GLOSSARY OF ADULT LEARNING IN EUROPE

Edited by Paolo Federighi
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Preface
Angela Vegliante

In the second half of 1996 the Irish Presidency opened a debate within the Education Committee of the Education Council of the European Community about a future strategy for lifelong learning. The debate centred on a whole set of “new” terms, such as learning environments, formal, non-formal and informal settings, community education etc., and in turn called for the introduction of new and different concepts based on learning rather than education, on the integration of the different learning environments and on the promotion of individual pathways between them.

It was clear from the start that the debate was going to be a challenging one, and that this time the difficulties were not due to the differences between the Napoleonic and non-Napoleonic education systems or between the “North” and the “South”. The Committee had been asked to comment on the cooperation between the formal and the non-formal sector in education, while Socrates and the earlier education programmes were concerned with supporting cooperation within the formal system.

The traditional perspective had changed and this had produced an acute communication problem. The Committee did not possess the lifelong learning terminology which was being used outside the formal system, and was unable to find a common basis for debate.

At that time I was responsible, in the European Commission, for the newly born Action on Adult Education, so the problems connected with the dialogue between two sectors which, with few exceptions within some countries, are not used to cooperating were not new to me. Their methods, aims and structures are different. However what emerged clearly from the policy papers produced both at Member State and Community level was that the continuous renewal of knowledge and competencies for the whole population was the key to full participation in citizenship and the updating of work-related skills.

As a result, the action on adult education within the Socrates Programme, born without a specific vocation apart from the promotion of a European dimension in adult education, developed immediately into a small, progressive laboratory. This provided the necessary basis for experiment in the key adult education issues: the promotion of the individual demand, the improvement of the supply system, the necessary support services and accreditation/certification. And that provided the stimulus to overcome the “communication gap”. A common language was required to codify the essential knowledge of the area and the basic terminology.

The European Association for the Education of Adults’ proposal of a Glossary on adult education was therefore a timely one. Even more timely is the publication of this manual which coincides with a landmark in adult learning: the adoption by the Education Council of the new Community education programme for the years 2000-2006 with, for the first time, a “Chapter” dedicated to adult learning called “Grundtvig: other educational pathways”.

PREFACE
Thus we have moved from a timid action in the previous programme to a basis for innovation in European adult learning and, in that context, the Glossary exceeds its initial ambition. It provides a manual of the most significative adult learning practices in use throughout Europe. It also describes the main historical, political and social developments in adult learning - a sector deeply rooted in the civil society of each country.

The picture which emerges is varied and exciting, though not always easy to decipher, for it shows how endlessly creative and original the models for the learning systems of Europe are.
INTRODUCTION

A Glossary of adult learning in Europe
Paolo Federighi

1. WHY A GLOSSARY

A glossary, regardless of which discipline it relates to, constitutes a tool linked to a precise historical period or a current of thought. This is particularly true for adult education. The fact that the first terminologies of the seventies are used today in compiling encyclopaedias, dictionaries, and glossaries is a sign of the times. In all the member-states of the European Union, adult education is leaving behind its image as an underestimated sector, under the care of well meaning people.

Whether it be in the area of research or politics, the subject of adult learning is rapidly evolving and its dynamics are difficult to keep up with.

This glossary has been compiled because the creation of a common Europe requires it; because today, as well, policies and measures are being applied in the field of adult learning. Because new subjects, institutions, social partners and social movements are appearing on the scene with new awareness and new competencies. Because politics, practice, thought and research have renewed definitions in our field of work and invented new terminology as a consequence.

In this sense, our glossary, has been updated to give the reader a better understanding without, however, any pretence of homogenising the current terminological babel.

2. SELECTED KEY WORDS

A glossary should be a dynamic tool, updated on a daily basis, extended following the emergence of new words and changes of meaning to those already in use.

For this reason, besides the production of this printed version, we assign the task of disseminating the glossary to the WWW and the virtual community of the EAEA and ask users to communicate with those responsible for the site, to send their comments on various terms and to communicate any missing information, together with their descriptions.

This first version contains more than 150 key words and, in most cases, includes syntagmata and chains of words. It refers to too few definitions to claim to be able to cover the entire field and all national idiosyncrasies. This was, however, not its intention. The objective is to offer a tool that is easy to use and which can provide a choice of the most frequent and significant terms. Here, the reader is able to find a selection that, of course, takes into account various nationalities, but also, at the same time, offers essential key words in order to understand the diverse aspects of adult education in Europe. Moreover, we have also endeavoured to include those terms that reflect the most advanced practice and contemporary ideas on adult education.
In some cases, we have included several descriptions of one term or concept. This can be found in cases in which:

Slight semantic differences in use exist for the same term in different countries or cultural areas, whether they arise from different approaches in accordance with varying schools of thought on the description of the general concept or whether they are retained when they pertain to the presentation of a concrete case which refers to a specific national reality.

Where the distribution of the key words relating to the diverse cultural and linguistic areas is concerned, our starting point has been the observation that a common language does not yet exist. This can be observed across a limited range of subjects whose essential parts, meanings and common traits cannot immediately be detected. This brings with it two provisos with respect to a project like ours.

In the first place, it is necessary to gather, as De Saussure would say, the entirety of linguistic signs, of acoustic images and concepts used in different linguistic cultural and political areas.

In the second place (again in De Saussure’s words), where syntagmata and groups of words linked to associative relationships are concerned, translation into another language constitutes an arduous competency and results in distortions. We should, in fact, bear in mind that the relationship between words and concepts is the most varied from the time when the following instances are encountered:

a. The absence of corresponding words and concepts in another language
b. The presence of corresponding words (literal translation), but the absence or diversity of the concepts (this is the most dangerous and varying case)
c. The presence of corresponding concepts, but the use of various words or syntagmata (in these cases, literal translation becomes distorted)

Those observations have given our project a series of choices, which we will briefly elaborate on:

a. The key words cover a lexicon used in twenty other European countries.
b. Selection: Forty experts of different nationalities have been entrusted with this task and, where necessary, the key word has not been translated from the original language.
c. In most cases, we have referenced the country the description has come from and we have only omitted such a reference where the key word has been inherited by both languages (at least in European Union countries).

3. USE

The key words contained in the glossary belong to the following categories:

- Theories and general concepts
- Strategies and policies
- System and sectors
- Organisations and Providers
- Programmes, Activities and Methods
- Public
- Adult Learning Operators

These have been categorised according to a recently developed structure for our evaluation. We must in fact remember that this glossary does not only constitute a consultation tool, but can also be viewed as summarised knowledge capable of providing information on some fundamental issues in this field of work and discipline.

Nevertheless, in order to facilitate easy use of the glossary, we have also inserted an alphabetical index of the key words it contains and of associated terms (in common use today).
4. THE GLOSSARY’S THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL REFERENCES

A DEFINITION OF THE FIELD

The expression “adult education” - in this instance - refers to the phenomenon deriving from the entirety of theories, strategies, policies and organisational models which aim to interpret, direct and manage the individual and collective training processes throughout their entire existence. The objective of adult education goes beyond the boundaries of the school system and of professional training. It includes the entirety of learning activities, including those of an informal or accidental nature, present in work and everyday life.

HISTORICAL ORIGINS

Adult education, in the modern sense, as an organised and intentional process which is becoming increasingly interesting to people from every population level throughout their entire life-spans, became a reality with the advent of industrial society. In fact the first state provisions in favour of adult education came into existence in Norway during the first half of the 18th century. The end of the first half of the 19th century saw the beginning of the first historical studies on adult education in the United Kingdom, a practice which had already been exported overseas well before the independence of America, where a legislative transfer came into effect towards the end of the Elizabethan era. Spain, like other European Mediterranean countries, had to wait until the 19th century to see its introduction.

Adult education truly established itself during the most intense period of the industrial revolution. It came into existence through two parallel movements; on the one hand, the industrial bourgeoisie’s interest in having available manual labour capable of participating in a productive activity undergoing constant development and, on the other hand, the emerging working class’s interest in directing the new conditions and training possibilities brought about by the production process, and in its own desire for emancipation and overcoming the social divisions of labour. To these two movements, a third developing trend can be added, brought about by the emerging social classes, which united during the process of creating new states in the belief that training offered a means to achieve national unification and the reinforcement of the governing classes.

At the turn of the 18th and 19th century, in all the countries of industrialised Europe, this was translated into the rise of newly founded schools and professional training centres for adults or young workers (from revolutionary courses promoted in Paris for gunsmith teachers in year two under the Montagnard convention to agricultural schools promoted by Marquis Ridolfi during the first decades of the 19th century, to the evening and Sunday classes for female workers in Massachusetts promoted by the textile company Lowell & Waltham from the beginning of 1820 onwards, to the schools founded by the large German arms company, Krupp), the expansion of forms of educational friendly societies and solidarities (in practice in Italy, as in other European countries, through the mutual aid societies or the Chambers of Commerce) and the birth of educational systems and activities inspired by the working class, as in Denmark and all other Scandinavian countries, but based on the principles of the definitive folkeoplysning of the Protestant Bishop Grundtvig and of his disciples.

Towards the end of the 19th century and in the first decades of the 20th century, public intervention first took place in an indirect way and then through direct management, also in the area of lifelong education. These interventions were chiefly aimed at controlling and managing educational and professional training organisations for youth and adults.

The eruption of the two world wars had, in a sense, a stagnating effect on the development of training practices and policies which was intensified by the establishment of dictatorial governments. It was, however, precisely during those years immediately after the first world war, in 1919, that the expression “lifelong education” was accepted in an official British government document for the first time. Just one year earlier, in the legislation of the emerging Soviet Union, the aim to “guarantee to the workers effective
access to knowledge" and the task of “assuring the manual workers and the peasants of complete, universal and free education” was affirmed.

During the 1930s in Western Europe, however, the modern concept of adult education went through a crucial period of fine-tuning of theory and practice similar to the historical experience of the popular front in France. It was in the framework of this political movement against nazi-fascism that intellectuals came into contact with the working class and that the idea of mental training, in the form of éducation populaire, through which the working class's mental musculature was strengthened, enabling them to respond to “ideas received”, challenged the practice of transmitting culturally predetermined content and values. These are the presuppositions which provided the route to the idea of éducation permanente, put forward by Arents and Lengrand in the 1950s, completely free of any hypothesis on “cultural continuation” or on “permanent education” and directly connected to our initial definition.

From the 1960s onwards, the field of education entered a phase of constant growth and became the object of unceasing confrontation by various interested parties. The model which focused on school as an essential period in the education of a person, concentrated in one single phase during an individual’s life, entered a crisis period. On the other hand, the explosion in the demand for training by both the individual and an economic system ever more interested in product knowledge prompted the beginning of an intense reform process and of new political interventions aimed at creating new training conditions and systems. Governments, entrepreneurs, unions and social organisations viewed training in the context of their plans for economic and social policies to do with employment and health, etc. Social movements and unions put forward new claims on the grounds that education should be on a global level. In all countries the right of access to education and culture became a common motive from the beginning of the 1960s onwards. In 1974 the International Labour Office approved Convention no. 140 which aimed to introduce employees’ rights to free time for training through paid study permits on a global scale. From then on, government actions intensified, particularly in the more industrialised countries. Already prior to Berkeley’s student uprising of 1968, the American president, Johnson, created a vast programme promoted by the federal government for professional refresher course and basic adult education. Sweden, under the initiative of its Prime Minister Olof Palme, was the first country to put a recurring educational system into use in 1968 with the aim of making it possible to return to education on a large scale. Despite the difficulties, the crisis in the fiscal policies and the welfare state, such initiatives were continued during the 1980s and ’90s not only in Northern Europe, but in all the developed countries of the world, such as the USA, Australia or Canada. In Japan, it reached more decisive levels than elsewhere when, from 1990 onwards, a reform of the entire educational system encompassing lifelong learning took place, based on the integration of various development opportunities of a mainly non-school nature.

THE INFLUENCE OF CURRENTS OF IDEAS

Of course, considerable variations in terminology and definitions can be traced back to their use in the various currents of ideas present in the field of adult education.

As far as the definition of the scope of continuing education is concerned, the rich variety of approaches can be traced back to two principal paradigms: the neo-liberal and the critical-radical.

With the neo-liberal approach, adult education is used for its complementary function with respect to predetermined goals: to achieve people’s agreement on beliefs and communal values and to assure the availability of adequately trained human resources. The context, in other words, is presumed to be accepted and adult education is viewed as a means of enabling the individual to contribute to and participate in its progress.

Training is seen as a largely individual process. It is not by chance that it is identified with learning, viewed, above all, to be of a psychological nature. As a consequence, the organisations which create learning conditions, contextual elements to make training possible, are not included.

In the neo-liberal approach, reference to educational context is vague (such as e.g. in Knowles), both where the concepts of educational equality and characterisation are concerned. Equality of opportunities
is considered to be the communal starting point for everyone, connected to family and school. Successively, education has the task of giving everyone the place in society which they deserve best. A system of sanctions and rewards serves this end and creates differences that are considered inevitable. The result is the responsibility of the individual.

With the critical-radical approach, lifelong education is considered to be a means of control and of renewal of the dominant production relationships. Lifelong education consequently aims at forming an alliance with the entirety of economic, political, social and cultural aspects which form part of individual and communal life.

Here, education is identified with the liberating strategies and movements which lead to control and social management of the educational processes. The specific function, the raison d'être, of lifelong education is identified with the educational process and the action which causes “human agents” to transform the social conditions which impede their intellectual development. Some authors, whether they be European or North American, inspired by Gramsci and Freire, succeed in identifying lifelong education with “anti-hegemonic education” or, in other words, with the action which, contemporaneously, produces structural changes and creates new values, expectations, identities and solidarities in the same subjects.

Interest in the interactive dimension and that which transforms educational processes and interest in hegemonic competencies is countered by underlining the collective dimensions of the movements. From here on, education continues as an integral part of the action of every type of social movement (manual workers, women, elderly, indigent, etc.).

THE THEORIES ON THE LEARNING PROCESS IN ADULTHOOD

An ulterior source of influence on terminology and conceptual growth is provided by the theoretical reflection on the matter. The need to define a theory on the educational process during the different stages of life, and more generally during adulthood, links up with the entirety of philosophical approaches to adult education. The need to provide scientific confirmation of the possibility of educating oneself throughout an entire life-span was first expressed in the first decades of the 20th century in the studies of Thorndike in the USA and of Vygostki in the Soviet Union. The main references to this at first mostly revolved around the operation of the intellect in adulthood, while subsequent references tended to focus on the connections between individual and cultural development. It is on such a connection that the Dewey school approach was based, which - particularly through the work of Eduard Lindeman - identifies life with education (“all of life is learning, for this reason, education can have no end”) and defines education as a collective and social phenomenon. The successive developments of physiological and neurological sciences (on neuro-plasticity of the brain and on the modifiability of the structure and physiology of neurons) led to definitive confirmation regarding the continuous development of the capacity to learn during the course of adult life and its failure factors deriving from the subject's physiological and social conditions which overcome the compensating effects of experience accumulated during life.

At the same time, the creation of specific theoretical models requires the contribution of research which bases the overcoming of a merely transferral approach to education on science. From this point of view, the development of the entirety of human sciences offers fundamental contributions. Aside from anthropology and sociology, another particular contribution comes from psychology.

Basing itself on research results in other disciplines, attempts at theoretical systematisation are being developed based on the specifications of the learning process during adulthood. At the risk of oversimplification, the principal theoretical directions can be reduced to two: the theories which have a tendency to explain the learning processes as a function of the internal structure of the person and of the individual adult as a student, and the theories which aim to explain the learning process in its individual and collective complexity, in other words, the critical theories.

The theories of adult learning developed principally as a result of psychological research. Human psychology (M. azlow, Rogers, Perls) is the particular branch of psychology upon which the creation of Knowles’ model is based. This attempt to systematise sets from the presupposition that all human beings,
by reason of their psychological make-up, are “destined” to realise themselves and to continuously develop their potential.

Adult education is thus defined as a facilitation process aimed at providing support in the ability to direct and develop oneself, an ability which individuals naturally possess. On this basis, Knowles elaborated a series of training methods to ensure a correct negotiation between teacher and student of the learning objectives, methodical management and the training assessment.

