various levels" (Sweden, 2008, p. 6). These actions have no pre-defined curriculum, given that they aim to meet the demand for liberal education, not an educational and pedagogical structure or established recipients, and can therefore be attended by all those who wish to make. In this regard, it states that,

> *"The freedom to determine own activities and educational profile affords each folk high school and study association considerable scope to design and tailor its courses to suit a range of target groups." (Sweden, 2008, p. 11).*

In addition, it highlights the concern to tailor the provision to the needs and interests of the participants, encouraging them to participate, particularly through financial support. This is why they are supported by state funds offers where,

> *"People are given the opportunity to influence their situation in life and take part in social development. Democracy is to be strengthened and developed. Interest in culture is to be broadened and participation and individual's own creativity is to be furthered" (Sweden, 2008, p. 11),*

in line with the principles of the democratic and emancipatory model.

Towards a comprehensive interpretation

As noted in the above discussion, the studied reports described programmes and actions that contained elements of the three public policy models, albeit with varying degrees of focus on the characteristics of each model.

All the reports are committed to the development of basic education policies, including initiatives for second chance adult education, basic education and learning German and Swedish language and culture in an effort to ensure all the individuals from these countries or living in them, as in the case of immigrants, have the knowledge and basic skills for social, civic, cultural, political and economic intervention. Although included in different formal education programmes, in the cases of Germany and Sweden, or recognition of prior learning, in the case of Portugal, the country reports analysed for this article provided data that make it possible to fit these provisions into modernisation and social control policies.

In addition, it was also possible to ascertain the (increasingly strong) presence of a market, largely through developing programmes aimed at modernising the economy, in which significant emphasis is ascribed to the provision designed, achieved and evaluated by vocational training departments of companies, sectoral entities, for-profit organisations that invigorate training and retraining activities. These actions are mentioned in all the reports, revealing characteristics of the human resources management policy model and differing in relation to the public policy purposes and goals. In Germany, these activities were linked to the effort to qualify labour to work in certain economic sectors that offered the greatest potential for economic growth and increased productivity, while Portugal's commitment to these principles stemmed from the need to converge the national economy as part of a major restructuring, from its opening up since the 1980s and from the relatively low rates of education of its population. Although both countries were concerned with economic development, in fact these concerns were expressed in different purposes and in distinct programmes, as we have seen. In the case of Sweden, the characteristic elements of the human resources management model

were less evident, although some recent programmes relating to lifelong learning and keeping the Swedish economy one of the most competitive in the world, and concern for the validation of knowledge acquired throughout life were situated in this area.

But it was clear that more of the initiatives in Sweden required the involvement of civil society, including actions to promote democracy, equal opportunities, social justice and civic participation, than are mentioned in the German and Portuguese reports. Thus, except for the Swedish report, the characteristics of the democratic and emancipatory public policy model were those hardest to find in the texts in question contrary to the strong tradition of adult education, of challenge, resistance, social change and emancipation. This absence was particularly evident in the Portuguese report, due to the features of the programme implemented after 2005, the New Opportunities Initiative.

The inclusion of elements of various public policy models in the public policies of these countries was also evident, indicating intersections and hybridism. In this context, there was clear interaction between elements of the modernisation and social control policy model and the human resources management model in the organisational and administrative dimensions, as well as the policy and administrative guidance in all the countries studied, most clearly in Portugal and Germany. This interaction occurs in the context of societies in which we see strong changes in the economy, more and more computerised and marked by new forms of capitalist accumulation, in which workers need new knowledge and skills. Where we see interaction between elements of the modernisation and social control and democratic emancipatory models, this link was most visible in the policy priorities established in the Swedish report and less so in the German one. It seems that the belief that promoting this area can contribute to the consolidation of democracy, social justice, equal opportunities and solidarity still prevails at the level of the values defined for public policy on adult education. It is also in the conceptual elements, especially regarding the defence of the variety of adult education practices, the entities promoting educational provisions and the (individual and institutional) actors involved in this area, that there has been an intersection of elements more characteristic of the modernisation and social control and democratic emancipation models, particularly in the Swedish report. This variety to meet the needs, interests and motivations of adults and tried to sustain adult participation in programmes promoted in public policies.

It was more difficult, however, to find connections between all the models indicated in this article, i.e. modernisation and social control, management of human resources and democratic and emancipatory, in the areas chosen for this analysis.

This situation is indicative of the dwindling importance that policies relating to redistribution, social justice and even the consolidation of democracy have in European countries, particularly those that were studied through these reports. The exception to this is Sweden which, albeit with less force, still maintains policies related to democratic education and to personal and social development in a society whose benchmark values are the consolidation of democracy and the promotion of social justice. This country's report contains many instances of an effort to coordinate very different elements, characteristics of the three analytical models, thus reflecting the importance that the history of adult education still has in the educational provision available to adults.

Supra-national influence, national features and governmental priorities

The analysis of the selected documents revealed different policies, in which the dissimilarities were related to the search to respond to problems and contextual and/or cyclical needs. Here, adult education policies in the countries studied are still marked by difference, which derives mainly from state intervention, the market and civil society of a national nature. However, the similarities between the policies of the countries concerned were particularly evident. In this context, we draw attention to frequent references to the mega level, especially mentions of the EU and programmes such as the European Social Fund, intended mainly for the development of vocational training and qualification of labour. Apparently missing is UNESCO, which has played an important role in consolidating adult education as a field of reflection and even promotion of intervention programmes. Thus, references to the EU arise from the various actions that the countries under consideration implemented with European funding under the guidance of this supranational actor. In fact, the macro level, national in nature, still retains a strong presence in the reports. Even assuming that transnational influences affected, for example, leading economic enterprises such as the automotive sector, where innovation in vocational training served as a model for many other sectors of the economy, or, as happened with the international intervention of a development agency, government or non-government of Sweden and Germany in the 1960s and 1970s, the programmes implemented were notable for their national elements, and therefore differed from country to country in terms of cyclical and contextual elements. But, when producing policy guidelines and submitting funding programs to promote lifelong learning, the EU designed an effective political strategy of convergence of national practices in adult education, very targeted, however, at the economic development of certain sectors considered innovative and pivotal

to building a highly competitive economic zone in the global market. In this context, in which the characteristics of the human resources management model are particularly evident, state intervention at the macro level seems increasingly limited to basic education actions and the design and monitoring of regulatory and control mechanisms. Here, the state seems to take on more management functions, thereby relinquishing the political functions that particularly characterised the "30 glorious years" in the framework of the social contract and the enshrinement of training and education as basic social rights of workers and citizens. In this regard, while the three reports still feature the strong presence of the state, this relates more to the monitoring and evaluation of the provisions offered by this sector than to the public provision. While this circumstance is related to the fact that these are official documents, it is also true that the intervention of this actor seems to be in clear decline, particularly with respect to the state institutional provisions geared to adults. And here there appears a contradiction between the established government priorities, which still feature democratic and emancipatory elements, and the programmes and activities implemented that highlight the connection between the modernisation and social control and human resources management models that only studies at the meso and micro levels can clarify. But, as already mentioned, that task is beyond the scope of this article.

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Knowledge economy and demographic change: Comparative case study of Europe and South Asia

Abstract

Lifelong learning has the dual function of responding to societal challenges and economic growth. Two decades after the theorization of lifelong learning, Europe shows an economic and political integration worse than the expectations, partly due to the economic crisis. As a consequence, it is far from the strategic goal set by the Lisbon Strategy to become 'the world's most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy' (European Council, 2000). The theme of lifelong learning has grown in importance across the globe. Nonetheless, its discourse and implementation have changed across countries according to the peculiarities of global regions (population, policies, role of the state).

This has led to an uneven distribution of and participation in learning opportunities across the world, with deep effects on social cohesion (European Commission, 2013). What are the differences and similarities in the various regions of the world? Are they connected to different approaches to lifelong learning? Is it possible to identify a common global strategy?

The paper draws some conclusions about the approach to lifelong learning of policy makers from some countries of South Asia (Nepal and India) and Europe (Germany and Greece). The situation as described offers some grounds for optimism but also for concerns. Lifelong learning is a priority issue in many countries, especially after the development of the knowledge economy, but the efforts have produced different results: too narrow and small in some regions to address the Lisbon Strategy challenges, often resulting from historical, socio-economic, and demographic differences that characterise those regions.

Continued attention to the peculiarities and major problems of these countries is needed to assess the characteristics that a positive approach to lifelong learning should have. A globally homogeneous strategy to lifelong learning could interfere with the natural progress of the national conceptual frames, but common strategic principles are desirable.

Introduction

Today, the main driving force of the economy is *knowledge*. The global knowledge economy is transforming labour demand throughout the world. Preparing workers

to compete in the knowledge economy requires an equally demanding framework of education and training that encompasses learning throughout the life cycle, from early childhood to retirement. The concept of knowledge is changing from the mere acquisition of theoretical knowledge (*old knowledge*) towards the application of such knowledge (*new knowledge*) to larger developmental processes. Human capital is gaining importance, and workers are becoming increasingly responsible for every aspect of their work and professional life (Deloitte, 2015).

The idea and practice of the knowledge economy has a myriad of orientations and meanings, and it influences many aspects of life, from the economy to personal development. On one side, knowledge is one of the factors of production and growth: sharing, producing, and using knowledge influences policy discourses when it comes to the economic competitiveness of countries. On the other side, knowledge influences individual development, learning, biographies, abilities/possibilities of participation in social life, as well as social status and reputation (cf. Mandl & Krause, 2001, p. 3). As Torres noted, lifelong learning has been adopted in the global North as a strategy for 'promoting active citizenship and the necessary knowledge, skills, values, attitudes toward employment and work, but for the global South it is basic education/literacy that matters most' (Torres, 2002, p. 4). The notion of a knowledge economy, which appears as an inherent characteristic of the dominant perspective of lifelong learning, was constructed in the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) as well as in European Union (EU) contexts based on the assumption that the production of human resources equipped with most up-to-date knowledge and skills is a key point to achieve national competitiveness (cf. Rubenson, 2011).

Here, we define the knowledge economy as: 'production and services based on knowledge-intensive activities that contribute to an accelerated pace of technical and scientific advance' (Powell & Snellman, 2004, p. 199). The knowledge economy is a global phenomenon; however, the countries' responses to such a phenomenon have certain similarities and differences. This paper aims to identify the main categories and policy approaches across selected countries from South Asia and Europe as single case studies and analyse the divergences and convergences towards lifelong learning and the knowledge economy.

Comparative Perspectives: Representations from South Asia and Europe

The analysis proposed here is comparative. The global phenomenon of the knowledge economy provides a pervasive element for cross-country comparative analysis. Demography, information and communication technology (ICT),

socio-economic conditions, political stability, policy discourses, international and transnational actors are important enablers and disablers of the global knowledge economy. Among these, demography and policy discourses are the most significant categories when analysing the role and relevance of the knowledge economy in the global context. The demographic situation of a country or region determines its overall merits and demerits when adapting to the global knowledge-economy competition. It is in response to such challenges and opportunities, respectively, that policy discourses constitute a most significant category to analyse the dimension of the knowledge economy. Hence, demography and key policy discourses are compared across Germany, Greece, India, and Nepal. The concept, context, and category of the knowledge economy in Europe and in South Asian countries, as well as the (changing) demographics across these countries, are the key points of discussion for the comparative analysis.

Transitions in demography

The global North is characterised by industrialised and hence economically robust countries (North America and Europe: high income, OECD member countries). The global South (South Asia: low and middle income, non-OECD member countries) is more dependent and hence less industrialised and economically weaker. At the turn of the twenty-first century, it is important to note that the aging—and shrinking—population in the global North is a critical issue in the context of knowledge workers and the knowledge economy. The declining young population in Europe (Eurostat, 2015, p. 18) and the growing young population in South Asia (WEF, 2014) have resulted in a new sense of dependency across the globe. For instance, in Europe in the last few decades, there is increasing dependency on the non-native population as labour force (European Commission, 2010). In the South Asian region, there is increasing dependency on the labour market to create and provide employment to the growing young unemployed population (WEF, 2014).

Below, we discuss the demographic transition in two countries in Europe (Greece and Germany, higher income, OECD member countries) and South Asia (Nepal and India, low and middle income, non-OECD member countries), representing the two worlds of developed and developing and discussing the influence of demographics on the policy and practice of the knowledge economy.

Demographic depression in Europe

As witnessed in the last couple of decades, Europe is exposed to a series of challenges: aging societies and increasing migration on the one hand, and economic slow-down in many countries on the other. The demand for and dependency on a

knowledge-intensive economy has brought such challenges to a critical point attracting national, regional, and international attention to address these challenges. One of the potential means to address the above-mentioned challenges is to focus on providing new strategies for effective education and training mechanisms (EU, 2009).

Indeed, in today's knowledge-driven economy, education and training are considered major factors affecting a society's level of economic attainment and growth. Lack of knowledge and skills, in particular, is among the prime factors likely to delay a country's progress towards the information society. Experience, however, has shown that an educated labour force does not automatically translate into dynamic economic development and technological innovation. Especially in the Greek context, the human resource potential is not only the outcome of the education system but the result of a complex process that involves non-formal and informal learning, networks, workplace, family background, geographical area, and so on (European Commission, 2013). Lifelong learning is considered a policy priority at the European and international level due to its capacity to enable people to face the challenges posed today by an ageing population, a skills and competences mismatch, and global competition—challenges further enhanced by the ongoing financial crisis.

The demographic profile of Greece is similar to that of other developed countries. Fertility rates per 1,000 inhabitants have been continuously falling in Greece: 18.9 per cent in 1960, 16.5 per cent in 1970, 15.4 per cent in 1980, 10.7 per cent in 1988, and 9.5 per cent in 1998 (Statistical Year Book of Greece, 2015). According to the United Nations' population projection and the World Fact book, Greece has one of the lowest fertility rates in Europe (1990–1995) and the lowest total fertility rate of all other countries in the Balkans (United Nations, 2015). In 2015, the population of Greece dropped by 500,000 to about 10.2 million. The drop in fertility rates, combined with the aging population, poses a serious problem for the country: the increase of the ratio of retired people to those who are economically active.

Moreover, the situation is worsening day by day: since the beginning of the crisis, the percentage of the population aged 24–65 participating in lifelong learning in Greece (3 per cent) appears to be well below the European average (9.1 per cent) and the Europe 2020 target (15 per cent). Accordingly, the percentage of low achievers in basic skills in Greece is 27.7 per cent, while the European average lies at 20 per cent, and the target for 2020 is less than 15 per cent (Konstandaras, 2015).

The German situation is very similar to the Greek one: Germany has been characterised by low birth rates (fertility rate at 1.38 children per woman) and a

rising life expectancy (about 80 years) over the last thirty years. Thus, Germany has one of the most rapidly ageing populations in the world (cf. BMBF, 2008, p. 14). This aspect is crucial when talking about the future number of skilled workers. The older generation far outnumbers the young, upcoming labour force, which is relatively small to keep the actual gross on the same level. Indeed the population of 15–64-year-olds, who constitute the *knowledge workers,* is declining (cf. Weltbank, 2015): in 2003, Germany had 67.3 per cent of the population in the age group of 15–64; that share declined to 65.8 per cent in 2010 and to 65.7 per cent in 2013. Greece faces a similar demographic scenario.

The immigration phenomenon diversifies in Greece and Germany. The immigration rate in Germany has steadily increased in the last years due to the strong German economy. But it can be expected that it will increase also due to the international refugee situation. Indeed, in 2013 about 1.2 million people moved to Germany while about 800,000 left the country. Thus, despite the low birth rate, the population is growing. Depending on statistical data and the definition of the term *migrant* the percentage of migrants in Germany varies from 8 to 18 per cent (cf. Statistisches Bundesamt, 2014; Weltbank, 2015). In this context, lifelong learning is expected to develop its potential to support migrants as well as the native-born to participate in the knowledge economy. In general, the level of qualification of the German population has risen over the past few decades. According to the level of education, the differences between those with and without a migration background are still significant. About 10 per cent have no qualification level at all (persons without a migration background: 1.5 per cent) and about 51 per cent have no professional qualification (person without a migration background: 27 per cent) (cf. BMBF, 2008, p. 142[1]).

Demographic bulge in South Asia

The South of the world is characterised by a young and fast-growing population and economy, on the one hand, and very serious issues linked to casteism, diffused poverty, illiteracy and innumeracy of the population, on the other hand.

Nepal is one of the impoverished nations of the global South, squeezed between two emerging economies: India and China. Nepal is identified as one of the 49 least developed countries by the United Nations in terms of its economic vulnerability, poverty, and illiteracy (cf. United Nations, 2008). Nepal's economy largely

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1   In this BMBF report, the population with a migration background is understood to include those persons who came to Germany from 1950 onwards and their descendants (BMBF, 2008, p. 141).

depends on financial assistance from bilateral and multilateral agencies. With a per capita income of about US$ 350 and more than half of its 27.8 million people living on less than US$ 2 per day, Nepal faces several challenges. Nepal has seen in the last decade a gradual increase in the population age group of 15–64 (cf. World Bank, 2015). In 2000, that group accounted for 55.8 per cent, followed by 58.6 per cent and 60.2 per cent in 2011 and 2013, respectively (ibid.). Between 2000 and 2013, the population in the age group of 15–64 increased by 4.4 per cent (ibid.), which could be a potential source fulfilling the demand for knowledge workers at both the national and international level.

India has been one of the fast-growing economies in the last decade; indeed, it is the fourth-largest economy, inhabited by about 1.252 billion people. According to Kaushik Basu, the average age of Indians will be 29 years by 2020, which would push the dependency ratio to just about 0.4 per cent. According to the current skill and employability trends that pop up on the basis of data available in 2013, 0.8 billion out of the 1.3 billion people inhabiting India were of employable age, that is, part of the economically productive population. In alignment with such a surge in the skilled population, the country has been witnessing an increase in the population of 15-to-64-year-olds in the last decade in particular. In 2000, the population of 15-to-64-year-olds was 61.4 per cent; in 2010, it was 64.7 per cent, and in 2013, it was 65.6 per cent. The economically active population in the country increased by 4.2 per cent over the last 13 years (cf. Basu, 2007).

The demographic transitions discussed above in the context of Nepal and India are of critical importance for the global knowledge economy. It is the size and age of the population that is prepared to respond to the growing demands of the economy that matters most for a country's economic competitiveness—the core agenda of the global knowledge economy. In order to effectively ensure the active participation of the population aged between 15 and 64 years, appropriate policy interventions are needed. The section below discusses the key transitions in the policy interventions across Germany, Greece, Nepal, and India by analysing the main discourse(s) therein.

Transitions in policy discourses

Public policies for education, training, and innovation have always been aimed primarily at creating and diffusing knowledge in order to guarantee economic progress. Nonetheless, lifelong learning and adult and continuing education policies underwent major transitions in the last couple of decades: a shift from a *humanistic* to an *economistic* policy discourse occurred (cf. Bron & Schemmann, 2003, p. 7). Similarly, the OECD suggested that 'the role of knowledge (as compared with

natural resources, physical capital, and low-skill labour) has taken on greater importance. Although the pace may differ, all OECD economies are moving towards a knowledge-based economy.' (OECD, 1997, p. 7) Therefore, policies and strategies among the developing countries have witnessed similar transitions (cf. World Bank, 2003, pp. 109–110).

Germany and Greece: Lifelong learning and education/training

When UNESCO and the OECD created the concept of lifelong learning in the 1960s and 1970s, the organisations were deeply influenced by the political European context. Indeed, Faure et al., in their 1972 report, stated that 'the idea of lifelong education is the keystone of the learning society' (Faure et al., 1972, p. 181) and 'the normal culmination of the educational process is adult education' (ibid., p. 205).

The EU referred to the concept of lifelong learning for the first time in the white papers on 'Growth, Competitiveness, Employment' (Commission of the European Communities, 1993). The breakthrough was achieved with the *European year of lifelong learning* in 1996 and the *Memorandum of lifelong learning* in 2000, which brought on a very important modification in the educational field. Considering this, European stakeholders, scholars, and experts in the field of education should have noticed the event right from its beginning, but they did only after a while (cf. Holford & Mleczko, 2013).

The idea of lifelong learning has been implemented in different ways by the various member states, and its significance has varied at times by economic sector across Europe and European regions. Thus we find that in 2007, the European Commission started acting to make lifelong learning a reality through two 'core indicators': the participation of adults in lifelong learning and adult skills (cf. Commission of the European Communities, 2007). Lifelong learning, for this purpose, became a vital component of the European Commission's adult learning policies (European Commission, 2011). With the beginning of the twenty-first century, lifelong learning programmes become an important EU-wide regulating and policy tool.

Due to the growing importance of lifelong learning and adult education in recent decades, it is difficult to discuss and compare issues of lifelong learning policy without reference to Europe and European Union policies.

For example, in the 1960s and 1970s, the qualification level of the population in former West Germany became a big issue, especially in connection with the Sputnik crisis. This significant event fuelled the understanding that vocational training alone is not enough to proceed and handle social and technological challenges.

In this period, knowledge, ideas, and information became the central factors to face these challenges and to secure economic growth and prosperity (cf. Giddens, 2001, cited in Bron & Schemmann, 2003, p. 8). Summarising this debate, an expert commission on education developed a structural national education plan (Strukturplan des Deutschen Bildungsrates, 1970) defining continuing education as a 'necessary and lifelong complement to initial education … as the continuation or recommencement of organised learning following completion of a training phase of whatsoever length' (BMBF, 2008, p. 146).

So it may surprise that 'the academic discipline of adult education has not yet profoundly engaged in the discourse on a knowledge society' (Nolda, 2001, p. 103, translated by A.B./M.S.). The reservation towards the term *knowledge society* comes from its inflationary use in other sciences like technology, informatics, or management, which use another understanding of 'knowledge' (Nolda, 2001, pp. 99–100). In current political and public discussions, education is given a new dimension, which is changing knowledge and education—given that it is enabling knowledge—to a crucial resource for adding value, a site-related factor, a factor for production, and so forth (cf. Nolda, 2001, pp. 99–100). Moreover, education and *Bildung* itself are becoming part of a global market, exchanges, and competition. Consequently, the goal of employability, set by educational policy, is part of the service sector, making *Bildung* a good to be produced, distributed, and promoted (cf. Haslinger & Scherrer, 2006). Terms that once were used to describe and predict the social and economic development of countries are now legitimate for (educational or research) policy (cf. Nolda, 2001, p. 100), *Bildung* plays a crucial role in solving structural economic problems (e.g. Willke, 1998). For these reasons, no fundamental discussion of the concept of the knowledge economy or society exists in German adult education, as Nolda (cf. Nolda, 2001, pp. 104–05) points out. She observes three patterns of using the term 'knowledge society' in adult education:

- use of synonyms like 'information society' or 'modernity'
- critical usage of the term, underlining the necessity to replace 'knowledge' by 'education' or 'learning' and to add informally gained knowledge
- adoption of the term and agreement with the argument claiming an increase in knowledge and accessibility through ICT (cf. Nolda, 2001, pp. 104–05).

In Greece, law no. 3879/2010 on lifelong learning, enacted by the Greek parliament in September 2010, sets the basis for the planning and implementation of a national holistic strategy on lifelong learning and for the creation of the National Network of Lifelong Learning (NNLL), which encompasses all lifelong learning governing bodies and lifelong learning service providers operating under the auspices of different ministries. The prerequisites for fruitful interaction within

that network include the mapping and registration of members, their consistent briefing on national lifelong learning policies and the priorities linked to quality assurance, validation and accreditation, interoperability and mobility, enhancement of attractiveness, participation and accessibility.

In this framework, education and training are essential to achieve the objectives of the strategy *Europe 2020*. To this end, effective investments in high-quality, modern education and training are very urgent since they will lay the foundation for long-term prosperity in Europe and facilitate short-term responses to address the impact of the crisis. In accordance with EU policies, lifelong learning policies in Greece emphatically stressed the issue of employability, especially with regards to socially vulnerable groups (mostly the unemployed), but with limited efficiency both in terms of participant characteristics (those who participated were the most educated ones) and in terms of the link between the system of continuing vocational training and employment. Furthermore, lifelong learning policies in Greece emphatically stressed the aim of inclusion with reference solely to employment. This led to the weakening of general adult education (e.g. the educational programme of the General Secretariat for lifelong learning), which by definition promotes active citizenship and personal development. Jarvis has argued that in globalisation times, continuing vocational training dominated worldwide because it was more responsive to the needs of the market, in parallel to the withdrawal of the welfare state (cf. Jarvis, 2007, pp. 29–36). The emphasis in lifelong learning in the form of continuing vocational training also meant that adult and continuing education was to become a commodity with not much reflective thinking. The need for radical adult education is thus becoming urgent, especially after the Greek economic crisis.

To be more specific, since 2010 Greece has been insolvent and has virtually defaulted under a massive public debt, with the European Union, the International Monetary Fund, and the European Central Bank providing lifeline loans to Greece. As a consequence, the 'traditional' business model of the country failed, and the government felt the urgency to find new paths to guarantee a future to Greece as a dynamic, high-tech, export-oriented economy. With this aim in mind, the key values associated with the social purpose of adult education—social justice, greater social and economic equality, the promotion of a critical democracy, a vision of a better and fairer world where education has a key role to play through the development of reflective thinking (cf. Johnston, 2006, pp. 416ff.)—should be taken more into consideration.

It is time for Europe to actively implement the four aims of lifelong learning—employability, active citizenship, social inclusion, and personal development—

following Jarvis's argumentation (cf. Jarvis, 2004, pp. 9ff.). In particular, inclusion in the employment system with the help of lifelong learning can contribute to the development of human potential and creativity. However, it remains uncertain whether this aim can be satisfied in the case of Greece, for reasons that do not necessarily pertain to the system of continuing vocational training *per se* but rather to the pace of job creation in the economy. Undoubtedly, it is a fundamental precondition for lifelong education to substantially serve the socially excluded so that they are included in the socio-economic system through their employment. Nevertheless, it remains a challenge for lifelong education to contribute to the full development of human beings through their education in various fields of study, and to the formation of a democratic society with educated citizens, active members of local societies and with possibilities of intervention in the processes of government.

Nepal and India: Lifelong learning and basic literacy

From the perspective of developing and less developed societies, the discourse on lifelong learning in the context of the global knowledge economy is different compared to that in developed or high-income countries, as discussed above. Most of the countries in South Asia do not have a well-defined policy on lifelong learning. Confronted with the massive problems of illiteracy and poverty, most of them tend to confine themselves to literacy programmes (cf. Shah, 2010).

In Nepal, the provision of higher education and vocational training—often associated with the discourse of the knowledge economy—has never been Nepal's priority, because major donors such as the World Bank are reluctant to invest in vocational and higher education until 'primary education is well covered' (Torres, 2002, p. 5). Hence, basic literacy and primary education matter more for Nepal than the new rhetoric of lifelong learning and the knowledge-based economy.

However, after the 1990s, the term *lifelong learning* and the associated discourse were embedded in some policy documents such as the '10-Year Literacy/Non-Formal Education (NFE) Policy Programme Framework' implemented in 2006 under the leadership of the UNESCO Office in Kathmandu (cf. UNESCO, 2006). The vision of the framework was 'to create a fully literate learning society whose citizens possess the skills and competences that enable them to contribute continuously towards harmonious national development by raising the quality of life of every citizen' (UNESCO, 2006, p. 17). Literacy is conceived in a wider sense, and programmes related to 'lifelong and continuous education, skill development and income generation' (Government of Nepal, 2007, p. 1) are envisaged, but NFE policy is not explicitly about what constitutes lifelong learning and its relevance

in the context of Nepal. Some major educational projects launched in Nepal after the 1990s—such as the Basic and Primary Education Project (1992–2003), the Secondary Education Support Project (1992–2000), the Community School Support Project (2003–2008), and the Education for All Programme (2004–2009)—all of them featuring an active involvement of international organisations such as the World Bank, focused mainly on primary and secondary education. The current educational programme, 'School Sector Reform Programme' (SSRP 2009–2016), mentions lifelong learning a number of times. In Chapter 4 of the core document (Government of Nepal, 2009) the term *lifelong learning* appears in association with literacy: 'Literacy enables them to engage in lifelong learning and helps develop capabilities to sustain their livelihoods and participate fully in society' (Government of Nepal, 2009, p. lviii). The programme aims at linking lifelong learning with income generation as well as occupational and vocational skills. It also aims at 'developing partnerships for collaboration with UN agencies and I/NGOs to implement lifelong learning programmes in selected districts' (Government of Nepal, 2014, p. 21).

Though the term *lifelong learning* appears in some of the major policy documents (Government of Nepal, 2009, 2014), it does not reflect the ways in which lifelong learning has been conceived as a new educational policy at the international level by the European Union (European Commission, 2000), the OECD (OECD, 1996), and UNESCO (Delors et al., 1996; Faure et al., 1972). Thus, as far as the case of Nepal is concerned, there is no explicit provision for lifelong learning, and there are no policy documents to reflect a nuanced understanding of lifelong learning that has been debated in international policy documents and some scholarly publications (Griffin, 2009; Rubenson, 2011). Rather, lifelong learning appears as a catchphrase that Nepalese policy makers are willing to embrace, but there is no clear understanding on what lifelong learning really is and whose interests it really serves.

According to Bhatta, there is a tendency for international agendas and targets to 'become the de facto policies' for Nepal (cf. Bhatta, 2011, p. 11). The MDGs and EFA goals are soon coming to an end, and the international community is embarking into a post-2015 era with a new set of goals and targets. One of the goals related to education is to 'ensure equitable and inclusive quality education and lifelong learning for all by 2030' (UNESCO, 2014, p. 3). But critical analysis of key documents suggests that an economic orientation of lifelong learning—one that sees the goal of education as producing flexible human capital in order to create competitive knowledge-based economies—is evident in the discourse informing post-2015 educational agendas (Regmi, 2015). A review of the current literature

shows that the economic orientation of lifelong learning has been criticised by many (e.g. Griffin, 2009; Rubenson, 2011; Torres, 2002), because it moves away from the humanistic approach to lifelong learning spearheaded basically by the UNESCO (Delors et al., 1996; Faure et al., 1972). A foreseeable danger looming large in Nepal in the post-2015 context is a potential misinterpretation of lifelong learning and subsequent policy development—on the basis of the economistic orientation of lifelong learning—so as to produce human resources that do not fulfil the contextual needs of Nepal and its people but serve the interest of a global market controlled by multinational corporations (cf. Pingeot, 2014).

The knowledge-based economy has been a reality in the northern countries of the world for a long time, but the emerging economies, popularly known as BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa), are also very keen to establish knowledge-based economies fuelled by their huge talent pools, entrepreneurial capabilities, and improved infrastructure. Thus, a knowledge-based economy is not a distant dream for India, like it is for some other emerging economies.

The present system of education in India, which follows the National Policy on Education, (Government of India, 1986) considers lifelong education the 'cherished goal of the educational process which presupposes universal literacy, provision of opportunities for youth, housewives, agricultural and industrial workers and professionals to continue the education of their choice at a pace suited to them' (Government of India, 1986). The policy observed that the critical development issue was the continuous upgrading of skills so as to produce manpower resources of the kind and quantity required by society. It suggested that the future thrust would be in the direction of open and distance learning. The policy was translated into practice by means of large-scale literacy campaigns/projects and adult continuing education programmes, implemented by governmental and non-governmental organisations (cf. Government of India, 1992).

The organisation of two UNESCO-sponsored international conferences on lifelong learning held in Mumbai (1998) and Hyderabad (2002), and the promulgation of 'The Mumbai and Hyderabad Statements on Lifelong Learning', which highlighted lifelong learning as a 'guiding principle' and an 'overarching vision' did succeed in educating Indian policy planners and generated considerable interest among educationists (cf. Narang & Mauch, 1998). The Hyderabad statement on lifelong learning in fact clarified the role of lifelong learning in the creation of a learning society and learning community. It emphasised empowering people, expanding their capabilities and choices in life, and enabling individuals and societies to cope with the new challenges of the twenty-first century (cf. Singh, 2002).

Currently, lifelong learning is often used as an umbrella term to cover basic literacy, post- literacy, continuing education and extension programmes of different organisations, refresher/continuing courses of professional bodies, and private institutions and business houses. It is not conceived as an overarching framework of learning.

In the last decade, the government of India has initiated a series of policy interventions in response to the global knowledge-economy phenomenon. The National Skill Development Mission has recognised the importance of skills and knowledge as the driving forces of economic growth and social development for any country, emphasising the need for promoting lifelong learning and maintaining quality and relevance according to the changing requirements of the emerging knowledge economy (cf. *National Skill Development Initiative,* 2009). The National Literacy Mission continued to focus on literacy, mainly because of massive number of non-literates in the country. Imparting skill training and providing avenues for upskilling did not receive much attention in the National Literacy Mission. Since the 12th Five-Year Plan (2012–2017), the Sub Committee on Adult Education has pointed out the need for developing a comprehensive policy to guide the systematic promotion of adult and lifelong learning and the creation of structures and mechanisms for the recognition, validation, accreditation, and certification of prior learning (Government of India, 2011). It is expected that lifelong learning will soon become a reality and an important strand of India's education policy.

Conclusions

In this paper, we have documented the different approaches to lifelong learning and adult education that Europe and South Asia are experiencing as a result of the ongoing demographic, economic, and financial situation. Whereas birth rates have increased in almost all countries in South Asia, they have declined steadily in Europe. Particularly, there is evidence from the World Bank database (2015) that the active population (those aged 25–64) has been hit hardest and is still suffering from the loss of work and global competition. Countries that have suffered youth declines and financial slumps experienced a lifelong learning crisis due to the lack of links between active and passive labour market policies towards continuing education and employment.

The concern is that such spells of insufficient adult education and employment will have long-lasting effects, which would be harmful for the individuals and the countries themselves, potentially making individuals less sensitive to education in the long term. This reality is even worse when paying attention to the different lifelong learning policies.

Due to cultural and economic specificities, each country in the world is experiencing different conditions under which policies and devices for lifelong learning have been implemented. As a consequence, this has resulted in different impacts and paradoxes across member states, although a European space of lifelong learning and education does exist, assuming the creation of the basis of democracy, social justice, freedom, and employment at every level of European society.

As evidence demonstrates, the global South is characterised in the same way by a strong sensibility for lifelong learning, with a specific emphasis on literacy—'the ability to understand, evaluate, use, and engage with written texts to participate in society, achieve one's goals, and develop one's knowledge and potential' (OECD, 2012)—and numeracy—'the ability to access, use, interpret, and communicate mathematical information and ideas in order to engage in and manage the mathematical demands of a range of situations in adult life' (OECD, 2012)—rather than employability, adaptability, and skills for life. The latter are the main issues of European regions in recent years, as the EPALE network (European Platform for Adult Learning and Education) highlights.

This shows that creating a global strategic approach and a framework to lifelong learning towards the knowledge economy is a tough task that could be pursued by discussing, programming, and implementing a common approach to lifelong learning while contextualising the meaning and practice of each country and region. Nevertheless, a lack of coherence in the educational progress could undermine the goal. Only a focus on a global front towards literacy, numeracy, and cohesion will avoid the risk of a polarisation between North and South—the developed and the developing poles, between high-skilled and low-skilled workers, and such imbalance between global regions. In order to do this, governments should focus on the risk of relying on international perspectives in the field of lifelong learning when setting common, comprehensive, coherent strategic goals and evaluating a proper distribution of resources among individual counties. Lifelong learning should not be an autonomous act of institutions but a consequence of a public intervention that adopts rules that reduce economic and social barriers and allow everybody to access training and lifelong learning opportunities in the respect of learning needs and different cultures.

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Comparing Professionalisation in Adult and Continuing Education

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Adult education and its key actors in academic professionalisation – a comparison between China, India and the European Union

Abstract

Understandings of adult education and its academic professionalisation vary by country. In this paper, China, India, and the European Union will be compared regarding the meaning of adult education and the ways in which these understandings have been developed. The focus is on academic professionalisation, which is also going to be clarified for all three countries. After discussing each country separately, the comparison will focus on similarities and differences. This includes the analysis of the key actors in academic professionalisation at the macro, meso, and micro levels. The results provide an overview of the three countries and lead to the final conclusion that even though the topics are similar, the country-specific ways of development offer different opportunities.

Introduction

Each country has a different understanding of adult education: To be able to compare and discuss the future of adult education, it is necessary to discuss different understandings. This paper presents different countries and their definitions and meanings of adult education. To be able to understand a country and its education system, the historical development of the education sector, with a focus on adult education, needs to be considered. The historical development shows its impact on the education systems as well as on academic professionalisation in each country. In this article, we not only discuss the adult education sector as a whole but also identify the most important actors in adult education in each country.

Academic professionalisation is, on the one hand, understood as an ongoing improvement process with high-level indicators for adult education as a whole, for example, a focus on the implementation of quality assurance systems in the institutions, as well as the improvement of programme structures. On the other hand, academic professionalisation can be understood as a biographical approach focusing on the individual development of adult educators or students. Egetenmeyer und Schüssler (2014) describe academic professionalisation as a development of structural factors, including university-based degree programmes, which have

changed through the Bologna reform and are now diverse all over Europe. An important issue for academic professionalisation at universities is the connection to the field of work of adult education. The biographical approach is focused on the individual development of competences. This cannot be identified as a specific development because it could happen in different ways: for example, first theoretical and then practical professionalisation, or via continuing education after people already started working as adult educators, and so on. But it is not just academic training that matters for individual professionalisation; other programmes and field experiences, including informal learning processes, need to be considered as well (cf. Egetenmeyer & Schüssler, 2014, pp. 29, 32ff.).

China

Definition of adult education and its purpose

The ancient idea, and hence the original understanding, of adult education in China was founded in the Han dynasty. Adult education was created to teach people how to become a politician or leader. Modern adult education started with the founding of the People's Republic of China. In the face of the illiterate population, which accounted for more than 80 per cent of the nation's population, the government issued a call for 'developing literacy education and gradually reducing the illiterates'. (Adult Education, online) The *Guidelines for Educational Reform and Development in China* promulgated in 1993 pointed out: 'Adult education is a new education system which plays an important role both in the development of conventional school education toward lifelong education and in the continuous enhancement of the national quality and in the promotion of economic, social development.' (Adult Education, online) The systems of adult education are: adult primary education (including literacy classes), secondary education, adult education, and higher education, providing remote, correspondence, and academic instruction (Education in China: A Survey, online).

Historical development of academic professionalisation in adult education

2,500 years ago, China established a tradition of an education system mainly based on the ideas of Confucius, which has influenced the Chinese people. This was the first idea for adult education in China. Chinese ancient official education was called *taixue*, which means 'greatest study or learning', sometimes called 'imperial academy' or 'imperial university' (cf. Ban, 1962, p. 56). Unlike classic European universities, they were influenced by Confucius and Chinese literature

and designed for high-level civil service, so the ancient adult education was created for training politicians (cf. Wang, 2013, p. 7).

As Hayhoe points out: 'In conscious reaction to the narrow fragmentation and exclusivist orientation towards expertise of Soviet patterns, Mao directed in 1957 that "our educational policy must enable everyone to develop morally, intellectually, and physically and become a worker with socialist consciousness and culture". Furthermore, "education must serve proletarian politics and be combined with productive labour."' (Hayhoe, 1989, p. 72)

This education system is not suitable for human-oriented education. And the educational content very easily falls behind the times. The old system no longer lived up to professional needs. China's educational system is gradually reforming these years. The academic degree system now features bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees, as well as post-doctoral research. As Ouyang points out, 'a relatively rational higher education system was set up with different subjects, different aspects, and different levels' (Ouyang, 2004, p. 143).

Since 1980, China has formulated a series of laws and regulations. Such laws and regulations to promote the development of education, to protect the rights of citizens to receive education, and to promote universal education is an important safeguard. And in recent years, government expenditure on education continues to increase, establishing a sound mechanism to ensure the priority of education development. Government is controlling education by kind of playing a supporting role (cf. Chen, 2013, p. 105).

India

Definition of adult education and its purpose

India has a special definition of adult education, which has grown from different social, economic, political, and historical conditions. Although the definition of adult education has changed as the concept of adult education has undergone significant changes over time, adult literacy remains the core concern on which Indian adult education is defined to this day (cf. Shah, 1999, p.4). In India, the term *adult education* normally refers to adult literacy promotion activities. The variations in the definition of adult education in the Indian context can be understood in three phases: ancient India, British India, and contemporary India.

In ancient Indian society, adult education followed a traditional approach to literacy. It was a process of learning, which was in the form of religious and other community activities such as storytelling, religious operas, reading of religious scripture, village markets, and different forms of traditional performing and arts.

The process of learning was largely oriented to the needs of the community and aimed at making an individual a fit member of the community (cf. Syam, 1981, p. 1).

During British rule (eighteenth and nineteenth century), as a colonised nation, India had a vast illiterate, poor, and marginalised population. Therefore, the main thrust of adult education during colonial rule revolved around basic literacy. The purpose of basic literacy was to educate illiterate adults using the core curriculum of the 3*R's* – that is, reading, writing, and arithmetic – to make them aware of their rights, to eradicate poverty, and to disseminate scientific knowledge. Most significantly, adult education was planned and designed as a community development programme. It was also a chief instrument to motivate the masses to fight against colonial rule and for the freedom of India (cf. Shah, 1999, p. 3).

Adult education in contemporary India is considered to encompass more than imparting the 3Rs to illiterate adults and community development. During the past century, adult education in India absorbed several national and international theories, practices, and approaches, leading to the emergence of broader concept. So, in the context of such global influences, adult education in India has adopted a new nomenclature, purpose, and definition. Nowadays, adult education is defined as lifelong education to broaden the horizon of the people (cf. Batra, 1980, p. 3). It is a process of acquiring knowledge, learning from daily living, and developing work-oriented skills (vocational education) to overcome economic deprivation and to create awareness of social disparities and political engagement (Adult Education India, online). Moreover, it has become a discipline of research and study. Thus, it is possible to think of the distinctiveness of adult education in a pluralist country like India, where it is defined primarily in relation to basic literacy, as acquiring desirable knowledge pertaining to civic needs and adopting political and occupational skills to become a productive part of the system (cf. Paintal, 2006, p. 56).

Historical development of academic professionalisation in adult education

India developed a variety of adult education programmes in the past, with continuous shifts in focus and content. Along with universal elementary education, adult education always had a place in India's national discourse and policy deliberations due to the importance and overriding priority of literacy (cf. NLM, 2008, p. 6). But there has barely been any serious initiative for academic professionalisation in adult education. In fact, adult education remained outside the domain of professionalisation (cf. Shah, 2006, p. 263). However, there are certain milestones that contributed to the development of academic professionalisation in adult education, which varies depending on the political circumstances in India.

During the phase of the Indian National Congress (INC), the Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA) was established in 1939 to promote adult education in India through seminars, conferences, workshops, training programmes, publications, and the dissemination of relevant information pertaining to the subject. In 1949, the Central Board of Education suggested a new and comprehensive concept of adult education known as *Social Education,* which included literary work, cultural and recreational activities, and civic education. The Union Minister of Education provided supporting services to the programme by making a budget allocation. India's 'Five-Year Plan' (1951–1956) and the 1968 National Policy of Education (NPE) made recommendations to emphasise the planning, implementation, and supervision of adult education programmes. Departments of adult education were set up in universities, and certificate courses were offered. In 1956, the National Fundamental Education Centre (NFEC) was established with a grant from UNESCO to produce research and professional literature (cf. Shah, 1999, pp. 343–44).

But soon after the Janata Party (JP) took over the premiership in 1977, the highest priority in educational planning was assigned to adult education along with the universalisation of elementary education. In 1978, the first nationwide adult education initiative, *National Adult Education Programme* (NAEP), was launched. The main objective of NAEP was to organise adult education programmes, with literacy as an indispensable component (cf. Batra, 1980, pp. 8–9).

With the change in government and the return of INC in 1980, the Government of India (GoI) formulated *NPE-1986,* which was a turning point as it became a strategy document to rekindle the literacy movement in India. Consequently, the GoI launched the National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1988 for the purpose of imparting functional literacy to the 80 million illiterate adults by 1995 (cf. Shah, 1999, p. 347). Most of the adult education programmes were made more professional to some extent after the launch of the NLM by conceiving a standardised training curriculum for the functionaries acting at various levels in terms of content, duration, certification, and so on. A few universities started offering regular courses leading to certification, graduation, post-graduation, and doctoral degrees in adult education. This promoted basic standards for adult education professionals. Besides, large numbers of adult educators got involved in diverse activities such as teaching, training research counselling, and programme planning and management to professionalise adult education with a view to its effectiveness. In 2009, based on a reformed vision to create *Literate India,* a new adult education programme named *Saakshar Bharat* was formulated with four broader objectives: imparting functional literacy and numeracy to non-literates; acquiring

equivalency to formal educational system; imparting relevant skill development programmes; and promoting a learning society by providing opportunities for continuing education (MHRD-Saakshar Bharat, online).

European Union

Considering the history of the European Union countries, with all their wars against each other, the goal of the European Union itself is easier to understand. This is because the European Union was created to achieve the political goal of peace, but its dynamism and success springs from its involvement in economics (cf. Lima & Guimarães, 2011, pp. 3–7). The following paragraphs are an attempt to discuss a corporate understanding of adult education in the European Union.

Definition of adult education and its purpose

In the eighteenth century, adult education emerged; since the twentieth century (mostly after World War 2), adult education has been growing (cf. Lima & Guimarães, 2011, pp. 18–19). But adult education is and will continue to be widely diverse in nature, involving a rich assortment of actors trying to influence the idea of professionalisation in their own countries or throughout the European Union.

There are regional differences in Europe, but there is also overlap. The Council of the European Union states that 'adult learning is a vital component of the lifelong-learning continuum, covering the entire range of formal, non-formal, and informal learning activities, general and vocational, undertaken by adults after leaving initial education and training' (Council Resolution 2011/C 372/01, p. 3). According to the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA), adult education is key for enhancing skills, competences, and social participation in Europe. It includes general and liberal adult education as well as vocational education and training; the focus is not only on basic skills but also on personal development and active citizenship (cf. EAEA-Report, 2013, p. 10). CEDEFOP papers show a similar definition, where adult education includes general or vocational education provided for adults after initial education and training for professional and/or personal purposes (cf. CEDEFOP, 2008, p. 25). Overall, the definitions are different but the meaning is similar.

Historical development of academic professionalisation in adult education

The European Union and its strategies and corporate developments need to be mentioned shortly to give an overview of the discussion about adult education in

the EU context. The 1957 Treaty of Rome mentions 'assistance for occupational re-training to ensure productive employment', which goes in the direction or can be part of adult education. During the 1970s, the EU discussion on adult education was started indirectly by the influence on education through programmes like the European Social Fund and so on. In 1992, the Treaty of Maastricht mentioned quality assurance as an important focus for cooperation, as well as harmonisation in education between the member states. In 1996, the European Union concentrated on lifelong learning as a specific topic. The 1997 Treaty of Amsterdam included the restructuring of established education programmes. This treaty was supported by the Luxembourg Summit (1997) and Vienna Summit (1998), which espoused the goals of employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability, and equal opportunities (cf. Lima & Guimarães, 2011, pp. 69ff.). In 1999, the Bologna Process started, with all ministries of education from all member states working together to implement a European Higher Education Area. The most important regulations are 1) a three-cycle structure of postsecondary degrees (bachelor–master–PhD), which should be comparable between all signing states, 2) the European Credit Transfer System to make different classes, courses, and study programmes comparable all over Europe, 3) mobility opportunities for students, researchers, and teachers, and 4) stronger visibility of European Union topics at all European universities to foster European thinking (cf. Bologna Process, 2013/C 251 E/04, online).

The Lisbon Strategy (2000) stated the objective that the European Union become the world's most dynamic and competitive economy by 2010 through the modernisation of the European social model, a decentralised approach concerning its member states, and transparency in the education sector, for instance through implementing the European Qualification Framework, which enables all member states to compare the outcomes of the different formal education systems. Following the key ideas of the Lisbon Strategy, the *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning* aimed to foster active citizenship and to promote employability. Other supportive documents are the 2010 *European Commission document about Education and Training*, the 2006 document *Adult Learning: It is never too late to learn*, and the 2007 *Action Plan on Adult Learning: It is always a good time to learn*. From 2007 to 2013, lifelong learning programmes where implemented in EU member states (cf. Lima & Guimarães, 2011, pp. 77–110). The Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable, and inclusive growth acknowledges lifelong learning and skills development as key elements (cf. Council Resolution, 2011, pp. 1–2). The *European Agenda for Adult Learning* (2012) builds on the *Europe 2020 strategy*, the *Action Plan on Adult Learning 2008–2010* and the *ET2020*. The priorities are: 1) to make lifelong learning and mobility reality, 2) to improve the quality and efficiency of

education and training, 3) to promote equity, social cohesion, active citizenship through adult learning, 4) to enhance the creativity and innovation of adults and their learning environments, and 5) to improve the knowledge base and monitoring of the adult learning sector (EAEA-Priorities, online).

Functioning of key actors in adult education at the macro, meso, and micro levels

When discussing different understandings of adult education and the historical development of academic professionalisation in adult education, it is also important to talk about the key actors. The following table gives a short overview of key actors in the three countries and shows that the structure and the included institutions are similar although the function and the power of the institutions are different.

Table 1: Comparison of Key Actors in China, India, and the European Union

	China	**India**	**European Union (EU)**
MACRO	Government	Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), University Commission Grant (UGC) the apex statutory body of higher education in India, Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA)	EU member states/ EU institutions: EAEA and CEDEFOP
MESO	Universities/ academic colleges	Universities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), Institute of Peoples Learning Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS), State Resource Centres (SRC's)	Universities/ adult education institutions
MICRO	Students	Adult educators/students	Adult educators/ students

At first glance, the key actors look similar, but there are important differences and background information that need to be mentioned, for instance regarding the ways in which the levels can influence each other. The information about the influence of the levels can help us understand the development of adult education and its difficult and long-lasting process of professionalisation.

China

At the macro level, the government plays an important role. China is home to about one-fifth of the world's population. To rule such a big country, the government should have very strong controlling powers. Based on this power, the

government can decide over the education system. All the efforts are aimed at further improving the modern national education system, developing the system of lifelong education, and building a modernised socialist education system with Chinese characteristics (cf. National report, p. 8).

In earlier years, after the founding of communist China, the government had the power to micro-manage all Chinese universities, which didn't have any right to decide themselves. Nowadays, Chinese universities have more development space, but they are still under the control of the government. From the Chinese universities' point of view, the easiest way of managing the different disciplines is to establish academic professionalisation, which would function like a frame. The contemporary social division of labour is getting smaller and becoming more professional. Employment trends have diversified. According to the diversity of career needs, Chinese universities have established and divided their disciplines by different occupations. At the micro level, students are the main participants. Given China's strong economic development, the number of college students is increasing rapidly. For example, from 1998 to 2001, the number of master's students in China increased from 150,000 to 290,000, meaning an increase of 93 per cent. From 2001 to 2003, PhD students increased from 45,000 to 77,000, meaning an increase of 71 per cent (cf. Ouyang, 2004, p. 146). Every individual will influence the professionalisation of adult education. More and more students are participating at this level, making rapid advances towards the development of academic professionalisation.

India

At the macro level, the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) works through the Department of School Education & Literacy (SE&L). The department of SE&L is responsible for upholding the essence and role of adult education as articulated in the 1986 and 1992 National Policies on Education (NPE). It undertakes various adult education schemes, programmes, and initiatives, and promotes the same along with universal elementary education. Secondly, the University Grant Commission (UGC), a statutory body of the Government of India and the only grant-giving agency in the country, supports the institutionalisation of adult education programmes, such as the establishment of university departments and the development of accredited courses at certificate and degree level (MHRD-UGC, online). However, the progress of academic professionalisation in adult education varies depending on the policy adopted by UGC (cf. Shah, 2013, p. 6). On the other hand, IAEA, a pioneering national-level voluntary organisation, promotes adult education as a field of practice and discipline of study.

At the meso level, the universities, institutes of peoples learning such as JSS, SRCs, and NGOs are the key actors to promote academic professionalisation in adult education. The universities are pioneers in the process of professionalisation. Certain universities in India made efforts to strengthen adult education as a professional field of practice before the UGC intervention, such as the Department of Adult Continuing Education and Extension (DACEE) at Delhi University. Besides, there are 20 more universities in India that have departments of adult education, including SNDT Women's University, NEHU, and so forth. Likewise, the SRCs are mandated to provide academic and technical resource support to the ongoing adult and continuing education programme through the development and production of material and training modules (MHRD-Resource Centre of State, online). Vocational training for non-literates, neo-literates, and school dropouts is provided by JSS. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), which are neither part of the government nor conventional for-profit businesses, are funded by governments to work in the field of adult education (MHRD-Voluntary Agencies, online).

The micro level includes adult educators, students, individual institutions, and social workers. Efforts are made at the individual level to promote the professionalisation of adult education. Likewise, adult educators play a crucial role in the development of professional courses and several other initiatives in designing a quality adult education programme, but not much attention is paid to enhancing the professional qualification of adult educators. There is no separate professional training programme for adult educators. There is a need to set up basic qualification and employment conditions to validate adult educators (cf. Shah, 2010, pp. 4–6).

European Union

At the macro level, the European Union and its institutions are able to influence the meso and micro levels. There are many regulations and guidelines governing the relations between the European Union and its member states. One guiding principle is called subsidiarity, which ensures that decisions are made close to the citizens. That means that the European Union takes action when it is more effective than a national government (Europa – Subsidiarity, online). As an example of the work done by the EU institutions, the EAEA and the CEDEFOP are mentioned. The mission of the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA) is to promote the integration of the individual in society through professional and civic development (EAEA-Mission, online). The mission of CEDEFOP is to develop VET policies and contribute to their implementation (cf. CEDEFOP, n.d.).

At the micro level, there are, on the one hand, the universities focusing on adult education and the adult education institutions. Both of these key actors play a major role in the academic professionalisation in adult education, because they educate or train the adult educators and enable institutions of further development. Universities are able to decide on their own because of their autonomy. The universities are able to define their institutional profile, decide whom they are going to employ, make direct connections to sponsors, and so on (cf. Europe – University Autonomy, online). The economy, the labour market, and the government also have an influence on the academic sector. When concentrating on academic professionalisation in adult education, it is important to mention the different adult education institutions, which are also interested in professionalisation. Austria is a good example, featuring an institution responsible for the professionalisation of these adult education institutions. Quality management of adult education institutions is a special focus here. A certificate including an assessment has been implemented (Ö-Cert = 'Austrian Certificate'), which functions like a quality certificate (Ö-Cert 2014, online). Professionalisation programmes for individual adult educators were redesigned as well. The Academy of Continuing Education, (*Weiterbildungsakademie)* was established in corporation with the University of Klagenfurt to professionalise prospective and current adult educators via a certificate programme and give them the opportunity to join a master's programme afterwards (Prokopp & Luomi-Messerer, 2010).

Conclusion

There are many different meanings to adult education in China, India, and the European Union. However, in all of these countries, the academic professionalisation of adult education is taking global significance despite changing concepts and the introduction of various policies and programmes.

Considering the different definitions of adult education a comparison is possible (see table 2).

Table 2: Comparison of Definitions of Adult Education

European Union	*'Adult learning is a vital component of the lifelong-learning continuum, covering the entire range of formal, non-formal, and informal learning activities, general and vocational, undertaken by adults after leaving initial education and training.' (Council Resolution 2011/C 372/01, p. 3)*

China	*'Adult education is a new education system which plays an important role both in the development of conventional school education toward lifelong education and in the continuous enhancement of the national quality and in the promotion of economic, social development.' (China Embassy, online)*
India	*Adult education today is considered to encompass more than imparting the 3R's (reading, writing, and arithmetic) to illiterate adults and community development. Nowadays, adult education is defined as lifelong education to broaden the horizon of the people (cf. Batra, 1980, p. 3).*

The comparison of the definitions makes similarities in wordings visible; for example, lifelong learning is mentioned in all three definitions. Altogether the countries focus on lifelong learning as a new attitude of living. A difference can be noticed in the way the terms adult education or adult learning are used. In EU countries the term *adult learning* seems to be synonymous with the term *adult education*. In China, the main focus of adult education is on professional development for everyone, whereas adult education is seen in the same way of understanding education as a whole. In India, the emphasis is on growth and development in all of adult education, not only in the area of literacy. The countries of the European Union concentrate on personal development besides professional development and informal learning as a new challenge.

Although China, India, and the European Union are facing different challenges, all of them focus on the development of the adult education sector, which seems to be underestimated in all countries. In India and China, it can be inferred that the concept, purpose, definition, policy, and practices of adult education as an academic profession vary, depending on the prevailing political system and the country's socioeconomic development. In India, earlier adult education was designed for societal and community development. It has only been in recent times that adult education is associated with individual growth and viewed as a discipline to be studied. Learning used to take place through religious and community institutions in India and China. And the aforementioned institutions had a stronger influence in China and India than in the European Union.

The multi-level analysis of key actors shows that in spite of centralised governmental regulations, India has a decentralised level of policy and institutions that govern and influence the development of adult education as an academic profession. Government regulations in China are much stronger than in the EU countries. The governmental structure seems to be much more centralised in China, whereas in EU countries, the organisation of academic professionalisation is decentralised because of the autonomy enjoyed by European universities. In some EU countries, especially in Germany, regulations for further development,

including professionalisation as a process, were also created by adult education institutions themselves. Maybe the Bologna-Process can also be seen as an influence from policy makers and as a centralising factor. Finally, it can be stated that the structure of the levels and their key actors seem to be similar, although the power of the key actors in each country varies.

Comparing countries and their ideas helps each country to become more creative when developing their own adult education systems. Development is comparable but not transferable. The discussion shows different ways of dealing with the challenges. Further opportunities are seen in cross-country collaborations to learn from each other and understand different developmental ways of living. However, professionalising adult education in India, for example, continues to be challenging because adult education still remains as programme to eradicate illiteracy, unlike in European countries, where adult education is recognised as a profession.

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The curriculum of study programmes for adult educators – the study cases of Italy, Germany and Portugal[1]

Abstract

In this comparative case study, the authors take two different types of perspectives into account: one perspective centres on the competences associated with adult education trainers; the second perspective focuses on an approach to the trainers' curriculum in adult education, regarding their differences and similarities. The body of European research on competences is large. After more than ten years of studies and projects, we have some common frameworks and precise directions. In particular, the path lead by Knowles (1997) in the 1970s marked an important aspect: the adult educator is not a teacher but a guide and facilitator, both in a formal learning context and in an informal or non-formal situation. From a curriculum point of view, we can identify a German and an Italian effort in building up a common core curriculum in adult education, which includes contents and ECTS perspectives. In Portugal, the trainer's profile and curriculum have evolved a lot: he/she is no longer just someone who has the pedagogical ability to communicate a certain type of knowledge and evaluate learning outcomes but an inspiring and creative guide. The comparison further shows a similar perspective regarding the competences of an adult educator in the countries considered.

Introduction

The role of adult educators depend on the state and the countries from a political and a cultural point of view. The great importance of lifelong learning for the growth of each European country shows us the central importance of professionalising the adult educator.

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1   The article represents the work of all authors, although Introduction, Conclusion and Part 1 are by Vanna Boffo, Part 2 is by Kathrin Kaleja, Part 3 is by Khulud Sharif-Ali, Part 4 is by Joana Fernandes.

In this sense, the types of jobs are different according to national classifications of occupation, where we have it. There are countries that have this and others that don't. In Germany, it depends very much on the flexible needs of the economy and the adult/lifelong learning contexts. In Italy and other countries, classifications include: trainer, programme planner, curriculum designer, career counsellor, manager, marketing/media/PR specialist, project manager, researcher, administrator in social firms, and the like. The role of professionals is an important part of the social economy. On one side, we have many different jobs, but on the other side, the activities are less different. The fields of activities, as agreed in the European study on the competency profile of adult educators (Buiskool, Broek, van Lakerveld, Zarifis, & Osborne, 2010, p. 35), can be differentiated as follows: 'Monitoring and evaluation, Counselling and guidance activities, Programme development activities, ICT support activities, Network activities, Administrative support activities, Marketing and Public Relations, Management of quality, Human resource management, Financial management, Need assessment, Preparation of courses, Facilitation of learning'.

The term *competence* is defined as: part of skills, part of knowledge, and part of responsibility. It is possible to divide competences into a lot of categories, for instance, generic and specific (Buiskool et al., 2010, p. 11). For example, it is possible to divide competence into personal and professional competence. It depends on the point of view of research. For a teacher or for a trainer, we can say there are three fields of competences: 1) relational and communicative competences, 2) didactical competences, and 3) disciplinary competences. In Europe these types of competence are studied and applied in the curricula of university study programmes. The article will observe the situation in three countries: Italy, Germany, and Portugal.

The Case Study of Italy

In Italy, the study programme of the adult education course is divided into two different levels: the first one is a bachelor's course named 'Sciences of Education and Formation', three years long; the second one is the master's course in 'Sciences of Adult Education and Continuing Training', two years long. This master's course was implemented in 2001, when the new policy on the length of degree programmes in higher education completely changed the face of the Italian university (Ministry for Universities and Scientific and Technological Research, 1999).

Table 1: Study Programmes in Adult Education (Source: Author's Own)

Type of Degree	Curriculum/ didactical contents	Methods	General information	Standard
Three-year bachelor's Bachelor of science in education and formation	Pedagogy and educational methodology; philosophy, psychology, sociology, and anthropology; history, geography, economics and law; education and integration of disabled people	Seminars, Laboratories, Workshops, Lessons, practical, experiences/internship, final thesis	Entrance requirements: secondary school (with admission test), duration: 3 years training CFU for key competences: 180 CFU practical experiences: 300 hours	High level Evaluation quality system
Two-year degrees Master of science in adult education and continuing training or two-year degrees in pedagogical sciences	Pedagogy and educational methodology; psychology, sociology, and philosophy; law, economics, and politics	Seminars, Laboratories, Workshops, Lessons, practical experiences/internship, final thesis	Entrance requirements: Three-year bachelor's, duration: 2 years, training CFU for key competences: 120 CFU practical experiences: 100 hours	Very high level Evaluation quality system

A general description of the profile could be: The definition of professionals only includes those profiles for whom adult learning constitutes the primary or most significant source of income. Adult learning includes activities aimed at recovering educational skills also within professionalisation pathways. The main areas of adult learning are as follows:

- Adult basic education (EQF 1 and 2): In this field, most services are carried out by state schools, while some are promoted by local councils or voluntary associations (especially those which support immigrants).
- Secondary education (EQF 3): Although the majority of initiatives in this field are promoted by state schools, private institutes are also present.
- Postsecondary education (EQF 4): In this field, one-year higher education courses combine with technical educational institutes offering two-year

courses, both basically aimed at the training of skilled workers. Most initiatives in this field take place in the private sector.

Professionals working in all of the above areas are the equivalent of teachers in each of the corresponding school levels. In postsecondary education, professional technicians and trainers are also common. For this type of professionals, the labour market requires both a bachelor's and a master's degree, but a specific certificate in adult education is not necessary. In the case of formal education, the teachers are the same for children and young adolescents. There aren't any specific preparations, although, in the past year, we expected a change from a legislative point of view (Decree of the President of Republic, n. 263/2012). Because of the new rules, there will be an innovative organisation from the didactical point of view for awarding certificates of primary or secondary school to adults. In this way, it will be possible to increase the level of teaching and learning in the formal adult education system.

Another important variation is the national system for recognising prior learning at the level of the competences of an adult worker (Legislative Decree n. 13/2013). We expect that these legislative modifications will have many effects on the labour market for the adult educator job profile. Also in this case, policy changes will have an effect on adult education because it will be possible to reach a new level of reflection on learning and teaching.

The competences of a trainer are diverse; partly dependent on the labour market and partly fixed by the curriculum of the course of study. A trainer could be a tutor, a teacher of organised learning units, or an adult educator in a specific context in firms or in a private school team. The competences are: *communication skills*, *learning skills*, *making judgements*, *and applying transdisciplinary knowledge* (Knowles, 1973). If we focus our attention on competences as the outcomes at the end of the master's level, we can set the competences of a professional at 6–7 EQF. In this case, we can speak about a profile as teacher or manager or project manager. In Italy, there are lots of professionals in adult education, and the most important distinction is between formal and non-formal education. In the first sector, the principal figure is the teacher; in the second field, the main figures are in-company training managers, human resource managers, experts, and consultants. In every situation, the profile of an adult educator or teacher of adult people is that of a facilitator, a trainer who is very close to the students. Malcolm Knowles (1973, 1997), Carl Rogers (1980), and Donald Schön (1987) wrote in a specific way about the type of teacher in the learning situation with adult learners. At the roots of each of these scholar's thoughts was the lesson of Dewey's pedagogy (1938).

Which types of competences are at the base of the adult educator profile in Italy? As the report of Research voor Beleid (Buiskool et al., 2010) stressed, there are generic competences and specific competences. The following description of competences is a good analysis of the competences that are described in guidelines of university-level courses of study. or better building up the professionalization of the educational job with the adult it is necessary to research themThe generic competences are considered fundamental to any job in the education sector in a rapidly changing world:

- Personal competence in systematic reflection on one's own practice, learning, and personal development: **being a fully autonomous lifelong learner**.
- Interpersonal competence in communicating and collaborating with adult learners, colleagues and stakeholders: **being a communicator, team player, and networker.**
- Competence in being aware of and taking responsibility for the institutional setting in which adult learning takes place at all levels (institute, sector, the profession as such, and society): **being responsible for the further development of adult learning.**
- Competence in making use of one's own subject-related expertise and the available learning resources: **being an expert.**
- Competence in making use of different learning methods, styles, and techniques, including new media, and being aware of new possibilities and e-skills and assessing them critically: **being able to deploy different learning methods, styles, and techniques in working with adults.**
- Competence in empowering adult learners to learn and support themselves in their development into, or as, fully autonomous lifelong learners: **being a motivator.**
- Competence in dealing with group dynamics and heterogeneity in the background, learning needs, motivation, and prior experience of adult learners: **being able to deal with heterogeneity and groups** (Buiskool et al., 2010, p. 12)

Specific competences are dependent on the type of job and the role of the employer; in that sense, it would be necessary to distinguish between the specific competences linked directly to a professional as teacher, trainer, or educator on the one hand, and the competences linked to a manager or project manager on the other. In the first case, the specific competences of a specialist of the learning process are:

- Competence in assessment of prior experience, learning needs, demands, motivations, and wishes of adult learners: **being capable of assessment of adult learners' learning needs.**

- Competence in selecting appropriate learning styles, didactical methods, and content for the adult learning process: **being capable of designing the learning process.**
- Competence in facilitating the learning process for adult learners: **being a facilitator of knowledge (practical and/or theoretical) and a stimulator of adult learners' own development.**
- Competence to continuously monitor and evaluate the adult learning process in order to improve it: **being an evaluator of the learning process.**
- Competence in advising on career, life, further development and, if necessary, the use of professional help: **being an advisor/counsellor.**
- Competence in designing and constructing study programmes: **being a programme developer** (Buiskool et al., 2010, p. 13).

For managers or project managers, competences in the financial field or in human resources will be very important. In these last professional profiles, the following competences are required:

- Competence in managing financial resources and assessing the social and economic benefits of the provision: **being financially responsible.**
- Competence in managing human resources in an adult learning institute: **being a (people) manager.**
- Competence in managing and leading the adult learning institute in general and managing the quality of the provision of the adult learning institute: **being a general manager.**
- Competence in marketing and public relations: **being able to reach the target groups, and promote the institute.**
- Competence in dealing with administrative issues and informing adult learners and adult learning professionals: **being supportive in administrative issues.**
- Competence in facilitating ICT-based learning environments and supporting both adult learning professionals and adult learners in using these learning environments: **being an ICT-facilitator** (Buiskool et al., 2010, p. 13).

These types of competences are at the base of the profile of graduates of bachelor's and master's programmes in adult education in Italy. We may say the general competences are built at the bachelor's level and the specific competences, with a specialisation towards the 'expert of the learning processes' or towards the 'expert in human resources managing/project Manager', are built at the master's level.

The lists of competences reflect, over the course of academic study in Italy, the Dublin descriptors (Bologna Follow-Up Group, 2005), because these last ones serve as the basis on which the learning outcomes of the Italian first- and second-cycle

degree courses are structured. The elements of the Dublin descriptors are: 1) knowledge and understanding, 2) applying knowledge and understanding, 3) making judgements, 4) communication skills, and 5) learning skills. They are general descriptors, and they are linked to the learning objects of both the course of study and the single discipline. In Italy, the Bologna process (1999) began with the reform of the university in the same year, and the process continues until today. It is possible to see the correspondence between the Dublin descriptors of each course (defined in the European Higher Education Area) and the European Qualification Framework descriptors (EQF at 6–7 Levels).

In this way, the qualification system in Italy guarantees communication between knowledge, capabilities, and competences. The system exists in the European Higher Education Area, the difficulties correspond to the modifications of the global system and the variability of the labour market. The problem is the link between the study programmes and the real situation on the labour market. Is there a mismatch? Further research is needed to improve the professionalisation of educators working with adults.

Competences in the Curricula for Adult Educators in Germany

In Germany, university curricula in adult education are influenced by the Bologna process and the switch to bachelor's and master's degrees. Through the Bologna process, several changes occurred in the study programmes such as the implementation of ECTS points. The first university-level programmes in adult education were established in the 1970s as diploma (*Diplom*) studies. The long tradition of the five-year *Diplom* degree and the evolving changes caused by the Bologna Process created insecurity regarding the competences of adult educators (cf. Kollmannsberger & Fuchs, 2009, p. 48). The main doubt is that six semesters of undergraduate study might not be enough to develop the reflexivity of adult educators.

Study programmes aim to develop the competences, knowledge, and abilities of students to become adult educators capable of acting professionally in the sector of adult education. In order to reach this aim, the discourse in adult education since the 1970s produced several approaches towards developing professional adult educators and their role: The competence-based approach is one approach among others towards the development of adult educators. The approach and also the policy discourse produced several different definitions of competences. One of those is the definition of Erpenbeck and Rosenstiel (cf. 2003, p. 15). They define competences as dispositions for self-governed acting. The competence-based approach is represented by Fuhr (1991), for example. It is based on the definition of competence profiles. Fuhr (1991) developed a number of competences based on

the main functions of an adult educator. He defined guidance, teaching, transfer of knowledge, and abilities and management as the main common tasks of adult educators. Out of those tasks, he defines the necessary competence profile for adult educators. Nittel (2000) mentioned that a competence profile for adult educators has to consider the following aspects:

- interaction with clients
- strategic acting in organisations
- handling with themselves
- transfer of contents.

These competence profiles identify tasks of adult educators and the competences that are necessary to fulfil these tasks. This is what Fuhr (1991) did, and through these competences he concluded what is necessary in the curricula for study programmes in adult education.

Competence profiles usually tend to list different competences without clarifying the interrelations between them. It seems as if professional acting results from the existence of all the competences. In real adult education situations, it can happen that adult educators who have all the necessary competences still do not act competently, whereas those who do not have the necessary competences might be able to act competently. Even though in adult education, competence-based approaches are criticised for this discursive gap, European policy focuses on the development of competence frameworks. That is why the discussion on competences increasingly finds its way into the curricula of study programmes.

The curricula of adult education programmes at German universities mostly include detailed lists of competences that students should acquire (cf. Lattke, 2012, p. 61). Compared to Italy, the curricular focus is mainly on topics of adult education or educational sciences, whereas curricula in Italy also include psychology, philosophy, and other topics (cf. Lattke, 2012, p. 61).

Although study programmes in Germany are more content-oriented, competences and the assessment of competences of adult educators are developed in several projects. These projects try to identify the competences that adult educators need. In a project on the development of a competence pass for adult educators, the project distinguished five different competence areas (Böhm, 2012):

- technical competence that includes knowledge in a specific field and on specific topics
- pedagogical-didactical competence that includes knowledge on how to use specific pedagogical methods and how to transfer knowledge to the learner

- personal/social/reflective competence that includes the ability to reflect critically on one's own actions as well as being able to act in social circumstances
- organisational and management competence
- guidance competence that is focused on situations in which the trainer has to guide or counsel a learner.

In adult education, there are no common job profiles. Adult educators work as programme planners, managers, teachers, and in many other capacities. At the same time, adult education lacks a common and precise competence profile (cf. Kollmannsberger & Fuchs, 2009, p. 49). The result of the missing profiles is that there is no transparent image of the competences an adult educator has; neither is there a set of competences they actually need to become a trainer. The universities do not have common competences in the curricula of their study programmes either; they are very heterogeneous in their structures (cf. Heyl, 2012, p. 49).

Teachers and trainers themselves, as well as managers in adult education, consider didactical and pedagogical competences an important aspect, as well as technical competences (cf. Kollmannsberger & Fuchs, 2009, pp. 51–52). The heterogeneous job profiles and job roles for adult educators create a situation that makes it complicated for universities to define a competence profile that will be promoted through the curriculum.

Requirements on Trainers' Competences in the German Labour Market

Since the establishment of a *Diplom* degree course with the focus on adult and continuing education in 1970, the question of professionalisation in the field of adult education has gone through a radical transformation (cf. Egetenmeyer & Schüssler, 2012, p. 5). Hence, due to the Bologna process in 1999, the field of adult education faced a lot of changes regarding the creation of new consecutive bachelor's and master's programmes. Although the new degree structure seemed to be the hardest challenge, adult education, and especially the process of professionalising adult education trainers, experienced new perspectives with regard to teaching theoretical knowledge and practical skills. The field of adult education at the academic level not only has to impart the skills and competences required but also to assure a qualified profession after graduation (cf. Sgier & Lattke, 2012, p. 35).

Adult education in Germany should be regarded as a serious professional field that cannot be taught part-time or casually but needs qualified full-time employees. That is why Tietgens (1998) emphasises the urgent need for

professionalisation as much as Giesecke does. He calls upon the adult education community to clarify the definition of professionalisation in order to train adult educators in the most efficient way (cf. Tietgens, 1998, pp. 28–36). As the importance of the key word *competence* is related to the requirements of professionalisation and quality assurance, one must first define the term *profession*. The term *profession* cannot be defined without including the term *professionalisation*. Adult education as a profession is a very young discipline, which went through a long process of professionalisation. This process of professionalisation includes the organisation of education in order to develop the area of adult and continuing education towards a profession. Unlike other areas as health or law, this process went through many challenges, as there was not enough awareness to see the importance of adult education as a profession. Nevertheless, the following requirements are important in order to understand the term: (1) a long, specialised apprenticeship in abstracted knowledge (expertise), (2) community-oriented work, and the (3) autonomy of control (professional ethics) (Lehmenkühler-Leuschner, 1993, p. 12). The problem here is that most adult educators do not have a specialised training such as doctors or lawyers do. Moreover, trainers frequently have a wide variety of apprenticeship backgrounds, so as a consequence, the varieties of educational traineeships cannot guarantee an explicit, qualified, and unitary definition of the term *profession*.

Referring to the Bologna process in 1999, the European Qualification Framework, which aims to provide more transparency and mobility in undergraduate and postgraduate studies, in their degree programmes and for their future work base as adult educators, implies specific competences of trainers in Europe (cf. Egetenmeyer & Schüssler, 2012, p. 5). In the field of adult and continuing education, the term *competence* can generally be defined as 'a person's ability to act'. These abilities include key qualifications such as personal, social, and methodological competences ('knowing how to know'). Whereas the term *qualification* deals with the requirements of certain situations, the term *competence* is subject-oriented in this field and caught in a conflict between the right proportion of knowledge and skills (cf. Arnold, 2010, pp. 172–173).