Critical theories tend to have an interdisciplinary approach. They set out from the acknowledgement of the existing negative nature of education, i.e. the product of historical movements, educational ability reports and relationships between the micro and macro dimensions and between the individual and the social system. Lifelong learning is then understood in terms of a shaping process which develops with time, precisely, and which “corresponds, in its development, with the learning process, understood, not only for its individual value, but also for the cultural and social value”. Education can be identified with the action of the individual and collective subject, or the historical subject, aimed at transforming itself and the social context through which it is determined and removing the causes which have generated the need for learning. This is expressed with particular determination in Paulo Freire’s consciousness-raising theory. For Freire, the objective of the person in learning consists in understanding the way in which the social structures have influenced his way of thinking, during development, a self-identification process which helps him recognise his own power and the world itself (1971). The consciousness-raising theory is the result of a combination of actions and observations completed in free and autonomous learning conditions. In Freire, the transforming dimension of learning is perceived as the means of realising a society which respects man’s dignity and freedom. Developing actions and “the protagonist action of the person who is his own spokesperson for the problem which is to be resolved scientifically” (Orefice) are combined by engaging in participative research into the knowledge production system used by people in their everyday struggle for survival. This examines an approach to knowledge production which recovers and refines people’s capacity to conduct their own research; it favours the appropriation of knowledge created by dominant systems; it develops the necessary knowledge for its own emancipation process and enables people to free themselves from control and the hegemony of the elite (Tandom, 10-11). Analogous characteristics can be attributed to biografia educativa, in which “personal power in order to define one’s own educational life history is extremely enlightening and implicit. This exercise contributes to the creation of self-education while defining the concept” (Pineau, 1980; Demetrio, 1996)

THE ORGANISATION AND THE NATIONAL SYSTEMS

Similar considerations can be applied to the systems and organisations for adult education in the different countries of the European Union. Here, as we move into the area of subjects, we should take into account the imprecision of each attempt to compare so as not to level out the existing differences and to avoid the risk of assessing their extent using concepts pertaining to adult education culture. It is not by chance that the comparative analyses which have been published to date limit themselves to describing national cases, and in general to making a comparison which does not cover more than the two main formal and informal educational systems, given that the secondary elements result in difficult comparisons.

Considering the profound diversity, this study proposes to reconstruct the ways in which the diverse national adult education systems are structured today, in particular with the aim of focusing on analogies and characteristics.

The general system, as a norm, can be divided into four distinctive principal areas according to their nature:

- formal, or linked to the attainment of a degree, diploma or certificate;
- non-formal, corresponding to organised educational institutions, but not tending to issue certificates;
- informal, identifiable in the educational processes which are not organised or structured and are managed on either an individual or social level.
accidental, connected to the educational processes which arise by chance in everyday working life.

These categories, formalised by UNESCO in 1970, though in use prior to this, whether it be in the field of science (from Dewey onwards) or politics (the World Bank for example), when aiding the categorising of the complexity of educational processes, began to reveal their limits, however, at the time when lifelong education started to refer to the new knowledge classification (the French philosopher, Michel Serres' tree of knowledge) and to the transversal concept of competence. The new epistemological approaches linked well with the typical direction of lifelong learning and involved legitimisation and certification of every type of knowledge and the reduction of the burden of formal education. In this new context, emphasis is put on the integration between the various fields rather than on their separation.

As a consequence, the description of the system which ensures its implementation should refer rather to the chief elements of the organisation of lifelong education (the services, the infrastructure, the agencies, the companies, the legislative and administrative measures). Moreover, it is necessarily limited to the specialist's realm, which supports the entirety of diverse organised training models, becoming concrete only during the course of historical events.

The services relating to lifelong education constitute a recently developed field connected to new policies. The reduction of the direct business management role relating to state systems has increased the importance of the creation of a series of basic services for the public (e.g. information systems, orientation systems, consulting and motivational systems), for companies (analysis of business training needs, how to set up a company and increase business, etc.), for specialised organisations (documentation, training of workers, valuation, inspection, financial and organisational consultation, quality control).

Educational and cultural infrastructures (libraries, theatres, databases, museums, etc.) are the objects of a call for change which is wishing to undo not only the conserving role but also that of lifelong education throughout the different levels of the population. This change is developing on four levels: the modification of the production-distribution method (e.g. the new forms of home loans of artwork, or the "star" distribution process of magazines for hairdressing salons - in use by several Italian libraries, etc.); the collaboration with other agencies (between libraries and factories, museums and hospitals, etc.), the reform in an educational sense of the internal operating procedures (opening hours, work acquisition criteria, personnel competencies, etc.); the support in the form of the public's expression and artistic production (relationship between the author and the public, availability of tools of expression, etc.)

The agencies operating in the sector have seen an enormous development in quality and quantity although the systems differ from country to country. In Europe, where functions are concerned, six different types of departments can be distinguished:
- those with a planning and programming function
- those with a federal function
- those which provide basic general services
- those which are specialised (for the public, geographical areas, problems, subject matter, methods or objectives)
- polyfunctional
- non-specialised.

Businesses are developing in all areas of knowledge, through an infinite variety of methods (from courses to practical experience, to participatory research, to work groups or labs, etc.) involving matters relating to the entire life-span (from entrepreneurial questions to making preparations for the end of one's life). From a typology proposed by Abrahamson, it is possible to subdivide the field into the following areas with regard to education:
- the completion of compulsory education
- the return to school education (from basic adult education to university)
- the reinforcement of the usability of the subjects
- the development of general competencies in both paid and unpaid work
- updating in-service
the transformation in an educational sense of every type of organisation
independent learning
the development of society in general.

Legislative and managerial measures determine the operational principles of the system, help determine the distributive rules for access to education and the role of various subjects in the education management process and with respect to the use of training benefits. The welfare crisis has had no effect on legislative production, which has instead experienced progressive growth across the world from 1970 onwards. The governments' means increased and there was an orientation towards "programmatic documents", "option plans" which - more so than laws - allowed more frequent updating. The legislative measures can be categorised under two principle types:

- non-specific, in other words, geared towards detailing and regulating the educational dimensions of interventions and circumstances which are not strictly educational (industrial or agricultural policies, health, social policies, etc.);
- specific, in other words, geared towards determining choices, management rules and possible administrative and financial norms of the educational system in the above mentioned components (services, infrastructures, agents, businesses).

The study will not take the dimensions of these systems into consideration, even if we must take into consideration that the resources and constant legislative production risk rendering obsolete a study which adheres too strictly to present reality and does not attempt to take the path of creating descriptive and significant typologies accurately.

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KEY WORDS ON ADULT LEARNING

1. Theories and general concepts

The notion of voksenopplæring = adult education, appeared in the Norwegian language in the 1960s, when several official documents about adult education were developed. In the 70s, the expression reoccurred in the preparatory work for the Adult Education Act, and it became the central concept of the Law, when it was passed in 1976. Norway had got the first specific Adult Education Act in the world.

Voksenopplæring is thereby a legal term, and as such, it includes adult learning organised by the adult learning associations, by the school authorities and the labour market authorities. According to the Act, the term includes both popular learning and adult education. Looking at the terminology in Denmark and Sweden, we observe that they separate popular education and adult education (in Sweden) and popular learning and adult education (in Denmark).

By voksenopplæring we understand learning for adults, organised according to specific rules and regulations, entitled to government grants. Organisers may be the public educational authorities, offering school parallel programmes (primary, secondary and further education), and programmes offered by the labour market authorities and the adult learning associations.

A Norwegian educational dictionary, Pedagogisk oppslagsbok (Gyldendal 1974) tells us: On one hand, adult learning includes all learning activities beyond basic education, qualifying a person to assert herself in different areas according to qualities required in the areas of the family, the work situation, the community of citizens, as far as her qualifications permits her, physically, intellectually, economically, socially and culturally. On the other hand, adult education is part of an educational system aiming at, beyond the legal basic education, organising possibilities for lifelong growth for everyone, as an individual and a social human being, through learning by work or leisure.

Sturla Bjerkaker

ANDRAGOGY • ANDRAGOGIKA

The term, which is not in use in many countries outside the English speaking areas has been adopted in Slovenia and in other countries of the former Comecon to define the knowledge and science and practice of adult education.

For example: Andražoški center Slovenije (Slovene Adult Education Centre); Andražoški zavod Maribor (Institution for Adult Education of Maribor); Oddelek za pedagogiko in andragogiko na fakulteti
KEY WORDS ON ADULT LEARNING

(Department of Pedagogy and Andragogy); andragoška knjižnica (andragogical library); andragoška meto-
dika ali didaktika (methods or didactics of andragogy); andragog (a person qualified in adult education).

The term “andragogy” has generally been very little known and its meaning is seldom properly defined. 
This can be explained in particular by the fact that both andragogy and adult education are rather young 
activities and professional areas, still in the process of being recognised. Jarvis (1990: 22) indicates, in his 
short presentation of the development and use of the term andragogy, its specific use in the former Yugos-
slavia, where it is used in particular in academic spheres. It indicates, especially in Eastern Europe, the 
whole field of adult education. The term has in the short history of its use (the word origina-
tes from Greek and was used for the first time in 1833 by the German Alexander Knapp) provoked stormy discus-
sions. The main issue is whether adult education differs as a science and as a process from child and youth 
education (pedagogy). In Slovenia, as in former Yugoslavia, the term has never played such a challenging 
and schismatic role.

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BILDUNG Germany

The German term “Bildung” has no equivalent in any other of the European languages. Not only is it 
more comprehensive than “education”; it is, above all, more complex and holistic in meaning. It is difficult 
to define even in the German language. One definition, taken from an encyclopedia, reads for example: 
“Bildung” is a process of spiritual formation; it also refers to the inner shape human beings can attain 
when developing their aptitudes in touch with and through the agency of the spiritual contents found in 
their environment. “Bildung” not only implies the dimension of teaching but also that of learning (“sich 
bil- den”), not only knowledge and skills, but also values, ethos, personality, authenticity and humanity. 
The verb “bilden” is mostly used in its reflexive form (“sich bilden”) and hardly ever as a synonym for 
“unterrichten” (instruct), “erziehen” (educate) and “lehren” (teach).

The complexity of the term accounts for the fact that “Bildung” is seen as the appropriate expression 
for the totality of all teaching and learning related activities in Germany and is used in various ways - and 
in conjunction with other terms - to characterise adult education and learning in Germany. The most 
important compounds are:
• “Bildungssystem” (education system): This refers to the entire spectrum of institutions concerned 
with teaching and learning in Germany;
• “Bildungsbereich” (sector of education): this means either the educational sector as dissociated 
from other “Bereiche” of the society (for example politics, economy); or it refers to a particular 
segment of the “Bildungsbereich” itself, for example schools, higher education, vocational train-
ing or adult education
• “Erwachsenenbildung” (Adult Education): The addition of “Erwachsenen-” confines the term 
“Bildung” to the teaching and learning of a particular group of the population. Similarly the 
compounds with “Jugend-” (youth), “Alten-” (adults), “Frauen-” (women) etc.
• “Kulturelle(Erwachsenen)Bildung” (cultural adult education): The adjective defines more pre-
cisely the content area concerned with teaching and learning activities.
• “Bildungsverhalten” (educational behaviour): Here as with other compounds such as “Bildungs-
statistik” (statistics on education), “Bildungsbeteiligung” (participation in education) etc., the
compound defines and indicates a particular feature, in this case primarily participation and educational careers of people.

The compounds with “Bildung” are almost innumerable. It is therefore always necessary to consider the context to be able to decide whether the focus is mainly on learning, on education seen as a system, or on education and teaching.

This is rather simple in the case of “Bildungspolitik” (educational policy): “Bildungspolitik” is dissociated from other policy sectors (for example research, science) and is currently - regretfully - undervalued as a policy sector in Germany.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference

COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The concept of community education dates back to Henry Morris’s 1920s vision of a village college as the nucleus of a holistic adult education system for a local community. He proposed that the village college should be the focal point of community life, integrating educational, social, cultural and recreational activities; catering for all interests and all ages from early childhood to very old age. Although Morris’s vision never materialised in its pure form it formed the basis for community education for much of the twentieth century.

A variety of more pragmatic and economic versions of community schools appeared in various parts of the country after the second world war. To a greater or lesser extent they attempted to integrate compulsory schooling and adult education. At first these were in predominantly rural areas but later “community education” became part of the strategy for tackling inner-city problems. But despite many claims for the success of community education, the reality was more often “adult education on the cheap” (Wallis & M ee, p.8) with the statutory requirements of children nearly always taking precedence over the interests of adult students. Nevertheless, community education has the capacity to be relatively free of restrictions and regulation; to be more informal and sometimes more innovative than other forms of adult education. It lays greater emphasis on responding to the needs of the learner and the community defined in terms of common residence, shared interest and social purpose. It aims to encourage and empower people to take charge of their own institutions, their own education and their own lives (London Borough of Newham, p.17), and to be a popular and democratic form of adult education which simultaneously respects diversity and promotes solidarity. (Martin, p.141.)

Roger Fieldhouse

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COMPETENCE • REALKOMPETANSE

The term entered the Norwegian language with intensity from 1998. One reason for this was the Green Paper on reforms within the field of education, learning and development of competence in Norway. The Green paper from the so-called Buer committee, stated, in 1997, the need to establish a better system of recognition and documentation of non-formal competence. By non-formal competence, we understand the knowledge, understanding and skills acquired by adults outside the formal education system, at work, in family contexts, in organisational participation etc.

The term is related to the term formal competence, describing the result of a formal and institutional education, and expressed by the documentation of a formal exam. In 1998, the Buer committee's paper has been succeeded by a White Paper called “The Competence Reform”. In this document the concept of non-formal competence is even more stressed, and the paper recommends strongly the initiation of tests, efforts and projects focusing partly on the concept, partly on systems of documentation. Voksenopplæringsforbundet, The Norwegian Association for Adult Education, has initiated a project focusing on non-formal competence by documenting learning environments and arenas, linking the concept of non-formal competence to such ideas as the ability to act, to master, to adapt, to co-operate etc. – what we would also call cross-professional competence. We are talking about an additional competence achieved through, say, participation in study circles, additional to the subject being presented in the group, i.e. languages or aesthetic topics. A year in a Folk High School signifies today 3 extra points in the formal education system, points linked to the competence given by the characteristics of the Folk High School qualities, in addition to the subject matters actually dealt with. By giving importance to systems of documentation of non-formal competence, it is possible to imagine the division between the two terms formal and non-formal competence gradually ceasing exist in the future. We may then concentrate on the essential concept, competence.

Sturla Bjerkaker

CONTINUING EDUCATION

The economic crises of the early 1970s led to a steadily growing emphasis being put, particularly in university adult education, on vocational training, post-experience courses and continuing professional development, to meet the growing demand for adult education to contribute more directly to economic regeneration. The same utilitarian and instrumentalist forces hastened the trend towards certification and part-time degrees - to give credit for learning which could then be recognised and utilised in the job market. The term “continuing education” was used to distinguish this vocationally oriented provision from traditional, predominantly non-vocational “liberal adult education”.

The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, set up in 1977 to advise the Government on the provision of adult education, helped to popularise the change in terminology from “adult” to “continuing” education. In 1982 the Council’s report, “Continuing Education: from policies to practice”, proposed a radical shift of emphasis for the whole post-school sector, abandoning the boundaries between education and training or between vocational and general adult education in a comprehensive, integrated system of “continuing education”. This was reflected in the evolution of the meaning of the term “continuing education”. It was no longer used solely for the vocational end of the adult education spectrum as it had been in the 1970s. It became a generic term, emphasising vocationalism within adult education (even its predominance) rather than its separateness. This was reflected in the frequent use of the term “adult and continuing education” or just “adult continuing education”. The older, more restricted meaning of “continuing education” was transferred to other terms such as “continuing professional development”.

Roger Fieldhouse
Education of Adult Persons (EPA) is generally understood as an activity (as far as the process and results are concerned) whose basic objectives are to guarantee the acquisition, bettering and updating of basic training for adults, the improvement of professional qualifications (through basic training of a professional nature and specific vocational training at intermediate or higher level) and the development of the capacity to participate in social, cultural, political and economic spheres. The conceptual framework of EPA embraces the principles of continuing education. It is a type of education addressed to the whole of the adult Spanish population, although with specific attention to particular social groups with special needs in basic education or with difficulties in joining the labour market: the illiterate, the prison population, ethnic minorities and other marginalized groups.

EPA aims at favouring a methodology focused on adults' self-learning, based on their own interests, needs and experiences, trying to combine open and regular university models. EPA is offered in many kinds of centres; thus, it is an open offer for any non-university teaching centre, either ordinary or specific (CEAs, EPA Centres, etc.). Furthermore, it establishes co-operation between other public administrations, universities, municipal and local entities and non-profit organisations.

Finally, as a result of the passing of the LOGSE (national general law), the expression “Educación de Personas Adultas” (Education of Adult Persons) has been coined, a label with no discriminatory connotation whatsoever as regards sex, which is increasingly replacing the traditional “Educación de Adultos” [The word “adultos”, although employed generically, is in the masculine gender in Spanish].

Adult education is, thus, in the Spanish sphere, a general concept of an educational offer for adults with very broad objectives based on the criterion that the adult is learning throughout his/her whole life. The increase in its demand has its origin in the evolution of the growing complexity of society, profound cultural transformations and the learning demands for a critical social participation. It inspires interventions ranging from the offer of possibilities of reinclusion into the educational system to processes of cultural dynamism.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Victor Martín

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Education in the environment and cultural heritage uses both nature and man's testimonies in a given area as a source of knowledge and with the aim of improving the holistic relationship between mankind and the world by educational activity.

This is based on the supposition that the educational processes originate from and develop through the cognitive relationship with the environment: knowledge, which everyone possesses, is in fact the cognitive and emotional representation of reality. This form of representation is used to explore the various environments with which we come into contact, to regulate its own relationship with them and to introduce limited cultural changes to them, whether they be of a material or an idealistic nature.