The tasks of German adult educators include a variety of different groups, activity fields, and job titles. Many of the trainers in Germany used to work in *Volkshochschulen* (adult education centres) as so-called *hauptberufliche pädagogische Mitarbeiter/innen* (HpM), which sometimes also included teaching tasks on a full-time job base. Then there are the *nebenberufliche pädagogische Mitarbeiter/innen*, who usually have a second job and train adults in vocational fields. Self-employed adult educators (*freiberufliche pädagogische Mitarbeiter/innen*)

represent another heterogeneous group in the area of continuing education. The problem with these heterogeneous groups is that there is no clear job title for the adult educators because of the diversity in status, employment situations, or motives at the workplace. Hence, German adult educators work under many occupational titles, including trainer, lecturer, course instructor, or counsellor (cf. Kraft, 2006, pp. 22–29). Regarding the tasks and activities of a trainer, there is no systematically collected empirical data in the field of continuing education. Most of the distinctions are made between areas such as teaching, management, or counselling. The Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) has conducted a pilot study on the 'Vocational and social situation of teachers in training' in order to learn more about the lack of professionalisation, funding, and the different fields of adult education trainers.

In the sector of continuing education, it is unclear what kinds of competences are required and expected in this area of practice. Thomas Fuhr, a German professor in adult education, differentiates three specific competence levels: (1) teaching, (2) counselling, and (3) organising. Didactical competences include the ability to impart theoretical knowledge and practical skills through teaching methods related to the school system. Counselling competences deal with the motives and reasons of a person who seeks support for taking important decisions. The competence of organising adult education is pedagogical too, due to the fact that adult education centres are institutions which rely on contracts and inform about the expectations of the right performance of its trainers (cf. Fuhr, 1991, pp. 138–139).

There are many studies that discuss the required competences and skills, for example, the pilot study of Kraft (2006) or the European research programme called 'Qualified to teach' (QF2Teach). The research group who worked on the 'competences in the field of adult and continuing education' consisted of members from Denmark, Italy, Portugal, and France. The main aim of this project was to create a joint competence profile for learning facilitators in adult and continuing education. The research part through the so-called 'Delphi study' consisted of interviews with experts and an online survey in two waves (cf. Bernhardsson, 2012b). The questionnaire is available online in English, and the group consisted of 200 experts (ACE learning facilitators 52.2per cent, managers 21per cent, representatives 6.7per cent, researchers 12.4per cent, and policymakers 7.7 per cent from 8 different countries) (cf. Bernhardsson, 2012a).

As a result of the Delphi study, a catalogue was created with a total of nine core competences, according to the experts of teachers in the adults' new formation. For every core competence, there is a brief description of items that include the relevant expertise:

1. *Management of groups and communication*: communicate clearly, manage group dynamics, and manage conflicts
2. *Expertise:* have expertise in their teaching area, apply the didactics in their teaching area
3. *Learning support:* support informal learning, promote the active role of the learner, have a wide repertoire of methods available that involve participants' life experience in the teaching activities
4. *Efficient teaching:* plan teaching activities (time, location, equipment, etc.)
5. *Personal professional development*: start from the needs of learners who use their own experience in the learning environment, understand their learning needs, help them set their own learning goals, be creative and flexible, reflect on their own professional role, be confident, be responsible for their own professional development, welcome criticism, see different perspectives
6. *Promote learning:* motivate and inspire
7. *Learning process analysis:* watch the learning process, evaluate learning outcomes
8. *Self-competence:* Be emotionally stable, open, authentic, and stress-resistant, analyse learning difficulties of learners
9. *Support for learners:* create a safe learning environment, empower learners to apply what they have learned (cf. Bernhardsson & Lattke, 2012, pp. 115ff., translated by the author).

Trainers, Curriculum, and Competences: The Portuguese Context

Trainers' activities have been regulated in Portugal for more than 21 years, and since 1999 there has been an initial vocational training key reference identifying the contents and competences related to trainers' activity. These activities, as well as the definition of trainers' contributions, have evolved a lot in the last decades. When the trainer activity was regulated for the first time in Portugal, it was defined in a classical and traditional way, in terms of their participation in the preparation, planning, development, and evaluation of training.

The Institute for Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP), a certifying body, has designed and implemented the initial vocational training key reference, to be used in the trainers' initial vocational training (IEFP, 1999). The creation of this key reference made it possible for trainers to access a certificate of professional competence, ensuring the 'normalisation during the process of acquiring the necessary skills that are inherent to the trainer's profile, by stabilising the key contents, the intervention methodologies, and the minimum length required (for face-to-face training), as well as a suitable evaluation system' (IEFP, 1999, p. 4).

The trainers' initial vocational training included the following contents, during 90 hours, organised in three axes (IEFP, 1999, p. 8) (cf. Table 1).

Table 1: Contents of the Initial Vocational Training (IEFP, 1999)

A. FRAMEWORK AXE	B. OPERATION AXE	EVALUATION AXE
A1. The trainer towards the training systems and context	B1. Educational objectives	C1. Session plan
A2. Learning factors and processes	B2. Learning evaluation	C2. Educational simulation
A3. Group communication and animation	B3. Educational resources	C3. Educational intervention proposal
A4.Educational methods and techniques	B4. Training planning	
	B5. Training follow-up and evaluation	

Regarding the axes of the training, the framework axe aimed to contextualise the area of training, to explore the different stages of the training cycle, and to allow for the identification of social and personal skills essential for the educational interaction. The operation axe aimed to create, through different units, proper conditions for the development of technical skills for the trainer's activity. The integration and mobilisation of the different skills developed in the course of the training were ensured in the application axe. By successfully attending this training, candidates would obtain a proficiency certificate as trainer (CAP).

In 2011, as part of the reform of the vocational training and the establishment of a legal framework of the National Qualifications System, a new system of trainers' training was established (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2011, p. 2059) and the trainers' initial vocational training was revised and organised in four dimensions: (1) educational, (2) organisational, (3) practical, (4) deontological and ethical (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2011). 'The deontological and ethical dimension is the one that introduces more new aspects, bearing in mind the previous organisation of trainers' training. This dimension pays special attention to the respect for the professional rules and values, as well as for gender equality and ethnic and cultural diversity.' (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2011, p. 2960)

The reorganisation of the trainers' training system led to revising the initial vocational training key reference (IEFP, 1999). In 2012, a new key reference was edited (IESE, 2012), organised in the following training units (Table 2).

Table 2: Contents of the Initial Vocational Training (IESE, 2012)

MF1. Trainer: Systems, contexts, and profile
MF2. Initial educational simulation
MF3. Communication and dynamisation of training groups
MF4. Educational methodologies and strategies
MF5. Training operation: from plan to action
MF6. Teaching resources and multimedia
MF7. Collaborative and learning platforms
MF8. Training and learning evaluation
MF9. Final educational simulation

The revision of the key reference illustrates the growing importance of collaborative platforms and multimedia in the learning process. It is expected that the trainer should have a broader capacity than just for producing, giving, and evaluating contents in an efficient and effective way. This is what the key reference makes explicit: 'Nowadays the companies and the market expect more of the trainer: they demand an inspiring, motivating, and mobilising being, able to break stereotypes, pro-active, entrepreneurial, and creative.' (IESE, 2012, p. 5)

The Portuguese repertory for trainers' activities is strongly connected to the proposal of Buiskool et al. (2010). According to the Portuguese initial vocational training key reference (IESE, 2012, p. 6) trainers develop their activity in relation to: information and communication technology (ICT), entrepreneurship, pedagogical creativity, marketing, counselling, project management, team work, social and ethnic diversity, among others. Regarding the trainers' competences, they're related to: 'prepare and plan the learning process; facilitate the learning process orienting it towards the trainee; monitor and evaluate the learning outcomes; manage the lifelong learning dynamic; explore multimedia resources and collaborative platforms; manage the diversity (differentiated and inclusive pedagogy); and adopt entrepreneurship attitudes and creativity.' (IESE, 2012, p. 8)

As pointed out earlier, the trainers' curriculum has evolved a lot in the Portuguese context due to the evolution and continuous transformation of society, companies, politics, and learning challenges. In Portugal, the trainer at the end of the twentieth century was someone who possessed knowledge in a certain domain and should have the pedagogical ability to communicate and evaluate the learning outcomes. The first Portuguese trainers' initial vocational training key reference curriculum was oriented towards this aim. Over the years, the trainers' activity met new challenges—'trainer, nowadays, replies to multiple challenges and has to be prepared to face the needs of an increasingly competitive vocational training

market' (IESE, 2012, p. 5). The revision of the trainers' initial vocational training key reference curriculum demonstrates this progression.

Conclusion

The case studies show different levels of problems regarding the conditions of the job profile of trainers in adult education, the academic curriculum for preparing an adult educator, and the different situations of the labour market. On the other hand, the comparisons show us a similar condition regarding the perception of the adult educator as a professional in the education field. In this sense, some results are clear:

1. The job profile of an adult educator is quite different in the three countries. In Germany, the evolution of educational work in the adult learning field began in the 1970s; today we are facing further developed tasks and capabilities of adult educators. There is a labour market with widely diverse entering possibilities for people who studied adult education. Portugal also had a labour market situation within the system of recognition of prior learning before the financial crisis. This is happening, although a very precise path of professionalisation is present neither in Germany nor in Italy or Portugal. Italy is now defining the rules of the profession, but at the moment there are wide and large sectors where the adult educator/trainer can work without a specific professional level.

2. Competences and capabilities are the neuralgic points of professionalisation. The different levels of professionalism need different types of skills, as research has made clear, but in the real situation of the job there aren't many specifications. The practice is different from the theoretical model. It is necessary to build up a knowledge base more and more linked with the practical situation.

3. University curricula are similar in Italy and Germany, whereas in Portugal more attention and emphasis is on the vocational education and training system. A very interesting similar situation happens in some Italian and German universities in a European project for the development of a transnational curriculum in several European universities. The project (ESRALE Project, European Studies and Research in Adult Learning and Education; Project Number: 540117-LLP-1–2013-1-DE-ERASMUS-EQMC) intends to develop an adult education curriculum featuring the same contents and same ECTS for each course. In Italy and Germany, a project for developing a similar core curriculum in the European Master in Adult Education[2] has been underway for ten years.

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2 See ESRALE Project: ESRALE – European Studies and Research in Adult Learning and Education Project Number: 540117-LLP-1–2013-1-DE-ERASMUS. The Project

4. The labour markets are different in Italy, Germany, and Portugal, and the perspectives of the adult educator change in these countries. However, it is possible to name the problem of cultural consideration and an adult educator's economic profile as depending on the laws of each country. In Portugal, legislative changes have put the job profile of an adult educator in a different light, with more secure definitions.

It is very important to compare curricula[3], competences, and degree levels between European countries because jobs in the social and educational fields are very important for democracy. Lifelong learning is impossible without adult educators, and a project manager in social and educational sectors must have the clear competences for building new and free societies. Therefore, studies in adult education and learning are at the base of the well-being of every democratic country in Europe and the world.

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is working on the definition of core competences for degree programmes in adult education and learning at the master's level. The network of ten European universities looks at the possibilities of having joint titles and joint curricula. Cf. www.esraleproject.org (04/2015).

3   For other informations about current structures in adult education study programmes, see also the contribution of Semrau, Vieira and Guida in this book.

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Regulations and working conditions for trainers in adult education: A comparative glance*

Abstract

Adult education is a fundamental and strategic part of the new strategies for Europe. Education, learning, lifelong and lifewide learning are the central pivots for a sustainable, smart, and creative growth of people for the future, a very close future, as a mid-term horizon. Thus, the training of the trainers appears to be one of the most important points of research and practice fields in adult education, and it is possible to say that the beginning and continuous training of adult educators, adult teachers, trainers, guides, and coaches/mentors is a sensitive and central point for professionalisation. This chapter focuses on the qualitative pathways for the training of adult trainers from a comparative perspective. The authors describe the differences at the legislative level and the variations in the training situation in three European countries: Italy, Germany, and Portugal. The aim of the article is to confirm the initial hypothesis: Although trainers are highly regarded in the development of societies, economies, and people, their working conditions and job situations seem to be underestimated (reflected namely in unstable labour contracts, long working hours, and a precarious payment system).

Introduction

Adult learning and education are vast fields of research, important for both the current and future conditions of people in Europe and the world. In this context, the European Commission is looking to better the conditions for citizens by implementing policies to improve the conditions of adults. We know that more adult education can help Europe overcome the economic crisis, because learning is essential for increasing social inclusion and for growing competences and capabilities at the workplace and in the labour market (cf. Federighi, 2013). The different levels of participation in education and training by adults aged 25 to 64 reflect the different levels of participation in the labour market (cf. Federighi,

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* The article represents the work of all authors, although Introduction, Conclusion and Part 1 are by Vanna Boffo, Part 2 is by Kathrin Kaleja, Part 3 is by Joana Fernandes

2013). There is a correlation between the development of economic growth in some countries over the years 2000, 2005, and 2010 and the better performances of these countries. This is because the new, young generation have invested a lot more in up-skilling than their predecessors. Where this has been the case, there have been significant results in terms of economic growth and improved social conditions (cf. Federighi, 2013, pp. 26–27).

Learning and education are important for the training of adults (cf. Knowles, 1984; Morin, 1999). In this context, problems regarding the training of the trainers are at the centre of our knowledge about adult learning and education.

Who are the trainers in the field of adult education? We have different answers depending on the countries of Europe where we ask this question to scholars or policy makers. We can see the answer depends on national legislation and on the qualitative pathway regarding the training of the trainers.

We will observe the situation in three European countries: Italy, Germany, and Portugal. Comparing these three states will lead to the conclusion that the political level is very important for improving the working situation of trainers in adult education. You could say where the legal provisions regarding the profile of trainers are clear, there are better job conditions and better circumstances for the diffusion of the 'system' of adult education.

The Condition of Italian Trainers

In Italy, the condition of trainers in the field of adult education varies depending on whether you look at the public or the private sector. From a historical point of view, in Italy, it is possible to talk about an adult education path, and directly about the figure of the adult educator, beginning in 1997. In March that year, there was a public law reforming public administration and consequently the possibilities of learning paths for adults into higher education institutions. In this sense, the legislation defined the difference between a specific professional profile in the private sector and the profile of a teacher at school.

The profile of an adult educator emerged in Italy after World War II, when the literacy of the Italian people was of high relevance. In a very important period for the re-building of Italy, education and learning were at the centre of this process of reconstruction. The adult educator in 1947, (Law n. 1559, 17/12/1947: the date when the school for adults was established) was an important person in the in-formal context of education: in associations, in religious situations, and in schools for adults. An important point for the qualification of the adult educator profile occurred when the Italian Ministry of Education (Ministerial Order n° 455 on

29 July 1997) decided to establish the Permanent Territorial Centres for Adult Learning and Training (CTP).

The CTP were replaced in 2012, and now we have the CPIA (Provincial Centres for Adult Learning – DPR 29/10/2012 n. 263) where it is possible for an adult to obtain the certification for primary and secondary school, as well as the certification for proficiency in Italian. This type of path is public, and it is the better way to reach a certification valid in the Italian labour market. In this case, the profile of an adult educator is the same as that of a teacher (7 EQF). Furthermore, the role can be compared to a teacher in a public Italian primary or secondary school. This is the sector of formal education.

Then there is the private sector of adult education and learning. Here, there is law n. 92/2012, in which the Italian government defines the general rules for the recognition and validation of an adult's prior learning. Ever since, that legislation has been applied via legislative decree 13/2013, making it possible to recognize the competences of each adult, thereby giving all adults the possibility to study or to learn.

Who is the adult trainer in Italy, currently? You can distinguish between those professionals active in the training of employed workers—mainly within the framework of business policy—and those training unemployed workers.

Regarding the training of employed workers, it is important to distinguish between adult learning professionals working in professionalisation pathways and those working for various kinds of organisations represented in the training market (global training companies, various kinds of public, private, and combined training agencies with different missions and structures—religious organisations, trade unions, etc.). In the case of unemployed workers, you find professionals working for organisations represented in the training market driven by social policy. The field of training for employed workers includes roles such as in-company training managers, human resource managers, experts, consultants, and trainers.

In non-formal adult education, specialised sector-oriented experts work in the various areas of the field. In some cases, certificates or specific qualifications are required to exercise a profession, for instance, tourist guides and health educators. Managerial roles are also examined in the various fields under consideration: school heads in adult education, company directors in private organisations, or heads of in-company training. Support services include professionals with the following roles: guidance practitioners and counsellors employed at public employment centres but also at companies (in this case they are often combined with other complementary profiles such as selection consultants) (cf. Boffo, 2010).

The Diversity of Qualification Pathways for Adult and Continuing Education Trainers in Germany

The Continuing Education Acts (*Weiterbildungsgesetze*) are the only main legal basis for regulating the field of adult and continuing education in Germany. Each of Germany's 16 states has its own act on continuing education. The different acts lead to different situations in each of the states. Some of the acts define the qualification that trainers need for their work; some don't refer to staff in adult and continuing education. Those that do mention requirements for the qualification of trainers—like the Bavarian Continuing Education Act—state that trainers should have a suitable qualification (Bayerische Staatsregierung, 1974). Most employees in adult and continuing education obtained an academic degree (73 per cent). Another 26 per cent acquired a degree in vocational education and training. A lot of people who work in adult and continuing education are career changers (cf. Kraft, Seitter, & Kollewe, 2009, p. 18). 38 per cent of the people working in adult and continuing education have an academic degree in educational fields. 49 per cent obtained teaching skills through continuing education. 34 per cent of the people working in adult and continuing education do not have any teaching qualification (cf. WSF Wirtschafts- und Sozialforschung, 2005, p. 49). In adult and continuing education, there is wide-ranging diversity in initial and continuing qualification programmes. A mandatory qualification path does not exist in the field. The qualification paths of adult educators are diverse, and specific regulations and minimum standards do not exist (cf. Kraft, Seitter & Kollewe, 2009, p. 19).

The statistics make it obvious that trainers obtain their qualifications as trainers through various paths: through a university degree (e.g. in education or secondary/vocational teacher education), through continuing education programmes with an educational emphasis, or through a programme without any pedagogical qualification. The different qualification paths are strongly diversified, and standards are not defined. In addition to the formal paths, there are projects on the validation of adult educators' competences, such as the GRETA Project, which aims to identify the basic elements for developing a validation process for the competences of trainers in adult and continuing education.

An academic qualification in an educational field can be obtained by earning a teaching degree for secondary or vocational school or a bachelor's or master's degree in education. Undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in education feature various concentrations, including adult and continuing education, lifelong learning, and many others. The structure of bachelor's and master's degrees with an emphasis on adult and continuing education varies from one German university

to the next (cf. Heyl, 2012, p. 49). For the qualification programmes in continuing education, a similar situation can be assumed, because programmes are provided by different providers.

In Germany, adult and continuing education is defined as education for people who completed formal education. It is not part of Germany's formal education system. Adult and continuing education is divided into vocational education and training and general adult and continuing education. The field of adult and continuing education is diversified, featuring providers of different sizes and with different offers. A study financed by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) shows that in 2004 in adult and continuing education, 16,841 providers of adult and continuing education were identified by the *Weiterbildungskataster* (Dietrich, Schade, & Behrensdorf, 2008). 1.6 million people were employed in the adult education sector (including self-employed people and volunteers) (cf. WSF Wirtschafts- und Sozialforschung, 2005, p. 3). 1.3 million of them work as trainers in adult and continuing education. The field of adult and continuing education is a broad field with a lot of employees. In adult and continuing education, 83 per cent of the people work as trainers in teaching situations.

Of those working in adult and continuing education, 14 per cent are employed, 74 per cent are self-employed, 10 per cent are volunteers, and 3 per cent work under other working conditions. Self-employed trainers in adult and continuing education face particularly difficult working conditions, because their salary per hour is much lower than that of employed trainers. In addition, they may face irregular working hours, and being paid per hour may mean financial insecurity. This is relevant for most of the trainers in adult and continuing education. Due to this situation, trainers in adult and continuing education need to work in more than one institution, or they need a second job. 62 per cent of the people working in adult and continuing education work part time in the sector, with a main job outside the adult and continuing education sector. They are students, retirees, or homemakers (cf. WSF Wirtschafts- und Sozialforschung, 2005, p. 5). Trainers tend to work for more than one institution as well. If they work in more than one institution, they work in an average of 2.9 other institutions (cf. WSF Wirtschafts- und Sozialforschung, 2005, p. 61). This underlines the situation that more than half of the trainers working in adult and continuing education do have a main job next to their work as a trainer. There are very few trainers for whom adult and continuing education is the only source of income. The high rate of self-employment shows that adult and continuing education as a main job does not provide a secure financial basis. The number of work contracts can have an impact on the number of working hours per week and on work pressure. If trainers work in more than

one institution, they have to travel back and forth between the different providers of adult and continuing education.

Although the results show that the working conditions of trainers in adult and continuing education in Germany are precarious, some 80 per cent of the trainers state that they are satisfied with their working conditions (cf. WSF Wirtschafts- und Sozialforschung, 2005, p. 9). The high satisfaction rate is hard to reconcile with the working conditions. Probably their satisfaction results from the fact that they have chosen to do their training work as a side job.

Legislation in Portugal and the Continuous Changes in Trainers' Working Conditions

Trainers' professional activities were first regulated in Portugal in 1994 (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 1994). On this date, the trainer was defined as a 'professional who while training, establishes a pedagogical relationship with trainees, favouring the acquisition of knowledge and skills, as well as the development of attitudes and forms of behaviour suitable to a professional performance' (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 1994, p. 6885).

Although this regulation occurred in 1994, it was a set of actions of the previous decade that paved the way for the need to regulate the trainer's activity. In 1991, there was a distinction between professional training in the education system and professional training in the labour market; there also was a distinction between initial vocational training and continuing vocational training (Decree-Law n.º 401/91, 16 October 1991); and it was expected that the Institute for Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP) would create a pool of trainers (Decree-Law n.º 405/91, 16 October 1991). In 1992, the legal framework of professional certification was established (cf. Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 1992, p. 2468).

The proficiency certificate as trainer, named 'Proficiency Certificate as Trainer' (CAP), was valid for five years and could be renewed by professional development (at least 120 hours of training per year) and taking continuing vocational training courses (minimum 30 hours) (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 1994). In 1997, the type-approval conditions and the contents of the trainers' initial vocational training were defined, and the renewable conditions of the trainer's certificates of professional competence were identified (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 1997).

The IEFP is the Portuguese public organisation responsible for issuing trainer certificates. As a certifying body, it designed and implemented the initial vocational training key reference to be used in the trainers' initial vocational training

(cf. IEFP, 1999). The creation of this key reference made it possible for trainers to access a certificate of professional competence, ensuring the 'normalisation during the process of acquiring the necessary skills that are inherent to the trainer's profile, by stabilising the key contents, the intervention methodologies and the minimum length required (for face-to-face training), as well as a suitable evaluation system' (IEFP, 1999, p. 4).

Since 2010, the renewal of the proficiency certificate as trainer has no longer been mandatory (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2010). The reasons for this change include the 'constraints regarding vocational training' (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2010, p. 4330) and the absence of a legal framework of vocational training (resulting from the Ministers Council Resolution n. º 173/2007, 7 November 2007). This change was adopted in a non-consensual way by the different players of training, because some are concerned that if trainers don't have to validate their certificate, they may not invest in training and updating.

In the following year, as part of the reform of vocational training and the establishment of a legal framework of the National Qualifications System (Decree-Law n.º 396/2007, 31 December 2007), a new system of trainer's training and certification of educational competencies was established in Portugal (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2011, p. 2059). The changes made by this new system are multiple. First, the designation of the trainer's certification changed from 'Proficiency Certificate as Trainer' to 'Teaching Skills Certificate'. Furthermore, new ways to access the trainer's certification were introduced. As of 2011, earning a 'Teaching Skills Certificate' is possible by: attending initial vocational training; the recognition, validation, and certification of trainers' competencies acquired by work experience; and the recognition of educational qualifications.

Since 2011, certification processing has been done by an electronic site[1], the 'Information System of Trainers' Training and Certification', replacing the previous delivery of paper documents to the IEFP. Besides issuing the 'Teaching Skills Certificate', this platform contains vocational training courses and the list of recognised educational qualifications, amongst others. This platform is also a trainers' pool. According to data from the platform, over 300,000 trainers with a Teaching Skills Certificate are registered here.

Although the trainer in adult education is frequently referred to in a broad way, as someone capable of integrating multiple actions and training formats, it

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1   http://netforce.iefp.pt.

is undeniable that the trainer's activity depends on the type and form of training. The trainer may develop vocational training within a company (for active employees); vocational training within a training centre (for active employees and/or unemployed persons); double certification training (educational and professional) for young people and adults; parental education/training; trainers' training; processes of recognition, validation, and certification of competencies, amongst many other possibilities. In essence, each training has distinctive purposes, objectives, durations, and methodologies, which also require specific skills and specific ways of behaviour from the trainer, and he/she must have a strong and fast capacity to adapt (cf. Fernandes & Santos, 2014, p. 47; cf. Santos & Fernandes, 2014, p. 51). Therefore, considering, on one hand, the importance of the trainer's activity, but also the demands related to it, it is relevant to pay attention to their activity, because, if the trainer's activity has been analysed according to its educational capacity and respective efficiency, it has not been as well analysed regarding the conditions in which this activity is developed (cf. Delgoulet, Cau-Bareille, Chatigny, Gaudart, Santos, & Vidal-Gomel, 2012, p. 111). Despite the important acknowledgment of the trainers' activity, their activity is demanding also because they usually develop it under precarious work conditions, with unstable contracts of unpredictable duration, and with a very variable salary level (cf. Conselho Nacional de Educação, 2011, p. 248; Fernandes & Santos, 2014, p. 47; Santos & Ferreira, 2012, p. 51), reflecting a lack of appreciation for training as a professional activity. In fact, as Abrantes (2011, p. 248) pointed out, the cohesion and stability of the trainers' team are crucial for the training development. However, these aspects don't seem to be considered in the Portuguese scenario, especially as far as stability is concerned (cf. Santos & Ferreira, 2012).

In Portugal, over the last three decades, there has been an effort to regulate training, including the trainer's activity. In Portugal, the trainer's qualification is, in most situations, guaranteed by the attendance of an initial vocational training programme. The analysis of training and adult trainers reveals a strong dependence (as far as training is concerned) on external funding sources and a strong sensitivity towards the priority given in the political agenda. So training in Portugal follows a relative ambivalence: on the one hand, training is associated with great responsibility and expectations regarding the development of society; on the other hand, it has to deal with significant instability and unpredictability and also a relative lack of appreciation. The trainer is expected to know how to deal with these two dimensions throughout his/her career.

Conclusion

The three dimensions of the profile of the adult educator or adult trainer show us some differences and some similarities, focused on a political problem in Italy and on cultural problems in Germany and in Portugal.

At the base of the diffusion of the importance of adult training is the power of education and the possibility to improve democracy, employability, and the economic and social development in countries and regions where the level of participation in education and training is high (European Commission, 2010; European Commission, 2011). In this sense, more education and, in particular, more adult education will be the pathway towards the future from a political point of view (cf. Federighi, 2013). In Germany and in Portugal, these types of sentences are in line with national strategy. The challenge of the countries' growth is strictly linked to adult education and depends on the profile of the professionals working in this sector. In Italy, the situation is different in terms of government policy choices.

From the legislative point of view, the role of the adult educator is important all three countries; likewise, the training of adult educators takes place at the higher education level, above all in Italy and in Germany. In spite of the recognition of trainers' competences in Portugal, and regardless of the university pathways in Germany and in Italy, there is still a lack of appreciation for the adult education professional: employers ask for a high degree of flexibility, salary expectations are not that good, and sometimes trainers have to work in two or more workplaces at the same time.

More work is necessary to raise public appreciation of the adult educator, because their role is essential in helping societies meet the challenges of tomorrow.

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Franziska Semrau, Nataliya G. S. Vieira & Elisa Guida

Academic professionalisation in adult education: insights into study programmes in Germany, Italy and Portugal

Abstract

The three EU member states Germany, Italy, and Portugal have implemented measures of the Bologna process as a common strategy, wherefrom different situations concerning the organisation of study programmes related to adult education have developed in these three different country-specific contexts. This paper takes a closer look at the opportunities for academic professionalisation provided by university studies in adult education at the bachelor's and master's level in each country. From a structural point of view, a comparative analysis will show differences in the amount of contents related to adult education at the bachelor's level compared to the master's level. Furthermore, it will be considered which possibilities for and types of personal development exist in these degree courses.

Introduction

The field of adult education is very wide and diverse. Adult educators as a group are heterogeneous, and the circumstances under which they perform their daily work vary depending on the sector they work in. This means that the specific characteristics of adult education and of the professionalisation process in that field can only be understood with regard to the social structures of a region or country, their historical development, and their political and economic surroundings (cf. Jütte & Lattke, 2014, p. 7; Nuissl, 2005, p. 48). Considering the concrete issue of academic professionalisation of adult educators from an internationally comparative point of view, this must also be taken into account (cf. Egetenmeyer & Schüßler, 2014b, p. 92).

Furthermore, a huge variety and complexity within the practical situations adult educators are confronted with can be seen. These characteristics make it impossible in the daily pedagogical practice to closely follow behavioural guidelines. There are no universal solutions for educational practice. Rather, it is characteristic that there are contradictions and antinomies which must be endured. Consequently, it is necessary for adult educators to interpret situations based on their scientific knowledge so that they are able to act adequately in these situations: 'In other words, professionals are able to put on professional glasses through which they can see situations clearly

from the perspective of adult education.' (Egetenmeyer & Käpplinger, 2011, p. 25). Professionalism in this sense means to understand and interpret daily situations and to act adequately on the basis of professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes (ibid.; Egetenmeyer & Schüßler, 2014a, pp. 30 ff.; Alberici & Orefice, 2006, pp. 23 ff.). Therefore, academic professionalisation in terms of academic qualification as a basis for developing professionalism is related, on the one hand, to more abstract, scientific knowledge imparted through a formal qualification, but on the other hand also to possibilities for developing personal competencies during this formal education.

This paper takes a closer look at existing opportunities for academic qualification in adult education at the bachelor's and master's level in Germany, Italy, and Portugal. The starting point for the discussion will be the contextual commonality of the Bologna Process in each of these three EU member states. A comparative analysis seeks to identify current similarities and differences in organised study programmes in the country-specific contexts. Furthermore, it will be considered which possibilities for and different types of personal development exist in these degree courses.

Opportunities for Academic Professionalisation in Adult Education in Germany

With the implementation of the Bologna Process in Germany, the academic qualification for adult educators has changed from the former one-cycle diploma programmes (duration: 4.5 years) to the current two-cycle bachelor's and master's degree courses (duration: 3 plus 2 years) (cf. Egetenmeyer & Schüßler, 2014b, p. 93). The ways in which curricular contents were transferred from the diploma system to the new study model vary, and the change was not always an easy one (cf. Faulstich, Graeßner, & Walber, 2012, p. 30; Lattke, 2012, p. 53). According to statistical information from the German Rectors Conference (HRK), the vast majority of all study courses in the 2014–2015 winter term were transferred to bachelor's and master's courses (cf. HRK, 2014, p. 7). The research that was done for the following comparison showed a similar situation, with only one programme related to adult education finishing with a diploma degree could be identified[1]. However, researching the online study information pages does not clearly reveal how many German study

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1   The contents related to the German study programmes are based on the named sources and on own research, which was done using online university information pages in February 2015. These sources include the study guide of the German Institute of Adult Education (DIE) http://www.die-bonn.de/weiterbildung/studienfuehrer/default.aspx and the subject information system of the HRK http://www.hochschulkompass.de/studium/studieren-in-deutschland-die-fachsuche.html. When searching the second

courses at the bachelor's and master's level are connected to contents related to adult education, because the number of courses listed varied between 55 (DIE) and 28 (HRK) bachelor's courses and 74 (DIE) and 27 (HRK) master's courses.

Undergraduate programmes providing knowledge related to adult education in Germany are mainly named 'educational sciences' or 'pedagogy'; only few course titles include terms like adult education, lifelong learning, or extracurricular education (cf. Faulstich, Graeßner, & Walber, 2012, p. 32; Frößinger, 2010, p. 3). Within this range of labels for academic programmes, also diverse structures can be found in which adult education contents are organised. There are single-subject bachelor's courses in educational sciences or pedagogy in which students can concentrate in adult education (e.g. the courses offered at the universities in Chemnitz, Tübingen, and Bamberg) as well as programmes in general educational subjects without the possibility to concentrate even though adult education contents are included in the general curriculum (e.g. the bachelor's programme in pedagogy/educational sciences at Ludwig Maximilian University Munich). Furthermore, there are double-major bachelor's programmes combining education with one other subject in which the amount of credit points related to education, and consequently to adult education, varies from one university to the next (programmes like these can be studied for instance at Humboldt University in Berlin or at the universities in Würzburg and Potsdam). But the amount of credit points in the single-major bachelor's courses with a concentration in adult education varies, too (cf. Heyl, 2012, p. 46). Faulstich, Graeßner, and Walber notice that the adult education-related contents in the bachelor's courses they studied was around 20 per cent (cf. Faulstich, Graeßner, & Walber, 2012, p. 32). Considering the bachelor's degree as a first academic qualification that should qualify graduates to work professionally in the labour market, and given the diversity of educational pathways at this first degree level in Germany, it is doubtful whether these studies offer the basic scientific knowledge and competences for professionalised work in adult education.

In contrast to the undergraduate programmes, the adult education-related master's courses offered in Germany have a variety of labels and provide many possibilities for specialisation (cf. Faulstich, Graeßner, & Walber, 2012, pp. 32–33). For example, there are programmes called 'research in continuing education and organisational development' (Dresden) or 'educational sciences with a main focus on heterogeneity in education' (Augsburg), in which adult education knowledge can be deepened. Some master's courses with a more general title give students the opportunity to choose a concentration in adult education (e.g. in the master's programmes offered

source the keywords Erwachsenenbildung (adult education) and Weiterbildung (continuing education) were used to identify related programmes.

in Tübingen, named 'research and development in education', or Bamberg, named 'educational sciences'). In some other master's programmes, students cannot specialise in adult education even though adult education contents are taught in separate modules (e.g. the master's programme in Chemnitz). In the master's courses studied by Faulstich, Graeßner, and Walber, around 48 per cent of the content is related to adult education (cf. Faulstich, Graeßner, & Walber, 2012, p. 32). Consequently, it can be said that for the second-degree cycle in Germany, adult education topics are more visible, but very often they are also more specific (ibid, p. 37).

Overall, it appears from a structural point of view that adult education loses its relevance in the general educational programmes at the bachelor's level, whereas at the master's level, this can partly be compensated by study courses preparing students for special occupations in adult education. Although a recommendation for the structure of educational study programmes with a concentration in adult education, published by the German Educational Research Association (DGfE) in 2008, exists in Germany, neither bachelor's nor master's courses are currently organised on a common basis (cf. Heyl, 2012, pp. 48 ff.)[2]. This leads to diversification and a lack of transparency in academic offerings (cf. Frößinger, 2010, p. 4).

Opportunities for Academic Professionalisation in Adult Education in Italy

The Bologna reform and the following legislative measures in the process of implementation in Italy had profound effects on the organisation and functional structures of the university system in general as well as on the debate within the academic community regarding the effects and range of the occurring changes (cf. Stefani, 2009). Starting from the 1999 university reform, a university network in adult education was established with the aim of rethinking and restructuring the study curriculum for the education of professionals in adult education in Italy. Within a few years, adult education gained visibility and was built on a comprehensive scientific base, which can be shown by the growth of professorships as well as the variety of study courses developed with the intention to create professional profiles in different areas of adult education (cf. Alberici & Orefice, 2006, pp. 99–100).

Nowadays, Italian higher education institutions offer various bachelor's and master's courses in adult education. They are generally defined as 'sciences of education and training'. The following four selected examples provide an exemplary impression of the present study organisation at Italian universities:

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2   For more detailed information about the curriculum for study programmes in adult education see the contribution of Boffo, Kaleja, Sharif-Ali and Fernandes in this volume.

University 'Roma Tre' in Rome:

- B.A. in Training and Human Resource Development (3-year course) including seminars in docimology[3] and evaluation of lifelong learning, 9 ECTS; adult education, 9 ECTS; technologies for adult education, 9 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Roma Tre: Corso di laurea triennale in formazione e sviluppo delle risorse umane 2014/2015)
- M.A. in Adult and Continuing Education (2-year course) including seminars in lifelong learning and adult education, 12 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Roma Tre: Corso di laurea magistrale in educazione degli adulti e formazione continua 2013/2014)

University of Padua:

- B.A. in Educational Sciences and Training (3-year course) including a seminar in adult and continuing education, 6 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Padova: Curriculum formazione e sviluppo delle risorse umane 2014/2015)
- M.A. in Continuing Education (2-year course) including seminars in adult education, 9 ECTS; ethics of continuing education, 6 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Padova, offerta formativa 2013/2014)

University of Firenze, Florence:

- B.A. in Social Education (3-year course) includes a seminar in social and adult education, 6 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Firenze: Offerta formative, corsi di laurea dell'Ateneo fiorentino, pedagogia sociale ed educazione degli adulti)
- M.A. in Adult Education, Continuing Education and Pedagogical Sciences (2-year course) including seminars in the foundations of adult and continuing education, 12 ECTS. (Università degli studi di Firenze: Fundamenti dell'educazione degli adulti e della formazione continua)

Catholic University of the Sacred Heart:

- B.A. in Sciences of Education and Training (3-year course, situated in the area of the city of Brescia) includes pedagogy of the workplace and training, 10 ECTS. (Catholic University of the Sacred Heart: Offerta formative, corso di laurea triennale in scienze dell'educazione e della formazione, piano degli studi)

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3 These seminars focus on the historical benchmarks and theoretical framework for testing and assessment techniques (docimology) and evaluation research, with particular reference to adult competencies (Università degli studi di Roma Tre: Docimologia e valutazione dell'apprendimento permanente base).

- M.A. in Pedagogical Design and Training of Human Resources (2-year course, situated in the area of the city of Brescia) includes a seminar in the pedagogy of organisation and human resource development, 10 ECTS. (Catholic University of the Sacred Heart: Offerta formative, corso di laurea magistrale in progettazione pedagogica e formazione delle risorse umane, piano degli studi)

One example of academic studies in adult education in Italy is the master's degree programme at the University of Padua, which is designed to pursue various goals such as preparing specialists of continuing education and training programmes in the fields of continuing vocational training, adult education, learning, and upgrading human resources. Today, beginning in the 2014–2015 academic year, this MA course in 'continuing education' has become an interclass degree titled 'management of education and training'. It is characterised by the combination of two master's degrees: 'planning and management of education' and 'science of adult and continuing education'. The main attribute of this course is the opportunity for students to link theory with practice in various manners. In fact, the learners can do the *stage*, or internships, in some official organisation to enrich their knowledge and competencies. Also the students can complete their master's thesis during their *stage* or internship in the organisational context (Università degli studi di Padova, offerta formativa 2013/2014).

Opportunities for Academic Professionalisation in Adult Education in Portugal

The field of academic professionalisation in adult and continuing education does not have a long history at Portuguese universities. Over the period of the Bologna process (launched in 1999), the lifetime of the EU Lifelong Learning programme (2007–2013), and the participation of the state in the development of European and international lifelong learning strategies, academic interest in research on the education of adults has increased, opening new horizons for learning experiences towards graduate trainings specifically directed to adult pedagogy (cf. European Association for the Education of Adults, 2011; Lima & Guimarães, 2011). Nowadays, both public and private universities support academic trainings in this domain at the levels of *licenciatura*[4] (similar to bachelor's, B.A.), master's, and PhD degree studies that propose diverse designations of the courses. The analysis of available online

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4   The Portuguese licenciatura consists of a three- or four-year course that students can attend after completing secondary education. It can be compared to bachelor's (B.A.) degree studies provided by some European universities.

study plans and programmes at the public universities illustrates the example of the common policy identified in the field. The Portuguese *licenciatura* (3-year course), which provides specialisations under the frameworks of community intervention, social education, and education or educational sciences, offers seminars (obligatory or optional) about professionalisation in adult and continuing education. These seminars have a workload of 5 to 10 ECTS[5] (see Table 1, based on the official sites of the Portuguese universities, spring-summer, 2015).

Table 1: Some examples of Licenciatura at Portuguese public universities that offer seminars in adult education (based on the official sites of the Portuguese universities, spring-summer, 2015)

University	*Licenciatura*
University of Lisbon, Institute of Education	Specialisation in education and training (3-year course), seminar in policy and practice of adult education and training, 5 ECTS. Specialisation in educational sciences (3- year course), seminar in adult training, 4.5 ECTS.
University of Algarve, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of Psychology and Educational Sciences	Specialisation in educational sciences (3- year course), seminars in adult education and training, 5 ECTS, and lifelong learning, 5 ECTS.
University of Coimbra, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences	Specialisation in educational sciences (3- year course), seminar in adult education and training, 6 ECTS.
University of Porto, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences	Specialisation in educational sciences (3- year course), seminar in psychosociology in adult education, 6 ECTS.
University of Minho, Institute of Education	Specialisation in education (3-year course), optional seminar in adult pedagogy, 5 ECTS; projects and seminars in adult education and community intervention, 10 ECTS + 10 ECTS next semester.
University of Madeira, Centre of Social Sciences	Specialisation in educational sciences, optional seminar in adult education, 7.5 ECTS.

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5   ECTS is short for European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System, which includes a standard grading scale to make higher education comparable in Europe (cf. European Commission, 2015).

The specialisations exclusively dedicated to adult education with large workloads are mainly concentrated at the MA and PhD level (see Table 2). These courses focus on national and international theory-practice reflection on continuing and adult education policy.

Table 2: Some examples of MA and PhD courses with a specialisation in adult education at Portuguese public universities (based on the official sites of the Portuguese universities, spring-summer, 2015)

University	MA/PhD graduate courses
University of Lisbon, Institute of Education	MA in educational sciences, specialisation in adult training, 120 ECTS. MA in education, specialisation in adult training, 120 ECTS. PhD in education, specialisation in adult training, 180 ECTS.
NOVA University of Lisbon, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities and Faculty of Sciences and Technology	PhD in educational sciences, specialisation in adult education and training, 180 ECTS.
University of Coimbra, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences	MA in the education and training of adults and community intervention, 120 ECTS. PhD in educational sciences, specialisation in continuing and adult education, 180 ECTS.
University of Porto, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences	MA in adult education and training, 120 ECTS.
University of Minho, Institute of Education	MA in educational sciences, specialisation in adult education, 120 ECTS. MA in education, specialisation in adult education and community intervention, 120 ECTS.
University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro	MA in educational sciences, specialisation in adult education, 120 ECTS.

Different types of curricular trainings and internships are implemented in Portugal, mostly as part of MA and PhD programmes. They monitor the operationalisation and accomplishment of some educational projects and present quantitative and qualitative data to academic and executive communities. The results (probation reports, final course dissertations, and academic works) reflect the national framework related, for instance, to the implementation of the Programme for Development and Expansion of Adult Education and Training Knowing+ (1999–2006), the New Opportunities Initiative, the activities of the Competencies

Recognition, Validation, and Certification Centres, and the like (cf. Rothes, 2003; Lima & Guimarães, 2004). The recent actions determined by the CONVINTEA VI process (2009) and the implementation of the European Agenda of Lifelong Learning (2012–2014) promote comparative academic research and studies on the subject (cf. Pereira, 2012; Aguiar & Silva, 2013). However, diversified choices and complex alternatives in the academic context of professionalisation in adult education determine the attention that Portuguese stakeholders devote to reviewing the long-term strategies, constitution and sustainability of this scientific domain for providing a comprehensive sense of the profession, calling for cooperative work at the international level, and support employment opportunities and career development in the sector.

Comparison

The juxtaposition of study programmes in Germany, Italy, and Portugal illustrates the current status of the Bologna process in the different national higher education systems. Whereas the changes in Germany were more focused on structural changes due to the prior existence of diploma programmes in adult education, the focus in Portugal and Italy changed towards raising the visibility of adult education as an academic discipline. Besides this, the Bologna Process as such marks a milestone in terms of being a common framework from which different situations have evolved in the process of academic professionalisation in adult education in each of the three countries examined.

Furthermore, the current situation in academic studies related to adult education in Germany and Portugal seems to be characterised, on the one hand, by a more general, interdisciplinary, and broad education at the bachelor's level, while, on the other hand, study programmes at the master's level are more specific and focused on specialisations in scientific research or special fields of adult education. The research performed for this article shows for selected study courses at the bachelor's and master's levels that the amount of ECTS related to adult education contents is lower for bachelor's courses than it is for master's courses. The situation in Italy regarding this issue cannot be clearly determined. Based on the examples given for study courses in Germany and Portugal, as well as the Bologna Process discourse that considers the bachelor's degree as the first degree that should enable graduates to work as professionals (cf. Bologna Working Group on Qualifications Framework, 2005, pp. 66–67), it is doubtful at least for Germany and Portugal whether graduates are sufficiently prepared for professional work in adult education after completing the first cycle of studies.

Regarding the aforementioned typical contradictions and antinomies that must be endured by adult educators in complex and changing practical situations, it was also important when doing the international comparison to find out whether possibilities for the personal development of competencies to act adequately in these situations are provided as part of students' academic studies in adult education. Therefore, it seems to be important to mention the opportunities to do internships or a *stage*, which is a special form of a voluntary internship during master's studies in Italy. Furthermore, also collaborations between universities and companies are implemented, including the *Parimun Project* in Italy, which offers the possibility for students to write their thesis or do research in an organisation working in the field of adult education in the Venetian region (La Facoltà di Scienze della Formazione dell'Università di Padova). In Germany, possibilities for connecting theoretical studies with practical experiences while pursuing a degree in adult education are offered, too, for instance, via internships that are part of the curriculum or via individual projects organised by the chairs of adult education at the universities (cf. Egloff & Männle, 2012, pp. 66ff.; Egetenmeyer & Schüßler, 2014, pp. 34–35). In the Portuguese case, a wide variety of trainings and internships are also featured in adult education programmes, focusing on research and providing data regarding a variety of topics. Overall, it can be questioned subsequently which ideas and expectations are linked to these existing possibilities to gain practical experiences during academic studies from different points of view in Germany, Italy, and Portugal. Further research is needed to analyse, for instance, the expectations students have regarding their internships or the ideas connected with internships from the perspective of the discipline of adult education in the different countries.

Summing up, the development of academic professionalisation appears as a progressive process faced with changing conditions. Even though the Bologna process as a milestone in the development of academic professionalisation is a framework shared by Germany, Italy, and Portugal, there are currently various differences between these countries in terms of the characteristics and pathways within the actual organisations. Further comparative research can reach a better understanding of the differences as well as the role that distinct national strategies related to adult education and lifelong learning play in these countries.

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Comparing Participation in adult Education

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Participation and non-participation in adult education and learning: A comparative study between Portugal, Italy, Hungary, and India

Introduction

It is important to compare and discuss the topic of adult education between different countries because cultural environments, history, and systemic approaches in the area of education in general, and in the area of adult education specifically, contribute to the holistic development of mankind. Such comparisons will give an insight into some important conclusions about the learning fields related to adult participation and non-participation in educational activities. It is also relevant to compare countries with significant geographical, historical, economic, social, and educational differences.

Empirical studies and theories show that adult participation in educational and learning processes has increased since the 1970s (cf. Bélanger, 2011). Individual participation is not an independent factor; there are some influencing factors. Those factors can be supported by macro-level characteristics (e.g. educational system, labour market, etc.), meso-level characteristics (e.g. firm and employer characteristics, place and region of residence), and micro-level characteristics (e.g. socio-demographic characteristics, subjective dispositions, etc.) (cf. Dammrich, Vono de Vilhena, & Reichart, 2014). Empirical data also show that participation in adult learning activities varies according to demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural factors. Parents' educational status and their family's cultural influence and social position can also determine the level and kind of learning participation (cf. Bélanger, 2011).

This paper presents research on the issue of participation from Italy, Portugal, Hungary, and India, concluding with a comparative look at the four countries. Italy and Portugal are Romanic and Mediterranean countries; Hungary being

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historically part of Austro-hungarian empire; India is a fast-developing country in Asia with different traditions.

As this topic encompasses a wide field of research, the authors put their focus on learning fields and reasons for non-participation based on the available surveys. It was felt that a comparative and research-based study on the reasons for participation and non-participation in adult education will contribute towards formulating possibilities for the further development of adult education.

Participation and Non-participation in Adult Education and Learning in Europe

For Europe, data on adult participation in education and learning are available from the *Adult Education Survey* (AES). The AES is part of the EU statistics on lifelong learning. Conducted in 2007 and 2011–12 by EU countries and other European states, the statistics show the average participation rates in adult education and learning activities in each of the participating countries. The 2007 survey focused on the adult education and learning participation of people between the age of 19 and 64 years; the 2011–12 survey covered 18-to-64-year-olds.

The AES survey distinguishes between institutionalised learning activities (=informal learning), institutionalised learning activities not included in the National Qualification Frames (=non-formal education), and learning activities of adult which are included in the National Qualification Frames (=formal education) (European Commission/Eurostat, 2012, p. 3). Non-formal education activities include the following activities: 'private lessons or courses (classroom instruction, lecture or a theoretical and practical course)', 'courses conducted through open and distance education', 'seminars or workshops', and 'guided on-the-job training.' (European Commission/Eurostat, 2012, p. 6). According to AES, the average participation rate in the EU 28 countries was 34.8 per cent in 2007 and 40.3 per cent in 2011–12.

The European country reports below are based on national reports and the Eurostat database, which provides metadata of the 2007 and 2011–12 AES to the public. In the following, these data are referred to as AES 2007 and AES 2011–12, enhanced by macrodata from the Eurostat database.[2]

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2   This paper intends to identify rough trends regarding the differences and similarities between countries. It doesn't examine differences in the data that can be identified between the country reports and also compared to the Eurostat database. When there was a difference, data from the Eurostat-database where used.

First, the European country reports give us an insight into the development of participation in adult education and learning in Europe from 2007 to 2011–2012. This allows us to observe participation trends. Then the country report can be divided in two important parts: the first part is about *participation in adult education (formal and non-formal)* (influences and motivation to participate, differences in participation by age and gender, who is participating more and why). The second part of the country reports focuses on *non-participation in adult education and learning activities.* In this second part, we can find out who is not participating and why (the principal obstacles to people's participation). Afterwards, the Indian report presents a structure based on the Indian discourse on literacy development in India.

Participation and Non-participation in Adult Education and Learning in Portugal

Portugal is a small country, situated in the extreme southwest of Europe. It borders on Spain (east and north) and the Atlantic Ocean (west and south). Portugal has an estimated population of 10.4 million (Eurostat, 2015); it is divided into 18 districts[3] and has two autonomous regions (Azores and Madeira). The education system in Portugal is mostly regulated by the government, and the principal responsible authority is the Ministry of Education and Science. Universities and non-governmental institutions are the main institutions responsible for adult education in Portugal. In the past decade, the government introduced some policies and programmes related to adult education, with a focus on education and learning for young (active) adults to improve their background and qualification.

To analyse the participation of adults in lifelong learning, Europeans were asked about their participation in formal and non-formal education and informal learning activities. In Portugal, the national micro-data research was conducted by the National Statistics Institute (INE) (a first inquiry in 2007 and a second between October 2011 and January 2012).

In 2007, Portugal was among the EU-27 countries with the lowest level of participation in lifelong learning activities although participation has been increasing in recent years. In 2007, 26.4 per cent of the Portuguese population aged 19–64 participated in adult education. In 2011–12, it was 44.4 per cent of the Portuguese population aged 18–64. This result clearly shows the effort that the country has developed in recent years to improve the educational qualifications of the adult

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3   Districts remain the most important division of Portugal.

population. From 2007 to 2011–12, the growing participation of adults in lifelong learning activities has contributed to a considerable improvement of Portugal's ranking in the European context. Portugal's proportion of participants in lifelong learning went from 8.7 per cent below the estimated EU-28 average in 2007 (35.1 per cent) to 4.1 per cent above the EU-28 average in 2011 (40.3 per cent). 'This improvement in the country's positioning was mainly achieved through an increase in participation in non-formal education activities.' (AES, 2007, 2011–12)

In 2011–2012, 44.4 per cent of the population aged 18–64 participated in lifelong learning activities (formal or non-formal education). According to the Adult Education Survey, overall participation in adult education and learning activities is increasing (cf. INE, 2013). This increase is related to gender: women's participation (49.5 per cent) was higher than men's, (47.9 per cent). Concerning age groups, the increase in participation in lifelong learning activities is found in all age groups.

The increase in each of the components of formal and non-formal learning is more pronounced in the age groups of 18–24 and 35–44. With increasing age, participation seems to go down: 79.3 per cent for those aged 18–24, compared to only 22.0 per cent for those aged 55–64 (cf. INE, 2013). This trend could be related to the need to improve one's knowledge and skills in order not to lose one's job or, in the case of unemployed people, to enter the labour market (initial entry or re-entry). It also could depend on the educational background of the different generations in these age groups. These results show the influence of the market in our society.

Participation in adult education activities (formal and non-formal)

Participation is not an independent concept. It has a connection with many factors. Factors that have an influence on participation in lifelong learning activities include the education level of the population and parental education level (intergenerational transmission of education between parents and children), employer support, and the like.

Regarding formal education activities, it appears that more than two-thirds of the population participated in only one activity (69.6 per cent). This largely corresponds to entry and/or frequency rates in tertiary education. The main motivation for participation was getting a certificate or diploma (cf. INE, 2013).

Regarding non-formal education activities, 52.0 per cent of the population participated in two or more activities, equivalent to an increase of 18.4 per cent compared to 2007 (cf. INE, 2013). The main motivation for participation was professional, and almost all of those activities occurred during or mostly during working hours.

Participation in lifelong learning activities in formal and non-formal education was complemented by analysing how it relates to each of the individual characteristics (level of education completed, employment status, age group, and place of residence) through a multivariate analysis. Compared to people in inactivity (not students), active people are more able to participate, especially the employed population (cf. INE, 2013). Employment status has a significantly correlated to participation in lifelong learning, and participation seems to be directly related to labour market concerns and competitiveness.

Non-participation in adult education and learning activities

Non-participation in education, training, and learning was particularly high among (cf. INE, 2013):

1. the older age groups (40.1 per cent for the age group 55–64, compared to 7.2 per cent for the age group 18–24)
2. the less qualified (63.5 per cent for those who had no education level, compared to 5.2 per cent for those who had tertiary education)
3. with equally low-skilled parents (following a trend similar to that observed for one's own education level), who spoke only their native language (38.1 per cent, compared to 11.8 per cent of those who spoke at least one foreign language)
4. with non-existent or irregular reading habits (30.0 per cent and 60.3 per cent, respectively, for those who never read books and newspapers, compared to 10.7 per cent of people who read books and 15.0 per cent of those who read newspapers daily).

According to the data from AES (2011–12) the main reasons for non-participation in Portugal are personal reasons, distance, and costs. As we can see, the most frequently mentioned obstacles to people's participation in lifelong learning activities were: 'other personal reasons' (24.4 per cent), lack of time or interest, 'training takes place at a too distant place' (6.2 per cent). Distance and the lack of nearby training opportunities seem to be an important reason for non-participation; and 'cost too high' (5.5 per cent)—it doesn't seem to be accessible for all.

Participation and Non-participation in Lifelong Learning in Italy

Italy is a European country with almost 61 million people (Eurostat, 2015), the fifth-most populated on the European continent. The country has 20 regions: 15 with ordinary statute (totally depending by the central government) and 5 with

special statute (partially depending, more autonomous). The Ministry of Education, Universities, and Research, is the main institution managing adult education. It is supported by many national agencies and associations (highly structured system) helping to divide and better distribute the work, including the National Agency for School Autonomy Development, the Institute for Workers' Professional Training and Development, the Italian Adult Education Union, the National Institute for Assessing the Educational System of Instruction and Training, and the National Anti-Illiteracy Union. The National Institute of Statistics supports all of these institutions and associations.

In term of adult education participation, Italy was (in 2007) and still is 2011–2012 below the European average. If we compare the two surveys, the percentage of participants in adult education and training courses increased from 22.2 per cent in 2006 to 35.6 per cent in 2012 (ISTAT, 2013). A focused analysis of AES data shows a big difference between formal and non-formal education and training. Participation in formal education decreased between the two surveys (from 4.4 per cent to 2.9 per cent), whereas participation in non-formal education and training saw a big increase (from 20.2 per cent to 34.3 per cent).

According to the *Istituto nazionale di statistica (ISTAT)* (Italian national statistics institute) (ISTAT 2013), 51.5 per cent of the population aged 18–74 in 2012 declared to have participated in at least one adult education activity or training course in the last 12 months (45.7 per cent in 2007, i.e. 5.8 per cent less) (ISTAT, 2013). For 2012, it is possible to divide the data by type of education and training:

- Participation was highest in the category of informal education, with 33.8 per cent of all participants (35.8 per cent men and 32.0 per cent women). It has dropped by 6.2 percentage points since 2006.
- The second-most popular category was non-formal education, with 31.4 per cent (33.3 per cent men and 29.6 per cent women). It has risen by 13.3 percentage points since 2006.
- The least popular category is formal education, chosen by 5.8 per cent of participants (5.5 per cent men and 6.2 per cent women). It has fallen by 2.2 percentage points since 2006 (cf. ISTAS, 2013).

The 2011–12 AES data do not consider the participation rate in informal learning. The percentages consists of three categories regarding education and training:

- formal or non-formal (35.6 per cent), with more men (37.3 per cent) than women (34.0 per cent)
- non-formal (34.3 per cent), with more men (36.2 per cent) than women (32.5 per cent)

- formal (2.6 per cent), with more women (3.2 per cent) than men (2.6 per cent).

It is possible to see that women's participation rates are higher than men's only in formal education and training, as the ISTAT (2013) data pre-announced above (AES, 2011–12).

According to ISTAT, the age range of those who participate more in formal, non-formal, and informal education is between 18–24 (37.3 per cent). By contrast, the range of those who participate less in formal and non-formal education is 65–74 (0.0 per cent). For informal education, the figures are: the group of 25–34-years old is first with 39.6 per cent, compared to 37.0 per cent among those aged 18–24 (second) (ISTAT 2013). In order to be able to make a comparison between countries, according to AES (2011–12) data, the age range of those who participate more in formal or non-formal education is 25–34 (43.0 per cent). Those who participate less are aged 55–64 (22.3 per cent). Focusing on formal education, the age range of those who participate more is 25–34 (9.7 per cent); that of those who participate less is 45–54 (0.8 per cent). Regarding non-formal education and training, the age rate of those who participate more is 35–44 (38.8 per cent), that of those who participate less is 55–64 (22.3 per cent) (cf. AES, 2011/12).

Beyond that, it is interesting to note the strong geographical difference between the four Italian macro-regions: North East, North West, Centre, and South (islands included). In descending order, starting with the region with the highest 2012 participation rates in education and training activities, we find: North East (59.3 per cent), Centre (56.0 per cent), North West (52.5 per cent), and South (43.7 per cent). Dividing the data by education categories, we find the same ranking order in informal education (North East 39.4 per cent, Centre 37.5 per cent, North West 34.0 per cent, South 28.5 per cent) and in non-formal education (North East 37.5 per cent, Centre 34.9 per cent, North West 34.0 per cent, South 23.5 per cent). In terms of formal education, however, the situation is completely different (decreasing participation order): South (6.7 per cent), Centre (6.1 per cent), North West (5.5 per cent), and North East (4.7 per cent). All the macro-region saw increasing participation rates in adult education and training between 2006 and 2012: 47.6 to 52.5 per cent in the North West, 53.5 to 59.3 in the North East, 48.1 to 56.0 in the Centre, and 38.5 to 43.7 in the South. These differences between the regions could be explained by the relation between territory and industrialisation. It is possible to understand that more industrialised regions offer more training opportunities. These industrialised regions have a higher percentage of medium- to large-size industries and companies (ISTAT, 2013).

Participation in adult education activities (formal and non-formal)

Adult participation in education and training varies between workers and unemployed persons. We see that employed people participate more frequently than unemployed people in all learning activities (63.1 per cent vs. 43.7 per cent). Employed people participate much more heavily in non-formal learning (45.5 per cent) than unemployed people (21.3 per cent), whereas unemployed participate more in informal learning (30.9 per cent, highest percentage for the unemployed group) than workers (39.4 per cent, second-highest percentage for workers). Focusing on worker categories, major differences emerge:

- 79.7 per cent of all managers, entrepreneurs, and freelancers participate in education and training, compared to
- 58.8 per cent of mid-level managers and office workers
- 52.9 per cent of specialised workers
- 37.4 per cent of unskilled workers (cf. AES, 2011–12).

Moreover, it has to be considered that people with the highest educational level usually participate more in education and training activities. AES (2011–12) data show that adults with a university degree participate more frequently (80.5 per cent) than adults who only have a high school diploma (66.3 per cent) or adults who only have an intermediate education level (41.9 per cent).

Non-participation in adult education and learning activities

There are no major differences between men and women in Italy concerning the reasons for participating in education and training activities. The most important are:

- to get a certificate (87.9 per cent)
- to have more knowledge and competences on topic of interest (87.0 per cent)
- to have more options to find/change jobs (85.1 per cent).

Considering again the AES data, there is a clear distinction between women and men regarding the non-participation reasons. For both women and men, the three main reasons are: 'conflict with family responsibilities' (44.3 per cent), 'activities too expensive' (43.4 per cent), and 'conflict with work responsibilities' (26.7 per cent). This classification is the same if we look only at women; for men, it changes: first, we find 'activities too expensive' (42.8 per cent), then 'conflict with work responsibilities' (38.3 per cent), and 'conflict with family responsibilities' (31.0 per cent) (cf. AES, 2011/12).

Participation and Non-participation in Adult Education and Learning in Hungary

Hungary is a country in Central Europe. On 1 January 2015, the population was 9.8 million (cf. HCSO, 2015). The country has 19 counties. The counties and the capital city (Budapest) are grouped into 7 regions. Since 1 May 2014, Hungary has been a member of the European Union. The system of education is controlled by Act CXC (2011) on National Public Education, Act CCIV (2011) on National Higher Education, Act CLXXXVII (2011) on Vocational Education and Training, and Act LXXVII (2013) on Adult Education. Adult education has two main areas: formal and non-formal education. Formal education is conducted by the Ministry for Human Capacities. Non-formal education is directed by the Ministry for the National Economy.

In Hungary, the 2007 and 2011–12 AES surveys were conducted by the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (HCSO). According to the AES data (2007), Hungary was one of the EU-28 countries with the lowest participation rate in formal and non-formal education and training (9.0 per cent). The EU-28 average was 34.8 per cent. However, the participation of adults has been increasing since 2007 due to the efforts of the government. In 2011, the participation rate was 41.1 per cent in formal and non-formal learning, compared to the EU-28 average of 40.3 per cent. This result shows that Hungary was above the EU average (cf. AES 2007, 2011–12).

In Hungary, non-formal education has had a bigger influence on adults than formal education (inside the school system). The data proves this statement, showing participation rates of 2.5 per cent (2007) and 6.5 per cent (2011) in formal education. In non-formal education, the participation rate was 6.8 per cent (2007) and 37.6 per cent (2011) (cf. AES 2007, 2011–12). Non-formal education is outside the school system and 'includes those complex activities which aim to purposefully develop certain competencies of adults' (Farkas, 2013, p. 15).

In 2011, 41.1 per cent of adults aged 25–64 took part in adult education activities (formal and non-formal). The male participation rate in formal and non-formal learning was 43.0 per cent in 2011 and higher than the female rate (39.4 per cent). The EU-28 average participation rate of men was 40.7 per cent and 39.9 per cent for women (cf. AES 2011/2012).

With regard to participant age, most adults were aged 25–34 (51.8 per cent). Participation was lowest among those aged 55–64 (21.7 per cent) in 2011 (cf. AES, 2014). The older adults get, the less they participate in adult education (cf. HCSO, 2014). The background of these data could be that, first, adults can take part in lifelong learning to improve their skills and to get a qualification. Second, they intend to enter the labour market or to keep their jobs.

According to AES (2011–12) data on the highest level of education in formal and non-formal learning, differences in adults' educational background influence their participation. Most participants have just graduated in the first and second stage of tertiary education (58.1 per cent). This finding could be related to the need to get a certificate or diploma. 39.8 per cent have conducted upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education. Furthermore, adult education was least popular among those who have only finished pre-primary, primary, and lower secondary education (24.7 per cent). In 2011, employed people (56.9 per cent) took part in adult education more often than unemployed (20.5 per cent) and retired people (12.8 per cent) (cf. AES, 2011–12).

Participation in adult education activities (formal and non-formal)

In Hungary, the main reason why adults took part in adult education activities was the need of the job. Three in four respondents chose trainings because of their work. This point could be related to the need to integrate into the labour market in order to get a job; not to lose the job or the trainings connected to their job. One in four adults took part in adult education for personal reasons, such as hobbies or enrichment. These participants want to improve their knowledge and skills in areas in which they are interested. According to the data, the reason why women take part in trainings is often not work-related (30.0 per cent of the trainings are chosen for personal enrichment). This is not typical of men (only one-fifth of all trainings are chosen for personal enrichment) (cf. HCSO 2014).

The most popular forms of trainings (non-formal) were training courses (without qualification), conferences, visiting seminars, workplace coaching, and vocational training (state-approved training). The most popular disciplines were social sciences, economics, law, and services (cf. HCSO, 2014).

9.6 per cent of adults who did not participate wanted to take part in the training (the EU average was 9.5 per cent). 5.7 per cent of respondents who already participated in lifelong learning wanted to participate in more trainings in 2011. The EU average was 11.9 per cent (cf. AES, 2011–12).

Participation and Non-participation in Adult Education in India

India is a vast country with a population of 1.2 billion (Government of India, 2011), making it the second-most populous country in the world. It has 29 states and 7 centrally administered Union Territories. As it has federal set-up, some subjects of administration are dealt directly by the central government, whereas the

state governments have exclusive powers in certain other areas. This arrangement is called 'central list' and 'state list'. However, education falls under a concurrent list in which both the central and state governments can enact laws. In case both central and state governments enact law on the same aspect related to education, then the law enacted by the central government will be applicable uniformly throughout the country. The federal authority in charge of policies and programmes relating to education is the Ministry of Human Resource Development of the Government of India; at the state level, it is the Department of Education.

Literacy status

When India became independent, the literacy rate[4] as per the 1951 census (Census of India, 1951, cited in National Commission on Population, 2014) was 18.33 per cent, with female literacy at an abysmal low of 8.86 per cent. However, education was given equal importance in the five-year plans (Five-Year Plans, n.d.) like that of industrialization, with large financial allocations, resulting in schools opening even in small villages much closer to children's door steps. As a consequence, the percentage of literacy started increasing year by year. Simultaneously, adult education programmes were also planned and implemented to cover dropouts and out-of-school youth. As per the 2011 census, India's overall literacy rate was 73 per cent, with male literacy at 80.9 per cent and female literacy at 64.6 per cent (Census of India, 2011, cited in National Commission on Population, 2014). Still India has a long way to go, as literacy rates vary from state to state, district to district, between rural and urban, and above all male and female.

The following table depicts India's progressive increase in literacy rates from 1951 to 2011 (from the age group of seven and above).

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4   'Literacy, as defined in Census operations, is the ability to read and write with understanding in any language. A person who can merely read but cannot write is not classified as literate. Any formal education or minimum educational standard is not necessary to be considered literate" (National Commission to Reviews the Working of the Constitution 2001).

All persons literacy rate (1951–2011)

Table 1: Indian Literacy Rate (Source: Based on Census India 1951–2011, cited in National Commission on Population, 2014)

Census Year	Literacy Rate (All Persons)	Literacy Rate	
		Male	Female
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86
1961	28.30	40.39	15.35
1971	34.45	45.96	21.97
1981 (excludes Assam state)	43.57	56.38	29.76
1991 (excludes Jammu & Kashmir state)	52.21	64.13	39.29
2001	65.38	75.85	54.16
2011	73.00	80.9	64.6

Adult education and literacy

Adult education aims to extend educational options to those adults who missed the opportunity and are past the formal education age but now feel a need for learning of any type, including literacy, basic education, skill development (vocational education), and the like. With the objective of promoting adult education, a series of programmes have been introduced since the first five-year plan (1951–1956). The most prominent of these was the National Literacy Mission (NLM), launched in 1988 to impart functional literacy to non-literates in the age group of 15–35 in a time-bound manner. By the end of the tenth plan period (2002–2007), the National Literacy Mission had helped 127.45 million persons to literacy (Saakshar Bharat, 2015).

In 2009, another massive literacy mission, the 'Saakshar Bharat mission' (meaning literate India), was launched as a new variant of the National Literacy Mission with specified targets and goals (Government of India, 2011a). The mission goes beyond the 3*R*s—that is, reading, writing, and arithmetic (a person's basic ability to read, write, and perform basic calculations)—for it also seeks to create awareness of social disparities and a person's deprivation of the means for their amelioration and general well-being. The central and state governments, Panchayati Raj institutions, NGOs, and civil society need to work in unison to realise the dream to create a 'literate India'. 'Saakshar Bharat' has been formulated with the objective of achieving an 80-per cent literacy level by 2014 at the national level, by focusing on

adult women literacy, seeking to reduce the gap between male and female literacy to not more than 10 percentage points. The mission has four broader objectives: imparting functional literacy and numeracy to non-literates; acquiring equivalency to the formal educational system; imparting relevant skill development programmes; and promoting a learning society by providing opportunities for continuing education. The principal target of the mission was to impart functional literacy to 70 million non-literate adults in the age group of 15 years and beyond.

According to the draft report of the 'consultative meeting to review past performances and discuss strategies for the effective and result-orientated implementation of Saakshar Bharat' (Government of India, 2011a, p. 1), dated 29 May 2015, 'around 54.75 million learners have been enrolled under basic literacy up to March 2015' (Government of India, 2011a, p. 13) and 'about 42.98 million learners have appeared in the biannual assessment tests conducted by the National Institute of Open Learning (NIOS). So far about 31.42 million learners have successfully passed the assessment tests conducted under the programme up to August 2014 and been certified as literate' (Government of India, 2011a, p. 14).

Adult literacy rates (15 + age group in percentage)

Table 2: Adult Literacy Rates (15 + age group in percentage) (Source: Based on O/O RGI, Census 2001 and 2011 cited in Government of India, 2014, p. 2)

Year	Total	Male	Female
2001	61.0	73.4	47.8
2011	69.3	78.8	59.3

The above table clearly indicates that there has been an increase in participation in adult literacy if we compare the data of census statistics of the last two decades (1991–2001 and 2001–2011). There was 8.3 per cent increase in the total adult literacy rate, and the female literacy rate increased visibly by 11.5 per cent. However, the adult female literacy rate is 17.5 per cent lower than the adult male literacy rate.

Based on the collegial discussion in adult education in India, the following reasons for participation and non-participation in adult education can be formulated.

Reasons for participation in adult education

1. The massive campaigns from all spheres, such as government, non-government organisations, academics, and professionals of adult education, have helped people understand the importance of literacy in life.

2. Adult education programmes are framed and revised from time to time so as to make them suitable for the present society, thereby increasing people's participation in such programmes. Such programmes are organised in a way to make adult participation convenient in terms of time.

3. The inclusion of skill development programmes such as cutting and tailoring, handicraft, beauty culture, packaging, and so forth as part of adult education has successfully attracted more participation. Both literacy and skill development programmes are almost free or charge very nominal fees.

4. Adult education centres provide linkages with educational, financial, and social institutions offering information on enrolment in formal education, bank loans, getting employment, and starting one's own income-generating activities. People find such information useful for the improvement of their existing status and join adult education programmes.

5. The revolution of information and communication technology in India has also contributed towards participation in adult education programmes. Information and communication technology has widened access to education in various sections of our society, with farmers using mobile phones to get necessary guidance on crop production being a special example. It has made learning interesting.

Reasons for non-participation in adult education

1. Adults who have expectations other than literacy and linkages to higher education or institutions do not participate in activities of adult education centres.

2. Many adults look for immediate sources of income-generating activities and subsidies. So an adult education programme, which generally lasts three to six months, does not appeal to them.

3. A huge number of migrants, who migrate to cities from various rural areas as labourers, are not keen to join adult education programmes, as their stay in a particular community is for a short period.

4. Language is another barrier in case of migrants, as adult education programmes are often taught in local languages, which at times may be different from the language spoken by the migrants.

5. Female adult learners belonging to communities where there is lack of family and social support to improve the status of women stay away from such programmes.

Comparisons Between Europe and India

Growing importance of adult education and learning

Comparing the European countries amongst each other on the one hand, and with India on the other hand, one can observe several similarities and differences.

Table 3: Participation in Adult Education and Learning by Country (Author's own, based on AES, 2011/12)

Participation rate by country

	EU (28 countries)	Italy	Hungary	Portugal
▇ Total	40,3	35,6	41,1	44,4
▇ Males	40,7	37,3	43	43,5
▇ Females	39,9	34	39,4	45,2
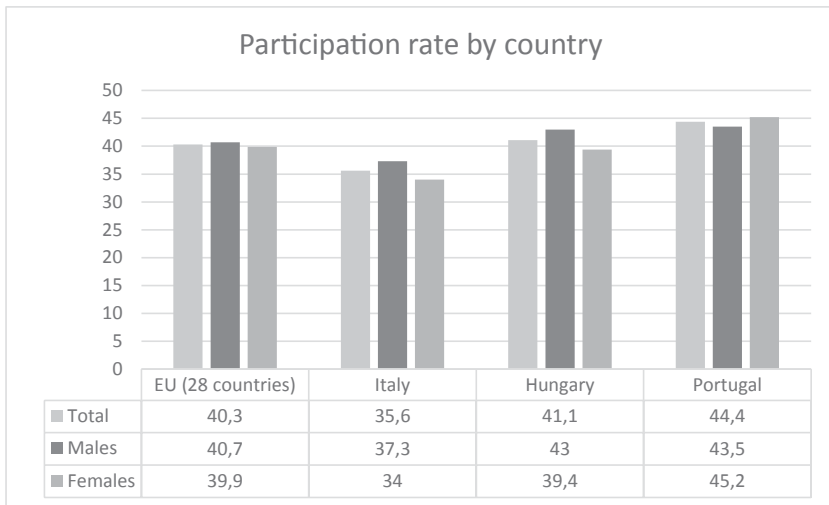
The data seem to indicate that European countries have a similar background in the field of education, and all three countries focus on lifelong learning. Despite all inner-European differences, especially when comparing the 2007 with the 2011–12 data, rising participation rates can be observed in all European countries; at the same time, the differences between them become smaller.

Nevertheless, one can observe differences between female and male participation in adult education and learning. Whereas Italy and Hungary have lower participation rates of women, the rates of women are higher in Portugal. The Indian literacy rate also shows that women are educationally disadvantaged. To understand these differences, we need to return to the role of woman and men in society. As most participation in adult education and learning in Europe takes place within employment, the female employment rate may be one part of the explanation. Furthermore, the average education rate of women may be an influencing factor in all countries.

Furthermore, the Italian and the Indian country reports give us an insight into the strong differences in participation rates within a country. There are big gaps between different regions in Italy and India. One can conclude that participation in adult education and learning cannot be explained by national patterns. This means we have to be careful with regional explanations as well. Moreover, societal indicators such as employment rate, industrial and service development, and education background seem to be more far-reaching explanations.