The difficulty experienced by many people in reading and interpreting the messages we receive from nature, from personal contact and from also those of other groups of people constitutes a widespread form of illiteracy.

This form of illiteracy appears to be a trait of the global information society and of the modern economic and technological environment, which tends to withdraw meaning from local identities and create a sense of disorientation. However, where there is an opposite reaction, i.e. a retreat into local identity, this not only worsens the specific qualities in a particular and conflicting sense, but also reduces
man's ability to understand natural and human cultural differences and globally reinforces the stereotypes which can be observed in dominant Western society. This produces fundamental damage to a constantly increasing proportion of the population while they are accumulating knowledge and establishing their own human identity. This effect can also be observed in their quality of life, whether it be opulent or poor.

Paolo Orefice

EDUCOLOGY • EDUKOLOGIJA Slovenia

The term “educology” is a neologism which attempts to cover and put to use the sciences dealing with all kinds of education. The need for it has been triggered by the phenomenon of andragogy, a relatively new and independent science in the area of education which differs from “pedagogy”. If we accept andragogy as a relatively independent science dealing with the education of adults, it follows that the term pedagogy cannot cover all the educational areas, but deals specifically with children and youth. Initiatives and theoretical studies, dealing specifically with the education of the elderly – “gerontagogy” – have also been emerging.

According to Pastuovic (1987: 11-14) “educology” is a general science of education. It is not “the summing up of various kind of knowledge on particular issues dealing with education, it is a new combination, a sur-summative integration of the existing cognition in education”. It examines the phenomena in education in their wholeness, while every other single area of education examines particular branches (sub-disciplines) – pedagogy, andragogy, gerontagogy etc. These particular sciences, examining various aspects of the phenomenon of education make it possible for a system of educational disciplines to develop. Educology is a concept defined as a totality.

The Slovenian author Franc Pedicek (Pedagogy 1992), who placed the science of education into the structural-systemic matrix of the overall macro-system of science, defined it by two sorts of parameters: a/ the scientific levels, as follows: logos (science), episteme (branch/discipline), techne (profession), pragma (doctrine), praxis (ares), and b/ the segments of reality: nature, man, society. These parameters are valuable for “educology” and for its sub-disciplines. This is particularly important to make harmonised research possible. In this system, adult education, or andragogy, is being seen as an equally important part of the (meta)theory – or science of education – as are its other parts, such as the science of education and the education of children and youth or pedagogy (in the narrower sense of the word).

Such theoretical attitudes have been penetrating the pedagogical theory very slowly and have been so far considered as visionary.

Zoran Jelenc

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FOLKEOPLYSNING Denmark and Nordic countries

Folkeoplysning (Popular enlightenment, Popular education) goes back to religious and popular movements in the 19th century. It consists of some pedagogical methods; a particular vision of man and of knowledge and learning. Schooling in democracy and active citizenship is an important part of it. These ideals are based on dialogue and co-operation and on the concept that people shall educate and enlighten themselves by themselves. It is non-formal education.
The assumption is that every human being has an enormous developmental potential that can be released in the right learning environment. The preferred learning method is sharing knowledge with others and thus expanding it. The goal is professional and personal development, discussing in groups, respecting the rules of good communication, letting everyone speak when his/her turn comes.

Folkeoplysning is performed by folk high schools and study associations, in Finland also by municipal adult education centres, in Denmark also by NGOs and day folk high schools. These activities are free and open to everyone, with no exams, but many possibilities to learn about general culture. An ever increasing number of activities are special ones directed towards socially excluded, physically, mentally or socially handicapped people, immigrants, adults with a low basic education, dyslectic people etc.

In general the state pays 50% of the costs, and participants the rest, except for special activities. About 25% of all adults in the Nordic countries participate every year in the general education courses in folkeoplysning.

Arne Carlsen

FRAMEWORKS OF KNOWLEDGE • ARBRES DE CONNAISSANCES France

The “arbres de connaissances” initiative is based on two principles:
• Qualifications are a means of exclusion
• Everyone has a bank of theoretical and practical knowledge.

The initiative is centred on three key ideas: diplomas or certificates (“brevets”); logos (“blasons”) and frameworks (“arbres”).

The certificates provide evidence of basic knowledge and skills which are clearly identified and which can be very diverse (ability to speak English, how to repair a television, ability to speak in public etc.). They are awarded to individuals after a test that can take very different formats (questions, simulation exercise, evidence from competent experts etc.). The certificates obtained by an individual are organised in chronological order and referred to as a “personal curriculum”.

The curricula are grouped together with a specially designed software program and are then referred to as the “arbre de connaissance” or “framework of knowledge” representing the collective capital of theoretical and practical knowledge of a group, a company, a class, a region etc. This group is then referred to as a learning community (“communauté de savoir”).

• The framework or tree also structures an individual’s curriculum to produce a logo (“blason”).
  The logo’s characteristics give an instant overview to its owner of his or her skills in the context of a specific community.
• The initiative also provides for the existence of four “files” (“banques”):
  • the certificate file contains a description of the skills represented in each certificate and the test necessary to obtain it;
  • the training file offers practical information on training organisations that provide tuition for each certificate;
  • the “coat of arms” file contains all the logos of members of a community;
  • the profile file sets out ideal characteristics to indicate to the community a specific demand for a particular type of skill.

This system even encompasses a specific currency for transactions and evaluations: the SOL (Standard Open Learning Unit). The learning community effectively determines the value of different certificates in relation to their position in the framework and requests in the “profile file” etc.
This initiative has been used on an experimental basis in very diverse communities: companies, schools, local neighbourhood groups, voluntary organisations, etc. and is currently evolving towards the notion of “skills framework” (arbre de competence).

Pierre Freynet

Reference

FREE EDUCATION • FRIUNDERVISNING Norway

The term “friundervisning” = free education, appeared in 1864, when students from the University of Oslo founded an organisation for the promotion of academic knowledge to the general public, a philanthropic initiative called Oslo Studenters Fri Undervisning.

The educational activities were voluntary and free of charge. Later on, several friundervisningar were established in Oslo and other parts of Norway, the first one kept its name, Friundervisningen i Oslo, for many years. In 1948, the different divisions formed an association, later called Studieforbundet Folkeuniversitetet. The association has kept its close contact with the universities in Norway, but it has abandoned its philanthropic role and the academic popular education tradition. Today, friundervisning is organised as ordinary adult education, and is no longer cost free.

However, like most adult learning in Norway, it is still voluntary. And when we divide adult learning into formal, non-formal and informal categories, friundervisning belongs to the non-formal group.

The term friundervisning is no longer part of modern terminology, and the former friundervisning divisions are today called Folkeuniversitetet (The Folk University). The name reminds us of the origin and the attachments to the universities, and this adult learning association is also dominant in the field of decentralised studies at the college- and university level in Norway.

Sturla Bjerkaker

LEARNING PROCESS Italy

In literature, the learning process can have two meanings: one refers to the subject and its evolutionary dynamics – in our case, the adult –, the other refers to the method of educational action. It is necessary to recognise that in education geared towards adults, there is a particular focus on the relationship between the first and second meaning.

This relationship is of fundamental importance: it provides coherence to the educational action, it assures its innovative character and offers it superior guarantees of success. It is obvious, in fact, that reference to educational dynamics within the subject allows the educational methods to be highlighted with the objective of being functional and, on the other hand, allows for proposed methods to be “adjusted” to real and particular characteristics of the subject being developed in order to implement reliable changes, aimed at the subjects themselves.

In this instance, we are not going beyond the first of the two meanings (for the second, please refer to those subjects in the glossary relative to educational methods). When speaking of educational processes in the adult years, it is necessary to call upon nature and the clarity of the factors that preside over changes within the adult who in turn, presents his own particular psychological profile in a specific social and cultural context.
The nature of such changes is in keeping with the cognitive field, which everyone has available for the representation, interpretation and transformation of reality. This field operates across cognitive and non-cognitive procedures and moulds itself in relationship to cognitive connotations shared by social and cultural groups. This means that the human cognitive system uses logical processes pertaining to the cognitive process, as well as perceptive and emotional processes pertaining to the non-cognitive process. The logical processes as well as the perceptive and emotional ones, however, do not produce a single type of reasoning in anyone, nor do they produce consistent answers to perceptive and emotional questions. As a matter of fact, the human knowledge system corresponds to the individual, social and cultural knowledge system created by an individual during the time lived and within the space inhabited.

The specific qualities of the changes that occur in the subject knowledge system during adult life are affected by bio-psychological traits and social and cultural functions relative to age and its internal phases, from the initial phase of becoming a young adult to the final one of being an old adult. With respect to bio-psychological traits, the adult age presents deep-rooted and consolidated knowledge systems that support the identity of the adult subject. Where social and cultural functions are concerned, the adult age presents selective and defensive knowledge systems in relationship to roles assumed in the conservation and reproduction of the species and the maintaining and changing of the socio-cultural system.

The deep-rooted and consolidated, selective and defensive knowledge system in adults is, in this instance, obviously a simplified definition of a very complex and articulated situation. It confers peculiar connotations to the educational process for this age: its recognition is at the basis of "centralisation of demand" in adult education. Such demands cannot take methods or technicalities of education, or policies and education tools into account.

Paolo Orefice

References

THE LEARNING SOCIETY

The learning society is a concept reflecting the tenor of the age, although there were earlier books about the topic (Hutchins, 1970; Husen, 1974; Boshier, 1980), but there is little agreement about its meaning. Since learning is basically an individual process it cannot be taken literally, it must be seen as a representation. Does it represent an ideal or a present reality? At least three interpretations of the term are possible: the first suggests it represents an ideal and the other two a reality. None of these are mutually exclusive.

As a utopian ideal, Ranson (1994) reflects the ideas of Hutchins, although he does not cite him, and his perspective is drawn from initial education. Ranson suggests that there are: presuppositions behind the learning society, of a new moral and politically democratic society; principles underlying it based upon citizenship and the process of practical reason; purposes at the level of self (a quest for self-discovery), at the level of society (in learning mutuality) and at the level of polity (learning the principles of participative democracy).

As a social reality, Beck (1992) has suggested that modernity has reached a stage of reflexivity as a result of rapid change into society. This is epitomised in the fact that individuals in society have become more free of the social structures than ever before and are able to act back upon them and shape them. In this whole process they are continually forced to learn and to adapt to the social changes that are occurring. The learning society has occurred as a result of the social structures and without the educational process being significant to its emergence (see also Giddens, 1990).

Thirdly, in a consumer society, education has become a commodity to be sold in the market place, with other learning packages such as compact disks and the world-wide web, since education and other
forms of learning materials have been recognised as wealth producers. Consequently, the learning mode has become part of the lifestyle of aspiring groups who can purchase symbolic goods (Featherstone, 1991).

Peter Jarvis

References

LIFELONG LEARNING

The term “lifelong learning” has entered the British educational vocabulary only very recently and is used rather loosely to cover all forms of post-compulsory education including family education, community education, traditional adult education, further and higher education and continuing professional development. It is not a technical or legal term with precisely defined meaning but rather a cultural term denoting a new paradigm. It represents a shift away from the notion of provider-driven “education” towards individualised learning. It is part of the wider late twentieth century process of individualisation. It lays greater emphasis on the individual’s learning experience with a correspondingly reduced responsibility for the education provider. This is reflected in the introduction of “individual learning accounts” with financial contributions from the individual learner, the State and, when appropriate, an employer. These accounts will be available for individuals to develop their lifelong learning in ways which best suit them.

Lifelong learning also undermines the previous progressive nature of the education system whereby one progressed up an educational ladder from stage to stage. Lifelong learning recognises more clearly that someone who has a doctorate in one field (say engineering) may be studying ab initio in another field (for example learning a foreign language from the basics). It therefore requires a coherent and comprehensive national framework of credits and qualifications which can be accumulated throughout life, in almost random order, to replace the older progressive structure of staged awards.

Roger Fieldhouse

MEDIA LITERACY • MEDIENKOMPETENZ

The concept of “Medienkompetenz” is still new in German (Adult) Education. It is similar to the English concept of “media literacy”. It is considered a key concept within the transition process towards the information society. The teaching of “Medienkompetenz” is seen as a primary task for social policy. “Medienkompetenz” has a significance for individuals and society in a number of areas. The four most important are:

• The individual “media biography”, i.e. the ability to understand and reflect on the significance of media for one’s own development.
• The mass media, i.e. the ability to understand the ways the mass media work (e.g. TV).
• The media practice, e.g. the personal computer, its use and interaction with the individual.
• The media pedagogy, i.e. the use of media in pedagogical processes.
As the media are of far-reaching significance for everyday life in the industrialised society, German debates on educational issues are increasingly elevating “Medienkompetenz” to the status of a basic qualification - alongside reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Teaching “Medienkompetenz” is increasingly becoming a task of the educational system as a whole and takes place within the framework of lifelong learning.

In adult education, “Medienkompetenz” stands for the following skills and abilities:

- access knowledge: the ability to use and decode the media, to transfer media experience,
- ability to select: to possess a knowledge about relevance criteria and structures,
- orientation ability: to distinguish between reality and its (idealising) representation in the media,
- critical distance: the ability to judge and weigh up media developments, to check the usefulness for individuals or society of what is technically feasible,
- operating ability: knowledge and skills in dealing with the media for communication purposes; ability to handle the elevated speed characteristic of the media,
- aesthetic perception: ability to understand pictures and perceive sequences,
- ability to integrate the media and media communication into existing social networks and reflect on the social consequences of the use of the media.

The teaching of “Medienkompetenz” is quite new in Germany. Today, there are only few computer laboratories and cabinets in schools or AE institutions: teacher training or the software development for media supported learning are still in their infancy. The debates centre on media competence as being relevant to the fields of educational policy, law (copyright, protection of young people), economy (offers of media services) and society (trend of individualisation). In Marl (North Rhine-Westphalia) a “Centre for media competence” was established. The nationwide professional association of educationalists DfGE (German Society of educational science - its members virtually include the totality of educationalists in Germany) is devoting its congress to be held in March to the subject “Mediengeneration” (media generation). First experience with the teaching of “Medienkompetenz” will be presented on this occasion.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference

NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION • VORMINGS- EN ONTWIKKELINGSWERK The Netherlands

Deliberately organized activities to assist a process by which people manage to develop an individual identity and a conscious place for themselves, and can handle their own opportunities in social relations and dealings independently, by reason of:

- increased knowledge and insight
- testing their own opinions and feelings against those of others
- improvement of skills and powers of expression.

Willem Bax

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Popular education is a socio-educational movement that, in the case of France, was created in the second half of the 19th century (see creation of the League of Education in 1866). Its primary objective is to enable everyone, in particular those from the least privileged socio-cultural groups in society, to take advantage of all aspects of citizenship, through the dissemination of knowledge - literature, history and sciences - which, until that time, had been reserved to an elite.

The Popular Front of 1936, the Resistance and Liberation marked the beginning of a second impetus, with the emergence of new associations (Youth Hostels, People and Culture, Rural Clubs, Youth and Culture Clubs, etc.), the purpose of which is to combat inequality and obscurantism by providing education and culture to everyone. It was also just after the Second World War that a partnership was created with the state. This partnership was based, among others, on a system of approvals and the allocation of resources (subsidies and the supply of civil servants). Since that time, efforts on behalf of youth have been considered a priority and “adult education” has taken on a concrete form in the training of trade union activists and popular education executives.

The State-association partnership was further strengthened in the 1960s, under the 5th Republic, in the context of systems in favour of social promotion ("Youth Executive Leave" and "Agricultural Collective Promotion") and with the creation of places of consultation or joint management (Cultural Development Commission of the Commissariat on the Plan, High Committee on Youth and Education, Youth and Popular Education Co-operation Fund).

The creation of the State Secretariat of Culture in 1959, and above all, the promulgation in 1971 of the law on vocational training, although they reflected a kind of victory of the ideas supported by the popular education movements, nevertheless weakened their position:

- in cultural actions, André Malraux’s policy favoured the creation of ambitious facilities and direct encounters, without educational mediation, between a public and works;
- in the area of training, the Delors Law gradually brought about the appearance of a genuine market and a validation system based on the model of initial education.

With the increasingly common phenomena of economic and social exclusion, the associations of popular education were often asked by the authorities, throughout the 1980s, to participate in design and experimentation. Later, they were asked to participate on a more restricted basis by limiting themselves to implementing training-integration schemes aimed at people in difficulty (young people who have left the school system without any qualification, the long-term unemployed, etc.).

Today, organisations related to popular education represent around 17% of the 700,000 associations that exist in France. Some of these are combined in national federations and/or inter-association entities. They are involved in several different types of activities that are related to cultural mediation, local development, vocational training, and education for citizens and intercultural learning. They have gradually become involved in new approaches, such as monitoring projects, networks of players, reciprocal exchanges (of knowledge and/or services) and self-training.

Corinne Baudelot and Jean-François Chosson

References
De l’éducation populaire à l’éducation permanente - Les associations face à la loi de 1971 dans le champ de la formation (1994), Peuple et Culture/Injep, Paris
The term “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” signals both a significant development in the history of German adult education and a particular understanding of the aims and methods of adult education.

The term “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” was first used in Germany in the late 1970s/early 1980s. Usually, the expression used was that of “Reflexive Wende der Erwachsenenbildung” (the reflective turning point of adult education), implying by that a historical dimension. Fifteen years earlier, in the mid-1960s, another turning point, the “realistic” one, had taken place in adult education ("realistische Wende der Erwachsenenbildung"). This expression referred to the function then attributed to adult education to lead to the acquisition of qualifications by broad sections of the population following the awareness of an existing “Bildungsnotstand” (“educational emergency state”) in Germany. After this realistic turn, adult education was no longer free, indifferent or non-committal, but became a part of the educational system organised by the state as the “quartaere Bildungsbereich” (forth sector of education).

The term “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” was subsequently coined in adult education to mark the dissociation from this earlier concept. Emphasis was now laid on the necessity for individuals to keep a critical distance from societal developments and to become aware of their individual stages of development. “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” therefore is closely linked to the rising paradigm of “biographisches Lernen” (“biographical learning”), to the learners’ centred view of adult education and to the increasing use of the term “Aneignung” (“appropriation”) in the place of “Lernen” (learning).

“Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” emphasises the role of the learning individual and the critical distance to be kept from the idea of growth and, in general, from goals set from outside, as well as the chance offered by adult education of experiencing one’s own individual development.

The term “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung” is still in use in Germany. In many instances, however, it is today replaced by “Selbstgesteuertes Lernen”. This term is again more function-orientated but at the same time, as was the case with “Reflexive Erwachsenenbildung”, the learners’ view plays a central role. In practical terms, the “Reflexive Wende” had little impact on education. It rather marked a phase of theorising and social criticism within the educational debate on the perception adult educators have of themselves.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference

Self-education (auto-formation) means teaching oneself, without a teacher, autonomously. This does not mean teaching oneself alone. Autonomy involves being open to others; it is averse to both solitude and fusion. In general, people teach themselves with others, although the latter do not act as teachers. Individual self-teaching is stimulated by collective self-teaching. The latter does not have a negative effect on the former.

Self-teaching appeared at the same time as continuing education, and grew increasingly popular in the 1970s and 1980s. It takes two forms with adults: experiential self-teaching, which is specific to adult training; and academic training, which is also found at school and at university. Adult academic training has certain specific characteristics.

The purpose of academic training is to acquire knowledge that is not built by the person who is learning. It is rather taken from the outside world and takes two forms. In the case of “heterotaining”, the teacher teaches students within an educational system. In the case of self-training, the person who is learning teaches himself, either within the scope of an educational system by making use of the latter's resources (this is the case for individualised training or for Personalised Teaching Workshops - “APP”), or autonomously (as was the case with self-taught people in the past). Among young people, “heterotaining”
is more common. Self-training is playing an increasingly important role among adults. It is better suited to their desire for autonomy. Another advantage is that it offers greater practical flexibility. In particular, it is easier to make use of experiential self-training than is the case with “hetero training”.

Experiential self-training and academic self-training are not mutually exclusive, they are complementary. In most cases, experiential self-training by itself is insufficient. Yet, conversely, academic training fuels and clarifies life experiences, thus contributing to enriching experiential self-training. As a result, it must be closely based on the adult’s experiences, otherwise it may appear to be a mere exercise of style.

Guy Bonvalot

References

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING • SELBSTGESTEUERTES LERNEN


The German debate is characterised by a certain confusion of terms, due to the German tradition in the field of education on the one hand and a widely developed system of institutional learning on the other. In German the terms “Selbstorganisiertes Lernen”, “Selbstlernen”, “Selbstverantwortetes Lernen” and “Selbsständiges Lernen” are partly used as synonymous of “Selbstgesteuertes Lernen”. All these terms are used to denote learning processes that are directed by the learners themselves in a lifelong perspective. This approach is strongly favoured by political bodies and the economy. Here the intention to shift the responsibility and cut down on expenses plays a major part. The concept is mainly criticised and questioned by those coming from an institutional background of adult education. The development of concepts, discourse, criticisms and open questions concern chiefly the following points:

• Learning to learn: if individuals are to direct learning processes themselves throughout their lives, they must be able to learn on their own - which must be learned, too. Learning on one’s own or in groups: “Selbstgesteuertes Lernen” does not just mean learning on one’s own; it includes concepts and procedures concerning a combination of individual learning with social forms of learning.
• Learning through the media: the new media enable learners to shape their learning processes autonomously in a variety of ways. In this context it is important to note that how to use the media must also be learned, and how to define the possibilities and limitations of the media in the learning process.
• Media as “virtual teachers”: the pedagogical standards of many teaching media leave a great deal to be desired. Concepts have not been developed as yet, a sense of quality still does not exist. It would also be necessary to further develop the integration of media supported learning and social learning in a systematic way.
• The changing role of the institutions: educational institutions are under pressure to increase the amount of counselling, orientation and support whilst reducing at the same time the amount of educational provision. It will also be necessary to integrate self-study into the educational programmes offered by institutions.
• Categories of non-intentional learning: there are no criteria or categories for recording and accrediting learning in incidental contexts (reading papers, watching television etc.). In this connection, the approaches developed by the SOCRATES project APEL towards a recognition of learning
results will assume some importance. Altogether, the tendency in German-speaking countries towards “Selbstgesteuertes Lernen” in both the practice and science of adult education seems irreversible and is related to the general shift of emphasis from the teachers to the learners.

Ekkehard Nuissl

References

STANDORTFAKTOR WEITERBILDUNG

Growing importance is being attached to the concept of “Standort” (location) at the policy level in Germany (and at international level). It forms part of the standard vocabulary of regional development policy in economic terms. Continuing Education is increasingly mentioned as a “Standortfaktor”, implying by this that Continuing Education contributes significantly to the quality of a particular location.

The concept of “Standort” is a relatively recent one in the educational debate. The socio-geographical space of education is usually referred to by terms like “Lernen vor Ort” (“learning on the spot”), “flächendeckender Angebot” (area covering provision), “Stadtteilarbeit” (work in the town quarters) or “Kooperation” (co-operation) at local and regional level. Nevertheless the concept of “Standort” is increasingly referred to within Continuing Education in order to make Continuing Education a recognised policy issue (or make it remain such) by arguing economically.

The debate about “Standort” is a result of increased competition. “Standorte” are mostly valued in economic terms: for example, in many regions of the world, the markets are bigger than in industrialised countries but offer considerably less spending power. Continuing education is increasingly being viewed as one of the factors determining the advantages or disadvantages of a particular region. In the industrialised countries behind this notion lies also the notion that “Man does not live on bread alone” whereas in other regions continuing education is primarily viewed as an instrument for creating a qualified workforce.

It is also true that in Germany the acquisition of vocational qualifications is the most prominent aspect of continuing education in relation to “Standort”. The idea is that continuing education makes the market more attractive for entrepreneurial investments. A sufficiently high level of qualifications among the local residents is indispensable for enterprises involving new technologies, new products and new future-orientated structures, if skilled staffs are not to be recruited from outside only.

The debate on continuing education as “Standortfaktor” has shown the contradictory character and the limitations of such a regional development policy. Seen from a societal angle, qualifications can by no means prevent unemployment or provide a skilled workforce over an extended period. Qualifications do not create new jobs but do presuppose their existence.

The integration of continuing education into regional development policy as a “Standortfaktor” is being discussed in Germany mainly with the purpose of facilitating the participation of people, reaching consensus among those involved, reducing social tensions, enabling a cultural and social dynamic and making life more agreeable in general. It is obvious, though, that educational policy and continuing education have often sacrificed their own identity and terminology to the integration into a development policy determined by the economy.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference
The concept concerns first and foremost the learning activity going on in study circles and activities organised by the voluntary adult learning organisations. The concept studiearbeid is linked to the part of our written language called nynorsk. "Nynorsk" has its origin in the Norwegian countryside, especially in the western and the northwestern parts of the country, and forms a contrast to the strong Danish influence in the written and spoken language of Norway.

As a consequence, "nynorsk", "studiearbeid" and learning became closely linked in organisations working with young people and with the development of the Norwegian language, Noregs Ungdomslag og Noregs Mållag. Studiearbeid indicates an activity, a learning process.

The prefix studie- (study-) tells about the theoretic basis. Arbeid (-work) indicates the activity, that the acquiring of knowledge and skills is labour-intensive. Studiearbeid describes primarily a collective learning process, learning within an organised context, often in a circle of members within an organisation. Studiearbeid was often concentrated on organisational theory, languages, literature, cultural issues, music and singing, dancing and other creative, aesthetic topics. It was seen in the context of strengthening the organisation to reach its objectives, which might be to strengthen Norwegian identity.

Studiearbeid is a popular term.

Until today, the concept has been used to express the learning activity registered by the adult learning associations, entitled to government grants.

Today, the concept studiearbeid is disappearing. To the extent that it is still used, it is most often connected to member training within the adult learning associations.

In educational dictionaries, you will not find a definition of studiearbeid.

Sturla Bjerkaker

Vorming is a methodological and didactic branch of education which includes social training and the education of individuals taking into account the environment they live in. It involves intellectual, practical and social learning.

Lucien Bosselaers

"Vorming" can be defined in three ways:

a) As a particular trend or task within education: the acquisition of an individual identity:
   - through the critical evaluation of one's own personality,
   - by contributing to a changing society, both by means of technical qualifications and by critical reflection upon norms and values, and
   - by learning to behave in a responsible manner.
   Exposure to cultural and artistic expressions of society can also play a part here.
   All this has implications for knowledge, skills and behaviour.

b) As a methodological didactic variant within education: social learning.
   This is the learning of individuals in and through their environment, learning in and through reflection upon action, learning with head, heart and hands.
c) As a recognisable function in the education of adults:
   - The institutions for Vorming, Training en Advise-VTA (short-term residential Adult Education)
   - Socio-cultural animation
   - Associations (NIVON - Nederlands Instituut voor Volksontwikkeling en Natuurvriendenwerk - Dutch Institute for Adult Education and the Environment), women's and pensioners' organisations, etc.
   - Types of work and social movements with a different main objective (for instance, the environment).

In summary: it is concerned with the function of education as specific activities with regard to content and method, in a variety of settings, in short: the educational function.

The Beraadsgroep Vorming (Consultative Group on “Vorming”) will act as a national centre which can undertake the highlighting of developments relevant to the field, stimulation of developments in theory, method and policy in this area, the organisation of conferences and encouragement of publications, and which can function as a contact and information point.

Willem Box

Reference

WORK-BASED LEARNING

Work-based learning is a descriptive term that can refer to any of the following:
   a) Learning (in general) that can be gained within a work context
   b) Structured or planned methods or programmes (such as Action Learning) for the training and development of employees in the workplace
   c) Learning activity that takes place “on-the-job” rather than within formal contexts such as training courses
   d) Most recently, accredited educational offerings delivered on-site or in-house.

In the early 20th century, emphasis in the workplace was on training more than learning. The necessity of specialised task performance would determine the “training needs” of the industrial employee. The systematic efforts of F.W. Taylor to rationalise labour epitomise this approach.

From the 1950s interest grew in management training and development. Often this was provided through off-site courses in prestigious locations and institutions. Work-based learning, in the form of training, was a more hands-on, bread and butter activity for lower-status employees.

A reaction came from Reg Revans’ “Action Learning”, influential in management development as well as education for adult learners. In essence ‘Action Learning’ is learning by doing, a “real time” learning process by which managers engage in problem-solving in the workplace and test proposals through implementation. There continues to be much interest in related themes such as learning styles.

In the 1990s the concept of the “learning organisation” has become prominent. Among other things this has promoted the value of learning and has led some employers to fund learning activities chosen by the employee. Some work organisations have created in-house degree programmes and their own universities (for example, Motorola).

In recent years Marsick and Watkins (1989) have advocated the significance of informal learning (experiential, and non-institutional) and incidental learning (an unintentional by-product of other activity).
in addition to formally delivered learning (training and education). They have looked both at the type of work environment that supports informal and incidental learning, and at qualities of individuals that enhance their capacity to learn in the workplace.

The State appears to be taking a renewed interest in work-based learning. In the UK the government continues to promote the Investors in People programme, and its vision of the “Learning Age” emphasises the importance for the economy of improving both the quality and quantity of workplace training.

Peter Jarvis

References
2. Strategies and policies

2.1. GENERAL CONCEPTS

ACCESS United Kingdom

Although the objective of widened access was always part of the adult education agenda, the term “access”, with a specific meaning, emerged in the late 1970s, particularly after the Government offered funding for a pilot Access programme to increase educational opportunities for ethnic minorities. This was part of a wider policy intended to reduce racial tension. The concept and the term “access” very quickly became generally popular. It still implied targeting, but the targets were widened to include other forms of disadvantage (including gender, class and disability) as well as ethnicity. Indeed “access” became increasingly popular with all sections of the adult population as a “second chance” if they had missed out on leaving school.

The term was used in two distinct ways: broadly to describe widened participation in all forms of adult education and more narrowly or specifically to refer to Access to Higher Education Courses which enabled people from disadvantaged groups with little or no formal qualifications to progress to higher education after one year’s full- or part-time study. This was to some extent a variation of the “open door” to higher education promoted by the Open University and other forms of open learning since the early 1970s. It made extensive use of new technology and distant learning and has led to an expansion of further and higher education in the 1980s and ‘90s and their shift towards a mass post-compulsory education system.

But there are contradictions within the concept of “access”. Whilst it is frequently used to mean widened participation in all forms of adult education the Government has often interpreted it more narrowly to mean more participation in education and training for the workforce, or for work. Also the rhetoric of access has sometimes been contradicted by social policies and financial measures which have operated in the opposite direction, erecting barriers to access. Thus many people from disadvantaged groups continue to see education as something for others - not relevant or available to themselves.

Roger Fieldhouse
CONTINUING EDUCATION • EPIMORFOSI Greece

Any organised and sustained communication designed to bring about learning for the benefit, and adapted to the needs, of persons who have completed the continuous cycle of initial education. Its twofold aim is the personal enhancement of the adults and their active participation in social, economic and cultural development. It is commonly known and often used as:

- Popular education (Laiki Epimorfosi),
- Continuing education (Diarkis Epimorfosi),
- Adult education (Epimorfosi enilikon).

It is provided by public and private institutions and it is regarded as being non-formal education. Since the mid-1980s adult and continuing education is more job-oriented because of the increase in unemployment rates.

The first attempt to address the problem of educating adults in Greece was made in 1929, when the government of Eleftherios Venizelos was attempting to address the major problem of adult illiteracy. Evening schools were established by law with a view to providing elementary education to those who exceeded the legal age for attendance at primary school. In addition, agricultural schools were established that operated on Sundays and holidays; they could be attended by people of any age. But the adverse socio-economic conditions of the time did not allow these institutions to function for long.

The events of World War II and the subsequent civil war in Greece were not conducive to the development of an adult education system even though, in 1943, an Adult Education Service was established for the first time at the Ministry of National Education (MNE) and, in the same period, significant efforts were made by resistance organisations to educate and train farmers in particular.

During the 1970s an effort to update the institution of adult education began through the creation of the Directorate for adult education, within the MNE, which in 1983 was upgraded by law to a General Secretariat for Adult education. Its policy is focused on preventing and combating social exclusion and its major aims are:

- to combat illiteracy and develop basic education and skills,
- to provide vocational training mainly for the unemployed,
- to provide socio-cultural education.

Magda Trantallidi

References

THE DEMOCRATIZATION OF ADULT EDUCATION

The democratization of adult education is both a normative requirement recognized internationally and an essential condition for equitable and sustainable development. A definition of this notion needs to take into account these two dimensions: the step-by-step recognition of the right to learn throughout life and the growing acknowledgment that basic social conditions are needed for people to enjoy such a right. Yet, the right to learn is also more than a right, it is a tool for development, while equitable and sustainable development is also a condition for the implementation of this fundamental right.

Already in 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirmed in its article 26 that “everyone has the right to education”, but the right of adults to education were to be explicitly recognized much later. The “Declaration of Persepolis” adopted at a UNESCO meeting held in Iran in September 1975
stated that adult literacy was “a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development”. One year later, the UNESCO General Conference adopted the Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education at its 19th session, held in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1976. The Recommendation underlines the priority to be given to “educationally underprivileged groups”, it indicates improvements to be made in the legal status of programmes and proposes a framework for policy developments, but it falls short of declaring the educational rights of adults.

It is only in the eighties that such a right began to be officially recognized. The Paris Declaration on the Right to Learn adopted in March 1985 at the Fourth International Conference on Adult Education stated clearly, for the first time, that the “Recognition of the right to learn is now more than ever a major challenge for humanity. The right to learn is the right to read and write, the right to question and analyze; the right to imagine and create; the right to read one’s own world and to write history; the right to have access to educational resources; the right to develop individual and collective skills. The Paris Conference reaffirms the importance of this right (...) as one of the fundamental rights”. (UNESCO, Paris 29/3/85).