The available figures from Europe on the one hand and India on the other also give an impressive insight into which kind of data are collected: whereas the European figures focus on participation in education and learning activities, India's focus on the 'the outcome', that is, the literacy abilities of the population. This may be a legacy of the Anglo-Saxon influence, which has traditionally had a stronger focus on learning outcomes. We can also see this stronger outcome orientation in international organisations. Although the European Union emphasises the policy shift from an 'input-orientation' towards a focus on outcomes—called competences in the European context—the statistics refer to the question of who is participating in adult and continuing education and who receives what kind of societal support. This traditional European 'input' or curriculum orientation can be understood as reflecting the role of the welfare state in several European countries.

Despite all differences in what is being measured (literacy or participation in adult education and learning), one can find that participation in adult education and learning seems to increase steadily in all countries. Using the European data, it can be shown that people with the highest education level usually participate more in education and training activities. Those with university degrees participate more in non-formal education, whereas those with a high school diploma and an intermediate education level participate more in informal education activities. Participation in lifelong learning seems to be directly related to labour market trends and competitiveness. We might formulate the hypothesis that this may apply to India, too.

Obstacles to participation in adult education

Table 4: Obstacles to Participation in Adult Education and Learning by Country
(Author's own, based on AES, 2011/12)
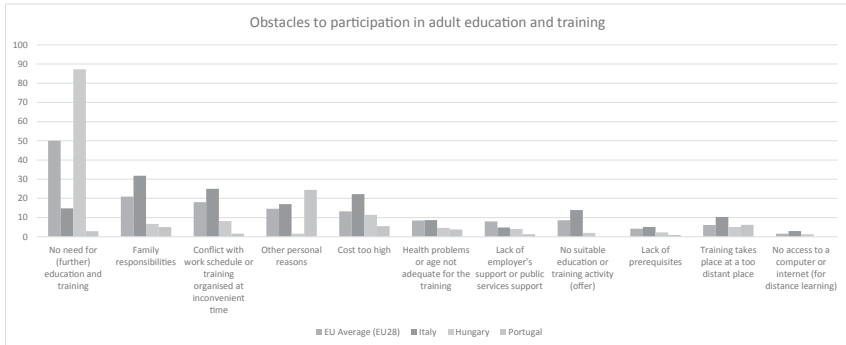
The obstacles to participation in adult education vary widely between the EU countries studied. The EU average and respondents from Hungary point to a lack of need as the biggest obstacle. From an academic point of view, one can hardly argue that there is no need for adult and continuing education and training. This answer can possibly be seen as an indicator that people do not see educational offers that fit their personal situation and needs. Family responsibilities are named as a main obstacle in Italy, but also on the EU average. This situation is especially interesting in the context of low birth rates in Europe. This obstacle, too, can possibly be interpreted as indication a lack of public structures for realising family responsibilities and others. Interestingly, in Portugal, 'other personal reasons' was named as the most frequent obstacle. This can be seen as a sign that the 'obstacle-list' in the Adult Education Survey doesn't capture the real obstacles in Portugal. The other obstacles got little response in all observed countries: 'health problems or age not adequate for the training', 'lack of employer's support or public services support', 'no suitable education or training activity (offer)', 'lack of prerequisites', 'no access to a computer or internet (for distance learning)'. In India, literacy and skill development programmes are almost free or charge nominal affordable fees. Moreover, the schedules of such programmes are flexible to male participation as convenient as possible. Therefore, the cost and timing of programmes is not a reason for non-participation in India. It is interesting to note that in spite of varied demographic and geographical backgrounds, there are similarities between the European countries and India in the way that reasons for participation and non-participation are analysed.

Comparing the way in which non-participation is discussed in Europe and India, one main difference emerges: Whereas the obstacles named in the Adult Education Survey are focused strongly on individual obstacles, the Indian discussion focuses more on contextual reasons for non-participation. Thus we may speak of an individual approach (Europe) versus a collective approach (India) (cf. Egetenmeyer in this volume). This has quite different consequences: Does adult education have to motivate individuals, or does adult education has to work on the context conditions? In the European context, participant orientation can be understood as a leading principle of adult education and learning. The way India is connecting adult education to community development, social development, and skill development can enrich the discussion Europe by taking into account the contexts of adults. Thereby, the missing social dimension of adult learning will be strengthened.

Participation in adult education programmes in India has been increasing, which could be very well assessed from the data available from the 2001 and 2011 census reports. There has been a 8.3 per-cent increase in the adult literacy rate (61.0 per cent in 2001 and 69.3 per cent in 2011), thanks to initiatives of the central government and educational institutes along with non-governmental organisations working on the development of adult education programmes that suit the needs of present-day society. Reasons for non-participation could be reduced by adopting a professional approach and by providing need-based support to the adult illiterate community. Statistics on lifelong learning in Europe and the reasons found for participation and non-participation in adult education training activities would be helpful for both India and Europe when further planning and developing their adult education activities.

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Comparing Quality Management

Lisa Hilbig, Sabrina Thom & Silvia Tursi

Comparing Quality Management Systems and procedures in Italy and Germany

Introduction

Talking about quality in the adult learning sector provokes a discussion about various issues: What is quality? Why is a discussion about quality in the adult learning sector necessary? How would a European perspective on the topic look like in order to compare the implementation of quality in different countries? Therefore, this article defines key terms by taking a comparative perspective and illustrating several similarities and differences of instruments and procedures of quality management systems (QMS) in Italy and Germany. This paper is based on the discussions during the 2015 Winter School on lifelong learning at the University of Würzburg, Germany.

Quality has been part of many debates in the adult learning sector in Germany for over 40 years (cf. Faulstich & Zeuner, 2010, p. 109). The stakeholders of the adult learning sector in Germany and internationally try to meet requirements between two identified approaches: On the one hand, the aim is to reach higher efficiency and effectiveness through high levels of achievement in learning outcomes at reasonable costs. On the other hand, there is a humanist approach concerning the development of the learner and social change (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2013, p. 30). The focus of the humanist approach is on the learning process and consumer protection. Critics of the quality discussion held in recent years point out that education in particular is not comparable to a service and needs the motivation and activity of the learner (cf. Poschalko, 2011, p. 28).

To determine categories of the term quality, the international study group created the following working definition of quality: In order to improve teaching and learning, institutions of the adult learning sector develop instruments to measure and analyse the efficiency and effectiveness of their educational processes. It has to be mentioned that quality processes take place at different levels of adult learning (cf. Faulstich & Zeuner, 2010, p. 113).

Many providers of adult learning in the European Union are required to show the implementation of several standards at different levels of their institution (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2013). However, the ways in which these standards are implemented vary widely, and the type and intensity of quality systems range from

the concrete implementation of certificates which include planning, financing, learning, teaching, and evaluating to limited quality systems on the macro level (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2013, p. 21). In general, quality management systems measure the long-term inputs and outcomes of an institution. As a result, targeted developments oriented towards pre-defined quality criteria of an adult learning provider become possible (cf. Faulstich & Zeuner, 2010, p. 111).

This article refers to the circle of quality in the organisation. Section 2 points out different instruments and procedures according to various institutions and framework conditions in Italy and Germany. Discussing different sectors of adult learning—for instance vocational education, higher education[1], and general education—the article demonstrates that quality management systems not only depend on the specific orientation and size of the institution but also to a large degree on the structural requirements of its own policy background, legislation, and economy. Furthermore, the conclusion will show similarities and differences of implementing quality management systems in the two European countries.

Quality Management System Procedures in Italy

The implementation of the quality management system of adult learning in Italy is quite challenging to analyse, as the various sectors of adult education are managed at different institutional levels. The attention will be focused on quality management systems (QMS) and quality assurance systems (QAS) in higher education and in vocational and educational training.

It was only in the past decade that Italy started to improve 'quality' in the sense given to this word by the European Recommendation. Before that, quality was conceived more as a means of control than an improvement measure, but lately many efforts have been made to align Italy's quality systems with European standards.

Vocational education and training (VET)

The main actors in Italy's vocational education and training system are the regions, together with the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies and the social partners. The latter also play an important role, having been recognised as partners of

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1   Adult learning commonly 'includes all forms of learning undertaken by adults after having left initial education and training' (Research voor Beleid, 2013, p. 10). In Italy, higher education is a part of adult learning, whereas in Germany, higher education is excluded caused by different divisions of legal jurisdiction and political responsibility.

the regions for the planning of training and as potential providers of training schemes. Thus, the responsibility is shared between the national level, where the institutional framework is defined, the regional level, where a direct intervention in the process of defining, planning, and providing vocational education and training strategies is implemented, and the enterprise level, where training plans are elaborated and put into action.

For vocational education and training, the most important recent development is the *National Plan for Quality Assurance* (*Piano nazionale per la garanzia di qualità dei sistema di istruzione e formazione professionale*), introduced in March 2012 with the aim to introduce, in line with the European Recommendation, useful elements for the empowerment and qualitative development of vocational education and training systems (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2013, p. 255).

The National Plan introduces an accreditation system for all education providers, requiring them to meet minimal standards ex ante, living up to these standards during the accreditation period, and achieving and measuring results ex post. Moreover, ISO certificates are used to rationalise processes.

According to the EQAVET (European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training) recommendation, the ten indicators to support evaluation and quality improvement are:

- relevance of quality assurance systems for vocational education and training providers
- investment in the training of teachers and trainers;
- participation rate in VET programmes;
- completion rate in VET programmes;
- placement rate in VET programmes;
- utilisation of acquired skills at the workplace;
- unemployment rate;
- presence of vulnerable groups;
- mechanisms to identify training needs in the labour market;
- schemes used to promote better access to vocational education and training.

These indicators are part of the Reference Framework, a voluntary instrument that can be implemented progressively and in accordance with national legislation and practices. They are not to be regarded as benchmarks but rather as support for culture in vocational education and training.[2]

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2   http://www.eqavet.eu/gns/policy-context/european-quality-assurance-reference-framework/framework-overview.

The public agency in charge of monitoring the quality of the vocational education and training system is *ISFOL* (*Istituto per lo sviluppo della formazione professionale dei lavoratori*), which works under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies. ISFOL's main goals are to update the main national stakeholders about the initiatives of the EQAVET, to contribute with active support to the development of this programme, to bring methods into play to guarantee and develop quality in vocational education and training, and to coordinate activities on a national level.[3]

Higher education

Regarding higher education, quality management systems can be implemented in different fields, such as teaching, researching, and administrative support, and there is not always a connection between those systems. As a consequence, many different stakeholders are involved in the implementation of quality management systems, including students, families, enterprises, economic agents, society, professional orders, professors, and researchers.

Higher education is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, University, and Research, but universities are given a high level of autonomy. The national agency in charge of controlling and implementing quality is *ANVUR* (*Agenzia nazionale di valutazione del sistema universitario e della ricerca*).

Since 2013, the quality assurance of higher education has been monitored by the AVA system (Self-Assessment, Evaluation, Accreditation). The first requirement of this system is based on the development of internal self-evaluation activities to check the quality and efficacy of teaching and research. The second requirement implies a periodic external evaluation of the efficacy and efficiency of teaching and research. The third requirement is to provide periodic accreditation for location and courses. In the elaboration and development of this system, ANVUR respected the three principles of autonomy, responsibility, and evaluation (cf. Turri, 2014, p. 43). The strength of this system is mainly in the selection of external evaluators and in students' involvement in the evaluation process. The central role of universities in the evaluation process and the focus on quantitative requirements are elements of weakness. The process is not sufficiently focused on the quality of competences and teaching. An element of further concern regarding the quality of competences can be seen in the experimental TECO test, developed by ANVUR in 2013. This test aims to test students' general competences (problem solving, critical thinking, ability to communicate) during the final year of their

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3   http://www.eqavet.eu/gns/what-we-do/implementing-the-framework/italy.

cycle of studies, to satisfy the interests of stakeholders (the business community, above all) concerned about the improvement of university learning outcomes. An important role is also given to ISO certificates, which provide a more homogeneous and standardized means of quality control in all the higher education sectors, including teaching, research, and administrative services.

To conclude, it is important to mention that the non-formal sector of adult education lacks a legal framework and a national quality assurance and management system. To address this lack, some institutions have developed their own quality system with the aim of gaining external accreditation. One of the main examples is *UPTER* (*Università popolare della terza età di Roma*), the People's University of Rome, which has developed a quality charter of its own to control the quality of the institution's general organisation and to increase the transparency of the quality assurance and development system. It is divided into four sections, looking at quality at the strategic, organisational, operational, and costumer protection level. The core section is the operational level, in which staff competences are described and quality indicators and standards are elaborated (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2013, p. 87).

Quality Management System Procedures in Germany

Quality has been an issue for continuing learning in Germany since the 1990s (cf. Tödt, 2008, p. 86). There are various reasons, including limited resources and the aim to optimise workflows and working conditions (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 21). A buyer's market has emerged in the continuing learning sector, which means that customers have to select from a wide range of offerings (cf. Zech, 2006, pp. 21–22). Certainly, customers are increasingly aware of quality (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 22). In Germany, there are many different models concerning quality in the adult education sector (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, p. 63). Below, we will introduce two different examples of quality management system procedures used in liberal adult education and vocational continuing education. The first example is the LQW model, which has an educational focus; the second refers to the ISO series, which is broader in its applications.

The quality management system procedure in liberal adult education

LQW stands for *Lernerorientierte Qualitätstestierung in der Weiterbildung*, or learner-oriented quality certification for continuing education organisations. Its basic assumption is that education is not a product to be bought and sold (cf. Dalluege & Franz, 2008, p. 46). Because of the special character of this education sector,

a particular quality management system is needed (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 89). LQW is the most widely used instrument in the field of public continuing education, especially at Germany's adult learning centres (*Volkshochschulen*) (cf. Dalluege & Franz, 2008, p. 11). The *Volkshochschule* is a public continuing education provider offering a wide range of courses (e.g. language and culture courses or courses on political or health-related topics, etc.) (cf. Süssmuth & Sprink, 2011, p. 479). They offer courses that are, as a general rule, accessible to the entire population (cf. Süssmuth & Sprink, 2011, p. 473). *Volkshochschulen* are financed through course fees, public grants, and external funds (cf. DVV, n.d.).

The goal of LQW is not only quality assurance but also quality development and it focuses on the learners (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 89). The model works with a definition of 'successful learning' (*gelungenes Lernen*) that looks at ideal outcomes of learning (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 37).

LQW quality development and attestation has eleven quality areas, including a mission statement, teaching and learning processes, controlling, and evaluation (cf. Dalluege & Franz, 2008, pp. 46–47). Organisations have to prove that they fulfil these criteria by composing a self-report to be confirmed by means of external reviews (cf. Dalluege & Franz, 2008, p. 47). In other words, LQW is a combination of self-evaluation and external evaluation (cf. Tödt 2008, p. 109) In the end, there is always a final workshop for the elaboration of development goals for which the organisation itself is responsible (cf. Zech, 2006, pp. 109–110).

According to Hartz and Meisel (2006), LQW has certain positive aspects. For example, it helps to point out an 'individual reference point' and allows for comparing organisations. To that end, the link between self-evaluation and external evaluation is useful. However, the authors criticise that organisational and pedagogical quality aspects are not more clearly separated (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, pp. 81–82).

The quality system procedure in vocational continuing education

Initially, the DIN EN ISO series (9000, 9001, 9002, 9003, 9004) was not developed for the education sector but for industry, as Hartz and Meisel (2006) point out. After its revision in 2000, it also worked for companies in the service sector. A company called CERTQUA managed it to make it applicable to the vocational education sector (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, pp. 66–67).

In Germany, the Chamber of Industry and Commerce (IHK) is an example of a company that offers vocational education and uses the DIN ISO series. Generally, the IHK is a representation of business interests and has five large task areas (economic and legal policy statements, expert opinions, support for vocational

training, and administrative tasks) (cf. DIHK, 2004, pp. 6ff.) It is financed through fees and compulsory contributions from the companies that are members in these chambers (cf. DIHK, 2004, p. 12).

Hartz and Meisel (2006) point out that the revised DIN EN ISO operates on the basis of a closed loop that has five elements (e.g. responsibility of the leadership, resource management, etc.). The instrument monitors the entire process, not only the results (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, pp. 66–67).

Another aspect is DIN EN ISO certification. According to Bülow-Schramm (2006), an organisation handbook with information about procedures is needed. This book and a mission statement can function as a starting point for certification. Subsequently, the certification body checks if the details correspond to the chosen norm. After a positive review, preparations are made for a certification audit. This audit contains questions based on a checklist and a multi-day inspection in the organisation. Then, there is an assessment of the results, which are summarised in a report. Additionally, there is a discussion with the company management about these results. The certificate is valid for three years and contains the documentation of the inspection (cf. Bülow-Schramm, 2006, pp. 41–42).

According to Hartz and Meisel (2006), one disadvantage of the ISO norm is the exclusion of pedagogical parts. The model ignores special features of teaching and learning processes and the fact that learning processes are barely controllable. More important for the norm is the organisation and the processes through which teaching and learning processes are arranged, even though the criteria for them are imprecise (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, p. 70).

In the meantime, another DIN ISO norm, the DIN ISO 29990, has been introduced. According to Rau et al. (2011), the focus is on the learning process. The norm is for anyone who wants to achieve successful results in learning. It has a special focus on the learning processes. Quality is controlled by internal audits and monitoring of learning, learning services, and the competences of this service (cf. Rau et al., 2011, p. 1). Learning services include the determination of needs, the design of learning services, their delivery, and an evaluation of learning and learning services (cf. Rau et al., 2011, p. 9).

Conclusion

Both in Italy and in Germany, quality management systems are implemented as a top down process in adult learning institutions. The responsible authorities are mostly the national government, but also increasingly the European Union, which expects high-level performances to support the goals of lifelong learning, as defined in the *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning* (European Commission,

2000). For historical reasons, Germany has a wide range of national organisations of quality management in the adult education sector. After reunification in the 1990s, there was a lack of suitable providers with adequate quality services. However, government funding was not used effectively. As a consequence, adult education providers had to obtain seals of quality from independent companies. That is one of the reasons why many quality instruments exist at the local level, like the TÜV seal or the Hamburg model (cf. Everett & Müller in this book). In Italy, the influence of the European Union is stronger. The attention to adult education started after the First World War, and its main goal was to fight illiteracy, which was widespread throughout the country, especially in the southern regions. Adult education has always been characterised by a territorial approach, meaning that there are variations in adult education provision from region to region and locality to locality. In more recent years, mainstream adult education has been developed within the context of lifelong learning as presented by the EU, and very much dependant on ESF funding made available through regions, provinces, and municipalities (cf. Research voor Beleid, 2011, p. 5).

Concerning the two approaches to quality, the adult learning sector has to fulfil economic requirements in particular. In Germany, as well as in Italy, adult learning providers act according to efficiency and effectiveness. ISO certificates in particular, used in both countries, emphasise a productive organisation including measurable learning outcomes. The humanistic approach seems rather less pronounced. However, in Germany, the LQW instrument pays attention to the learning process, whereas in Italy students, teachers, and other stakeholders are included in the quality management process of higher education. Nevertheless, the interests of the learner often do not figure prominently in the quality thinking of adult learning institutions. Learners want good quality for an acceptable price. However, on the one hand, quality is characterised by objective features and hence measurable and comparable. On the other hand, learners' subjective evaluation shows a new necessary perspective on quality. This perspective expresses the particular feature of the learning process and the role of the learner (cf. Poschalko, 2011, p. 28). Even though the learning process involves effort and inconveniences, the quality of the course may be good. It is important to note that quality also includes an efficient transfer into practice after the course and sustainability of the learning process.

Another stakeholder in the quality discussion is the adult educator. The perspective of the educator should take the learner's perspective of quality into account. Moreover, it is a question of professionalism and skills. Apart from formal qualifications, informally acquired skills and a network in adult education are

more and more desirable (cf. Poschalko, 2011, p. 27). In contrast to the teacher perspective, the organisational viewpoint is less pedagogically oriented. Providers are required to implement a quality assurance system in order to establish more transparency, higher comparability, and clarity (cf. Hartz & Meisel, 2006, p. 7). Therefore, they have to invest time and money to achieve higher economic standards. Nevertheless, a discrepancy exists between slashing funding and making higher demands on providers.

These perspectives show the different point of views on quality management systems. Nevertheless, it is now broadly understood that a quality management system is important to create transparency, comparable certificates, and well-working organisations in the adult learning sector. But it is important not to forget the learning process with its unpredictable educational effects. Further research could explore how a more humanistic approach can be implemented in the adult learning sector and among its relevant national and international stakeholder

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Peggy Everett & Christian Müller

Comparative analysis of two quality management models in the U.S.A. and Germany

Abstract

The article compares two quality management models widely used in the US and Germany. First, it provides a short insight into the practice of quality management in the US and Germany by giving a short description and classifying the quality management models into their respective systems. Furthermore, the article analyses four specific aspects for a deeper insight into the development, procedures, institutions, and costs of both models. It will become evident that despite some differences, many similarities exist, especially regarding the processes of the two quality management models.

Introduction

Quality management models in adult education are developed against the background of specific and unspecific needs, which are influenced and given by politics, social movements and reforms, economic conditions, mission statements, contracts and orders, as well as other factors. Such needs are located in a tension field of control, media, money, and power (cf. Aust & Schmidt-Hertha, 2012, p. 46) and are manifested in optimisation and improvement, legitimation, client demands, and organisational requirements. It is the aim of this article to compare two well-known quality management models in the United States (regional accreditation) and Germany (learner-oriented quality certification) and to identify similarities and differences in the categories of development, procedures, institutions, and costs. For the most part, this text shouldn't just provide a description but highlight the opportunities resulting from learning from one another.

Regional accreditation (US) and learner-oriented quality certification (Germany)

Regional accreditation in the United States

Because the tenth amendment of the US constitution guarantees states' rights to education, no overarching seal of quality is used in postsecondary education in the US. Instead, a system of regionally-based accreditation, and to a lesser extent

nationally-based accreditation, guarantees quality in adult education settings. Any programme in adult education may apply for accreditation and/or become accredited by the regional or national accreditation agencies. These range from adult basic education (ABE) to vocational training (VET), both public and private, to institutions of higher education, both public and private. According to the Council for Higher Education Accreditation, accreditation is 'a process of external quality review used by higher education to scrutinise colleges, universities, and educational programmes for quality assurance and quality improvement' (Council for Higher Education Accreditation, 2012, p. 1). Private, non-profit organisations specifically designed for accreditation ensure the quality management process. Postsecondary institutions and programmes apply for accreditation to demonstrate academic quality and to be eligible for federal funds. These institutions can be either non-profit or for-profit; currently, about half of the accredited organisations are not-for profit (cf. Council for Higher Education Accreditation, 2012, p. 1). There are four institutional accreditations used in the US:

- regional, which are degree-granting institutions
- national faith-related, mostly non-profit, degree-granting institutions
- national career-related, mostly non-degree granting and both for-profit and non-profit private and public institutions
- programmatic, which serve single-purpose institutions like law and medical schools and review programmes (cf. Council for Higher Education Accreditation, 2012, p. 2).

The accreditation procedure is conducted in a cycle ranging, at most, every ten years.

US accreditation cycle

Institutions and programmes aren't the only ones under review in the US; accrediting organisations must receive recognition in order to grant accreditation to institutions and programmes. They receive recognition from either the US Department of Education or from the Council for Higher Education Accreditation, which have very different standards for granting recognition (cf. US Department of Education, 2015).

LQW – Learner-Oriented Quality Certification for Further Education Organisations

The implementation of quality management models in organisations of adult education in Germany has been critically reviewed since its beginnings, because

organisational and economic interests seem to be in conflict with pedagogical requirements. Subsequently, to adopt business-like quality management models, it was necessary that the adult education community develop models that '… overcome the dominance of the organisation and move the core of pedagogical activities to the fore …' (Hartz, 2011, p. 35). Therefore, the concept of quality in adult education refers to the learning outcomes (quality of results) as well as to the learning process (quality of process) (cf. Aust & Schmidt-Hertha, 2012, p. 45).

Among other models, the Learner-Oriented Quality Certification for Further Education Organisations (LQW) has been developed by the Federal-State Commission for Educational Planning (*Bund-Länder-Kommission für Bildungsplanung*) to meet the abovementioned challenges. The LQW is an instrument for quality testing *and* quality development. The central idea of an education-focused quality management is to realise that education isn't manageable in the same way as typical services or products are. Education, in particular, cannot be produced by the organisation alone; rather, it is the task of the organisation to care about the conditions for successful learning (cf. Zech, 2008, p. 12). Therefore, LQW defines the following eleven sectors of quality:

"1. Mission Statement and Definition of Successful Learning
2. Needs Analysis
3. Key Processes
4. Teacher-Learner Process
5. Evaluation of the Educational Process
6. Infrastructure
7. Management
8. Human Ressources
9. Controlling
10. Costumer Relations
11. Strategic Development Goals" (Zech, 2007, p. 13)

All sectors of quality must be documented in a self-evaluation report, which will be verified afterwards by an audit visit. At a final workshop, the strategic development goals are determined and the passed quality procedure will be reflected (cf. Zech, 2008, p. 14).

Development

Development of accreditation in the US

After Harvard was established in 1636, many universities, both public and private, emerged all over the US. Normal schools, schools offering standard teacher

training, and schools offering higher education emerged in the 1880s. The state of education (and miseducation) evolved, and many associations and committees dedicated to the regulation of quality in education were founded. By the 1940s, both theorists and practitioners of postsecondary education knew something had to be done. Troops were returning home with the new GI Bill, which granted money for postsecondary education to soldiers. The National Commission on Accreditation was established to relieve the burden and to assure that federal dollars earmarked for the education of veterans were well spent. Because the Bill of Rights guarantees states' rights over education, the federal government could not enforce any act of quality. This resulted in the regional accreditation system seen today, which presides over public education and national accreditation for religious, specialised, and career-oriented institutions (cf. Brittingham, 2009).

Development of LQW in Germany

Although quality played a role in the adult education discourse early on, the beginning of the (education-policy) discourse about quality in further education in Germany could be dated around the year 1976, when the Distance Learning Protection Act *(Fernunterrichtsschutzgesetz FernUSG)* was adopted. This act survived nearly unchanged over the years (despite continued discussion about quality); it could therefore be termed a fossil of the quality discussion (cf. Gnahs, 2005, p. 10). However, it marks the beginning of a discourse about quality aspects in adult education. After the implementation of state laws on further training (*Weiterbildungsgesetze der Länder*) during the 1960s and 1970s, the discussion about quality and quality management systems became more intensive, especially during the 1990s (cf. Hartz, 2011, p. 24), responding, on the one hand, to those laws, new market conditions, customer requirements, cost pressures, and so on. On the other hand, quality management became emancipated from procedures too closely aligned to business practices with the help of quality management models like the LQW. Furthermore, vocational education and training programmes that seek funding from the Federal Labour Office have to prove quality certification. This processes is regulated by the Accreditation and Certification Ordinance—Employment Promotion (*Akkreditierungs- und Zulassungsverordnung – Arbeitsförderung AZAV*) (until 04/2012: Approval and Certification Ordinance—Continuing Education, *Anerkennungs- und Zulassungsverordnung – Weiterbildung AZWV*). The AZWV focused first on the level of the organisation/operators and second on the level of the educational measure (cf. Hartz, 2011, p. 25); the AZAV follows that approach. The testing involved

in the LQW quality procedure, which is treated in the present article, doesn't automatically lead to recognition by the Federal Labour Office (according to the AZAV), but if an organisation is tested through LQW, the AZAV accreditation is normally less cost intensive and less extensive.

The LQW was developed over a period of five years (2000–2005) in the context of numerous projects and was financed by the Federal-State Commission for Educational Planning, the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (*Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung*), and the European Social Fund (*Europäischer Sozialfonds*) (cf. Zech, 2008, p. 6). The first reflections followed on a collaborative project (1999–2000) between ArtSet (the LQW developer and operator) and the regional association of adult education centres (*Volkshochschulen*) in Lower Saxony. In the first instance, the quality development measures were designed individually for each organisation, but it quickly became evident that there were similarities concerning the processes of quality development. In a subsequent project with the same partners, a model of quality testing was developed until 2002. In cooperation with the German Institute for Adult Education (DIE) a testing phase of the testing model took place on the basis of relevant quality procedures, which were used in Germany and Europe until 2003, and two years later the implementation phase of the first LQW version followed (cf. Zech, 2006, p. 9).

Procedures

Procedures of US accreditation

Analysing organisations granting accreditation reinforces the American notion of checks and balances. Table 3 shows the process of accreditation utilising self-studies on the part of the institution or programme, volunteer peer reviewers, and the accrediting organisations.

Figure 1: Author's own based on Eaton, 2012, pp. 4–5.

Self-Study	• Institutions prepare a summary based on accreditor standards.
Peer Review	• Faculty and administrative peers review self-study.
Site Visit	• Volunteer peer team visits institution or programme.
Judgment by Accrediting Organisation	• Accrediting organisation commissions affirm, reaffirm, or deny institution or programme.
Periodic External Review	• Continual review process with new self-studies and site visits each time.

Procedures of LQW in Germany

The LQW is designed as a quality circle, which consists of a period of quality development and a period of quality testing. After the opening workshop, the period of quality development begins with an internal evaluation and the preparation of a specific mission statement. Hereafter, measures will be planned and implemented. For this period, the ArtSet GmbH (the LQW developer and operator) provides working aids, a telephone hotline, email correspondence, and other opportunities to network with LQW organisations. Additionally, there are local support units and nationwide network conferences or support in terms of workshops (cf. Zech, 2008, p. 15). The whole process is documented and summarised in the self-evaluation report. At this time, the period of quality development is being replaced by the period of quality testing. The basis of the following external assessment procedure is the self-evaluation report. Furthermore, an audit visit and the discussion of the expert report of the LQW consultants take place. The quality circle ends with a final workshop and the definition of strategic development goals for upcoming quality circles (cf. Zech, 2008, p. 14).

Figure 2: The Quality Cycle (Zech, 2007, p. 14).
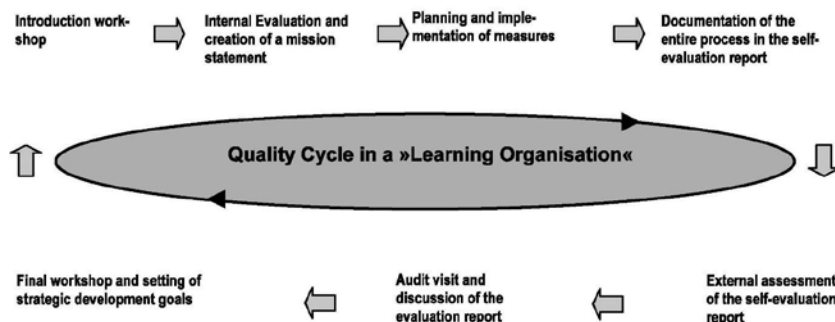
Altogether, the whole certification procedure extends over a period of up to 16 months: The organisation to be certified is allowed a maximum of 13 months to prepare the self-evaluation report. The subsequent assessment (two 25–30-page expert reports using their own quality assurance) takes up to 4 months. The audit visit takes place within the following 6 weeks after the receipt of the experts' report, and one week later the expert submits the minutes of the audit visit. The date of the final workshop will be agreed between the organisations and the expert, and the certificate is valid for four years (cf. Zech, 2008, pp. 18–19).

Institutions

Institutions and programmes accredited in the US

It is most common for institutions offering postsecondary education to apply for or continue accreditation. This provides legitimacy and public respect, federal financial aid for students, and the ability to apply for federal monies like grants. The Council for Higher Education Accreditation keeps a database of institutions and programmes accredited by the six regional accrediting organisations. They list more than 8,300 degree- and non-degree-granting institutions and almost 24,000 programmes. The database is easily accessed and searchable by institution name, country, US state/territory, and/or institutional accreditor (cf. Council for Higher Education Accreditation, 2012).

Institutions and programmes accredited by LQW in Germany

According to the 2010 *Weiterbildungsmonitor* (an annual survey of continuing training providers in Germany), about 80 per cent of all training providers have

quality certificates, quality assurance models, or a quality management model in place (cf. Ambos et al., 2010, p. 4).

In Germany, 415 organisations from all 16 states are involved in the LQW processes. That means they are currently in the phase of testing, or they are certified for a maximum period of four years. The share of organisations that used the LQW as a quality model in 2010 was 10 per cent (cf. wbmonitor, 2010, p. 3). The participating organisations represent different areas of adult education, including vocational education and training, educational counselling, health education, adult education centres, language schools, and the like.

Costs

Costs of accreditation in the US

Accreditation is mostly done by volunteers. This makes it very cost effective. Brittingham reports that in 2005, 3,000 institutions were regionally accredited using 3,500 volunteers and 129 staff members (cf. Brittingham, 2009, p. 18). Dues and fees are charged by the accrediting organisation to the programme or institution on a sliding scale determined by the institutional budget. For the New England Association of Schools and Colleges Commission on Institutions of Higher Education (NEASC-CIHE), the oldest accreditor, dues range from approximately US$ 6,000 to US$ 30,000. Fees vary from approximately US$ 2,000 to US$ 30.000 plus visiting team member expenses (cf. CIHE Dues and Fees, 2015). This can be expensive, especially for emerging programmes or new schools, and contributes to the escalating cost of postsecondary education.

Costs of LQW in Germany

The cost of the total quality certification process are set on a sliding scale based on the size of the organisation, ranging from € 3,094 (incl. VAT) for microenterprises with a maximum of two workplaces (where a maximum of three people are working) up to € 10,591 (incl. VAT) for organisations with more than 200 employees (cf. general terms of ArtSet GmbH).

Conclusion

Both countries recognise the importance of quality assessment and management. How this is done is quite similar in that both LQW and regional accreditation utilise internal evaluations, self-assessments, external evaluations, site visits, and continued renewals. In both countries, an overarching seal of quality does not

exist. In Germany, LQW is recognised, but there are other important seals, too (Hamburger Modell, ISO, EFQM). In the United States, regional accreditation is recognised, but it is not required for all programmes and institutions providing adult education. Germany also values using regionally-based accreditation processes, which are more frequently used than LQW. Like its US counterpart, LQW is used in both for-profit and non-profit organisations.

Although they are labelled differently, the seals of quality are similar in terms of both procedures and costs. The steps involved in the quality *testing* procedures are quite similar for both countries:

Figure 3: Quality Testing Procedures of US Regional Accreditation and LQW (Author's Own).
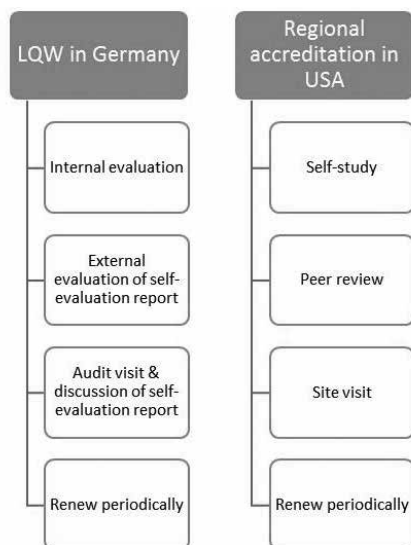
Although the procedure seems to be similar, the steps of quality *development* in LQW (introductory workshop, planning and implementation of measures, final workshop, and strategic development goals) do not have an equivalent in regional accreditation. Moreover, there are notable differences in the German and American use of quality and accreditation. Most notably, accreditation of higher education (institutions offering BA/MA degrees) doesn't play an important role in Germany when looking at the distribution of recognitions of all organisations offering adult education that use quality management systems (cf. Weiland, 2011, p. 5). The direct opposite is true in the US: degree-granting institutions must

be accredited or the degree granted is considered worthless by US society and employers. Additionally, credits earned at an institution lacking accreditation are not transferrable to another institution of higher education. The costs associated with LQW are generally less expensive than regional accreditation in the US. This is especially true for microenterprises, and the costs associated with LQW are comparatively less intensive for large organisations. Recognition by federal offices is also different in each country. In Germany, the Federal Labour Office does not automatically recognise LQW certifications, but holding the certification makes it easier to be recognised. In America, the federal Department of Education formally recognizes programmes and schools through regional accreditation. While the LQW is mostly utilised by vocational training and adult education centres, US regional accreditation ranges from community education to higher education. Although both developed at different times and at different rates, they were both established for the same reason: to ensure the effectiveness, quality, and standards of education for adults.

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Comparing Guidance and Counselling in Lifelong Learning

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Guidance and counselling in higher education: A comparison between the career services in Germany and Italy

Abstract

As the number of career guidance services at European universities increased in recent years, this article focuses on their implementation from a pedagogical point of view. Therefore, we discuss how career guidance helps university students in Germany and Italy cope with the increasing demands of the employment market. The main aim of this contribution is to present, compare, and contrast several dimensions of the presence of career services at universities. To achieve this goal, the argumentation follows a four-step plan. First of all, the concept of career guidance, as it emerges from international literature, is defined. Second, national contributions are presented. Third, a comparison highlights similarities and differences that characterise the different national services. Finally, we outline one of the main challenges that Germany and Italy share regarding the future of their career services in higher education. The key contribution of this paper deals with the adoption of a comparative approach on a topic which can really impact on the creation of a European space of higher education and contribute to the redistribution of opportunity 'to progress, in relation with the diverse need of life … following a double purpose of societal and personal development' (UNESCO, 1970, p. 52).

Introduction

In 2004, the OECD (2004) stated that there was 'little of no career guidance available for many students in tertiary education' (p. 20). As there furthermore is too little 'trained personnel to meet tertiary students' career development and guidance needs' (p. 20), the OECD formulates a demand for career guidance for this group of students. (p. 20). Furthermore, according to the Lisbon strategy, the European Union is 'to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion' (European Parliament, 2000; see also CEDEFOP, 2009, p. 12). This means for individuals to acquire 'completely new skills to cope with changing occupational profiles and skill requirements resulting from rapid technological and economic developments' (CEDEFOP, 2009, p. 12). As education and training systems 'are not very transparent for most individuals …

policies and strategies for guidance and career counselling have become a political priority in Europe' (CEDEFOP, 2009, p. 13).