Five years later, a “World Declaration on Education for All” and a “Framework for Action to meet the Basic Learning Needs” were adopted in Jomtien, Thailand on 9 March 1990 by the World Conference on Education for All (WCFA) convened jointly by UNESCO, UNICEF, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Bank (Inter-Agency Commission, 1990). This Declaration represents a new enlarged consensus and a declared commitment by the convenors and member States to ensure that “the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults are met effectively in all countries”. Recognizing that more than “one third of the world’s adults have no access to the printed knowledge”, the Jomtien Declaration proclaims that “every person - child, youth and adult - shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs,” that “basic education should be provided to all children, youth and adults”, that “the basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems”, and that “knowledge and skills that will enhance the learning environment of children should be integrated into community learning programmes for adults”.

And finally, the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education, a UNESCO intergovernmental assembly convened in Hamburg in July 1997, has reaffirmed officially the right to education and the right to learn throughout life: “Recognition of the right to education and the right to learn throughout life is more than ever a necessity; it is the right to read and write, the right to question and analyze, the right to have access to resources, and to develop and practise individual and collective skills and competences” (Hamburg Declaration § 12). “Adult education thus becomes more than a right; it is a key to the twenty-first century. It is both a consequence of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society” (§ 2). The Hamburg Declaration has prolonged the recognition process in another significant way by declaring that education for all implies also the acknowledgment of cultural diversity: “Adult learning should reflect the richness of cultural diversity and respect traditional and indigenous peoples’ knowledge and systems of learning; the right to learn in the mother tongue should be respected and implemented. Adult education faces an acute challenge in preserving and documenting the oral wisdom of minority groups, indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples” (Declaration §15).

A growing number of countries like Brazil, Namibia, Norway, Québec/Canada, South Africa and Sweden have already sanctioned such a right either in their fundamental laws or through their adult education legislation, but the concrete recognition of this right in national legislations by Member States has yet to be fully documented.

The recognition of such a right for adults is critical. While there is a growing demand for adult education, the disparities between those who have access and those who don't are also growing: those who benefit seem to be those who are better off educationally and economically. A similar and general trend regarding women is also observed, in particular regarding the right to continuous education and training at the work place or for occupational purposes. The Hamburg Conference insisted that “it is essential that the recognition of the right to education throughout life should be accompanied by measures to create the conditions required to exercise this right” (Declaration §9). “The right to education is a universal right of all people. While there is agreement that adult learning must be accessible to all, the reality is that many groups are still excluded, such as the aged, migrants, gypsies and other non-territorial and/or nomadic
peoples, refugees, disabled people and prison inmates. These groups should have access to education programmes that accommodate them within an individual-centred pedagogy capable of meeting their needs and facilitating their full participation in society. All members of the community should be invited and, where necessary, assisted in participating in adult learning. This implies meeting a diversity of learning needs” (Agenda for the Future, §43). There is therefore a need to counter the polarity in the participation of adults to organized learning which reinforces existing socio-cultural inequalities, by creating adult learning structures and lifelong learning environments that can help to correct the prevalent trends. Key questions (see Hamburg Agenda for the Future, §17-20) need to be addressed: How to stimulate, both in their daily life and work contexts, the expression of people's demand for learning? How can the conditions of adult learning be improved? How can we overcome inadequacies in its provision? What kind of measures and reforms should be undertaken in order to achieve greater accessibility, relevance, quality, respect for diversity and recognition of prior learning?

The issue of democratization of adult learning goes much beyond the issue of accessibility and of the recognition of the diversity of learning needs and aspirations. It concerns also the participation of adults in the decisions regarding the adult learning policies and programmes impinging on adult learning, their representation especially at the managerial and decision-making level of educational programmes. Indeed the key factor for the implementation of the right to learn has proved to be the vigilant participation of the public as collective actors.

“The challenges of the twenty-first century require the creativity and competence of citizens of all ages” (Agenda for the Future §11). “In the course of the present decade, a series of conferences has focused world attention on key international problems. Beginning with the World Conference on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990), they have included the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), the World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993), the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), the World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995), the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II, Istanbul, 1996) and the most recent, the World Food Summit (Rome, 1996). At all these conferences world leaders looked to education to release the competence and creativity of citizens. Education was seen as a vital element in a strategy to nurture the sustainable development processes” (Agenda for the Future §6).

But this essential condition for a real development could not be implemented without a true democratization of organized adult learning.

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EDUCATION FOR ADULTS • VOLWASSENENEDUCATIE

The Act of Education and Vocational Training defines Education for Adults as a type of educational provision aimed at encouraging personal development to help adults function better in society through the acquisition of knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes in a manner appropriate to their needs and experience as well as to the needs of society. Where possible, education qualifies for access to the various levels of vocational education as well as for the next higher level of secondary general education or university education. The Adult and Vocational Education Act does not deal with activities at the higher education level, which are covered by special legislation.

The Adult and Vocational Education Act distinguishes the following fields:
• General continuing adult education, aimed at obtaining a diploma identical with diplomas issued by secondary schools for the young. Certificates per subject, sometimes as an addition to previously obtained diplomas, may be aimed for as well.
• Education and training aimed at broad functions in society, corresponding to basic vocational education.

• The teaching of Dutch as a second language
  (1) aimed at mastery of the Dutch language with a view to carrying out functions above the level of unskilled work by those whose mother tongue is not Dutch and who have attained the level of primary education (clause 7.3.2), and
  (2) aimed at mastery of the Dutch language with a view to higher functions by those whose mother tongue is not Dutch and who can function at the middle management level (clause 7.3.2).

Other education and training aimed at social survival skills.

Willem Bax

Reference
Wet Educatie en Beroepsonderwijs van 31 oktober 1995 (Education and Vocational Education Act of 31 October 1995)

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN ADULT LEARNING

Though the development of intellectual co-operation and technical co-operation for the development of adult education has been a long tradition since the fifties, the issue of international co-operation in this field in the context of the fast-growing globalization of trade, communication and governance, is gaining a new momentum. International co-operation in adult learning includes three dimensions: a growing number of initiatives for intellectual co-operation, the importance of financial co-operation and technical assistance and the emergence of new supranational decision-making centers. Finally an overview of international co-operation in this field cannot ignore the role of the UN family over the last five decades.

1) International intellectual co-operation
Through hundreds of conferences, seminars, meetings, publications and periodicals, thousands of decision-makers, researchers and practitioners in the vast field of adult learning are exchanging views every year on different issues, are exploring the way others proceed in their different contexts, looking at ways to reinvent relevant innovations in their own country. These invisible national active networks are playing a low-profile but critical role in the current development of policies and programmes. These initiatives undertaken by universities, regional institutions, and NGOs are being supported by multilateral and bilateral co-operation agencies. These initiatives are monitored and reported through many academic and institutional periodicals, but the diversity of the field have made it impossible until now to do so in a systematical manner. (*)

An additional challenge is being created by the apparently contradictory needs in respect of local differences and of global trends, both in international exchange and in transnational studies. The debate on comparative adult education is far from being closed among researchers: how to meet the need for global monitoring and international inquiries, while trying to avoid comparisons on the basis of arbitrary standards and norms?

2) International assistance
In view of the inequalities in the availability of learning opportunities within the different regions of the world, important assistance has and is being given to developing countries by co-operation agencies in

*) A network of 90 documentation centres is now being built in co-operation with the UNESCO Institute for Education to answer this need.
order to develop programmes, to support innovation and build needed infrastructures. However, though adult basic education and adult learning were recognized as real priorities during the seventies and the eighties, the structural adjustment programmes and the historical positions of the World Bank, by putting investment in child education in competition with contributions to adult learning, had severe impact during the last decade on the amount of financial support given to countries for this work. It is only recently, after the mid-review made of the implementation of the Action Plan adopted at the Jomtien World Conference on Adult Education in 1990 (where it was recognized that adult basic education has remained a marginal sector) and after the 1997 Fifth International Conference on Adult Education that the investment in adult learning is being reconsidered and redefined in complementarity with basic initial education. The field of adult learning is now receiving increasing support again. A new trend is emerging whereby a shift from an entire governmental provision to a mixed enterprise one is taking place. This is involving many non-governmental partners on one side and, on the other side, within the public sphere, a more multi-ministerial approach where not just the education ministry but also the ministries of health, environment, agriculture, etc. are developing adult learning programmes as part of their new “active” policies.

3) The emergence of new supranational decision-making centers
In many regions of the world, new regional supranational decision-making structures have emerged over the last decade. These have become important instances where key decisions are being made impinging on national adult learning policies. A well-known example is the new programs for adult learning introduced in the overall human development policy of the European Commission of the European Union, programs supporting innovations and exchanges both within the context of vocational training and in the context of general education. The same is true with the Organization of African Unity which adopted in June 1998 the CONFINTEA proposal for an African Paulo Freire Literacy Decade, and with the other Latin American or Asian regional economic co-operation institutions recognizing the need for continuous vocational education and for non-formal education. The OECD also decided in the mid-nineties to make a priority of lifelong learning and has since introduced a new program called “the adult learners” and is now requiring all its Member States to report regularly on adult education provision and participation.

This increasing role and influence of supranational instances are pressing the active actor of civil societies, until now mainly involved at the national level, to be more and more involved in doing advocacy work and representation work at the international level, as can be observed, for example, in the European region through the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA) and in the other regions by members of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE).

4) The role of the UN family in international co-operation for the development of adult learning
The main agency responsible for the development of adult learning within the UN system is, of course, UNESCO which has been closely associated with the development of adult education since the first world conference on adult education held in 1949 in Elsinore. The role of UNESCO in adult education is known. UNESCO is playing a normative role by adopting recommendations, declarations and plans of action, and by associating itself with other agencies in common initiatives like in the case of the Education For All Plan of Action adopted jointly by UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, and the World Bank. UNESCO is also promoting the exchange of information on practice, policies and innovation. Through its different conferences and publications, it is performing an important function in the promotion of international co-operation and exchange. At UNESCO, the unit responsible for adult education is the UNESCO Institute for Education.

What is true within a national context also holds at the international level. Adult learning can no longer be the sole responsibility of a single ministry of education and neither of a single UN organization even though it is specializing in education. Adult learning is becoming part of the policies and programs of many other organizations: of agricultural policies through the Agricultural Extension at FAO, of training and retraining at ILO, of health promotion and education at WHO, of environmental education at UNEP, of active labour policy at the World Bank, of poverty alleviation program at UNDP, of empowerment of
women at UNICEF and UNIFEM. The same trend of adult learning cutting across many sectors of activities can be acknowledged also in other multilateral organizations like OECD, the European Commission, and the Commonwealth Secretariat. One of the hallmarks of the 1997 Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTÉA) was precisely the involvement of many multilateral agencies who thereby made it a truly comprehensive international conference on adult learning.

CONFINTÉA has, indeed, given a new impetus to international co-operation by registering the commitment of Member States and of international organizations, both intergovernmental and non-governmental, to promote regional and global co-operation, to strengthen the exchange networks in the different areas of adult learning and to create an environment conducive to international co-operation. This new vision led the participants of the Hamburg Conference to ask for example, that all co-operation projects in all sectors of activity be assessed from now on in terms of their explicit direct purposes as well as for their contributions to adult learning and human development and to the priority they give to the strengthening of local expertise.

Though local and much diversified, the advancement of adult learning is also a universal movement. The international context is as tangible as the national one. The right to learn and the recognition of cultural differences are also being promoted or hampered at the international level. Too many international interests are involved for adult learning to be considered only and mainly at the local or national level. The struggle through international charters of the right to learn gives tools that are being more and more used at local and national levels to ensure the sustainability of innovative experiences. Unilateral, global, top-down decisions, however, are still too weakly counterbalanced. But this is precisely the reason why international reciprocal co-operation is currently growing both at the regional and the world level. The right to learn will not be enjoyed by all men and women in their different contexts without growing alliance and mobilization to share resources and increase investment.

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LEARNER ORIENTATION • LERNER-ORIENTIERUNG Austria

The focus of learner orientation is the individual adult learner and no longer the adult and continuing education institution.

The individual orientation replaces the principle of participants' orientation (Teilnehmerorientierung) which concentrates on bringing participants into adult and continuing education institutions. This development is due to the fact that educational systems are not focused enough on the learner. Learner orientation deals with all aspects of the individual with regard to the readiness and the ability for learning. This "individualisation" of learning leads to self-organisation and independence of learning. The concepts of self-organised and self-directed learning are not only accepted but also implemented, for instance by using the method of language learning through exchange in the "Tandem". The provinces of Vienna and Upper Austria introduced individual support for further education and training of blue- and white-collar workers and unemployed people through the Bildungskonto (educational account). Individual learners can choose their course from different providers.

The fast development of new information and communication technologies is itself promoting self-learning. Infrastructures for self-learning are improved automatically when the Internet is used as a single learning media and for face-to-face teaching. The municipality of Vienna and other cities have installed servers for education and training to be used by schools, universities and adult and continuing education.

In cities, learning conditions are improved, for instance within the concept of "learning city". Special attention is drawn to educational guidance and information. In several Austrian regions, regional associations of adult education have set-up educational guidance services via the telephone and the Internet. The learner orientation concept is a timely development in education and training oriented towards uniform groups of people. There are disadvantages in the fact that adult and continuing education targets only
people who express very clearly their desire to learn. The emancipatory concept of adult education which aims at providing learning opportunities for people who did not have the chance to complete their education in the formal system could easily be lost.

Gerhard Bisowsky, Elisabeth Brugger

References

LIFELONG LEARNING POLICY United Kingdom

The origins of the notion of “lifelong learning” can be traced back in British policy at least as far as the Ministry of Reconstruction Adult Education Committee’s assertion (1919, p. 5) that adult education “is a permanent national necessity, an inseparable aspect of citizenship, and therefore should be both universal and lifelong”. From the 1920s until the 1960s, however, adult education remained the central concept. When this was displaced in the 1970s, it was by terms such as “continuing education” rather than by the more expansive “lifelong” language of Faure.

“Lifelong” terminology began to assume a central role in policy debate only in the 1990s. Concerns began to emerge in the 1980s that with the changing structure of the economy, traditional patterns of education and vocational training were no longer adequate to national needs. The UK was seen as lagging behind competitor nations in key areas of educational and skill attainment. This led to such initiatives as the rapid expansion of higher education (from 15 to 33 per cent of the school-leaving age-cohort over the years 1986-96). But with periodically and regionally high levels of unemployment during the 1980s and early 1990s, awareness also grew of the close relationship between work and learning. Studies of the incidence of training in the workplace showed that it was considerably less common in the (increasingly preponderant) small and medium enterprise sector than in the (declining) large enterprise sector.

Government remained resistant, however, to strong policy initiatives in this area, chiefly on grounds of cost. Its solution was to encourage the idea of learning as a personal and organisational investment. The first developed statement to this effect came in the Conservative government’s Lifetime Learning (DfEE 1995), essentially a response to the European Commission’s white papers on Growth, Competitiveness, Employment and to then imminent European Year of Lifelong Learning. The term Lifetime Learning represented a distancing from the European lifelong learning agenda. In particular, the European emphasis on social exclusion and the role of social partners was played down, while individuals’ own responsibility for ensuring their own competitive position in a learning market was strongly emphasised.

With the return of a “New Labour” government in 1997, lifelong learning moved to the centre of policy debate. Within weeks of its election, the government announced its commitment to strengthening lifelong learning through a “university for industry” and a system of “individual learning accounts”. Although significant policy initiatives, these can be seen as continuing the Conservatives’ approach of placing primary emphasis on individual responsibility for learning. Efforts to develop a more expansive agenda (see especially NAGCELL 1997) have proved unsuccessful to date. Emphasis is now given, however, at least in rhetoric, to the need to overcome “social exclusion”. Government’s role is now seen as facilitative, encouraging a “learning culture”. Finance and provision is seen as coming largely from individuals and from employers.

The current government’s key policy paper to date in this field is the green (consultative) paper, The Learning Age: A Renaissance for a New Britain (Cm 3790, Feb. 1998), although lifelong learning was also

John Holford

References

ADULT EDUCATION POLICY

Policy-making may be viewed as a process which begins as unmet needs are transformed into effective demands requiring actual responses. This is the political part of the process. When the translation of needs into demands makes responses necessary, the responses are articulated as policy. The policy-making process then determines which issues will be responded to with which types and amounts of resources.

Adult education policies require an awareness of the needs, demands and resources (actual, potential and required) for the education of adults and the collectivities through which they function. This awareness also implies knowledge about their inter-connectedness, the processes and institutions involved, and the environment in which they function.

According to our understanding there is a need for a supportive quality-oriented policy-model for:

- Facilitating the acquisition of socio-political competence which guarantees active participation in building up a democratic state. In order to behave as a citizen one needs knowledge about the functioning, changing and developing mechanisms of society; skills to analyse the concrete situation, estimate its positive and negative sides, find out the reasons for such an unsatisfactory situation; readiness to participate in discussions, uphold one’s standpoint, speak and discuss clearly and confidently.
- Leading to professional competence. Education should provide knowledge which is necessary in the context of the modern economy. For example: marketing, financing, enterprising, etc.
- Preparing for change. If continuous renewal and change are to become social norms, if initiative is to be valued and not punished, as in a totalitarian society, then there is a great need to be prepared for all those changes.
- Favouring self development and self improvement.