Therefore this article focuses on the research question: *How do career guidance services help students in Germany and Italy cope with the increasing demands of the employment market*? Career guidance in this understanding has the aim to 'enhance the employability of graduates' (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency 2015, p. 203). Therefore, '[c]areer guidance is regarded as particularly important for nontraditional learners, especially if it is provided throughout the whole student lifecycle' (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2015, p. 203).

In the following, we use the definition of career guidance that has been used by the OECD, the European Commission, and the World Bank (cf. OECD, 2004, p. 10; see also Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2015, p. 268). Career guidance here is being understood as referring to

> *services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training, and occupational choices and to manage their careers. Such services may be found in schools, universities and colleges, in training institutions, in public employment services, in the workplace, in the voluntary or community sector, and in the private sector. (OECD, 2004, p. 10)*

In addition, the definition says that career guidance may happen 'on an individual or group basis, and may be face-to-face or at a distance' (OECD, 2004, p. 10). That definition shows that career guidance for university students is one part of career guidance and that guidance may come in different forms. Aside from providing information on careers, career guidance includes the following services:

> *assessment and self-assessment tools, counselling interviews, career education programmes (to help individuals develop their self awareness, opportunity awareness, and career management skills), taster programmes (to sample options before choosing them), work search programmes, and transition services. (OECD, 2004, p. 10)*

Therefore, we would like to point out how career guidance has been implemented at German and Italian universities and in what educational way they support the students.

Guidance and Counselling by Career Services in Germany

Since the end of the 1990s, several career services have been implemented in Germany (Jörns, 2002, p. 9). Jörns (2002), following Michel (2001), describes structural change, academic reforms, and the skills shortage (p. 122) as the framework

for the implementation of career services in Germany. Furthermore, Jörns (2002) adds the relevance of pilot projects (p. 122).

Regarding the employability of university graduates, career services are meant to be 'a genuine duty of academia, in addition to seminars with practical relevance' (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2011, p. 2). The German Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (HRK), or German Rectors' Conference, defines career services as 'institutions of higher education that serve as an interface between academia and the labour market' (2011, p. 2, own translation). Their aim is it to strengthen the practice orientation of departments and faculties (p. 2). Therefore, it is the duty of career services to prepare students for the 'transition towards employability' (p. 2) and to enhance their 'vocational orientation' (p. 2; own translations). The HRK pointed out the following responsibilities of career services:

(1)   information, guidance, and counselling (*Beratung*)
(2)   connecting academia and the labour market
(3)   contact management and mediation (HRK, 2011, pp. 3–4)

According to the HRK, support can be provided in different ways: single guidance and counselling or coaching, cooperative projects, mentoring tandems with alumni, workshops with ac-training, or application checks (HRK, 2011, p. 3).

In its paper on quality assurance, Career Service Netzwerk Deutschland (2009) defines 'the preparation of future academics to manage their vocational biography in the context of the knowledge society' (p. 6, own translation) as the goal of guidance and counselling. Guidance and counselling topics include: 'vocational orientation, choosing an internship, reflecting on strengths and weaknesses, application and job entry, but also choosing a field of study, and deciding whether a master's course, a doctoral thesis, or job entry would be the best choice' (p. 6).

Therefore, career service staff should have an 'appropriate qualification or training in the field of guidance/counselling' (Career Service Network Deutschland, 2009, p. 6). Furthermore, supervision and advanced trainings are recommended (p. 6). This is to make sure that guidance and counselling services are confidential. The guidance and counselling approach being used should be made transparent to the client (ibid., p. 6). According to Career Service Network Deutschland, guidance/counselling services should be person-oriented, context-oriented, and solution-oriented. The outcome of the guidance/counselling process should be evaluated only in terms of how helpful it has been for the client, not for the career service or the counsellor (ibid., p. 7).

Guidance and counselling hereby appear to be one of the duties of career services in Germany. With aiming at the employability of the students, guidance

and counselling shall equip the students with competences for the employment market.

To sum it up, employability seems to be the main aim of career services in Germany. By organisations as HRK and the Career Service Netzwerk Deutschland guidelines for counselling and guidance have been worked out. Guidance and counselling hereby shall enable the clients to increase their employability and to get aware on their chances and possibilities on the employment market. At the same time the Career Service Network Deutschland emphasises the relevance of the personal outcomes of the guidance and counselling for the student.

Guidance and Counselling by Career Services in Italy

Guidance and counselling services emerged as university services in the late 1990s (cf. CRUI, 1995). The context in which this phenomenon took place was linked to the higher education reform that involves European countries, but it was also characterised by national issues. From a national point of view, guidance and counselling in higher education are parts of a broad lifelong guidance strategy, 'which guarantees the development and the support of individuals' decision-making processes' (Italian Ministry of Education, University, and Research, 2014, p. 2, own translation), providing information, training experiences, and counselling activities from the cradle to the grave.

In a broad perspective, guidance and counselling services in higher education are expected to:

1. find strategies to reduce early university dropout,
2. raise graduation rates of people in higher education
3. facilitate the transition to work.

For obvious reasons, which include the need to reduce the costs arising from dropouts, the guidance and counselling system at Italian universities has been structured so as to be able to respond to various challenges. Primarily, they have to answer to the information, training, and counselling needs expressed by students transitioning from school to university. Secondarily, they have to facilitate the transition from one programme year to the next. Recently, under the pressure of community initiatives, professional practices designed to accompany students leaving the university have gained a central role contributing to the definition of specific career services (cf. ISFOL, 2011).

According to the latest report on the state of university and research in Italy, published by the National Agency for the Evaluation of University and Research (cf. ANVUR, 2013), the Italian system of higher education is highly fragmented

and unproductive in terms of graduates employed within the first year after graduation. These two elements, particularly relevant since the financial crisis, have placed guidance and counselling at the centre of many reflections that fit into the broader debate on the employability of young people. On the international level, the concept of employability can be understood from two different perspectives. The first assumes 'an employment-centred approach that focuses primarily on graduate employment rates' (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2014, p. 11). The second highlights 'the competences relevant for the labour market that need to be acquired through higher education' (ibid.). In Italy, the tension between these perspectives has not allowed university career services to refer to a solid and common framework, even if they work on an on-going basis at almost all Italian universities (cf. ADAPT, 2011).

Career services are being provided at diverse levels, mainly using an individual approach, although group and online activities are offered, too. As with other university services, the counselling staff is usually to small for the number of traditional and non-traditional students they serve (cf. ISFOL, 2011). The instrumental apparatus to support users to manage their vocational biography refers to a multiplicity of interventions, including work placements at companies, or skills assessments. The most common practices are generally aimed to supporting individuals in their exploration of the labour market and their active job search. Interventions related to the preparation of CVs and job interviews are offered alongside activities that focus on entrepreneurial education. This is often approached by directly involving companies in business presentations and workshops. Actions to stimulate self-employment through participation in specific programmes, support with spin-off processes, and incubator programmes are also common. Career services are also in charge of organising job fairs. They check students' applications and other documents, such as motivation letters.

As mandated by law (cf. Italian Parliament, 2003, 2010) Italian universities have created databases with graduates' curricula to better match labour supply and demand. Their function, however, is not limited to placement. Finally, Italian career services are devoting more and more energy to activities aimed at monitoring the quality of their interventions from the point of view of companies and students to find a balance between the need for improving graduate employment rates, upgrading students' skills, and affirming the primacy of training activities over advisory/informative and counselling services (cf. Cammelli, 2014).

Comparison

The brief overview on the ways in which career services help university students in Germany and Italy cope with the increasing demands of the employment market suggests that many differences and similarities can be identified.

From a general point of view, the main similarities refer to the temporal dimension of the implementation of career services in higher education and the implicit or explicit reference to the concept of employability. Concerning the first point, it is possible to say that the 1990s were a turning point in all the countries analysed. The Bologna process the associated national reforms were based on the assumption that it is a key responsibility of higher education to sustain 'the ability of graduates to gain initial meaningful employment, or to become self-employed, to maintain employment, and to be able to move around within the labour market' (Working Group on Employability, 2009, p. 5). Concerning the second point, we see that career services in Germany and Italy refer, implicitly or explicitly, to the concept of employability, in both its meanings. A recent publication recalls in fact how the adoption of a benchmark on graduate employability by the Council of the European Union in 2012 gave career services a prominent role in achieving this goal by fostering students' competences (Education, Audiovisual, and Culture Executive Agency, 2014, p. 61).

Despite these similarities, a deeper analysis shows some differences related to the presence of frameworks or guidelines on quality standards and monitoring processes that ensure success to career services in higher education. Concerning this, it's possible to observe that in Germany, universities have implemented a solid and common strategy of career services in response to the high demand for clarifying their tasks and procedures. Guidelines were created, especially through strategic cooperation of the HRK and Career Service Netzwerk Deutschland. In Italy, by contrast, the tension between an employment-centred and competence-centred approach to employability does not allow university career services to refer to a solid framework or specific guidelines. The only guidelines available are in fact the guidelines referred to in the implementation of a national lifelong guidance strategy (cf. Linee guida, 2014).

Focusing the analysis on some specific aspects, more subtle differences and similarities emerge. In Germany, career services see themselves as an interface between students and the labour market, working, above all, to increase the practical relevance of educational pathways, whereas in Italy, they assume this mission by reaffirming an educational role that helps them try to find a balance between their placement function and their advisory and counselling tradition.

Regarding the activities of the university career services in the countries analysed, it is clear that all of them consider it their duty to inform, guide, and counsel students in order to ease the transition from university to work, but Italy seems to put somewhat less emphasis on connecting students and companies. The German HRK, by contrast, defined contact management between students and labour market institutions as one of the main activities of German universities' career services (HRK, 2011, pp. 3–4).

Nevertheless, measures to enhance students' employability in the two countries seem include a quite solid and shared set of services. Newsletters, advisory and counselling interviews, projects and programmes for the development of specific competences, mentoring, workshops, CV and application checks, practical training, assessments, business presentations, job fairs, and placement activities, in various degrees, seem to be available for German and Italian students alike. Only entrepreneurial education can be considered a specific Italian service.

Concerning the definition of quality standards, Germany seems to have adopted the student perspective when defining quality criteria (e.g. confidentiality, transparency, and person-oriented, context-oriented, and solutions-oriented approaches), whereas Italy is still trying to identify a strategy to provide significant feedback to fulfil the expectations and needs of students, companies, and institutions alike.

What has been said in these paragraphs shows how Germany and Italy deal with the duty to equip students with all the required skills to manage their professional biography in the context of the knowledge society. This emphasis on students' labour market success exposes university career services to heavy criticism. In this perspective, in fact, they seem to support an understanding of higher education as having the only role of producing employable graduates while underestimating a range of other individual and societal outputs. This criticism highlights one of the challenges shared by these European countries. The above-mentioned challenge concerns the reflexions on career guidance and counselling in higher education in order to find a model that approaches issues related to students' employability both from a demand and a supply-side understanding of the labour market.

As a recent publication recalls, 'employability plays a central role in the European Commission's higher education reform strategy (European Commission, 2011) as well as both in the Europe 2020 (European Commission, 2010) and the Education and Training 2020 ('ET 2020') strategies' (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2014, p. 61). However, this doesn't mean that reflecting on what higher education institutions need to respond to labour market requirements blurs the reflection on what higher education institutions need to

achieve in terms of output. Employment certainly does not depend exclusively on the quality of education that graduates have received, but also on many other factors that influence an individual's employment prospects. Here, guidance and counselling can also have an impact.

In the context of the widening participation agenda, this means, first of all, to highlight the role of career services in the provision of (targeted) advice and career guidance to non-traditional learners throughout their student lifecycle (p. 65). As Thomas and Jones claim, 'besides providing access to relevant work experience for students with non-traditional backgrounds, higher education institutions have a particular responsibility' (2007, p. 23): to bring down the 'indirect' barriers non-traditional learners can face on the labour market. This goal is closely related to the possibility to 1) develop awareness about employability; 2) assess personal and professional strengths and weaknesses in different contexts, and 3) manage an appropriate job search and enhance application skills.

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Guidance and counseling: processes, methods and activities in a Lifelong perspective

Abstract

In 1996, the UNESCO presented the Delors' report, in the context of important changes which brought the society into an era marked by a very strong economic and cultural interdependence. As a consequence of spreading policies related to the idea that learning throughout life is the heartbeat of society, the need to build and improve national lifelong guidance systems, able to sustain the individual choice to undertake a lifelong process of learning, became clear. This paper deals with the concepts of guidance and counseling in order to present, compare and contrast processes, methods and activities carried out in Hungary, India, Italy and Portugal. The main aim of this comparative effort is to promote a common understanding of both concepts. Although the appreciation of different national perspectives captures quite different shades of meaning, the result of the analysis speaks about the possibility to define Guidance and Counseling processes as comprehensive educational processes which help people to cope with their future, using non directive methods, within a holistic and constructivist paradigm that includes a vast array of activities. The key contribution of the paper consists in the identification of some themes, issues and challenges which emerged from a global comparison.

Introduction

This paper deals, within an international framework, with the concepts of guidance and counseling. Recently, several authors have underlined lifelong guidance as one of the main tools through which policy objectives could be achieved by many countries (cf. CEDEFOP, 2005; Council of European Union, 2008; Borbély-Pecze & Watts, 2011). Their reflection impose a deeper understanding of these concepts. Consequently, the main aim of this paper is to enlarge transversal and thematic analyses of them; to promote a common understanding of both concepts, enabling the appreciation of different national perspectives; to share a comparative approach to global issues and to learn from each other's experiences.

To achieve these goals the paper presents, compares and contrasts guidance and counseling processes, methods and activities in Hungary, India, Italy and Portugal. First of all, each national framework will be outlined in order to show the peculiarities of each country. Secondly, category such as processes, methods

and activities will drive the comparison to the discovery of similarities. Then some differences will be underlined in order to conclude the analysis focusing on the main themes, issues and challenges which emerge from the comparison.

Carrying out a qualitative comparative analysis outlines several methodological difficulties. The main difficulty lies in using document' statements as unit of interpretation, underestimating that each country has its own traditions which result in a different use of terms. Although national concepts of Guidance and Counseling capture quite different shades of meaning, 'there is much that is common across Europe' (Sultana, 2004, p. 22). All European countries face a broad set of similar challenges for education, labour market and social policies.

In this perspective, it seems particularly interesting to pose the following questions: in which way can we consider guidance and counseling as educational processes in the different countries? Which methods are involved? Does informative, formative and counselling activities really allow individuals to become self-conscious, "to progress, in relation with the diverse need of life…following a double purpose of societal and personal development" (UNESCO, 1970, p. 52)?

Guidance and Counseling in Hungary

In Hungary, educational guidance and counseling has a long tradition. In 1959, the Labour Ministry established a psychology work group, which work on it. Eight years later, the National Career Counseling Institute (OPTI) has been created and later the National Career Counseling Council (later Committee). At the beginning of the 1970s, each county established its own counseling institute under supervision of the Ministry of Labour. In the 1980s, before the change of the economic and social regime (1987–1999), there was a functional national career counseling network operating. For political reasons, in the early 1980s, the system gradually lost its autonomy and independence, as the county institutes merged with institutes of pedagogy. At the same time, in schools the responsible career counseling institution kept on operating on a compulsory basis (cf. Sipeki, 2005).

During the communist era 'full employment' was an ideological hindrance of any serious development in the field of career Guidance. In the early 1990s, with the introduction of the market economy and the dramatic and fundamental changes in the labour market, massive unemployment exploded and the issue of advisory work in careers Guidance was brought back into the foreground. After 1991, the responsibility of career Counseling fell to the regional labour centres. However, the Human Policy Ministries did not manage to come up with a long-term strategic agreement concerning the operation and evaluation of Career Counseling services (cf. Benedek, 2000).

The EU accession gave a big push to national developments regarding the field of Guidance in 2004. The Hungarian LLG Council has been founded in January 2008 and the same year a new national programme was launched, which included the development of a new national lifelong guidance network. The main aim of the national council is to develop and promote a unified framework for lifelong guidance policy and to create a well-operating system. The work of the council is closely linked to the national development programme for lifelong learning. An important subtask of the council is to improve guidance processes developing new policy mechanism and unified guidelines for professionals in the field. Within this subtask, the council offers trainings at two different levels:

- for career counseling professionals (two years full diploma)
- for professionals in the related fields (30h modularised trainings)

In 2014, as part of the Social Renewal Operational Programme, a project, on the methodological and contextual development of the guidance system, introduced a new modularised training based on blended learning methods. During this training, 4000 future consultants will be trained to provide guidance in the field of education and work. Despite the training is mainly designed for teachers, social workers or counsellors, the only requirement for the access are a higher-education degree and user-level computer skills. Carachteristics which vanished the possibility to identify a specific professional profile. Even if for someone is doubtful that 30 hours are enough to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge, those who finished the training should provide information about the labour market, the structure of education, the needs of jobs supply and their requirements as well as the main job search techniques.

To widen the access for all stakeholders for the career and educational Guidance services, the council also developed some new tools available at the National Guidance Portal such as questioners, textbooks, tools for improving self-knowledge, etc (www.eletpalya.munka.hu). Blended methods of fruition allow people to experience a vast array of informative, formative and counselling activities. The webpage provides complex and current information for user and professionals who can also update their knowledge on a new review called *Életpálya Tanácsadás/Lifelong Guidance* (cf. Hungarian, Lifelong Guidance Council, 2009).

Guidance and counseling in India

In India, globalisation and knowledge society processes are confronting people with great challenges and made them demanding as a result of demographic change. In a rapidly changing and technology driven country, the emerging

concept of Lifelong Learning points out that the initial education is insufficient to help people to live a better life. In such circumstances, great emphasis is placed on instruments to continuously adapt, expand and apply acquired knowledge and the concept of Lifelong Learning has a widespread impact in the community, especially among the diverge population (cf. Sharma, 2004).

As a result, Guidance and Counseling starts to play an important role to motivate people or make them aware about the importance of learning. Originally centred on problems related to vocations for young people, now they encompass every kind of assistance offered by qualified people to individuals of any age to help them to manage their own lives, develop their own perspectives make their own decisions and carry on their own burden. From this perspective, Guidance is understood as a relatively more comprehensive educational process that includes Counseling as its most specialised function. From this point of view Counseling can be seen as a process which enables the individuals to know themselves, their present and their potential future situation in order to make substantial contributions to the society and to solve their own problems through a face to face relationship with the counsellor.

Even if India has a rich and long tradition of learning throughout life embedded in society, culture and education, Lifelong Learning policies came under the influence of big international organisations such as the EU, UNESCO or the OECD. The echo of the European 'A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning', came in 2000, which includes key messages on 'Rethinking Counseling and Guidance', led India to envisages Guidance and Counseling as a continuously accessible service to all, stating that 'the practitioner's task is to accompany individuals on their journey through life, releasing motivation, providing relevant information, and facilitating decision making' (cf. Sharma & Sharma, 2004). For these reasons, within the XI National Plan (2007–2012), the University Grants Commission of India introduced guidelines on Lifelong Learning and Guidance in the Higher Education. In that field, all the different programmes initiated earlier under various terminologies were reformulated and developed as Lifelong Learning programmes.

This process, which aims to offer to Indians the necessary competences which fit the fast expanding global knowledge scenario, points out how the system of provision shifts from a supply side to a demand side approach, placing users' need at the centre of concern. As a consequence, professionals who have to accompany active citizens, who should be self-motivated to pursue their own personal and professional development, are called to provide relevant information to facilitate decision making. In so doing, the most appropriate methods to release awareness, motivation and self-direction towards the future, seem to be the ones which assist

individuals to become wholesome people. The most common activities carried out by counsellors are securing information, developing the habits, ideals, interests and techniques necessary to intelligent choice through interviews, developmental exercises, case study and group sessions aimed to select 'suitable experiences in accord with individual needs and potentialities' (Sharma & Sharma, 2004, p. 40)

This underlines how India focuses guidance and counseling' activities as an integral element of to make people aware about the necessity to meet the changing requirements of the knowledge society through continuing education and self-empowerment whithin the strategy to support lifelong learning.

Guidance and counseling in Italy

In Italy, the raising spread of the concepts of Guidance and Counseling can be contextualised since the past few decades. On this perspective, Italy, assuming the European commitment on Lifelong Learning as an oriented measure to meet societal and individual needs, stresses the importance of these processes in the enforcement of three main personal areas: awareness, planning skills, decision-making responsibility. This emphasis defines Guidance and Counseling as an educational process which helps people to cope with their future using non-directive methods within a holistic and constructivist paradigm (cf. Odoardi, 2008).

Even if Italy has not yet produced a national model of guidance and counseling, nor an updated legislation, a plurality of institutions composes the system. In general, the services are divided into four areas: education, universities and higher education, vocational training, employment services (cf. Guglielmi & D'Angelo, 2011). Due to the proliferation of new organisations, identifying a stable and complete catalogue of the involved institutions could be hard for a contribution of this extent. For this reason what is proposed below is a thematic overview of the Italian guidance system.

The educational system is one of the main provider of guidance and counseling in the country. From cradle to the grave students and their families can be helped by someone among the teaching staff to face the transition from a school to another (e.g. middle school/high school/university), from a specialisation to another (e.g. humanities/sciences) and during the alternating training. The most important activities carried out by schools are acceptance, demand analysis, initial assessment of knowledge, orientated didactic, internships, workshops (e.g. on choice, responsibility and awareness), individual and group interviews and a vast array of informative activities in connection with other network institutions at national and local level (cf. Guglielmi & D'Angelo, 2011).

In recent years, Italian universities have invested heavily in services, including guidance and counseling. Alongside, the services for future students and freshmen, the services for who needs help during the paths have been strengthened and many activities to help the transition to the labour market have been provided. In general, delegates, referents, trainers/counsellors and tutors organise and provide experiences related to open days, exhibitions, admission training, acceptance and support activities, internships, career management education, job meetings, career counseling and workshop on self-orientation and entrepreneurial skills.

If the activities offered by schools and universities are headed to Ministry of Education, the guidance and counseling activities related to vocational education and training depend on regional level. They focus on teenagers and young adults. The institutions which mostly provide vocational education and training oriented guidance and counseling are training agencies and the local public institutions. The first deliver courses while the second are in charge to provide this kind of services. Although there are some differences between regional systems, local services are usually concerned with incoming activities such as those that involve drop-out and young people who are not in employment, education or training. Their activity consists in the recognition of prior learning or in workshops on effective strategies of job and course seeking. On the contrary, training agencies are in charge of ongoing and outgoing activities such as tutoring and career Counseling (cf. Loiodice, 2004).

The strength connection of vocational education and training system with the local institutions underlines a close relation of its services with work-oriented guidance and counseling provided by municipal facilities, private and public employment agencies, trade-unions, trade-associations and no profit organisations which aims to social promotion of specific groups. These kinds of institutions, dealing particularly with subjects looking for the first job, unemployed and people at risk of occupational and social unrest, offer a vast array of activities. The most common are informative activities, acceptance, demand analysis, initial assessment, and recognition of prior learning, career management education, workshop on effective strategies of job seeking, self-orientation and entrepreneurial skills, job meeting, outplacement and replacement tutoring and individual and group career Counseling (cf. Bonini, 2002).

In conclusion, some final considerations on the Italian system can be made. Although this overview highlights an understanding of guidance and counseling that focuses on individual and its capabilities, some problems can be detected with respect to the possibility that the informative and counseling dimension overhang the formative and reflective one contributing to maintain unchanged

the individuals' disposition to change. A second element of reflection concerns the possibility that an over-emphasis on the role of the subject prevents policies from dealing with the problem of social inequalities that affect the choice to undertake a lifelong process of guidance and learning.

Guidance and counseling in Portugal

According to the EU guidelines, in Portugal, the lifelong learning agenda advocates a process of guidance and counseling prepared for the novelty and change as a result of the 'democratisation of the need to learn', where every individual is involved in the learning process and the result achieved determine his/her position in the society of knowledge and information on specific in their exclusion and integration (cf. Taveira & Silva, 2011).

The guidance and counseling process in Portugal is not new, as it emerged in the mid-twentieth century. Resulting from a break in the sense attributed to this process as well as the purposes for which it is proposed, the pre-specialisations in educational and vocational guidance, in newly created degrees in psychology, in national universities were created in the 1970s (cf. Pinto, 2004). Later, in the early 1990ies, the psychological services and guidance in schools emerged and there was a restructuring of similar services in the Employment and Vocational Training Institute, which innovated and enriched this domain (cf. Pinto, 2004).

Today, the Portuguese scene is characterised by the consequences of socioeconomic and scientific-technological changes experienced in recent decades, but also by the livelihoods of a much older problems. On the one side, the demands of the labour market, which is known increasingly flexible, unstable and competitive, force the subject to rethink the professional future, in terms of acquisition of new skills, via vocational training (cf. Alves, 2000). On the other side, the persistence of low skills of the Portuguese translated into a rising number of unemployed, particularly the long-term has to be highlighted (cf. Carneiro, 2007). In addition to this scenario, the school early dropout within the youth population, as well as the extension of compulsory education to 12 years in 2009, have to be referred. All these reasons support the importance of an educational and vocational Guidance and Counseling process.

Presently, the two entities that hold formal and instrumental means with tasks in the field of Guidance and Counseling are the Employment and Vocational Training Institute, through the Centre for Professional Education Quality (CQEP), and psychology and Guidance services in schools. Added to these, other entities including higher education institution departments, as well as agencies devoted to different audiences and problems that promotes a vast array of informative,

educational and counseling activities such as definition of personal employment or training plan, recognition of skills acquired through individual's life, psycho-pedagogical monitoring and development of career management skills (cf. Pinto, 2004).

As it is the case with other countries, the Guidance and Counseling process in Portugal is more and more characterised by the introduction of new technologies of information and communication that results in the spread of blended methods of fruition. Despite the clear advantage of the computer as an intervention tool to allow quick and easy access to services, some authors point out that this can also contribute to mechanise and/or devalue the human dimension, which is a key factor in the process. In any case, Portugal, which has demonstrated a serious interest in new technologies, as Taveira and Silva argue 'openness to innovation is not yet … duly reflected or even expanding within Guidance and Counseling' (Taveira & Silva, 2011, p. 93). In conclusion, this seems enough to suggest that the ability to make the most of this new component for the benefit of the professional and, above all, of the customers is a challenge and a goal to achieve (cf. Taveira & Silva, 2011).

Conclusion

This paper attempts to present the way in which Guidance and Counseling is conceptualised in Hungary, India, Italy and Portugal under a lifelong learning perspective. In doing so, it remains sensitive to the specificity of each national context, let the authors free to verge the discourse emphasising the more relevant aspect in the country's debate. At the same time, it is important to draw connections between the countries, in a way that common themes, issues and challenges can be identified.

From a general point of view the main categories on which authors have focused the attention were processes, methods and activities. Guidance and counseling processes are, generally, defined as comprehensive educational processes which help people to cope with their future within a holistic and constructivist paradigm. They also can be seen as processes which prepare for the novelty and change as a result of the 'democratisation of the need to learn'. Methods are often considered as non directive and able to release awareness and self-direction assisting individuals to become wholesome people. Activities encompass a vast array of informative, educational and counselling practices which conduct people to improve their personal and career management skills.

From the Hungarian point of view emerges, as a main national concern, the issue related to professionalisation of guidance and counseling staff. Since it can

be seen as a core element for the development of more efficient processes in the field. Concerning the methods the use of a blended approach seems to be linked to the strengthening of Hungarian informative guidance activities.

In India, the influence of international organisations seem to result in a deeper understanding of the importance to promote processes which put the individuals in centre. This understanding highlights the place given to methods which are able to stimulate awareness, motivation and self-direction. These dimensions, particularly relevant in the country which is called to face great societal challenges, such as the demographic change, emphasising the potential that guidance and counseling offers through activities that support lifelong learning and reveal the importance of self-empowerment.

In Italy, the processes of guidance and counseling seem to be defined as non-directive and aimed to the wholesome development of the person. The overview speaks about an option which encompass both formal and non-formal methods and which promote informative, educational and counseling activities. From this point of view, a particular interest can be place on two final remarks that point out the possibility that formative and reflective activities can be overhang by the informative and counseling ones, and on the possibility that the emphasis on subject prevents policies from dealing with the social inequalities that affect the access to guidance and counseling services.

Finally, in Portugal, guidance and counseling processes seem to result from a break in the sense attributed to them, as well as to the purposes for which they are proposed. The introduction of ICT, which appears as a central event, contributes to the development of blended methods of fruition which question the role of human dimension in the informative, educational and counseling activities.

There is, of course, some tension in presenting these points of view. The elements described, in fact, are not necessarily homogeneous and the focus depend on different country's cultural and historical background. However, it can be claimed with a certain degree of confidence that all the different country contributions do indicate an overall and common understanding of both guidance and counseling concepts. This understanding links them to the globalisation processes and to the need to cope with their impact on local, national and super-national communities. The points of view presented in this paper also suggest that there is a plea to European guidelines even in newly entering or non-European countries. Others similarities, on a less extended basis, are the importance of a person-centred approach. In European countries spread of blended methods of fruition and professionalization, can be seen as another common trend. Concerning the differences, it can be useful to remark that the relevant issue of professionalisation

seems central only in Hungary, as well as the shift from a supply-side to a demand-side approach in the provision system is very important only from the Indian point of view. In addition, despite in all the countries guidance and counseling are perceived as an instrument to improve the wellness of nations and people in a lifelong learning perspective, only occasionally some considerations on the role of national policy measures are made.

Because the discourse around lifelong guidance cannot but appear highly fragmented if national themes, issues and challenges are not unified in a global perspective, the comparative effort of this paper suggests that the main themes, issues and challenges which emerged from a global comparison are 1) the support that guidance can offer to public policy on lifelong learning goals, labour market and social inclusion, 2) the issues to widening access through more innovative and diverse delivery 3) the analysis of trends which involves the professionalisation of guidance staff 4) the identification of the sources that fund guidance services.

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Country Reports

Nicoletta Tomei

A regional perspective on tutorship as a potential lifelong and adult guidance tool

Abstract

This paper deals with some experiences in professional guidance developed in Tuscany in order to underline the role of tutorship in training and education as a potential lifelong and adult guidance tool. It reconstructs the Tuscan approach to professional guidance by presenting what has been done concerning the services addressed to early school leavers. It links that with the evolution of the concept of lifelong learning and the discussion on the implicit models that underline the concept. Focusing on the importance given to the construction of an integrated lifelong guidance system, the paper tries to highlight as the model of tutoring guidance, put in place for the early school leavers, can be presented as a good practice. The results of the analysis speak of an educational model that, counting on the systemic and distributed conception of tutoring, could be able to answer to the very different needs expressed by early school leavers throughout their experience. Interpreting the activities carried out by tutors working in the Tuscan initial vocational and educational training system in the perspective of lifelong guidance allows us to foreshadow the possibility to build a similar kind of service for those adults who experience critical transitions. The key contribution of the paper consists in the fact that it empowers the perspective of lifelong guidance, presenting an experience that can be a valid alternative to the usual advisory services.

Introduction

This paper deals with some experiences in professional guidance developed in Tuscany. It links those experiences to the important role that guidance has assumed in the context of lifelong learning strategies. The approach followed in this paper focuses on the development of the conception of lifelong learning and the evolution of guidance practices. Reconstructing the transition from a paradigm centered on attitudes to a paradigm centered on the abilities to manage changeable life paths, this paper aims to underline the role of tutorship in training and education as a potential lifelong and adult guidance tool.

The assessment of the functions of tutorship highlights the importance of looking at it through the lens of the contribution that it can provide to build a personality capable of dealing with uncertainty and complex decision-making processes. The experience with tutoring guidance offered to early school leavers

in Tuscany seems to foreshadow the possibility that a similar kind of service may also be effectively provided to adults in transition.

The purpose to project the model of tutoring guidance on the practices in place for early school leavers—rather ambitious for a contribution of this scale—suggests that the limits be specified in advance. The perspective adopted will not comprehensively consider the factual implications of this proposal. It simply suggests that the provision of a well-established guidance service, whose responsibility is shared among different actors, could empower the coping strategies of adults who usually can only profit from advisory services.

The contribution consists of four sections. The first attempts to reconstruct the evolution of the debate on lifelong learning. The second presents the most acknowledged explanatory models to understand the transformation of guidance practices. The third focuses on the role that tutorship plays in educational and training contexts. It also suggests using the model of tutoring guidance in order to re-read the traditional functions of the tutor in the light of an increased importance of guidance activities. The fourth section presents the activities carried out by tutors working in the Tuscan initial vocational and educational training system to show the convergence of theory and practice. In conclusion, some remarks present what Tuscany has done for early school leavers in terms of a good, empowered, and customised guidance practice that can also be extended to the adult population.

Tutorship as a Potential Guidance Tool

In the last twenty years, the paradigm of complexity has emerged in all fields of knowledge. Many authors state that Western society in particular, but more generally all societies in the world, have entered into an era marked by very strong economic and cultural interdependence (Morin, 1990; Beck, 1997, Appadurai, 2001). This rapid technological development, which started in the 1960s, is both a cause and a consequence of the globalisation process that has transformed the contemporary world, making obsolete many of the traditional conceptual models. In a global society in perpetual transformation, the need for individuals and organisations to adapt to changes without losing their identity has meant that a key role was assigned to the education of a personality able to cope with uncertainty. In this perspective, knowledge and learning have become essential dimensions for people to prosper and survive in the global era.

Lifelong learning and the knowledge *society*

Rethinking the role that education takes in these circumstances has contributed to the enlargement of the temporal and spatial boundaries within which is possible to situate learning experiences. This rethinking has led to the spread of the concept of lifelong learning (LLL). As Colin Griffin explains, 'the concept of LLL had evolved, long before the onset of the present context' (Jarvis, 2011, p. 263). For this reason, placing it in relationship with the concepts of adult, permanent, continuing, recurrent, and lifelong education can serve to illuminate its current meaning.

In general, the concept of *adult education* encompasses 'all the ongoing learning processes, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, and improve their technical or professional qualifications' in a perspective of full personal development and rich participation in an autonomous and well-balanced social, economic, and cultural development (UNESCO, 1997, p. 1).

Besides this definition, which is shared by Griffin, it is possible to find the concept of *permanent education*. This term is identified by the author as the first formulation of lifelong learning by the Council of Europe in the early 1970s. This concept 'advocated the availability of learning opportunities throughout an individual's lifetime' (Jarvis, 2011, p. 264), and underlined that 'with respect to cultures, the contents of this permanent education must aim at the development of a critical attitude' (Council of Europe, 1970, p. 469).

The challenges connected to the possibility of translating into policy this critical perspective have stimulated the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to formulate the concept of *recurrent education*, 'as a strategy for lifelong learning that stressed the alternatives and recurring sequence of education and other sources of individual's learning throughout life' (Jarvis, 2011, p. 263). In Griffin's reconstruction, the concepts of permanent and recurrent education were finally replaced during the 1980s by the concept of *continuing education*. The author points out that continuing education 'constituted a swing away from the radicalism of the concept of permanent education' and 'came to be of some significance in relation to the focus on education for workforce formation and employability' (Jarvis, 2011, p. 265).

The need to recover a conception of education that 'encompassed elements of both vocational and adult liberal education' (Jarvis, 2011, p. 266) is, in this perspective, at the base of the spread of the lifelong education idea. In the context of adult education studies, a lot has been said on this concept by those who suggest a close link between educational policy and the discourse on adult education

(Biesta, 2013; Fejes & Olesen, 2010; Rubenson, 2006). As Barros underlines, in an article published in 2012, 'lifelong education is understood, as an educational project that is continuously inter-relating with the individual as well as the social dimension of education, and is aimed at the construction of a "new man", and the offer of a humanist collective system of values' (Barros, 2012, p. 27).

The current concept of lifelong learning contains many of the elements of the ideas out of which it evolved and which have been outlined above. In spite of many common threads, for many authors the conceptual shift from 'education' to 'learning' points to different educational paradigms that involve the adoption of specific underlying principles. In 2012, Milana reconstructed this shift using OECD documentation. According to her reconstruction, the publication of the report *Lifelong learning for all* (OECD, 1996) demonstrated that 'originally intended as a means for personal and social development, the concept (of adult education) today is primarily associated with economic growth and the global competition of nations and geopolitical regions' (Milana, 2012, p. 45).

The same opinion was expressed by Lima and Guimarães in their work *European strategies in lifelong learning: A critical perspective* (Lima & Guimarães, 2011). This contribution provides an analytical approach to adult learning and educational policies based on three models. The first of these models is the democratic-emancipatory model. 'In terms of political-administrative orientations, actions undertaken under this model are noted for the decentralised control of education policy … and for the high degree of autonomy enjoyed by the organisations that stimulate ALE actions' (Lima & Guimarães, 2011, p. 42).

The second model is the modernisation and state control model. It values education in a context of social and economic modernisation for the construction of a democratic capitalist state. It involves a set of centralised processes that are directed at ensuring equal learning opportunities for everyone in the conviction that education has a functional nature. 'The most striking conceptual elements are related to reducing the field of adult education practice to formal education and to stressing the importance of targeting vocational training at promoting economic growth.' (Lima & Guimarães, 2011, p. 49)

The most recent analytical model is the human resources management model. This model emphasises the functional nature of education, taking it 'as an instrument for producing human capital that is functionally adapted to the demands of economic growth and competitiveness' (Lima & Guimarães, 2011, p. 56). In this scenario, education converts itself into the most attractive investment for anyone who wants to become the master of their own competences. Consequently, a shift in the state's role from being a service provider to being a service coordinator is

implied by the individual duty to be able to acquire competences on an ongoing basis throughout their live and in all sorts of places.