The making of rational policies requires knowledge about the educational needs of the adult population about ways of linking demands and responses.

Talvi Märja, Merle Lõhmus

References
Territorial/local model (T E R M O) means a theoretical, methodological and institutional approach, which interconnects educational supply and demand with other needs. It responds to problems relating to everyone's quality of life and the global development of local society in a socio-economic and cultural micro-area.

It departs from the presupposition that the natural learning processes are sufficient in themselves to structure and develop their relationships towards various needs and relative areas of experience of all. The educational action, within both formal and informal education, steers adults towards Lifelong Learning. It cannot escape responsibility for such complex and correlated needs and, for its own part, from contributing to their knowledge. For this reason, the interconnection of needs and problems derived from it at local level corresponds and connects and converges with decentralised interventions in search of relatively integrated and complex answers. Educational intervention does not itself escape this logic of problem correlation and the integration of answers in the same area: its presence, like other forms of intervention, is indispensable in qualifying human resources to which the development of local society leads.

Tuscany's integrated regional projects are moving in this direction. They are funded by the regional government in the context of the regional and local development plan and are linked to "inter-institutional networks" of a district, community or larger area with the objective of reducing educational delays present in the area.

To this end, the Institutional Pedagogy of Adults (IPA) promotes educational actions and services in the area which, through converging work, make use of the various institutional and associative subjects under various headings involved in solving the priority problems of the most disadvantaged groups in society. Included in these are social marginalisation and juvenile hardship.

The "integrated territorial model" approach to local community education seems to assume increasing strategic importance in the evolution of contemporary society. It tends to respond to at least three interdependent development categories.

In the basic structure of today's complex society, i.e. the local community, it guarantees the organic and coherent responsibility of the multiple and intricate aspects under which dynamic evolution is understood. Adult education is part of this complexity.

It is the response to the globalisation of the economy, technology, culture and knowledge because it does not reduce the local human potential of individuals. It does not level out the meanings and forms of life in regional society, nor does it maintain discriminations and inequalities. On the contrary, it raises human potential and adds value to it, guaranteeing local differences room for creative expression and access to other diverse forms. In summary, the territorial model of adult education starts from local educational processes and enriches it with open-ended knowledge.

The third advantage is the contribution it affords to a more advanced level of participation for individuals and local communities, rather than just to the management of public education. The regional model goes beyond representative democracy and supports a participation which is more direct, more conscious and more critical for the solution of local problems.

Paolo Orefice

References
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION • BEROEPSONDERWIJS

The Act of Education and Vocational Training of 31 October 1995 defines vocational education as provision aimed at theoretical and practical preparation for the carrying out of professional activities, for which training leading to a professional qualification is necessary or desirable. Vocational education furthers both the general education and the personal development of participants and contributes to the functioning of society. Vocational education corresponds to preparatory vocational education and general secondary education. Higher education is not covered by the law.

Willem Box

Reference

Wet Educatie en Beroepsonderwijs van 31 oktober 1995 (Education and Vocational Education Act of 31 October 1995)

WELL-BEING • WELZIJN

A situation in which the members of a group experience satisfaction in the totality of the diverse individual and common facets of their life. Minister Klompé, who was at the roots of the policy for well-being in the Netherlands gave the following tentative definition in 1968:

Welfare denotes a state of well-being in which the individual members of a group consider that they are generally satisfied with the more important aspects of their communal and private lives. There is an active and passive side to this satisfaction. The passive side is the satisfaction of reasonable desires, such as clean air, pure water, recreational facilities, and the active side involves that satisfaction arising from self-realization, the development of one's own personality and opportunities for self-expression. One of the major tasks of a welfare policy, according to Dr Klompé, would be to accommodate adequately the urge to find independence, to participate and display initiative.

At the beginning of the 90s the aim of the welfare policy could be said to be as follows: The strengthening and maintenance of independence. This meant that people should not be allowed to get into a downward spiral of marginalization and minority-forming and eventually end up in a hopeless situation, characterized at that time by a very low level of participation and by dependence on all kinds of provision.

Willem Box

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2.2. LEGISLATION AND MEASURES

“Kooperation” is a key term in German, which has a very positive meaning but is nevertheless little put into practice. “Kooperation” means above all voluntary collaboration. The focus on “Kooperation” in educational policy was engendered by the desire to systematize and plan the proliferating (“Wildwuchs”) field of further education in Germany after the War. Thus, numerous laws on further education impose “Kooperation” as a condition. Four main types of “Kooperation” are sought for and can be found in practice:

• "komplementäre Kooperation": Each partner brings into the co-operation what the other lacks, for example particular modes of provision, a solid target-group orientation, technical equipment etc.
• "subsidieare Kooperation": The partners here co-operate in order to accomplish common tasks in a more efficient and effective way, for example in advertising, continuing training, counselling activities etc.
• "supportive Kooperation": The partners who co-operate are institutions with utterly different tasks and missions who nevertheless support each other for a particular purpose by means of mutual financing, sponsorship etc.
• "integrative Kooperation": The co-operation here concerns the contents; it consists in collaboratively developing offers, projects, concepts etc as joint products.

Usually “Kooperation” goes beyond the continuing education sector by involving people and institutions from the cultural, economic and political sectors as well. Typical is co-operation between adult education institutions on the one hand and enterprises or museums on the other.

“Kooperation” always implies its opposite, “Konkurrenz” (competition). “Konkurrenz” is increasingly being discussed today. Most often it is rashly associated with money and market, though in further education, in particular, it can by no means be confined to the exchange of goods. “Konkurrenz” also exists in the mind where it concerns aims, values, ideas, people, recognition and feelings. “Konkurrenz” exists also between pedagogical objectives, methodological approaches and possible contents of learning. As regards the priorities set by society, there is an increasing “Konkurrenz” between the educational sector and other areas - for example leisure industry and media culture. Each “Kooperation” is necessarily connected to some form of “Konkurrenz” or has been initiated by it.

The benefit of “Kooperation” cannot be quantified (and never could). Often the “expenditure” (on communication, arrangements, acquisition, friction etc.) exceeds the profit (for example recognition, efficiency, durability, money raising etc.). Usually one fails to notice the longer-term outcomes of “Kooperation” such as contacts, networks, community of interests, partnerships, innovations, interdisciplinary activities. Practice has also shown that “Kooperation” always affects the internal structure of the institutions involved, calling into question parts of it or even introducing changes. It is obvious that “Kooperation” usually requires the willingness to compromise.

Due to its heterogeneous and subsidiary structure, adult education in Germany needs increased “Kooperation” to be implemented by means of appropriate procedures (regional co-operation councils etc.). Many attempts at co-operation, however, are failures, owing to unfavourable financing conditions and the anxiety of potential partners to make their mark. Nevertheless “Kooperation” represents an area of focus within the educational policy sector in Germany.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference

Kooperation - Konkurrenz, No. 1/1996 von DIE - Zeitschrift fuer Erwachsenenbildung
Adult education in Austria has reached a high organizational level which, together with the regulation of adult education by law, has led to institutionalization.

The Austrian educational system is highly regulated by laws. Adult education belongs to the non-formal system. The 1973 adult education law made adult education develop as a self-reliant pillar like schools and universities.

The law which promotes adult education defines it as dealing with the following topics:
1) political, social and economic education,
2) vocational education and training,
3) life-skills,
4) second chance education.

The state fixes financial support for adult education. Adult education is supported by the provinces ("Bundesländer") and the municipalities. State support of adult education is much smaller in comparison to the support given to the institutions of the formal system. Adult education has to rely mostly on participants’ fees.

The adult education providers have formed associations at federal and at state level. A common expression of these associations is the “Konferenz der Erwachsenenbildung Österreichs” (Conference of Austrian Adult Education) which represents adult education at the Ministry of Education. The “Konferenz” represents the institutions of the general and vocational sector of adult education and the public libraries. Scientific libraries, museums and cultural institutions do not belong to this area of adult education.

The participation of many institutions contributes to the transparency of the educational system. Special laws provide for the adaptation of adult education to the strongly regulated educational system. Certificates from the acknowledged institutions are not accredited by the state and as there is no acknowledgement of prior learning, no equivalent integration into the formal system exists.

Gerhard Bisovsky, Elisabeth Brugger

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JOB ROTATION SCHEME

Lifelong learning tool, combining education, industry and labour market as well as non-formal and formal ways of training and education. It has been in action since 1990 in Denmark.

A group of employees leave their job for a period in order to get training and education and, finally, better qualifications. They are replaced by unemployed workers recruited by the regional Public Employment Service. These substitutes get work experience that might lead to permanent jobs.

The model relies on educational grants and educational leave

Arne Carlsen
LEARNING ENTITLEMENT

The sum of an individual's rights to public funding for educational purposes. It does not normally take the form of a sum of money to be allocated explicitly to the individual however, since much public spending on education goes directly to schools and other institutions without any allocation to particular individuals; the associated duty, set by society, is that the institutions meet certain educational needs, albeit with considerable freedom in determining how they do so. At the same time the law often determines the conditions on which individuals can use the facilities concerned, among them admission requirements and the payment of charges.

A more limited part of the individual's learning entitlement takes the form of grants made explicitly to him or her for educational purposes, also subject to certain conditions, namely student grants and loans and other payments towards study costs.

The principle is that the state will not be responsible for funding types of provision which serve the specific (notably job-related) interests of individuals and employers and whose costs can be attributed to their beneficiaries. In other words the state is responsible for educational pathways leading to adequately broad and lasting initial vocational qualifications which equip holders for whole families of occupations and thereby lay the foundations for stable and lasting participation in the world of work.

Willem Bax

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A Lifetime of Learning, Discussion Document, Velddirectie Beroepsonderwijs en Volwasseneneducatie, Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen, 1993, pp.9,40.

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Since 1989, much work has been devoted to the formal education system in Romania. This has taken the form of a new law, which contains a chapter on continuing education, and in particular, vocational training.

Since 1989, formal education has become more flexible and decentralised, giving more space to private initiatives that are adapted to the needs of individuals and to the market. Adult education has evolved accordingly: more varied forms of activities are now needed by an increasingly varied job market. Adults choose continuing training and education to acquire the new knowledge required by society.

The number of institutions that promote adult education has also expanded. Unfortunately, these institutions do not work within a system and there is a lack of co-ordination between the various players. A continuing education system for adults needs to be well correlated at national level to the new educational goals, and to the development of specific programmes in order to ensure that educational actions involve the totality of the population.

Romania has a law on education (No. 84 / 1995 and Ruling No. 36 /1997 modifying Law nr. 84) and a law on vocational training (in the process of being promulgated). Neither of them covers all of the problems relating to continuing education, as a separate system directly connected with the educational system and to the labour market.

From this perspective, Romania needs a law on continuing education that will promote individual improvement and the development of Romanian society through the assimilation of Romanian and universal cultural and scientific values, and by the creation of an economic, political and democratic milieu to educate Romania's citizens. From this legislative perspective, continuing education must provide the resources and solutions that favour the acquisition of the knowledge that is necessary for professional improvement. The goal is to achieve more active integration of the individual into the labour market, or to
fill in the gaps in the formal educational system. This legislative proposal must ensure that continuing education is financed both at national and local level.

Ileana Boeru

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**PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE**  
**Flanders**

This system gives employees the right to educational leave so that they can follow courses. Paid educational leave is permitted for courses recognised by an ad hoc committee. It can concern professional or general training.

There are legal requirements concerning:

- the duration of the leave
- access to it
- modalities depending on the size of the enterprise
- disagreement and disputes
- allowances during paid educational leave
- protection of the employee.

Lucien Bosselaers

**PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE**  
**• BILDUNGSURLAUB**  
**Germany**

"Bildungsurlaub" is the paid leave of employees for participation in continuing education activities. Legal regulations on "Bildungsurlaub" exist in twelve of the sixteen "Laender" of the Federal Republic of Germany - partly under a different name ("Arbeitnehmerweiterbildung" /"Continuing Education for Employees" in North-Rhine-Westphalia) - but there is no law on "Bildungsurlaub" valid throughout the Federation. In these regulations it is laid down to what extent employees are entitled to "Bildungsurlaub", which educational activities may be recognised by which procedures, and in which way the costs are split. The German laws on "Bildungsurlaub" are related to the recommendations on "Bildungsurlaub" by the "International Labour Organisation" (ILO) of 1975.

The various laws, which differ widely, include additional restrictions concerning participation requirements, financing and possible course contents. Usually - but always with one or more exceptions in one or more of the "Laender" - they contain the following regulations:

- Employees are entitled to five working days of "Bildungsurlaub" per year which may be accumulated over two years (i.e. ten days maximum within two years),
- Possible course contents are those relating to political and vocational education. Those relating to general or cultural education are usually excluded.
- The educational activity and its provider must be "recognised" in accordance with the procedures laid down by the laws in the "Laender" concerned.
- Employers are obliged to release employees to take paid "Bildungsurlaub" if there are no obstacles of operational order to that.
- The "Bildungsurlaub" can be taken en bloc or may be split in specified ways laid down in detail in the regulations of the "Laender",
The first laws on “Bildungsurlaub” were approved in 1974, the last one dates from 1995. During this period of “Bildungsurlaub” practice and legislation there have been numerous conflicts with employers, many cases were taken to the Labour Court tribunal following “Bildungsurlaub” claims, and various amendments, each having a different tendency, were introduced to the laws. The “Bildungsurlaub” reality of today, however, can hardly stand up to the claims made twenty years ago to bring closer to further education those groups who were unaccustomed to educational activities. Only about four to five per cent of those entitled to “Bildungsurlaub” nowadays take advantage of this opportunity, and more often than not the better educated are among them (for example university graduates attending language courses abroad). Most of the “Bildungsurlaub” activities fall under the heading “vocational training” whereas the original intention was to promote mainly political and non-vocational education. The debate on “Bildungsurlaub” has lost much of its liveliness. It is currently limited to the context of labour market strategies discussions. A Federal Law standardising the “Bildungsurlaub” regulations is still unlikely for the foreseeable future.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference

QUALIFICATION STRUCTURE • KWALIFICATIESTRUCTUUR The Netherlands

Like vocational education, adult education is to have its own qualification structure. It will have a number of distinct educational levels which in general will be entirely in line with the educational levels set out in the qualification structure for vocational education. Unlike vocational education, however, adult education is not concerned with qualifying participants for a particular occupation. The goal is to provide a solid link to vocational and secondary education. Equally important is that the participants learn how to function well in society (self-reliance).

The four adult education programmes are:
- Secondary general adult education (vavo: mavo, havo, vwo)
- Programmes focusing on general personal and social skills
- Dutch as a second language
- Programmes focusing on self-reliance.

Basic Qualification
The minimum level needed for personal development and stable participation in society.

Such a norm exists already for people above the age of 18: this is the training obligation placed on adult citizens claiming unemployment benefit whose educational level is such that they have little prospect of obtaining steady employment. An important task of the Regional Training Centres is to put the obtaining of such a starting qualification within reach of everyone.

Willem Bax

Resources
Education and Vocational Education Act of 31 October 1995, clause 7.2.4
The Swedish study-circle is a pedagogical structure, described by Oscar Olsson at the beginning of this Century. It consists of a small group of people that meets on a voluntary basis over a period of time to carry out organised learning or cultural activities. There may be no recognised leader, or one of the participants may be recognised as a leader, or there may be a qualified leader or teacher. Since 1912 state grants have been issued to study-circles, and since 1947 study-circles organised in the framework of study-associations have received grants to meet the cost of study-circle leaders, material and administration. There are annually around 320,000 study-circles.

Arne Carlsen
3. System and sectors

3.1. THE GENERAL SYSTEM

Traditionally, adult education institutions and organisations in Germany have had little regard as teaching and learning centres. This is mainly due to the fact that they are small scale organisations often dependent on larger organisations (communities, enterprises and associations such as churches or trade unions) and to the commonly held view that the aims of human education, such as the development of one's personality, are incompatible with some of the features that characterise organisations, for example hierarchy, order giving, efficiency. This is why for many years there has been no research into the way adult education is organised or institutionalised, nor has much been known about its momentum.

Adult education institutions have only become a focus for attention in the last few years. They were expected in fact to run more efficiently in economic terms, although the organisations that had been hitherto financing adult education, such as communities, churches, trade unions and enterprises, cut down their shares while competition between institutions of various kinds in a rapidly expanding sector of further and continuing education was increasing. In many cases, it became apparent, however, that adult education agencies lack the characteristics of independently acting enterprises.

All this caused “Organisationsentwicklung” to start in many places, most often in connection with external counselling and with the emphasis laid on pedagogical issues. “Organisationsentwicklungen” are mainly concerned with

- creating a company profile concerning the aims and objectives of the institution and the way it is perceived by others and by itself (corporate identity);
- creating steering bodies within the company, such as controlling systems, public relations, marketing;
- creating a cost accounting system within the company enabling entrepreneurial decisions;
- introducing electronic data processing systems and internal company data networks (intranet);
- developing specific criteria for human resources development at company level (including recruitment, remuneration, sanctions etc.);
- creating procedures at company level concerning participation and decision-making that make it possible to weigh up pedagogical and economic criteria and objectives, taking into account the interests of the institution.

Not only the educational establishments themselves but also the associated organisations and associations draw currently on “Organisationsentwicklung” and this tendency is likely to become even stronger.
It can also be observed that the concepts relating to “Organisationsentwicklung”, which stem from the world of trade and industry, are currently being transferred in many diverse ways to adult education institutions (especially to non-profit-making organisations) under the name of “Paedagogische Organisationsentwicklung”.

Ekkehard Nuissl

References

ADULT EDUCATION STRUCTURES Russia

Adult Education represents an educational sector, including formal and non-formal education, for persons considered adults. In Russia it includes:

1. Formal education structures:
   • general secondary education in evening secondary schools;
   • vocational education in evening and part-time vocational schools and vocational courses;
   • specialised secondary education by correspondence and in evenings classes organised in specialised correspondence secondary schools and in evening and correspondence departments of the ordinary secondary schools;
   • higher education by correspondence and in evenings classes delivered in special correspondence institutes and in evening and correspondence departments of higher education establishments;
   • post-graduate continuing training for people holding higher or secondary specialised degrees organised in the institutes and departments of continuing education and training.

2. Non-formal structures:
   • vocational and general education, professional training courses in centres of lifelong education, in centres of adult education, in different training courses organised both by the state, non-governmental structures and television.

Victor P. Rybalko, Serguey I. Zmeyov

Reference

ASSOCIATIONS • VERBAENDE Germany

The number of adult and continuing education institutions in Germany is extremely high. Those recognised and subsidised by the State (Federal Government and Governments of the “Laender”) alone amount to more than 2,000, among which are over 1,000 community adult education centres. Similarly numerous are the institutions of industrial enterprises, companies and chambers. Finally, there is a multitude of private and commercially run institutions. In a number of major cities such as Hamburg, Berlin, Leipzig, there are between 300 and 600 institutions of this kind.
Because of their multitude, nearly all adult education organisations have joined together in a number of specific “Verbaende” in order to focus their interests and accomplish shared tasks. Usually these associations form part of a hierarchical structure, similar to that of the German federal system: the institutions from one “Land” join together in a “Landesverband” (regional association). These, in turn, join together in a “Bundesverband” at national level. Where these organisations benefit from public funds, the “Landesverbaende” have a much stronger position than the respective “Bundesverband”, since education and culture lie within the responsibility of the “Laender”, including the allocation of funds.

In Germany, there are the following major groupings of adult education institutions:

• “betriebliche Erwachsenenbildung” (company-based adult education): this has grown greatly in importance during the 1980s. Training centres placed within companies are grouped together with external education services in “Bildungswerken der Wirtschaft” (educational associations of the economy) at regional and national level;

• “Volkshochschulen” (community adult education centres): they are linked to the liberal bourgeois roots of “Volksbildung” (popular education) in the way they conceive their role and their methods of work. “Volkshochschulen” exist in nearly every major community. They are funded by the local governments and offer educational provision at local and regional level, mainly in the field of continuing general education;

• “gewerkschaftliche Erwachsenenbildung” (trade union adult education): this continues the tradition of workers’ education in many respects concentrating mainly on political and vocational education. The associated “Verbaende” work in close connection with the trade union organisations.

• “konfessionelle Erwachsenenbildung” (religious adult education) provided by the Catholic and Protestant Churches. This continues the tradition of last century’s socially committed liberal movement to promote education. There are two large “Verbaende”: the Deutsche evangelische Arbeitsgemeinschaft fuer Erwachsenenbildung (DEAE – German Protestant Association for Adult Education) and the Katholischer Bund fuer Erwachsenenbildung (KBE – Catholic Association for Adult Education);

• the commercial adult education institutions: since the 1980s there has been a huge increase in the number of institutes and in the range of education provision by commercial organisations. These institutions concentrate on health education, electronic data processing and foreign languages.

These big groupings are supplemented by a number of different “Verbaende”, for example the institutes for distance learning, the grouping “Arbeit und Leben” (Work and Life), the residential adult education centres, the chambers of industry and commerce, alternative adult education establishments, higher education institutions, foundations of the political parties, and the media. A considerable part of adult education still takes place outside such associations: training and continuing education activities within large organisations, for example in the sports sector, social work and large professional associations. The perception of these teaching and learning activities as an integral part of the further education sector has only recently become manifest.

The “Verbaende” are traditionally “closed”. There is little co-operation between them, as they consider themselves as competitors, for public funds in particular. There has also traditionally been the assumption that the interests and educational activities of the various associations are incompatible with each other. The cutbacks in public funds and the weakening of the large organisations (decrease in members and financing) have entailed some structural changes which will be of great importance to further and continuing education. The impact of co-operation at European level is also manifest. Particularly remarkable is the fact that in hardly any other of the European countries similar structures of further and continuing education can be found.

Ekkehard Nuissl

Reference
Activities to improve the group identity and cohesion of an existing
- local community (territorial community work),
- social entity (categorial community work) or,
- societal function (functional community work versus work within a work organization),
with the aim of stimulating people to make a stand for the improvement of their welfare. Welfare work is subsidized according to the Welfare Act.

The basis of this Act is that responsibility should be located with the authority which is as close as possible to the citizen, namely the municipal authority.

Willem Bax

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DISTANCE ADULT EDUCATION

In Spain, distance adult education at non-university level is of major importance, especially in the form of “teaching by correspondence”, using mainly a written support. In 1979, the State created a “National Centre for Distance Basic Education” (Centro Nacional de Educación Básica a Distancia - CENEBAD). Its purpose was to teach the equivalent of the General Basic Education (EGB) of that time. It also fulfilled the same purpose for children of school age who, for duly justified causes, could not attend school in the normal way. In all cases the diplomas given were the “Certificate of Education” (Certificado de Escolaridad) and “School Graduate” (Graduado Escolar).

State Centres of General Basic Education named by the above-mentioned National Centre (CENEBAD) could be assigned to the programme at the proposal of the respective Provincial Inspectors Offices.

From the academic year 1983-84, and according to guidelines received for the functioning of the centre, the CENEBAD started a process of restructuring to become:
1. A Centre for Distance Education, both for adults and children of compulsory school age in Spain and abroad.
2. A National Centre for the Support for Continuing Adult Education, for Adult Education Centres, institutions, etc., providing them with teaching material and other types of material.
3. A Technical-Didactic Resource Centre, through which it would be possible both to provide support with new technologies material and to serve as a model and as a source of learning for the teaching staff.
4. A basic level research centre, both for distance and classroom education.

The CENEBAD ceased to exist in 1993 and the Ordinary Centres assumed its responsibilities. However, the CID EAD “Centre for the Innovation and Development of Distance Education” (Centro para la Innovación y el Desarrollo de la Educación a Distancia) was set up. This Centre promotes the application of new information and communication technologies to non-university training processes, especially among adults.
The requirements for distance studies are: to be over 18, to have previous accredited studies or to pass an entrance exam. At present the following types of study are offered: English, vocational training, secondary education, university orientation course, French.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

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FURTHER EDUCATION

Legislation in 1944 created a three-tier public education system in England and Wales, consisting of primary, secondary and further education (Scotland had separate legislation). “Further education” encompassed all education (except university “higher education”) beyond compulsory schooling. Local education authorities became responsible for securing the provision of adequate full- and part-time further education in their areas. They were expected to do so either by making provision themselves or by working in partnership with other providers. In practice much of this “further education” consisted of provision for immediate school leavers up to the age of 18, and this was increasingly how the term was popularly used. But in the legal framework created by the 1944 Education Act, all publicly funded or subsidised adult education provided by the local education authorities or other bodies such as the universities or Workers’ Educational Association was included in the term “further education”. It was subject to further education regulations enforceable by government inspectors. It took place in the daytime and evening; it was both full-time and part-time, vocational and non-vocational.

But despite this all inclusive meaning, popular usage of the term narrowed it to predominantly vocational courses very largely for young people and concentrated in further education colleges, as opposed to the predominantly non-vocational “adult education” provided outside further education colleges. However, by the 1980s these artificial distinctions had become blurred and in 1992 “further education” was redefined by new legislation to encompass more clearly defined vocational and qualification courses, access to higher education courses, adult basic education, and skills acquisition for those with learning difficulties. These were the areas of adult education considered most suitable for public funding by the Government. Less valued recreational, social and leisure provision was designated “adult education”, with less financial security.

Roger Fieldhouse

INTERDEPARTMENTALITY, COMMISSION FOR

Interdepartmentality means between departments. In Adult Education it means linking each ministry or department’s AE provision to optimise resources and ensure that adults have overall, broad and complete information concerning all the resources available to them, although with the strictest respect for each other’s areas of competence. The complexity and diversity of adult learning that society now requires is
giving rise to multiple types of training that only the various ministries and departments are in a position to provide to adults.

The same may be said at a European level. If we look at the programmes managed by the various Directorate Generals of the Commission of the European Communities, we find that many of these offer adult education. The Final Declaration (July 1997) of the Fifth World Conference on Adult Education states that “within governments, adult education should not be limited to the Ministries of Education; rather, all of the other ministries should participate in its promotion; inter-ministerial co-operation is essential.”...

In Catalonia, for example, the Inter-departmental Commission on Adult Training “… has as its basic objectives the promotion and co-ordination of activities concerning adult training.”… (Catalonia Law on Adult Training, Section 3, Chapter 4, Article 25) (3/1991, 18 March)

The Commission has the following functions:

a) Prepare the Inter-departmental Adult Training Programme.
b) Promote and co-ordinate adult training projects.
c) Assess the results obtained from the overall programme.
d) Any other functions that the government assigns it.

The Inter-departmental Adult Training Programme includes activities to be carried out by each department, either individually or in conjunction with other departments.

The Inter-departmental Adult Training Programme includes training offered to adults by each department and the inter-departmental plans that satisfy the demand for training come from each area.

The Inter-departmental Commission for Adult Training includes the general directors directly concerned with the basic areas of adult training, and other people involved in this area, in accordance with regulations. (Section 3, Chapter 4, Article 27)

The Inter-departmental Programme currently includes 8 areas:

a) Instrumental Basic Training.
b) Other Formal Training programmes.
c) Language training.
d) Training for trainers.
e) Training and retraining for professionals.
f) Training for the labour market.
g) Training for leisure and culture.
h) Training for groups requiring specific programmes.

The departments that are most directly involved are: Social Welfare, Labour, Justice, Culture, Education, Interior, Environment, Health, Agriculture – Livestock and Fishing, Trade – and Consumption and Tourism.

Rosa María Falgas

MUNICIPAL ENTERPRISES FOR SOCIO-CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT •
DIMOTIKES ETERIES POLITISTIKIS KE KINONIKIS ANAPTIXIS Greece

These constitute a new form of local government enterprise which is aimed at the conservation of local cultural tradition, the promotion of the conditions and factors which effectively create culture, and at cultural decentralisation. They also aim at regional development to provide an alternative to emigration. They include the following departments:

• Music
• Choral and instrumental music
They also organise annual festivals, local cultural and educational events and conferences. This is an institution which has been developed over the past 15 years, and shows great operational flexibility and effectiveness. Throughout the country there are 65 similar enterprises, some of which are constantly growing and which contribute to the creation of regional “poles” of cultural development. By carrying out project contracts, the enterprises benefit from subsidies from the Ministry of Culture or other public organisations such as Local Government or the Tourist Organisation. In recent years the sponsoring system has also been adopted. These enterprises also work in joint ventures with private or social organisations in order to secure public participation in the cultural and social activities of local government. They suffer from lack of properly trained managerial staff.

Magda Triantallidi

Reference
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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ADULT EDUCATION

The Czech Society for Adult Education (CSAE) was established in 1990 as a voluntary, non governmental, professional institution bringing together those who play an active role in adult education. Its aim is to develop and support adult education and adult learning through the necessary conceptual and legal changes, spread updated information about the theory and practice of adult education, organise lectures, and initiate and maintain cooperation with other institutions, both locally and internationally. The CSAE is a member of the European Council for Adult Education and of the International Council for Adult Education, situated in Canada.

So far, the CSAE has organised more than one hundred lectures delivered by leading local and foreign experts. Its representatives have taken part in national and international conferences and symposia. The CSAE has been associated in a number of national and international research projects, as, for instance, when the CSAE experts joined the international Delphi Project co-ordinated from the University of Leuven in Belgium.

In 1994, representatives of the CSAE visited the British Adult Learners Week, and prepared two 30-minute documentaries that were broadcast by the Czech Television. Later, the CSAE initiated the Czech Adult Learners Week.

The CSAE is financed exclusively from modest fees from its individual members (there are no institutional members). The organisational structure of the CSAE is as follows: chairman, 5-member board of directors, secretary and general meeting of members.

Pavel Hartl

References
The Hungarian Institute of Culture is a governmental counselling, training and research organisation for community education and non-formal adult education. Due to the wide scope of the institute and to its historical background its impact goes beyond its formal border and it has been one of the most important cultural, social, adult and continuing education agencies in the country. Although it is formally a public body under the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture, because of its extended network and strong links with the society, it has great autonomy and independence.

The institute has its roots in three former organisations: 1) the former Hungarian Institute of Popular Education famous for the four-year long “free education” educational movement for democracy in the post-war period, 2) the national associations of amateur artists also established in 1945, and 3) the Institute of Folk Arts established in 1951. During the period of the hard dictatorship (1951-1956) the communist party and regime regarded the institute as a bastion of cultural propaganda which supported the official cultural policy. However soon the institute started to disagree with the “line” and raised its voice against the humiliation of adult and continuing education. Later in the years of the “soft dictatorship” (1960s-1970s) the activity of the organisation was characterised by the search for innovations and in the ‘80s the institute actively took part in the democratisation of adult and community education.

The recent aims and activity of the institute have been regulated by Statute 1/1992 / I.20/ issued by the Ministry of Culture. Accordingly the institute analyses and promotes cultural and adult educational activities organised by the different kinds of communities, associations, social organisations and community centres; designs and prepares strategic plans to develop better conditions for adult and community education; gives professional advice for new initiatives; gives counselling to revitalise and extend the folk traditions of the Hungarian majority. The activities of the institute are carried out by a stable and qualified professional staff consisting of 70 full and part time experts. The main sections of the institute are the following: Department of Adult Education and Management of Education which is responsible for research on the efficiency of adult and community centres, monitoring the social work processes in adult and continuing education, exploring new financial management in adult education, etc.; Department of Training for Tutors and Adult Educators on Liberal Adult Education which is responsible for examination boards at postgraduate level, management training for facilitators of adult education textbooks, etc.; Department of Community Development which is responsible for promoting the youth self-government movement, community radios, neighbourhood communities etc.; Department for Intercultural and Ethnic Minority Issues which deals with regionalism and Euroregio, relationships between ethnic minority in Hungary and the “mother country”, amateur gypsy artists and associations, social work for gypsies, gypsy folklore research, etc.; Department of Folk Arts which is responsible for courses for folk dance trainers, folksong ensembles, zithergroups, etc.; Department of Amateur Performing Arts which is responsible for training courses for choir conductors, upper level courses for conductors of brass bands, national and international choir and music festivals, etc. An information centre, a library and a videolibrary also operate in the institute, which publishes a magazine called “Szin” (Colour).

Laszló Harangi

THE NATIONAL TRAINING FUND

The National Training Fund (NTF) was established in 1994, within the EU PHARE programme for Human Resources Development. It was set up by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs as an independent foundation, with representatives of the major partners from the field of human resources development on its board of directors. In the years 1994-97, the NTF budget was exclusively covered by PHARE. At present, the NTF is actively seeking further resources.
The NTF is managed by a director and a board of directors (chairman plus 12 members representing 5 Ministries, chambers of commerce, trade unions, industries and NGOs).

The aim of the mission is to contribute to the social and economic change by supporting human resources development and the improvement of management quality in companies and organisations; to contribute to the implementation of lifelong learning by supporting the development of all forms of adult and continuing education; to support the process of European integration.

Within the past four years of its existence, the NTF has focused on the following main objectives: systematic improvement of skills of the existing managers, systematic enlargement of managerial education supply and access, systematic creation of a new culture in human resources development.

For users of educational services and for other partners, the NTF is building up a database, of which the first output will be a catalogue called The Guide of Management Training in the Czech Republic. The NTF has also supported the establishment of The Information Centre for the Development of Management.

In the short period of its existence, the National Training Fund has become an outstanding central point, in which demands and priorities from the main partners responsible for human resources development in the Czech Republic are considered and implemented. It plays an important role in the process of association of the Czech Republic to the European Union and in the development of a learning society. NTF is a co-organiser of the Czech Adult Learners Week (together with the Association of Institutions of AE and the Czech Society for AE).

Pavel Hartl

References

OPEN EDUCATION • ÅBEN UDDANNELSE

Denmark

All adults can return to education and training at all levels, for basic to higher education, part time or full time. Previous work-experience can be given credit for the practical training, in training programmes. The Act on Open Education also makes it possible to organise special courses which combine general adult education and vocational training.