The critical perspective exposed by Lima and Guimarães highlighting the risk of subordinating adult learning and education (ALE) to a pedagogism rooted solely in economics and management does not allow for affirming that the authors uphold the idea that a hybridism of orientations in educational policy is impossible and even undesirable. At the end of their work, Lima and Guimarães identify the contribution of UNESCO in the construction of a globally structured agenda which links personal, social, economic, cultural, and political development with ALE. In order to appreciate this contribution, a brief overview of the most relevant commitments made during the Sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) can be appropriate.

The conference, which has taken place every 12 to 13 years since the late 1940s and is based on three organising principles—namely 'a culture of sustainability, a democratic participation approach, and the inseparability of culture and education' (UNESCO, 2010, p. 36)—aimed to concretely highlight the crucial role of adult learning and education in meeting current societal challenges. Assuming that 'lifelong learning—from cradle to grave—is a philosophy, a conceptual framework, and an organising principle of all forms of education based on inclusive, emancipatory, humanistic, and democratic values' (UNESCO, 2010, p. 37), it commits their participants to pushing forward the recognition of ALE as an important factor conducive to LLL by promoting and supporting more equitable access to learning opportunities. In doing so, it underlines the relevance of well-designed and targeted guidance systems and the role of adult educators 'as the most important element in quality of adult education' (UNESCO, 2010, p. 18).

The importance assigned to guidance systems and educators suggests a close link between the functions of guidance and educators' practices. As Bartlett, Rees, and Watts suggest, 'guidance becomes intrinsically connected to learning because learning itself becomes an oriented measure to meet the individual needs throughout their lives' (Bartlett, Rees, & Watts, 2000, p. 73). From this point of view, the interest in lifelong guidance is strictly connected to the understanding of the concept of lifelong learning. Some of the most frequent interpretations of the concept present lifelong learning as the best educational tool to help people adapt to change. The concept is also perceived as a policy to prevent forms of social conflict and a factor of employability and professional promotion. From this perspective, guidance systems and policies have to be seen as a strategic element to guarantee the conditions that enable learners to benefit from relevant and empowering learning programmes.

Lifelong learning and guidance

In many appreciated contributions on guidance and counselling, many authors insist on the plurality of approaches that characterise the evolution of modern guidance systems. If it is possible to define guidance as an 'educational process which allows individuals to become self-conscious to progress, in relation with the diverse need of life, in their studies or professionally and following a double purpose of societal and personal development' (UNESCO, 1970, p. 52), a historical overview can help to identify some of the steps that have produced the current conception of lifelong guidance.

As some authors point out, if the need for guidance is a need intrinsically connected to the developmental dimension of human beings, the interest in guidance, as a social practice, is linked to a specific historical period (Guichard & Huteau, 2001; Di Fabio, 1998; Pombeni, 2005). With the advent of industrial society, traditional ways of life were strongly altered by new production requirements. This meant that the tacit and informal guidance received in the family and in other places of socialisation became less effective. In this period, a series of studies to determine the correlation between individual attitudes and specific professional requirements were developed in order to maximise corporate profits.

Around the 1930s, attitude assessment was considered inaccurate, on the basis of the weight that interests and socio-affective dimensions have in the guidance process. From the 1930s to the 1950s, characterological studies proliferated. The taxonomic work on psychic types helped scholars and researchers focus their attention on subjective experience, individual's past, and unconscious motivations. Underlining how this clinical-dynamic approach featured guidance practices well into the 1960s, Di Fabio has found that a change of perspective occurred from that moment on: 'While first efforts were directed to find a psychic structure that fits to a given working structure, now, once the psychic structures are traced we proceed to search within the vast panorama of the professions all the dynamic elements that can meet the needs of the subject.' (Di Fabio, 1998, p. 13).

In the next phase, which is characterised by an approach to career choice as realisation of self-image, guidance takes the form of vocational development. In this period, studies began to refer to the autonomy of the subject and to emphasise that the results of the guidance process were closely linked to ability: to explore the various possibilities, to crystallise the information collected, and to specify and implement one's own authentic life project.

With the development of the humanistic approach, the role ascribed to the individual turns guidance actions into an empowering tool for strengthening 'the capacity to congruently choose in relation to the complexity of the outside and

inside world ' (Pombeni, 2005, p. 16). Taking into account the outside world and the ability to congruently choose highlights the importance of the heavy effects of the environment on individual interests and choices.

It seems clear, at this point, that the transformation of education systems has helped shape the current definition of lifelong guidance. From this perspective, lifelong guidance includes 'all activities that enable citizens of any age, and at any point in their lives, to: identify their capacities, competencies, and interests; make meaningful educational, training, and occupational decisions; and manage their individual life paths in the settings in which these capacities and competences are learned and/or used' (ELGPL, 2012, p. 13).

Based on this reconstruction, it is possible to make two observations. The first concerns the central role that different forms of work organisation have in structuring the approaches described above (Guichard & Huteau, 2001, p. 13). The second relates to the possibility to identify a series of transversal functions, such as the information, training, and counselling function, within guidance practices.

Tutorship and the Guidance Process in Italy

Although the weight of each of these functions has varied over time within the stratification of the legislation that shaped the different guidance systems in Europe, a brief review of the Italian situation can help to better understand why this paper focuses on the guidance function of tutors.

In a work of 2002, Bonini includes municipal facilities (*Informagiovani*), trade-union and trade-associations desks, desks aimed at specific user groups (immigrants, women, disabled persons, etc.) in the range of guidance services that make up the Italian system. In addition to these services, she identified employment centres, whose main function is to match work demand and supply, the national resource centres for guidance, established within the euroguidance network, and educational, vocational, and academic institutions (Bonini, 2002). A similar kind of list can be found in Loiodice (2004), a work dedicated to adulthood guidance.

If the presence of some of these services can be easily explained by the information function that they perform with respect to the various users, the fact that the list includes vocational training centres, educational institutions, and university desks for guidance and placement highlights two related things. The first is the role that the training function has assumed within guidance systems; the second is the role that guidance has gained in educational and training contexts.

At the normative level, even if Italy shares a guidance approach related to the lifelong and lifewide perspective, it has historically favoured school-university guidance over professional guidance (MIUR, 2009, 2014). However, the special

attention paid to the professional sector points out the role that the regions have played during the (re)organisation of the vocational training system and during its progressive integration with other training paths offered in the region. In Tuscany, this process of organisation and coordination of training services started with regional law n. 32 of 26 July 2002. The 'consolidated legislation on education, instruction, guidance, vocational training, and employment' has enabled a fruitful reflection on the presence of people able to guide individuals before, during, and after their choice of a particular path.

A regional perspective

In this regard, the choices of the Tuscan Region have been geared, in many cases, to the inclusion of tutors in training and guidance services in the region. The reasons for this are related to the fact that tutorship is presented as 'a complex educational practice, complementary and preliminary to the beginning of a training process, whose specific function is to facilitate the path of personal and professional growth of the subject' (Baudrit, 2002, p. 7).

The term *tutor* derives from the Latin verb *tutari* (intensive form of the Latin verb *tueri*), which means 'to care'. This term, used in juridical language, has gradually lost the connotation of protection and dependence of a person from another and has been increasingly associated with educational and empowering practices.

Many of the authors who have examined the subject agree that during the late 1980s, the term has spread on international educational agenda through the cultural mediation of Anglophone educational studies (Van Esbroek & Watts, 1998; Baudrit, 1999; Torre, 2006). In that area, in fact, tutors have been a traditional presence in different contexts such as schools, workplaces, and academia.

Research and studies on tutoring focused on the following lines of investigation: the devices of tutorship, the role and functions of the tutor in various contexts, and the effects of tutoring on learning and personal development. Concerning the first line of research, pastoral care and peer tutoring were the devices which gained more attention among Italian scholars (Torre, 2006; Scardella, 2007; Gemma, 2010). Pastoral care is defined as the educational practice developed in a school environment through which 'a teacher takes care of a small group of students who follow the path of learning and growth' (Torre, 2006, p. 8). Peer tutoring means 'an educational practice through which learners help each other and learn by teaching' (Goodlad & Hirst, 1989, p. 36).

In the second line of investigation, the most relevant studies on the subject identify the tutor 'as someone who has a different role than the teacher and who is responsible for following the development paths of learners by providing specific

and customised support to the process of growth' (Torre, 2006, p. 12). This definition clearly reflects the tendency to interpret the tutor role as a mediating role in formal processes of teaching and learning. However, its presence in contexts in which learning processes take place in an informal way makes it harder to clearly identify its functions and tasks.

Beyond the generic function of support and reinforcement of learning, in initial vocational training the tutor may have a function centred on the coordination of the project, on the development of individual training, and on mediation between the parties involved in the training process (students, teachers, coordinators of the structure, etc.). In in-service training, it is possible that these functions take their place alongside those related to the transfer of skills, the construction of professional identity, and socialisation at the workplace. The function of making connections between classroom training and distance education are typically carried out by tutors who work in the context of e-learning or blended learning (Trevisol, 2002, p. 94).

Piccardo and Benozzo (2006) analyse the role and skills of tutors who are concerned with the training of adults and present a series of metaphors of the profession. These metaphors define the tutor as a coordinator, mediator, motivator, controller and secretary, facilitator, and agent of classroom climate (Piccardo & Benozzo, 2006). In this view, the tutor appears as a multifaceted role whose dominant feature is service.

The same opinion is expressed by Avallone (2006), who affirms that the main task of the tutor is to provide services 'aimed at guiding and assisting individuals throughout the training process, so as to overcome any inconvenience, to remove potential barriers, and to allow their successful participation in the activities' (Avallone, 2006, p. 17).

Returning to consider the role of tutors from a regulatory point of view, the Italian university system law identifies three main areas of behaviour that the tutor should foster in individuals: decision-making, autonomy, and responsibility (law n.341 / 1990 article 12 and 13).

Regarding the research on the effects of tutoring on learning and personal development, the brief overview presented above suggests a greater development of the former than the latter. However, as Van Esbroeck and Watts recall, tutorship has often proven to be an effective tool 'in guiding the subjects, making them capable of autonomously responding adequately to different situations … allowing them to reach a suitable knowledge about themselves and about the environment in which they live in order to evaluate and select the field, the values, and the networks for developing their own life' (Van Esbroek & Watts, 1998, p. 137).

The convergence of what emerged from this literature review and the assumption about guidance has allowed some authors to elaborate the concept of tutoring guidance, or in other words to reinterpret the traditional functions of tutors in the light of an increased importance of the guidance function (Gemma, 2010; Pombeni, 2007).

The model of tutoring guidance was introduced in Italy starting from some experiences of the Ri.TMO project, carried out in the Friuli region. In this region, in 2005, tutoring guidance was introduced on an experimental basis in the transition from the first to the second cycle of education. The aims of the experiment can be summarised as follows:

1. to model good practices of enhanced and customised tutoring
2. to test in the field the coordination/integration between school and community services
3. to identify some conditions conducive to implementing tutoring guidance at the local level alongside information and advisory services.

The project, which started from the assumption that enhanced and customised tutoring cannot be completely provided from the resources of school system, activated a service that involved teachers of final classes of the first cycle of education, teachers of the first classes of the second cycle, and operators of regional guidance centres.

According to Pombeni (2007), who was the scientific coordinator of the project, tutoring guidance 'encompasses all the actions that accompany, enhance, and personalise a learning experience in order to develop the learner's capacity for self-orientation' (Pombeni, 2007, p. 29). Because the development of a process of self-orientation implicates different types of guidance activities, Pombeni aims to manage them on the basis of two elements. The first concerns the transversal functions of information, training, and counselling. The second concerns a diachronic reading of the tutoring process. In the table below, it is possible to see the systematisation of the model of tutoring guidance based on the different stages of the process, the needs expressed by learners, and the actions and activities through which the system can respond.

Table 1: Tutoring Guidance Model (Source: Author's own)

Phases of the process	Needs	Actions	Activities
Preparation	Maturing conscious choices	Counselling function	Activities aimed at enhancing the development tasks and strengthening personal resources and interests in order to actively manage the situation
Information[1]	Develop prerequisites and get information	Informative function	Activities aimed at acquiring useful information to decision-making process
Development	Self-monitor the process and plan further steps	Training function	Activities aimed at developing auto-regulation and decision-making skills
Support	Summarise the information gathered	Counselling function	Activities aimed at supporting the decision-making process understood as a moment in which the subject makes personal and coherent commitments to their objectives

From Theory to Practice

This model, although not explicitly mentioned in the planning of regional training and guidance initiatives, appears to be perfectly realised by the setting that the Tuscany region provides for some paths in the initial vocational training system (IeFP).

After law n.144/1999, which imposes that 'no young person can interrupt their training without having obtained a degree or at least a vocational qualification by 18 years of age' (MIUR, 2007), the region has begun to reshape the relationship between public employment services, educational institutes, and training agencies who provide vocational training courses.

Through successive adjustments, the regional initial vocational training system (IeFP) took the following structure:

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1 This phase can be thought as a recurrent steps of the process.

Table 2: IeFP system in Tuscany (Source: Author's own).
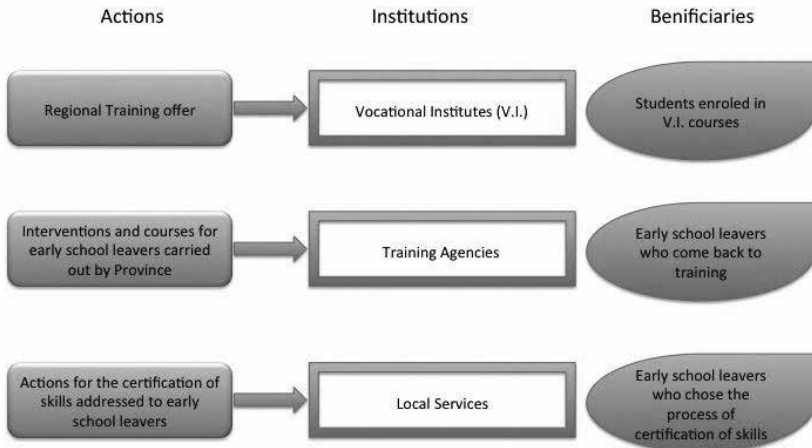
This structure has increased the role and meaning of integration between the various segments of the system due to the permeability between its pathways. Individuals can in fact leave the vocational institutes to go through a phase of drop-out and then re-enrol in a provincial training course or, vice versa, at the end of the course return into the regional institutions.

Beyond this important aspect, it is possible to talk about the guidance function of tutors only where their presence is overwhelming compared to that of other figures. A brief review of the main figures who provide support to each category of users can help to better understand why the model of tutoring guidance applies specifically to vocational training courses delivered by accredited training agencies at provincial level.

For students who attend vocational institutes, support measures essentially consist of the presence of a teacher-coordinator and the presence of an internship tutor. For early school leavers, in contrast, guidance types vary depending on the path that they choose. Those who choose to begin the process of certification of skills meet mainly operators of local services, while those who commit themselves to re-entering training encounter a series of tutors: namely, the tutor for compulsory education who works in the employment centres, the classroom tutor, the internship tutor, and the external counsellor, who often meets the students in relevant phases of their training.

Because each of the identified figures contributes to the activities included in the model of tutoring guidance, it is possible to project the model on the tutoring practices which characterise provincial vocational training courses.

Before focusing on the reasons in support of what has been said above, it is necessary to provide a brief description of the pathway followed by people who attend this kind of course. As mentioned earlier, these courses are designed for students who dropped out of school. After being reported by schools to their province, these students are welcomed in the employment centres by tutors for compulsory education. The tutors, after an initial survey phase, involve them in the drafting of a customised growth plan, which includes their participation in training activities. Upon entering the course, students are asked to perform 2,100 hours of training. During the course, the presence of the classroom tutor ensures constant and progressive support. The classroom tutor's frequent contacts with the internship tutors who follow the students allow for meaningful monitoring of the student's progress. The requirement to devote a number of hours specifically to the construction of a post-qualification growth plan completes the training programme proposed by the agencies.

Based on this brief description, it is possible to say that the training process of people who attend these courses follows, in its main phases, the moments predicted by the model of tutoring guidance. Moreover, these phases seem to include groups of activities perfectly consistent with the model. Based on Catarsi's (2004) definition of what is carried out by the tutor for compulsory education, such as the 'enhancement of personal resources which enable people to be directly engaged in the search of overcoming difficulties' (Catarsi, 2004, p. 19), it is possible to recognise a certain degree of convergence with the counselling activities proposed by the first phase of the model (Pombeni, 2007). Furthermore, if we include among the activities of classroom and internship tutoring the possibility to 'stimulate in the trainees a constant reflection on their progress in order to prevent experiences of failure and in order to plan future actions' (Trevisol, 2002, p. 46), the convergence is once again confirmed. These are precisely the actions that Pombeni proposed from the pilot phase. Without forgetting the importance that the information held throughout the process, the contribution that the counsellor gives through their advice seems to recall in a clear manner the activities that the model suggest in order to facilitate the accountability process held by students (support).

The work done so far allows for some remarks. First, it seems appropriate to point out that the device proposed by the provinces with respect to early school leavers can be seen as a good empowered and customised practice in the per-

spective of lifelong guidance. Second, since the experience of coordination and integration between local services is consistent, what is provided for early school leavers in terms of guidance may help identify some conditions conducive to the implementation of similar services geared specifically to adults in transition, for whom guidance often consists only in the possibility to access advisory services.

Without going into the details of the factual implications of this proposal, the operative plan for regional investments of the European Social Fund (POR FSE 2014–2020) seems to offer this possibility, focusing its efforts on the modernisation of labour market institutions (Priority A5 of employability axis) and working on the adaption of lifelong educational services to the current economic and social challenges (Priority C3 of the education and training axis).

From this point of view, operators who provide advisory services in employment centre can collaborate with enterprises and training agencies in order to provide a form of shared tutoring guidance which accompanies individuals before, during, and after the transition from one path to another.

Conclusion

In the attempt to deal with the guidance function that tutors play in vocational training in Tuscany, we have tried to frame their presence within the regional training system on the basis of a wider discourse on lifelong learning and lifelong guidance. First of all, we took care to highlight the diverse ideas from which the concept of lifelong learning has emerged. We then looked at some analytical models to underline the risks of a purely functionalist definition of learning. At this point, after emphasising the importance of guidance for the construction of an inclusive and equitable system, we reconstructed the different approaches that have followed since the beginning of the century. Based on this assessment, we defined lifelong guidance as the series of activities that 'enable citizens of any age, and at any point in their lives, to: identify their capacities, competencies and interests; make meaningful educational, training, and occupational decisions; and manage their individual life paths in the settings in which these capacities and competences are learned and/or used' (ELGPL, 2012, p. 13). Building on this definition, we finally described the Italian system of guidance in order to propose a regional perspective linked to the role that tutors play within the Tuscan system of vocational education and training. After presenting an overview of the main functions associated with the role of the tutor in different educational contexts, the introduction of the concept of tutoring guidance allowed us to explore the experience of the training courses that provinces offer to early school leavers. The concluding proposal of this work was elaborated on the basis of the European

Social Fund's operative plan for regional investment, focusing on the possibility to offer what has been provided to early school leavers (e.g. shared tutoring guidance) to the adult population to extend guidance services to adults, who often only have access to advisory services.

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India towards a knowledge economy: Alternatives for the global demographic challenge and inclusive development in India

Abstract

This paper gives an overview of Lifelong Learning and Adult Education in India and India's drive towards creating a niche in the emerging global knowledge economy. It presents the current picture of India in terms of the knowledge economy criteria provided by the World Bank. It also highlights India's readiness to provide solutions for the demographic challenge in Europe and across the globe. The paper mentions the challenges that India is facing in its transition to a knowledge economy and outlines the opportunities and scope that international players have in the Indian market. The paper also highlights the fact that the transition to a knowledge economy should not comeat the cost of the starving millions who are waiting for a 'trickle down' to occur becausethe government has no other solution for them. International players can provide an inclusive model of sustainable development in India in return fora big market and huge pool of resources.This would be a win-win situation for all.

Introduction

Poor Ganga Devi gets up every morning with no hope in her eyes. She is 60 years old with an annual household income of around Rs.3,000 in a small, unelectrified village called Jhawani in Assam in North-East India. With no one to look after, and no one to care for, her eyes are devoid of any dreams, and she keeps on carrying her life on her emaciated shoulders with tears in her eyes. Her two illiterate sons, along with their families, left her almost 10 years ago to work far away in Rajashtan, a state on the Western frontier of India, as they could not find any jobs nearby. The same story gets repeated every day, in thousands of villages, in endless numbers of households, all across the country.[1] Facing the century's largest rural-urban migration with more than 10 million people moving to urban areas every year from the ruralscarcity-ridden mess (Dahlman, Carl/ Utz Anuja, 2005), India confronts a lot of challenges in terms of housing these migrants in urban

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1   This story was recorded on October 20th 2014 during a study conducted by the author in the Jhawani village of Tezpur, Assam, India for the RHEES-BURD project and her own PhD.

areas. In the absence of appropriate places to live, breed, grow, develop, and earn a respectable livelihood, millions are left behind in reckless poverty and hunger, with fewer options to live than to die in isolated villages of a 'rising economic giant'. Can India's move towards becoming a knowledge economy bring some hope to Ganga Devi's eyes? Can it make the burden on her emaciated shoulders a little lighter? Can it bring home her long-gone sons? Can it bring a little hope to millions of households in India? Or is the advent of a heartless neo-liberal order likely to plunge millions more into another reckless 'virtuous circle' of profit generation and consumerism, this time in the name of 'knowledge'? India is rising as an economic giant, ready to carve out a major share in the global economy.But will this come at the cost of more poverty, inequality, and underdevelopment back at home, or will a transition to a knowledge economy make India a better place to live for its starving millions?

An Overview of India

The job market in India is offering fewer and fewer opportunities for the average citizen getting wound up day by day to earn a livelihood. At a rapid pace, the great digital divide is engulfing those standing on the verge of poverty(cf. Kenston, K./ Kumar, D. (eds.), 2003). India is the world's second-largest democracy and fourth-largest economy, inhabited by about 1.252 billion people (World Bank 2015). Its leapfrogging performance has raised a mixed reaction of concern as well hope among many advanced countries and its competitors that are looking desperately for new markets but fear competition. Most of the concerns are targeted at the largest and youngest workforce ever to emerge anywhere in the world in the past few centuries, with about 50 per cent of the total Indian population below the age of 25years and about 65 per cent below the age of 35, as per World Bank estimates for the year 2020 (World Bank 2015). According to a BBC report, the average age of an Indian by the year 2020 would be 29 years, which would push the dependency ratio[2] to just about 0.4 per cent (cf. Basu, K. 2007).

In 2011, India registered a literacy rate of 74.04 per cent, with 82.14 per cent among males and 65.46 per cent among females. Kerela was the most literate state among all Indian states, with a literacy rate of 93.9 per cent, whereas Bihar was the most illiterate state, with a literacy rate of 63.08 per cent (Census of India 2011). The CIA World Fact Book ranked India at 177 out of 205 nations in terms of
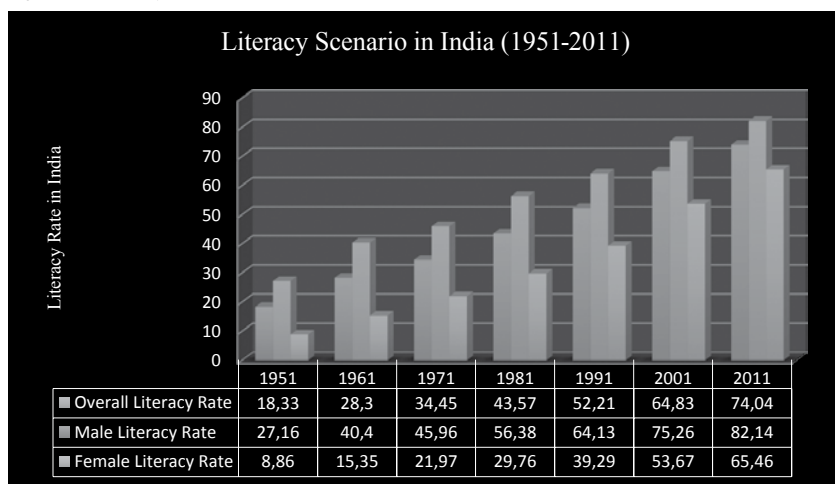
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2   Dependency ratio, or the pressure on the productive population, refers to the percentage of people in an economy that depends economically on the working population for the fulfillment of its basic needs.

literacy (The World Fact Book 2012). With extreme socio-cultural and economic variation based on factors like caste, class, gender, vernaculars, and the like, India has to carve out a successful future for itself to drag its 400 million living in abject poverty (equivalent to one-third of the world's poor) out of poverty and to ensure that other millions of people (about 53 million during 2005–10) who have recently escaped poverty do not fall back into its vicious circle (India Overview 2015).

Figure1: *Literacy Scenario*[3] *in India (author's own based on 2011 Census).*[4]

Literacy Scenario in India (1951-2011)

	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
■ Overall Literacy Rate	18,33	28,3	34,45	43,57	52,21	64,83	74,04
■ Male Literacy Rate	27,16	40,4	45,96	56,38	64,13	75,26	82,14
■ Female Literacy Rate	8,86	15,35	21,97	29,76	39,29	53,67	65,46

For this, India must mobilise all its potential to evolve into a kind of a system that can take care of its vast diversity and differences without widening the existing gap between them. Is becoming a 'knowledge economy' a viable answer to the challenges that India is facing today? Or will turning itself into a 'knowledge economy' push India into another, stronger structure of 'pseudo-development', where a handful of people have access to and ownership over a majority of resources while the masses suffer in scarcity and poverty? Should India be afraid of creating

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3 The literacy rate in India is measured according to the criteria provided by UNESCO. A census is conducted every ten years in India (the most recent one in 2011) in which measuring the capability to read and write is an important factor. The percentage of people who know to read and write is termed the literacy rate in India.

4 This table has been collated by the author from the data taken from Chapter 6, Census of India, 2011 available at: http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/india/Final_PPT_2011_chapter6.pdf.

another great internal divide between the rich and the poor that might tear the economic giant apart, leaving behind, small fragmented markets to be captured and exploited? The answer lies in the alternatives that India will choose for itself in the next few years. However, before understanding whether and how India chooses to become a knowledge economy, we must define in clear terms what the concept of a knowledge economy means in the global and the Indian context.

The Knowledge Economy in the Indian Context

The concept of a knowledge economy, in the mainstream understanding, is not much different from the one popularised by Peter Drucker as the heading of the twelfth chapter of his book *The Age of Discontinuity*, in which he referred to the economist Fritz Machlup and the father of scientific management, F. W. Taylor, to trace the roots of the concept (cf. Drucker, P. 1968). To Drucker, a knowledge society (as he used and popularised the concept) was a society that uses knowledge as both a product and a productive asset (cf. Powell, W. W./ Snellman K. 2014). In 1942, an Austrian economist called Joseph Schumpeter identified innovation as a key factor in economic growth. Schumpeter referred to this process as 'creative destruction', explaining how the creation of new business opportunities leads to the destruction of old ones in a knowledge society (Schumpeter, J. A. 2014). Stanford professor Paul Romer came up with a new growth theory, which stated that innovation is the key to long-term growth and that people can innovate faster than diminishing returns (cf. Romer, P. M. 1986). The World Bank's definition of a knowledge economy is not very different from all these interpretations and understandings. It describes a knowledge economy as one that '…creates, disseminates and uses knowledge to enhance its growth and competitiveness'. Further, it rests on four pillars:

1. *An economic and institutional regime* that provides incentives for the efficient creation, dissemination, and use of existing knowledge.
2. *An educated and skilled population* that can create and use knowledge.
3. *An efficient innovation system* of firms, research centres, universities, consultants, and other organizations that can tap into the growing stock of global knowledge and assimilate and adapt it to local needs, as well as to create relevant new knowledge
4. *Dynamic information infrastructure* that can facilitate the effective communication, dissemination, and processing of information. (Dahlman & Utz, 2005 p. 9).

Most definitions of the knowledge economy convey the same. They talk about a system in which knowledge is the predominant component of all the basic functions of an economy. Knowledge is produced to be sold in the market as a commodity; knowledge is consumed in the market as a commodity; knowledge is accumulated and reproduced; or knowledge-producing entities are accumulated as capital formation.[5]

Of the roughly 950 million illiterate adults across the globe, 600 million are women, and over one-third of the world's total illiterate population comes from South Asia. According to the most recent data provided by UNESCO, 75 per cent of the world's total illiterate population come from only nine countries, including India, China, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Indonesia, Iran, and Brazil (UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2012). Is it justified to 'impose' the meaning of the knowledge economy in countries like these, which do not share the context where the definition of the term originated? Probably, there is a need to widen the narrow definition of the knowledge economy somewhat.

In context of a country like India, integrating knowledge into the economic system as a factor of production and as a product may not be enough. In order to understand the role that knowledge should play in Indiawhile the country evolves into a knowledge economy, the trajectory of adult education and lifelong learning in the country must be understood.

The Roots of Lifelong Learning in India: Adult Education Initiatives

In India, the concept of Lifelong Learning emerged only recently, and none of the premier institutions are working dedicatedly in this field. However, adult education initiatives in the country are the roots from which this concept originated in India. The story of India in terms of adult education has not always been too splashed with the colours of hope. When India achieved independence, the colour of remorse and scarcity veiled the country more prominently. India has seen a long history of colonial subjugation and exploitation under the British Empire for 200 years.

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5 According to basic economic theory, an economy has three major functions: production, consumption, and capital formation.

The trajectory of adult education programmes in India can be classified into various stages or phases, which might be presented as follows:

The phase of indoctrination (colonial period)

During the colonial period (1502–1947), while the British were trying to take up their 'white man's burden'[6] in India with the 'healing touch of Christianity', the first adult education programme in India was launched.[7] A handful of British people carried a vision about the transformation of an uncivilised, backward mass of men and women through basic education. However, lack of finances and political will led to 'downward filtration', and the idea of adult education was forced to take a backseat (Pannickar, 2000, p.10). In the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries, India saw the rise of numerous reform movements led by social reformers who insisted on the need to educate the masses for the transformation of Indian society from a feudal orthodoxy to a liberal, humane, modern social order. They opposed the idea of restricting the education of women and lower castes in society and fought for introducing equal educational opportunities for all. The primary idea behind their efforts was to set education free from the clutches of casteism and orthodoxy and to unleash its power for widespread socio-economic change. For achieving their aim, it was important not only to disseminate education but to disseminate it in vernacular (cf Bhushan, 2002). The curriculum included the 'three Rs'—reading, writing, and arithmetic[8]—along with a few stories of historical importance and basic lessons about health, hygiene, and first aid (Govt. of India 1940: 49). However, despite all serious efforts of socio-political reformers in India, adult education could not step out of the night schools and continued to advance at a very slow pace, primarily due to the contrary interest of the new middle class (Acharya, 1988:1124).

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6   The poem called 'White Man's Burden' by the British poet Rudyard Kipling was published in 1899. It conveys the notion that the British were entrusted with the duty to colonise non-white countries for the benefit of the latter.

7   The British missionaries wanted to educate Indians so that they could study the bible. Their basic literacy programmes, whichconsisted of imparting skills to read and write, were not officially called 'adult education programmes', but they targeted India's adult population. For further reference, see Shah, S.Y. 2010.

8   The term refers to the foundations of a basic skills-oriented education programme. The phrase 'the three Rs' is used because each word in the phrase has a strong R phoneme at the beginning.

The Era of Marginalisation (1947–77)

The context changed after India achieved independence and there was a need to move ahead from the three Rs towards a much broader category of 'social education'. The government of India, in its policy documents, announced a social education programme for imparting basic skills for citizenship (cf. Shah, 2010).

The literacy rate grew a bit from 16.07 per cent in 1951 to 31.11 per cent in 1961, but the pattern was not quite even all over the country. In Kerela, it was as high as 55 per cent, whereas Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Rajasthan recorded a rate as low as between 20 to 22 per cent. The state of female literacy was even worse (Athreya & Chunkat, 1996:ß, pp. 52–53). In 1959, a literacy programme called the Gram Shikshan Mohim was started in rural areas of the Satara District, Madhya Pradesh, to impart basic literacy skills within a short span of four months, but the programme failed due to lack of adequate infrastructure and appropriate follow-up, resulting in a massive relapse to illiteracy (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2015). In 1971, the Education Commission of India came up with its report called *Education and National Development* (Ministry of Education, 1971), which emphasised how important it was to educate the masses for development (or modernisation), stressing that development is directly related to education. The report emphasised how during the 1960s, the country was longing for a revolution to achieve development by attaining food sufficiency, but the masses were not ready. A wide gulf persisted between the laboratory and real life, and it was extremely difficult to bring onthe 'Green Revolution'[9] in India without educating farmers about technology.

In the years 1968–69, the Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme was launched with an objective to make farmers aware ofthe technical complexities of using HYV (high-yielding varieties) seeds, chemicals, fertilisers, pesticides, insecticides, and the like. About 30 million farmers were enrolled under this programme out of the estimated 100 million, and only 80 million rupees were spent

9   The Green Revolution in India (1960s) was a comprehensive programme launched by the Indian government to improve agricultural output in India through agronomic technology, primarily including the use of high-yielding varieties (HYV) seeds, fertilisers, and better techniques for irrigation.

on the whole process instead of the allocated 200 million (Dutta, 1986. p. 67). The programme failed to percolate to the bottom layers of society and remained exclusive in nature, leaving most of the disadvantaged masses on their own (UNDP, 1976: pp. 48–54).

The reasons for the remarkably poor results in terms of literacy during three decades of planned development were numerous, but the most significant of them all was the marginalisation of adult education in education policy and a failure on the part of the government to understand that prioritising primary education over adult education to solve the problem of mass illiteracy was inadequate.

Formation of a structure (1978–86)

The programme was changed to Rural Functional Literacy Programme (RFLP) in the fifth five-year plan. In 1978, the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched. With a target to achieve the literacy of about 100 million aged between 15 and 35 over a period of five years (1979–80 to 1983–84), the focus was now not only on 'three Rs' but also on functionality and awareness. This meant that apart from the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic, the curriculum included knowledge of vocational skills that could help people earn livelihoods, and awareness of their rights and the tinted story of their exploitation, poverty, and deprivation (Shah, A.B. 1980: 85). Thus, literacy became a tool for creating awareness that could in turn bring on a social transformation (Ramachandran, 1999, p. 87). Strong efforts by different stakeholders to make the programme a success included efforts like preparing study materials and conducting research and training activities through the involvement of central and state governments, institutions like colleges and universities, local bodies like *panchayats* and municipalities and a number of voluntary agencies (Bordia, A./ Kaul A. pg 57). Despite these efforts, the programme failed to achieve much, as it remained exclusive in nature and women, scheduled castes, and scheduled tribes could not benefit from it (Ministry of Education & Commerce, 1980: 86–87). However, the programme left a new administrative and organisational structure at the central, state, and local level.

Formulation of a policy (1986–1991)

The generational change in the country's political leadership was reflected at the policy level, too, when the government declared that appropriate political decision-making and an all-inclusive national reconstruction require extensive literacy on an urgent basis at the level of a mission (Ministry of Education, 1985.

pg 41) In 1986, the Ministry of Human Resource Development came up with the National Policy on Education. Adult education was to be delivered in a time-bound, planned manner through a particular structure including institutions (e.g.*shramik vidyapeeths*, polyvalent adult education centers, industrial training institutes or ITIs, and community polytechnics), and agencies (like TRYSEM or Training for Rural Youth for Self Employment of District Rural development Agencies) to out-of-school youth and adults. Distance education programmes and open learning were promoted for formal higher education, and *Jana Shikshan Nilayams* were proposed for non-formal vocational education for specific interest groups like workers, farmers, and women for the betterment of livelihood skills. As a result, the National Literacy Mission was launched in the year 1988 with an aim to cover about 80 million adult illiterates between 15 and25 years of age under the functional literacy programme by the year 1995. The programme focused on developingliteracy but also touched on issues like national integration, the conservation of the environment, and gender equality through Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) all over the country in an area-specific, time-bound, volunteer-based manner at a mass scale. Imparting functional literacy to illiterates was accompanied by efforts to create awareness among them oftheir socio-economic condition, its causes, and solutions, as well as values linked to the third generation of human rights[10] (Ghosh, A. 2000. pg 7). However, several drawbacks in the programme did not allow it to succeed. The lop-sided excessive focus on imparting literacy skills to illiterates rather than balancing functional literacy and post-literacy follow-up programmes and continuing education for neo-literates did not allow the mission to achieve its goal. The literacy machinery in India can be represented as follows:

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10 The third generation of human rights includes developmental rights.

Figure 2: The Government Institutional Structure in India for Literacy (author's own).[11]
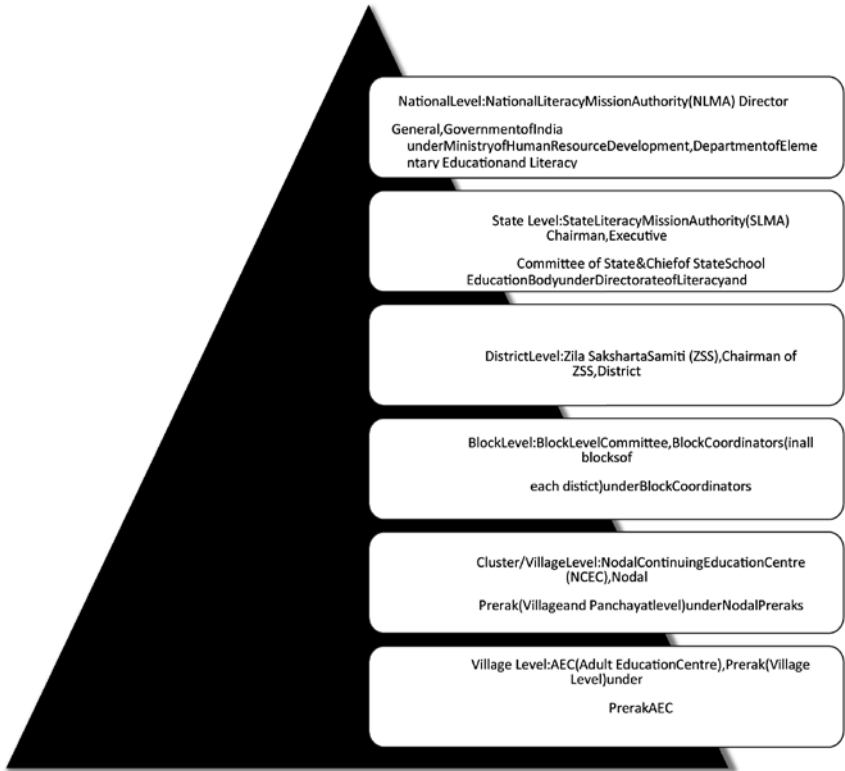
Likewise, a timeline of various adult education efforts in modern India can be summed up as follows:

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11   The figure has been created by the author to explain the government institutional struc-
     ture in India under the Ministry of Human Resource Development. The highest authority
     (NLMA) in this arrangement is at the national level, which takes care of all the initiatives
     to provide literacy across the country. Under this are the SLMAs, which operate in Indian
     states. Each state is divided into smaller areas called districts, which are further divided
     into blocks and then into clusters of villages. These divisions are used for administrative
     purposes, policy planning, and their implementation by the government.

Table 1: Adult Education Efforts in Modern India.[12]

Year	Agent	Effort	Guiding force/ idea/ target	Focus of Curriculum	Literacy rate (as percensus) in per cent		
					Total	Male	Female
Part of colonial period (17th to 19th century)	British missionaries	Reading the bible	Spreading Christianity and cultural predominance	Bible	Official data not available [13]		
Part of colonial period (18th to 20th century)	Few British officers	Reading the bible	Social transformation	3 Rs			
18th–19th century	Indian social reform leaders	Social reform organisations, movements, and individual efforts	Social transformation	3 Rs			
1951–56	Government of India	Literacy, extension, general education, leadership training & social education	Eradicate illiteracy amongst adults	3 Rs and citizenship skills	18.33	27.16	8.86

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12 This table was created by the author based on general information available about adult education initiatives in India; information about the literacy rate in India has been taken from the Census of India (2011), which is conducted every ten years. Official data on the part of Government of India is not available for the in-between period, and therefore changes in literacy rates over shorter spans are not reflected in the table, available at http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/india/Final_PPT_2011_chapter6.pdf.

13 No official data on the part of the Government of India is available for access.

Year	Agent	Effort	Guiding force/ idea/ target	Focus of Curriculum	Literacy rate (as percensus) in per cent		
					Total	Male	Female
1958	Government of India	Gram Shikshan Mohim	Imparting basicliteracy skills	3 Rs, functional literacy about agriculture	18.33	27.16	8.86
1968–69	Government of India	Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme	Facilitating the Green Revolution in India	Technical know-how about farming using HYV seeds, machines, chemicals, fertilisers, pesticides, etc.	28.3	40.4	15.35
1967	Government of India	Setting up of workers social education centres orpoly valent adult education Centres or Shramik Vidyapeeths	Facilitating existing adult education programmes	Continuing the existing programmes in an ntegrated manner	28.3	40.4	15.35
1975–76	Government of India	Functional literacy for adult women	Eradicate illiteracy amongst adult women, health awareness, hygiene, and child practices			34.45	45.96
1977	Government of India	Non-formal education programme	Imparting literacy among youth aged 15–35	3 Rs, functionalliteracy, vocationalcourses		28.3	40.4

Year	Agent	Effort	Guiding force/ idea/ target	Focus of Curricu- lum	Literacy rate (as percensus) in per cent		
					Total	Male	Female
1978	Govern- ment of India	National Adult Education Programme	Making 100 Million illiterate adults aged 15–35 functio- nally literate within five years	3 Rs, functionall iteracy,voc ationalcou rses		34.45	45.96
1979	Govern- ment of India	Rural Functional Literacy Project	Impart functio- nal literacy to illiterate aged 15–35 in rural areas	3 Rs, Functional literacy, vocational courses		34.45	45.96
1988	Govern- ment of India	National Liter- acy Mission	Impart func- tionalliteracy to 80 million illiterates aged 15–35 (30 million by 1990 and remaining by 1995)	3 Rs, Functional and deve- lopment literacy		43.57	56.38
1977	Govern- ment of India	Non-formal education Programme	Imparting litera- cy among youth aged 15–35	3 Rs, functional literacy, vocational courses		28.3	40.4

Towards a knowledge economy (1999 onwards)

The National Literacy Mission was revived by the new government under Vaj-payee, which aspired to achieve a literacy rate of 75 per cent by the year 2007. In the year 2002, literacy campaigns in operation restoration were launched with the-objective to consolidatethe total literacy campaigns and post-literacy programmes in a single programme (cf. Daswani, C.J. 2002). Technical and vocational skills were included in the continuing education programmes that followed after the preparatory phase of programmes under the Literacy Campaigns in Operation Restoration programmes. Apart from that, financial and administrative powers

regarding the programmes related to adult literacy were decentralised and given away to State Literacy Mission Authorities. The participation of NGOs and State Resource Centres was encouraged under the National Literacy Mission, and *Jan Shiksha Sansthans* played a key role in imparting vocational and technical skills in urban as well as rural areas. In the year 2002, the Indian Constitution was amended to make education a fundamental right of all the citizens.[14] In 2005, the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) was established to create, apply, and disseminate knowledgeand convert India into a full-fledged knowledge economy. In December 2006, the Commission came up with a *Report to the Nation*(National Knowledge Commission 2006),which included several micro-level suggestions with regard tomaking India a knowledge economy.

India as a Knowledge Economy: Challenges and Opportunities

As a potential knowledge economy, India shows lot of hope. A PESTL (Political, Economic, Social, Technological, and Legal) analysis of India shows that it features all the components suitable for a transition to a knowledge economy. Politically, it is the world's largest democracy, and with the last general elections held in 2014, it has shown quite positive signs of having a stable government for at least the next ten years. After about two-and-a-half decades of coalition governments, a single party has now come into power at the centre with a fullmajority, and thattrend seems to continue in the states, too. This has given promising signals for market investments, too. India's market is continuously growing, and the government has spedup the process of openingup through reforms. The Indian diaspora present across the globe is being invited to invest in India through programmes like 'Make in India'[15] and Vibrant Gujarat.[16] Apart from that, free-market operations are gaining prominence in India, and economic reforms are on their way at an unprecedented pace. All in all, the economy is getting liberalised and openedup to integrate with the international economy increasingly to carve out a niche for itself in the international market. At the social front, Facebook and Whatsapp have by and large reduced distances and social differences. In the massive migration from villages to cities, casteism and

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14 The 86th Amendment Act of the Indian Constitution, inserted in Article 21A of the Indian Constitution, made provision for free and compulsory elementary education to all children between the age of 6 to 14 years so that no one remains illiterate in the country in the long run. For further details, see mhrd.gov.in/rte.

15 A policy initiative declared by the new Prime Minister, Mr Narendra Modi, to encourage investment in India's manufacturing sector in India.

16 An initiative of the State of Gujarat to deal directly with foreign and Indian investors.

social exclusion arebeing left out at a faster pace. That trend picks up speedwhen-travelling in the metro train without asking the caste of the person sitting next to you, and when having a day out with colleagues in the office without any concern about their social background. English, which has become a style statement and a means to gain respect among peers today, has become the linguafranca of Indian youth. Pricewars among providers of phone and Internet services have produced the 'unintended consequence' of inexpensive access to information and communication technology across the country, and the number of connected nodes that can be easily converted to business is increasing every day.

However, in order for India to realise its complete potential as a knowledge economy, a lot more needs to be done. The current picture of India is bleak in terms of thecapabilities that remain latent and unexplored. An analysis of the current situation in India regarding the four components of a knowledge economy defined by the World Bank (cf Dahlman C./ Utz A. 2005) is given below, but the problems that have been pointed out show that there is a lot of scope for improvement.

Economic and institutional regime: After India gained independence from the British in 1947, it decided to go ahead as a mixed economy with a tilt towards socialism. However, economic reforms in India were introduced in 1991 under international pressure to addressa major economic crisis it was facing. Despite opening up, the economy has remained much isolated from the global economy. The current government in India (since mid-2014), however, has a different approach towards economic development, and it seems keen to integrate India with the global economy more openly and aggressively. As a result, the government is investing more ininfrastructure and open market reforms in addition to improving relations with other countries, especially with the West.

In 2015, the World Bank group ranked India at 142 out of 189 countries for ease of doing business.[17] India lacks much in terms of infrastructure, and the accounting standards followed in India are different from and less logical thanthose followed at the international level. Apart from that, India's skilled and most productive population is concentrated in a few areas, especially in metro cities, rather than scattered across the whole country. Transportation is pathetic in qualitative terms, and the condition of roads, highways, railways, and communication leads to wastage of resources. Similarly, the public distribution system needs overhauling and revival.

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17 Doing Business, The World Bank Group Data available at: http://www.doingbusiness. org/data/exploreeconomies/india.

The Globalization Index used to measure economic interdependence and integration with the global economy has placed India at107 (KOF Index of Globalization 2014), showing that there is a long way to go ahead. Similarly, India's 71st rank in the World Economic Forum's2014–15 Global Competitiveness Indexshows that the Indian economy needs a lot of improvement for attracting international business and reaping the benefits of its integration with the global market (World Economic Forum 2015).Institutions in India need to be more transparent and open, technological readiness needs to be increased, and labour laws and legal structure (including the patent regime) need to be reformed. Health and education are in a bad state; innovation lacks investment and security. According to the 2013 Open Market Indexby the International Chamber of Commerce, India ranks at 64in the category of below-average openness owing to its trade policy, with import as its only saviour (International Chamber of Commerce 2014). This has been a major cause of the reduced inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI) in India. India is at the 20th position in terms of global FDI inflows, behindChina, Russia, and Brazil (Wikipedia 2015).

Apart from this gloomy picture of India in terms of performance, the GINI index World Bank estimate shows that India needs to redistribute its income and consumption expenditure by 33.6 percent owing to its economic inequality (World Bank 2015). The reforms in India need to be comprehensive and instrumental. Western countries can collaborate with India to develop a basic infrastructure, and India can upgrade to international standards in terms of governance and accounting.

Educated and skilled workers: India has the potential to meet the needsfor human resources across the globe due to its huge numbers of young people. Its limited domestic employment options and the shortage of skilled workers across the developed world, combined with the skyrocketing costs of global outsourcing, may result in prospects for India's huge workforce to be used in developed countries in the near future. However, the Indian workforce lacks appropriate skills for employability, and today's India is a classic case of structural unemployment with an alarming mismatch between the jobs available in the market and the skills possessed by people seeking jobs.The 2013 Human Capital Index, prepared by the World Economic Forum ranked India at the 100th position (cf. World Economic Forum 2015), which highlights the fact that India has failed to groom its vast population into a productive human resource.

Despite thegrowth in primary- and secondary-level opportunities for education brought on by various government initiatives and efforts from non-state actors, the majority of the population has limited opportunities for skill development due

to certain socio-economic and political reasons. For almost two decades (1991 to late 2000s), after economic reforms were introduced in India (1991), the country witnessed a period of 'jobless growth'. The current skill and employability trends on the basis of available data suggest that the demand and supply gap for workforce across different industries and sectors in India by the year 2020 is estimated to be about 75 to 80 percent. More than 90 percent of India's working population is employed in low-productivity, low-income jobs. Half of the 25-year-olds are not literate, one-third of the remaining half only had primary schooling, four in five entrants to the job market never had any skill training opportunities, and the booming information technology sector still lacks about half a million engineers (cf Perez-Gore, I. 2014). Out of the total 60 percent employable population in India, only 25 percent can be used by the job market. In core professions, the gap between demand and supply has grown to an alarming 82 to 86 percent (Wheebox 2014). On top of it, about 47 percent of the total youth are not employable because of a lack of English language skills (Wheebox 2014). With 86 percent of the total employed population working in the informal sector (including self-employment) (Okaya A. 2012), only 10 percent of the workforce receive some kind of training with formal training subsiding at just 2 percent, whereas 80 percent of entrants never get an opportunity for skill training (FICCI 2012).

India needs a structured policy and implementation mechanism for skill enhancement and training primarily along two lines:

1. To meet the requirements of the international job market targeting the employable skilled and semi-skilled urban educated population with linguistic, interactive, and communicative competency to match international standards.
2. To support its own economic base and promote social inclusion targeting the literate, semi-literate, and illiterate employable population from rural areas and suburbs through small and medium-sized enterprises, self-employment initiatives, and public employment guarantee schemes.

However, the government's only initiatives for coping with these challenges are the provisions for creating a basic infrastructure for skill development in the eleventh (2007–12) and twelfth (2012–17) five-year plans, and the policy formulation and implementation mechanisms in the National Policy on Skills (2009). These seem quite inadequate to meet the target of skilling up about 150 million people by 2022 across 21 areas (including the unorganised sector, 10 manufacturing industries, and 10 services) that have been identified by the government as areas with a high potential for employment opportunities. Besides, literacy and social inclusion continue to be the primary focus of government education policy and initiatives, along with resource allocation in education(Census of India 2011).

Despite the efforts of private actors like TATA, Wipro, and HCL, NGOs and research institutions that have come up in rural and backward areas with the help of development projects funded internationally and globally by various state and non-state actors, and skill development initiatives by public fund and self-help groups, India is unable to bridge the demand-supply gap even in its own market. While most private-sector initiatives stay confined to conditioning and skill enhancement for particular services, especially BPOs, KPOs, and software development, the primary output of NGOs, research initiatives, and international collaborations winds up in reports and data. Multinationals like Bosch (a German company), which have initiated the process of skill development through partnerships with the government, some universities, and other players from the international market, are welcome in the Indian market to provide education and skills that they would need in their prospective employees. This huge Indian population can he developed into a world-class human resource viacollaborations at the international level.

An efficient innovation system: Although it boasts more than one-sixth of the world's total population, India's share of the global gross expenditure on research and development is only 3 per cent. Its expenditure in this area is about five times lower than that of one of its major competitors, China. It spends about 1.9 per cent of its GDP in terms of Purchasing Power Parity (Economic Survey of India 2014–15). Except Russia, India lags behind all BRICS nations in its capacity for innovation. In terms of innovation in business services, it also lags behind the required criteria. AlthoughIndia scores better than other BRICS nations in terms of the availability of engineers and scientists owing to its large population, research remains exclusive, limited to labs, reports, and the premises of research institutions (Economic Survey of India 2014–15). Millions are deprived of the boons of technology due to the widening gulf between lab and life. The application of technology and its productive use has remained absent from the list of priorities at the policy implementation level. Private players abstain from investment because of a weak patent regime, whereas the government machinery is devoid of both funds and motivation. The 2014 Global Innovation Index (Cornell University/INSEAD/WIPO, 2014)[18] ranked India at 76, whereas all other BRICS countriesscored ahead ofIndia with China at 29, Russia at 49, South Africa at 53, and Brazil at 61. While

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18   The Global Innovation Index is a collaborative effort of Cornell University, INSEAD Business School, and the World Intellectual Property Organisation to measure the innovation capacity of countries.

all other BRICS countries are climbingup the ladder of innovation capabilities, India has beengoing downevery year forthe last three years.

India can benefit a lot from technology transfer at the global level, and international firms can take advantage of the Indian market to sell their technology and their technologically sophisticated products. The Maruti-Suzuki collaboration in the automobile sector isone of the best success stories of such a partnership. Because India might not be able to buy very good technology or develop its own innovation setup, global players can do this for India in return foran open Indian market. This will benefit the average citizenin terms ofreduced inflation, better options in the product market, increased productiveness, and an overall enhancement in the quality of life.

Information and communication technology: According to the Census of India (2011), 68.84 per cent of India's population (i.e. 83.3 million people) live in villages (Census of India 2011). As a large number of Indian villages are poorlyequipped with basic infrastructure like roads and electricity, getting integrated with the mainstream information and communication technology network remains a dream. India ranks at 89in the Network Readiness Index, (World Economic Forum, 2014) prepared by the World Economic Forum to measure the capability of a country to use and benefit from information and communication technology. Despite being the second-largest country in the world in terms of the number of Internet users due to its huge population, only 19.10 per cent of people in India use the Internet, putting the country at 145th position for 2014–15 (Wikipedia 2015). Likewise, in terms of broadband Internet subscription and mobile cellular subscriptions, India is much behindChina, ranking at 137 and 110, respectively for 2014–15 (Wikipedia 2015).

The Digital India programme, launched recently by the government, is an initiative to transform India into a knowledge economy byextending the broadband network across 250,000 villages, including universal phone connectivity and net zero imports, by 2020. This drive is expected to integrate the whole country digitally, and the complete transformation of the government machinery to an electronic setup would create about 17 million jobs directly and 85 million jobs indirectly, making India a digitally empowered nation. However, India needs better trainers, funds, and advanced technology, which can be provided by international players through channels that have equally promising opportunities for them as well.

Conclusion

India's transition to a knowledge economy may not be smooth.Although it has tremendous resources and opportunities as per World Bank standards, India has

a lot more work to do in all dimensions of the knowledge economy. Countries from the West, especially from Europe, can collaborate with India to find viable solutions for their approaching demographic challenge. India, on the other hand, will have effective solutions for problems that now impede its evolution into a complete knowledge economy. Moreover, in the context of India, the narrow notion of using knowledge for production, consumption, and capital formation is strictly inadequate. There is a need to focus on delivering the fruits of the knowledge economy in an egalitarian and inclusive manner along with a balanced development. Waiting for wealth to 'trickle down' from islands of wealth to the country's emaciated masses may take longer than bearable. Reallocations made for the most productive alternatives may render some millions homeless and hopeless. Replacing knowledge as the primary factor in all economic activities may force thousands more to go to sleep hungry. Imposing concepts of capitalism that work smoothly in advanced societies might tear the country apart into fragmented markets for the huge economic giants to enjoy.

Thus, it must be kept in mind that the transition to a knowledge society should not be made faster and smoother at the cost of human lives. After all, it is their development about which we are concerned. Forcing society into a never-ending commodity-producing race may lead us nowhere. Instead of a pure value-free concept of knowledge guiding the process of endless production-consumption and capital formation, there is a need for a whole system supported by value-based knowledge that may not become inhumane with the passion of converting human beings from liabilities to assets and measuring them in terms of work units per hours, scorecards, and production/output instead emotions and human values. In a true sense, that would suffice to be a knowledge economy!

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Kapil Dev Regmi

The status of adult literacy and lifelong learning in Nepal

Abstract

The concepts of adult education, adult literacy, and lifelong learning—about which several books and journal articles are written—have been interpreted in several ways. Educational policy documents produced by supranational organisations such as the European Union and the World Bank use these terms, especially lifelong learning, to suit their own political and economic interests. Those terms are then used in policy documents produced at national levels because nation states are highly interconnected with those organisations. Nepal makes a special case because of its overreliance on external donors such as the World Bank for financing several developmental programmes, including educational ones. This paper explores how the terms *adult literacy* and *lifelong learning* are interpreted in Nepalese educational policy documents. By analysing Nepal's key educational policy documents, the paper examines how the term *adult education* is narrowly understood as literacy. In the second section, the paper examines how the notion of lifelong learning is vaguely used in Nepalese educational policy documents as an alternative term for adult literacy.

Socioeconomic Status

Nepal is one of the least developed countries, situated between two advanced developing countries, India and China. Its economy largely depends on financial assistance from bilateral and multilateral agencies. With a per capita income of about US$ 730 (2014) and more than half of its 27.8 million people living on less than US$ 2 per day, Nepal faces several challenges. A decade-long armed conflict (1996–2006), protracted political instability, and a massive earthquake that hit central Nepal on 25 April 2015 have made Nepal a vulnerable country. More than 50 bilateral and multilateral donor agencies have been active in Nepal for the last four decades; however, its major problems such as poverty, illiteracy, economic vulnerability, conflict, and political instability have not been solved. About 43 per cent of Nepalese adults (age 15+) lack basic skills to read and write in the Nepali language (UNDP, 2014).

Nepal became a democratic nation in 1950 with a king as a ceremonial head. A quasi-democratic system, called *Panchayat*, was in practice from 1962 until democracy was restored in 1990. Nepal is divided into five development regions

to carry out administrative activities. These development regions are further divided into 14 administrative zones, and each zone is divided into four to eight local bodies called districts. There are 75 districts in Nepal. Districts are further divided into village development committees and municipalities. About 82 per cent of the population live in rural areas in Nepal (UNDP, 2014). The National Planning Commission is a central body to devise developmental plans every five years. The Ministry of Education and the Department of Education are central governing agencies for Nepal's educational development. However, as I elaborate below, a critical analysis of Nepal's educational history reveals that Nepal's educational development, including adult education, is mostly guided by exogenous forces: mainly the US during the 1950s and the World Bank after the 1980s (Rappleye, 2009).

Historical Trajectory of Adult Literacy

Before the 1950s

In the past, Nepal's education was dominated by a Hindu education system known as *gurukul*: This is a religious educational practice based on Hindu educational philosophy. There was a strong emphasis on the relationship between *guru* (teacher) and *shishya* (student), where the teacher played the role of a father and the student that of the son. Major components of the *gurukul* educational system are ritual prayers, the development of priesthood, and readings of religious texts. Often students used to leave their homes and stay at a guru's residence, which are known as *ashrams*. The *gurukul* system is appreciated mainly in Hindu mythological texts such as Mahabharata; however, the flipside of this system, at least in the case of Nepal, is that to be educated in *gurukul* system, 'one had to be born into a caste where such an education was appropriate' (Bista, 1991, p. 117).

Starting from its unification period (during the 1760s) until 2008, Nepal was ruled by *Shah* kings. But from 1846 to 1951, an upper-caste Hindu family called Ranas controlled the country's entire governance structure, which is known as the Rana dynasty. In the Rana dynasty, the 'premiership was passed on by agnate succession' (Whelpton, 2005, p. 47), going in turn to each male member of the Rana family. During the Rana dynasty (1846–1951), *pathsalas*—the schooling system where Sanskrit was taken as the medium of instruction and Hindu scriptures were taught as course contents—were established in Nepal. The *pathsalas* manifest an advanced form of the Hindu gurukul education system, but they were attended only by male students from high-caste families after having certain level of linguistic skills in Sanskrit. Some students from upper-class families who graduated

from *pathsalas* used to go to Varanasi in India for higher education (Bista, 1991). Gradually, the *gurukul* education system, which focused on religious rituals, became less relevant for the majority of the people, especially for those who had to work hard for survival.

Jung Bahadur Rana (1817–1877), the first prime minister of the Rana dynasty, who visited France and Britain during the early 1850s, was highly influenced by the achievements of European nations, especially Britain (Whelpton, 2005). He set up an English school, Durbar High School, in the vicinity of his palace in 1853. Only members of the Rana family were allowed to study at Durbar High School. There was almost no provision for adult education during the Rana period. However, for providing higher education opportunities to the graduates of Durbar High School, Tri-Chandra College, the first higher education institution of Nepal, was founded in 1918. Tri-Chandra College followed the curricula developed by the University of Patna, an Indian university established by the British, who ruled India at that time. The curricula and courses adopted at Tri-Chandra College followed the British model of education and hence had almost no connections to the contextual realities of Nepal. Final examinations of the college and certification of its graduates were undertaken by Patna University. Some graduates of Tri-Chandra College were sent abroad not only to India but also to Japan and Europe for further education and training and enjoyed key government positions after their return (Rappleye, 2009).

From the 1950s to the 1960s

During the late 1940s, several basic schools were founded following Mahatma Ghandi's principles of making individuals 'self-sufficient' through a strong emphasis on 'rural vocational training' (National Education Planning Commission [NEPC], 1956, p. 26). Students of basic schools used to learn vocational skills such as spinning, weaving, woodworking, and agriculture as their basic skills. Other components of basic school curricula included history and civics, health and physical training, cultural and recreational programmes, and village improvement projects (NEPC, 1956). However, the education based on Gandhian principles did not continue, mainly because Nepal's new policy, recommended by the National Education Planning Commission (NEPC, 1956), did not prioritise indigenous and vocational skills such as spinning, weaving, and woodworking.

The report of the National Education Planning Commission (NEPC, 1956), Nepal's first educational policy, appears to have introduced the concept of 'adult education' for the first time in Nepal. The NEPC reflects a desire of Nepalese political leaders and their US advisor Dr Hug B. Wood to create a modern Nepal.

The NEPC introduced some new provisions for adult education, including an agricultural extension programme, a school-community library, and adult education programmes through cinema and radio. Teaching adults through pamphlets, bulletins, newspapers, and magazines were some of the techniques that aimed at including agriculture-related contents. The NEPC took adult education as a strategy to strengthen democracy, especially for the development and implementation of a new constitution that replaced the oligarchic Rana regime. However, adult education was understood as mere literacy, limited to teaching people how to read and write: 'democracy cannot flourish in a country where 98per cent of the people are illiterate' (NEPC, 1956, p. 151).

The National Education Planning Commission (NEPC) believed that the lack of literacy was an impediment to instilling democratic values. It did not recognise the ability and potential of Nepalese adults' skills and experiences to make their living in hardships and abject poverty; rather, the commission characterised them as ignorant: 'All attempts to make a show of democracy will bear no fruit in our society unless the vast majority of adults, now steeped in total ignorance, are made to feel their duties and responsibilities in a democratic nation' (p. 152). Further, the NEPC report reveals that the commission members did not recognise the intrinsic value of adult education: an understanding that adults should be educated for the betterment of their society and the nation. Rather, the report took adult education as an instrument to complement primary school education: 'Only literate adults can fully know the value of education for their children … as adults become literate they will want even more education for their children' (NEPC, 1956, p. 151).

New schools and colleges were set up but the focus was not on preparing students to fulfil the need of rural communities; rather, these institutions were established just to provide formal degrees. According to Bista (1991), during the 1950s, formal qualifications, and especially a graduation certificate, became the significant factor for acquiring jobs, hence promoting the tendency of 'certificate orientation at the cost of the quality of education' (p. 122). Once they had earned a certificate, students mainly from upper-class families expected that jobs would be available for them. Few graduates from upper-class families, by virtue of their social capital, got government jobs, but for the majority of the people, mainly from underprivileged class, white-collar jobs did not become the reality. In this sense, though the notion of a *knowledge economy* (Powell & Snellman, 2004) was transferred to Nepal, it did not match the contextual realities of the country.

This certificate-oriented type of education kept young generations far from continuing their traditional and familial occupations, such as agriculture. As observed by Coombs (1985), there was an educational crisis in the Nepalese

education system, mainly because Nepalese schools operated under imported models, especially from Britain and the US, models that did not support the contextual realities of Nepal. The education model based on human capital principles 'had helped create elite cadres to run government ministries and to work in the small urban/modern sector of the economy, but they were ill-suited to develop the vast human and other resources of the traditional rural sector' (Coombs, 1985, p. 7), where about 90 per cent of Nepalese people lived.

From the 1960s to the 1990s

With regard to educational development during the *Panchayat* period (1962–1990), the Government of Nepal had appointed the All Round National Education Committee in 1961 to provide recommendations for the second five-year plan (1961–1956). The government also set up the National Education Advisory Board in 1968. However, those two policy initiatives are negligent in comparison to the New Education System Plan (NESP) that 'brought schools and education institutions under much tighter central control' and in line with the spirit of the *Panchayat* regime (Rappleye, 2011, p. 28).

As compared to the National Education Planning Commission (1956), which was influenced by Dr Wood and his Nepalese associates, the NESP was formed with the involvement and leadership of more Nepalese educationists. According to Bista, unlike the former policy, the NESP opened avenues to devise educational plans and programmes 'based on the perceived needs of the common people' (Bista, 1991, p. 125). The NESP took adult education as 'a vital factor in promoting all-round development of illiterate adults in the context of national development' (Belbase, 1981, p. 167). The NESP aimed at launching adult education programmes in two forms: (a) a literacy extension programme and (b) a functional adult education programme (UNESCO, 2006). The objectives of the functional literacy programme were 'to enable illiterate adults to master simple numerical skills along with reading and writing; to train adults in the vocation they are involved in and thereby increase their efficiency; to teach them about agricultural practises, cleanliness, sanitation, health care, and the political system' (Belbase, 1981, p. 188).

The NESP also contained a provision to send 'college students out to teach in rural communities' as a part of the National Development Service (Rappleye, 2009, p. 283). Spending a year in rural areas working with rural people—mainly participating in development activities including teaching in local schools—was a compulsory course requirement for obtaining a post-graduate degree from Tribhuvan University. However, along with the dwindling support for the *Panchayat* regime, the NESP collapsed by the end of 1979. 'What replaced the NESP was

not the product of policy or of any commission' (Bista, 1991, p. 127) at national level but merely some short-term educational projects. One of the projects that focused on adult education was the Education for Rural Development Project (1981–1985), also called Seti project. It was a part of the United Nation's initiative towards rural development: a key theme of the UN's Second Development Decade (1970–1980).

One of the major objectives of Seti project was to develop a system of basic education that would serve to promote rural development by reducing the existing gap between the school and the community. The project focused on making education more relevant to the future life of the student. Education was perceived as 'a positive force for the development of the area in which the school was located' (UNESCO-UNDP, 1985, p. 4). A major part of the project was the provision of functional literacy, creating awareness among adults about 'new ideas, skills, and knowledge that will enable them to take direct action to improve the quality of their lives' (ibid). The project aimed at producing trained adult educators by providing practical training in 'agriculture, irrigation, or primary health care' (UNESCO-UNDP, 1985, p. 6). But the project did not continue after 1985 because of funding problems.

After the 1990s

The political transformation of 1990—from Panchayat to democracy—ended the centralised education system and 'facilitated a more multicultural and inclusive view of education' (Bhatta, 2011, p. 16). The Government formed the National Education Commission (NEC, 1992) to 'lay down the goals of national education and formulate policies to achieve them in a manner consisted with the human rights' (Bhatta, 2011, p. 16) and to enshrine those goals in the new constitution. The commission aimed to strengthen the nonformal education sector; hence the National Non-Formal Education Centre was established in 1999.

Some of the major non-formal and literacy programmes launched during the 2000s were the Adult Post-Literacy Programme, the Flexible Schooling Programme, the Women's Literacy Programme, the School Outreach Programme, the Income Generating Programme, and the Community Learning Centres. Those programmes were provided by national and international non-governmental organisations. Nepal did not have a national education policy to unite those programmes under a single national policy framework. Therefore, a '10-Year Literacy/Non-formal Education Policy Framework' was prepared in 2006 under the leadership of the UNESCO Office in Kathmandu. It was prepared in consultation with major educational stakeholders such as the Non-Formal Education Centre, the

National Planning Commission, and other governmental and non-governmental organisations (UNESCO, 2006). The vision of the framework was to 'to create a fully literate learning society whose citizens possess the skills and competences that enable them to contribute continuously towards harmonious national development by raising the quality of life of every citizen' (p. 17). The 'Education for All' global programme (2000–2015) was a major motivational factor behind the creation of this framework. In a sense, this framework was a part of UNESCO's global Literacy Initiative for Empowerment programme within the framework of the United Nations Literacy Decade (2003–2012) (UNESCO, 2006).

The literacy/non-formal education policy framework (UNESCO, 2006) conceived of literacy in a rather wider sense: 'simply being able to read, write, and calculate may not always be sufficient for living in the more complex world of today' (UNESCO, 2006, p. 18). Some of the issues mentioned in the framework include: extending and expanding access to raise the literacy rate basically for meeting Education for All goals (i.e. to reduce illiteracy by 50per cent by 2015); mainstreaming out-of-school children's education programmes; managing and monitoring literacy and non-formal education programmes; and forming linkages between non-formal education and grassroots-based development programmes.

The Non-Formal Education Centre is a major authority to make and implement policies related to adult education and learning in Nepal (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008). The Centre formulated a Non-Formal Education Policy in 2007 (GON, 2007). There is a list of 16 policies featuring a number of strategies to implement those policies to guide 'government as well as non-government agencies involved in conducting nonformal education programs' in Nepal (p. 1). Some of the non-formal education policies (GON, 2007) include: providing non-formal educational opportunities to those who are deprived of formal education; recognising non-formal education as equivalent to formal education; decentralising the governance and management of non-formal education to local bodies; increasing the female literacy rate; synchronising non-formal education curricula with the curricula of formal education at all levels (from primary school to university); developing community learning centres; and strengthening partnerships among government, private sectors, and I/NGOs to strengthen non-formal education provisions.

Lifelong learning

The non-formal education policy (GON 2007) also talks about implementing 'programmes related to lifelong and continuous education, skill development and income generation' (p. 1), but the policy is not explicit about the nature of *lifelong learning* and its relevance in the context of Nepal. Overall, the policy appears as a

vague and highly ambitious document having little significance to its implementation in Nepal. A number of bullet points mentioned as strategies are not clearly articulated and make almost no connection with existing problems, especially some of the institutional barriers to increasing adults' participation in learning. Rather, adult education is conceived in a narrow term, basically literacy: 'the ability to read and write with understanding and to perform simple arithmetic calculations' (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008, p. 18).

According to the International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA) country report (2008), a common goal of adult education and learning for Nepal is

> *to raise the level of adult literacy, particularly amongst women and people belonging to marginalized groups such as dalits and disadvantaged ethnic groups, through the provision of appropriate learning and life skills programmes for all young people and adults, thus contributing to achieving poverty reduction and equitable socioeconomic and human development. (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008, p. 7)*

The institutional framework for non-formal education extends from national to local levels. There is a Non-Formal Education Council headed by the Minister of Education. The Non-Formal Education Centre is a national executive body working under the council. At the local level, there is a provision of having District-Level Non-formal Education Committees in each of the country's 75 districts and similar committees in each village development committees and municipalities (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008).

Some major educational projects launched in Nepal after the 1990s include: the Basic and Primary Education Project (1992–2003), the Secondary Education Support Project (1992–2000), the Community School Support Project (2003–2008), and the Education for All Programme (2004–2009). These projects, launched with active involvement of international organisations such as the World Bank, focused mainly on primary and secondary education. The core document (GON, 2009) of the current educational programme, known as the School Sector Reform Programme (SSRP, 2009–2016), mentions lifelong learning a number of times. In Chapter 4 of the document (GON, 2009), the term *lifelong learning* appears in association with literacy: 'literacy enables them to engage in lifelong learning and helps develop capabilities to sustain their livelihoods and participate fully in society' (GON, 2009, p. lviii). The programme aims at linking lifelong learning with income generation as well as with occupational and vocational skills. It also aims at 'developing partnerships for collaboration with UN agencies and I/NGOs to implement lifelong learning programmes in selected districts' (GON, 2014, p. 21).

Even though the term *lifelong learning* is mentioned in some of the major policy documents (GON, 2009, 2014) it does not reflect how lifelong learning has been

conceived as a new educational policy at the international level, including the European Union (European Commission, 2000), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 1996), and even UNESCO (Delors et al., 1996; Faure et al., 1972). Thus as far as the case of Nepal is concerned, there is no explicit provision for lifelong learning, and there are no policy documents to reflect a nuanced understanding on lifelong learning in the way it has been debated in international policy documents and some scholarly publications (Griffin, 2009; Rubenson, 2011). Rather, lifelong learning is conceived of vaguely as a strategy of 'improving literacy' (GON, 2014, p. 21).

Some international organisations, mainly the World Bank, have argued that one of the causes of Nepal's educational problems is the centralised governance of education, controlled by the Ministry of Education (World Bank, 2001). The World Bank strongly recommended to the Government of Nepal that the Ministry of Education should provide more authority and power to local communities (World Bank, 2001). As a consequence, *educational decentralisation*—meaning 'the devolution of power and budgetary control to Nepal's 75 districts and the communities below them' (Rappleye, 2009, p. 38)—has become a major policy shift after the late 1990s. Following the recommendations of the World Bank, the Government of Nepal implemented the Local Self-Government Act in 1999 (GON, 1999). The act gave local bodies more authority to plan and organise literacy and adult learning activities. However, the policy could not be fully implemented because of a lack of 'functional linkage between village education plan, school improvement plan, and the plans of other adult education providers' (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008, p. 11).

Conclusion

In this paper, I discussed that: (a) educational practices in Nepal before the 1950s were dominated by Hindu philosophical traditions and beliefs that benefited few male members of the upper-class families; (b) after the advent of democracy in 1950, Nepal's education was guided by the US, which aimed at institutionalising Western democratic values but neglected indigenous knowledge and skills; (c) during the early 1960s to the early 1980s, Nepal's education was geared towards strengthening the monarchy and perpetuating the status quo; and (d) after the 1980s, Nepal's education has been mostly guided by the World Bank as a major international donor. This historical trajectory of Nepalese education shows that adult education has never been a major focus in Nepal's educational development.

One of the major challenges of launching adult education programmes—or literacy programmes, as Nepalese educational policy documents would have it—is the lack of domestic funding. As noted above, for the last couple of decades

the Government of Nepal has relied almost entirely on external funding, mainly from the World Bank and other donor agencies such as the Asian Development Bank. Very often donors do not prioritise adult education, and sometimes their priority changes even if they initially start funding adult education programmes (CONFINTEA Nepal, 2008). For example, the Education for Rural Development Project (1981–1985) was one of Nepal's most successful adult education projects (UNESCO-UNDP, 1985). But it was completely replaced by a project funded by the World Bank: the Primary Education Project (1984–1992). As the focus of the project was primary education, the bank did not include adult education as a separate component of the project (World Bank, 1984). In recent educational policy documents, the term *lifelong learning* is used as an alternative to adult literacy. Lifelong learning appears as a new policy catchphrase borrowed from donors such as the World Bank, but my analysis shows that the use of the term does not reflect the broader scholarly discourse debated at the international level. Hence, it is vaguely interpreted as an alternative word for adult literacy.

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