Arne Carlsen

OPEN LEARNING

United Kingdom

The formation of the Open University (which began teaching in 1971) established the notion of “openness” as central in debates about education and learning. The Open University was innovative in method and philosophy. Its use of television and radio as part of distance teaching brought it within reach of a mass audience. It also introduced a system of open access, dispensing with formal qualifications for entry. This - combined with its very success - has meant some blurring in common parlance of the notions of open and distance education. A few educational institutions (such as local authority adult education institutes, and the Workers’ Educational Association) attempted from time to time to use the idea of “open education” in advertising programmes which were open to all members of the community, but it has been difficult to decouple the concept from the idea of distance. The chief exception to this was the
use of the term by some “Open College” networks, most influentially in the North West of England. These played a key role in developing and popularising more open “access” routes into higher and further education.

Efforts were made during the 1980s to extend the virtues of open learning from higher to vocational education. An “Open Tech”, introduced under the auspices of the Manpower Services Commission from 1982, attempted to use distance learning methods in in-company training, particularly for younger workers. This had limited success, although arguably it played a role in making the further education sector more responsive to the rapidly changing needs of industry as the traditional apprentice system collapsed (Temple 1991). It was succeeded in 1987 by the “Open College”. Initially ambitious plans to incorporate television broadcasts proved too costly. The College became little more than a brokering agency for vocationally-oriented distance learning modules, and petered out in the early 1990s.

At the same time, however, a revolution was occurring in open and distance learning provision. From the late 1980s, with the increasing availability of “desktop publishing” technology - and with the increasing pressure to generate income from student fees - many if not most universities and colleges began to seek the supposed economies of scale offered by distance learning. (On the whole, however, these were properly speaking distance rather than open learning programmes.) This growth may enable the new Labour Government’s University for Industry to enjoy more success than the Open College, which it seems likely to resemble in many respects.

John Holford

Reference
Since the 1980s, education systems have reflected a strong theme of quality assurance. In part, this is in response to broader social changes which have seen the public provision of services of all kinds subjected more to market forces and less to state bureaucracy. In education, the shift away from elite towards mass systems, together with wider access to higher education, has brought with it a developing focus upon the mechanisms which ensure that standards of provision are laid down and monitored in a publicly accountable way. So, although there may be no universally agreed single definition of “quality” in relation to different traditions, nevertheless common practices to set, maintain and ensure standards have been widely established (Berdahl 1991).

Quality assurance therefore relates to all aspects of provision, including policy, institutional systems, teaching and learning, management, resources and evaluation. Mechanisms of quality assurance and control have included the measurement of achievement by way of outcomes, performance indicators, appraisal, training, inspection, assessment, audits, documentation, validation, evaluation and so on. Success and retention rates of programmes and institutions, together with the learning achievements of students have been measured, and there is research evidence into the ways in which quality assurance is carried out (Tovey 1994).

Accreditation is also a fundamental mechanism of quality assurance, and has been used to monitor standards of individual staff and student achievement, courses and programmes, and institutions themselves. It has been particularly well developed in the context of the assessment and accreditation of prior and experiential learning (Evans 1992). The unit of academic credit has been widely established as a common measure of individual educational achievement, capable of transfer within and between modular programmes of all kinds. Not only is learning itself accredited, but national guidelines have been established for awarding bodies to be recognised as accredited institutions for the purpose of granting credit for education and training (NCVQ 1988). Similarly, the courses or programmes provided are subject to accreditation with respect to staffing, facilities, curriculum, management, assessment, competence and “fitness for purpose or practice” outcomes, while the accreditation system itself is increasingly subject to national education policy objectives (HEQC 1996).

Peter Jarvis

References
2.  The preparation of a report on the educational needs of the region.
3.  The development of an educational plan which can be used as a general guideline for the planning of educational supply.

The Edufora will be confronted with a significant communication task. A number of local and regional actors is active in the field of adult and continuing education. The EduForum itself is a restricted group of representatives of all different sectors/providers in Adult Education.

Lucien Bosselaers

SOCIALPARTNERSHIP • SOZIALPARTNERSCHAFT

Economic and social policies in Austria are based on social partnership which refers to the co-operation between the State, employers associations and trade unions.

An important precondition of social partnership is the existence of strong and centralist associations which have a high internal legitimisation and are therefore able to commit themselves. These strong associations of the employers and the employees were founded in 1945. Social partnership was at the root of the state philosophy of the Second Republic, when Austria was politically, economically and socially stabilised. The special interest of the social partners in education can be explained by the fact that education is seen as a megatrend. Education is a more and more decisive factor for the development of individuals in an unequal society and is becoming an instrument for control and steering. The interest of the social partners in educational policies concern especially (1) the dual system of education (education and training of apprentices in enterprises and vocational schools) for which the social partners have a right of co-decision, (2) the secondary level vocational schools; in these the social partnership has a special competence concerning curricula and teacher training, (3) further vocational training and adult and continuing education. The social partners co-determine lifelong learning policy and have their own providers: the “Wirtschaftsförderungsinstitut” (WIFI - institute for the promotion of economy) for the employers, the “Berufsförderungsinstitut” (BFI - institute for the promotion of occupations) for the employees, the “Ländliches Fortbildungsinstitut” (LFI - agricultural training institute) of the rural chambers. The labour market service policies are determined by the social partners to a large degree.

Social partnership in education and training guarantees a high level of stability. With the strong economical orientation within the European Union the influence of the social partners in education and training is increasing.

Gerhard Bisovsky, Elisabeth Brugger

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Socio-cultural educational activities for adults include a broad spectrum of cultural, leisure, educational and community-oriented activities intended to enhance personal development, social change or both with an emphasis on increasing welfare. It forms part of the concept of continuing education and has two main purposes:

- the formation of the person, the development of certain learning capacities, self-expression and knowledge in specific areas;
- the promotion of both active and passive participation in art and culture through, for example, artistic activities, educational support of cultural leisure activities, and promotion of cultural events.

This is carried out through four types of organisation:

1. educational associations (associations involved in the socio-cultural advancement of adults)
   An association works primarily for its members. As a result of its step-wise organisational structure (national, regional, local), the main emphasis is on the operation of the local division. An association can orient itself to a certain target group (women, older people, workers, unemployed), or to people with a common sphere of interest (amateur artists, nature, tourism, science).

2. educational institutions (institutions involved in the socio-cultural advancement of adults)
   Institutions offer a varied program in the form of courses and educational activities for the public at large or for a particular target group.

3. educational services
   They are specialised organisations that assist and support adult education in the form of documentation, development of materials, publications, etc.

4. cultural centres
   They offer their premises for educational and cultural activities.

Often socio-cultural adult education is a laboratory for new developments that later on take root in another sector.

Lucien Bosselaers
3.2. SERVICES

GUIDANCE

In the United Kingdom, guidance is available to learners individually or in groups. "Educational guidance" refers to guidance for entry or re-entry to learning or progression. "Careers guidance" refers to guidance for employment. Individual guidance may include assessment and testing as well as providing information or personal interviews. Telephone services, databases, and interactive IT are increasingly used. Generally accepted standards for guidance are that it should be confidential, "impartial" and "learner-centred". Guidance is provided by many different agencies, including both specialist guidance services and education providers.

Guidance services developed from the 1980s in response to the needs of excluded learners particularly. An early key text, The Challenge of Change described 7 guidance activities: information, advice, counselling, assessment, enabling, advocacy and feedback. The latter three words show that guidance is best understood as a dynamic process which supports clients in negotiating how their needs can be met, and encourages institutional change by providing market information. Studies show that guidance is essential for enabling adults to return to learn successfully. It has therefore been incorporated into employee development schemes, and into the offer of most providers. Telephone helplines have been shown to work effectively and a permanent national helpline began in 1998. The tendency now is to complement this with local guidance networks (rather than providing a free-standing service) which link the resources of different agencies to improve access.

Judith Summer

OPEN LEARNING CENTRES

Open Learning Centres were established officially in 1985 after some local experiments. They were designed to respond to problems encountered in training programmes for the 16-25 age group.

APPs have a number of specific characteristics: a partnership approach to organisation (advice and counselling centres and training organisations); mixed funding (central and local authority, but also some funding from business). Their brief is to provide short-term courses (maximum 3 months) on a part-time basis in general and vocational education, by providing an individualised learning plan based on self-directed learning supported by a tutor. Some group work is also provided. Initially designed for young people, they now cater for anyone who has left the formal education system, particularly those with basic skills problems.

Students who attend APPs are not paid to do so; they must attend on a voluntary basis, have received some guidance and have a specific learning plan. The tutors work on an appraisal of existing skills during the first session and then draw up with the learner a contract containing specific objectives. The APPs' administration has to be very flexible in order to provide an immediate response to the learners' requests and starting and finishing dates therefore vary. Follow up of participants is also provided.

In 1994 the APPs' brief was changed slightly to place more emphasis on Open Learning in order to take into account learning support services, the use of new technology and distance education methods, resource bank, co-operation between centres, etc.

The emphasis placed on the learner's autonomy radically changed the role of the (sometimes voluntary) tutor who has to be tutor/facilitator/producer of learning materials/organiser etc. at the same time. Specific training courses have been organised for tutors in APP centres.

A national support and liaison service called IOTA+ was established in 1986 to help with the establishment and development of APPs and facilitate exchanges between them. There were 460 registered APPs in 1996, with 250 linked centres of which 50 are in prisons. The APPs have catered for 147,000
people. Apart from their immediate functional value, the APPs can be said to have provided an interesting experiment in learning methodologies, particularly in the area of self-directed learning, for adults with limited educational qualifications. They have also made a significant contribution to the development of tuition.

Pierre Freynet

RELATED ENTITIES  •  ENTIDADES VINCULADAS  Spain

Within the functional structure of the CENEBAD (National Centre of Distance Basic Education) related entities were another kind of subcentre of teaching activity. These were non profit making institutions, associations, and other public entities, which provided teachers, premises and the necessary means for giving basic teaching to adults; they used the teaching material prepared by the CENEBAD.

CENEBAD was responsible, in collaboration with these entities, for the follow-up of the students’ curricula, evaluation of the teachers, and any other information affecting educational activity.

At present, for basic teaching (initial or compulsory secondary), Centres of Adult Education may be promoted by town councils, provincial governments and other public bodies (centres depending on the armed forces, National Police Academy, Civil Guard); the social sector (NGOs, foundations, congregations, associations) also promotes initiatives through agreements with the administration subsidising the initiatives. Such agreements require a description of the context of the activity, target groups, and educational programme. These initiatives are specially important in rural areas or areas where there is a clear lack of training offers.

In the sphere of occupational training there are centres collaborating with the INEM (National Institute of Employment) or other Departments of the Spanish Ministry of Labour which develop vocationally oriented training initiatives.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

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SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING CENTRES  Spain

Self-directed learning in adult education is present in formal and non-formal education, in which case it is conscious and voluntary, and in informal and accidental education, where it is not deliberate.

The growing demand for training among adults has led to the need to find new resources to satisfy this demand. Self-directed learning centres are a clear example of a new resource for adult education.

Types of self-directed learning centres:
• solely to learn languages in official language schools,
• for personal retraining in basic adult training.

Schedule: self-directed learning centres are open 12 hours a day throughout the year. Adults can go to these centres whenever they wish and on any day of the year.

Resources: These centres have a variety of resources, including new technologies, to enable each adult to choose the training that he wants. There are computers, VCRs, televisions and a library.

Personnel: Depending on the type of centre, there are 2 to 5 teachers or tutors who are specialists in different subjects. The most common specialities are: Philology, the Sciences and the Humanities.
How it works: Each person decides what he wants to learn and a tutor monitors the person's learning. At the end of each session the adult writes down what he has studied and gives his opinion on what he has learned.

Currently, there are self-directed learning centres in various Community countries, which organise periodic meetings to exchange ideas, materials and methodologies.

Rosa Maria Falgas

Support Structure • Supportstruktur Germany

The way adult education in Germany is structured (in “Verbaenden” or associations) and financed (by the participants, the government, communities and the economy) is a rather heterogeneous one. State policy on adult education in the last thirty years concentrated mainly on “Subsidiaritaet” (subsidiarity), i.e. the state administered and financed only what was not covered by the existing institutional structures and then only in accordance with the federal structure of the Federal Republic of Germany. Over the last years, the principle of “Subsidiaritaet” has changed into the principle of “Support” - to be provided both by the state and by means of co-operation. “Support” and “Supportstruktur” are both used to refer to measures that are not so much aimed at the individual educational programmes themselves, but rather at their underlying conditions and consequences resulting from them. They concentrate mainly on programmes that are of some importance for the pluralist and heterogeneous sector of adult education institutions and organisations as a whole. The most important ones are:

- Information on Further and Continuing Education: This includes information systems about existing provision, admission requirements and certificates, addressing in particular the learners.
- Counselling: This includes not only advice for learners on the choice of a suitable programme but also guidance for organisations concerning programme design and organisational development. (“Lernberatung” - advice on learning - on the other hand is still seen as an integral part of teaching itself and is not counted among the “Supportstrukturen”).
- Continuing training and further education: In-service training of teaching and administrative staff in adult education agencies and development of further education certificates and curricula for continuing training programmes represent a major part of the “Support” sector (also increasingly at a European level).
- Co-operation: Co-operation between adult education institutions as well as co-operation between these and higher education institutions or schools need to be supported by appropriate structures.
- Evaluation: The creation of systems for evaluation and analysis and the establishment of a database system on further and continuing education are important elements of an infrastructure to be developed in future.
- Research and Development: It is necessary to establish appropriate research and development systems to further develop innovative approaches, develop concepts of teaching/learning and consolidate the theoretical and political framework of adult education.

Currently, public funding and support of particular adult education programmes are being reduced in some of the Laender of the Federal Republic of Germany, whereas the establishment of a “Supportstrukturen” system and its various subsystems is increasingly being promoted. It is safe to assume that this tendency will continue in the future.

Ekkehard Nuissl

References
3.3. SCHOOL

**ADULT SCHOOL SYSTEM**

The system of adult schools as coherent institutes of formal adult education was founded in 1945 according to the Statute 11.160/ 1945 of the Provisional National Government, World War II having just ended. Since then the system has changed considerably but today it constitutes one of the most relevant components of adult and continuing education in the country. Its aim is to provide second chance and further education and to promote social mobility. Practically the “workers’ schools”, as they are commonly called, have been equivalent to all types and levels of initial education. Since 1962 all types of schools were provided with special curricula, textbooks and methodological counselling. The backbone of the system is the adult secondary schools from which students obtain certificates which are accepted for entrance to higher education. The system is completed by the adult gymnasium, the adult vocational secondary school and the adult vocational secondary school for skilled workers. Adult primary school classes for functional illiterates are also available either through intensive classes, evening classes with 3 teaching days weekly, correspondence classes with optional tutoring once a week, open learning for individual studies and special individual courses. The duration of studies varies for 1 to 4 years, depending on prior knowledge. The adult school system is very popular among 18-25-year-old skilled and semi-skilled employed men and women who want to be more competitive in the labour market and more proficient in general education. They constitute the majority of the 70-80,000 students per year. About one third of the students choose the adult gymnasium, others the specialised streams like technical, agricultural, transport, commercial, business, tourism, foreign trade, vocational secondary schools. The schools have their own buildings and their own staff. They are supported and financed by municipalities.

Laszló Harangi

References

**CULTURAL AND CIVIC CENTRES**

Under this heading are grouped all of the teaching and training initiatives for adults that are organised by town councils or associations that offer cultural and educational services in response to real or perceived demands in the population. This group includes a wide variety of organising bodies: cultural centres and associations (Casas de Cultura and Ateneos) even a federation of initiatives known as People’s Universities.

The name “Cultural Classrooms” (Aulas de cultura) was coined in some regional programmes for Adult Education in Spain in the eighties amidst strong controversy. The responsibilities of the institutions and professionals sponsored by and linked to the Ministry of Education and Science and other bodies, either private or supported by regional or local institutions, clashed. Essentially, it was a conflict between training criteria inspired by personal development and social participation, and training criteria oriented towards insertion in the educational system itself.

The activities of the cultural and civic centres responded to the training demands of the population in the most diverse fields but following the general criterion of encouraging the development of communication within the socio-cultural setting and improving levels of social participation, taking as a context the demand for specific skills, whether instrumental (reading and writing, domestic skills, basic occupational
abilities, artistic activities, hobbies or leisure-time interests, etc.). Many of these initiatives depend on volunteer work for their staff on the one hand and on local offices for their co-ordination or participation in local funding programmes on the other.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

References

OPEN YOUTH EDUCATION • FRI UNGDOMSUDDANNELSE

Established in 1995, the Danish Open Youth Education is designed for young people who do not fit into ordinary, mainstream education, or are school dropouts.

It can be attended by anyone who has finished elementary school. There is no upper age limit, but most students are in the age-range 17-25. The aim is to offer young people individually planned and tailor-made courses giving comprehensive qualifications and developing personal skills such as developing responsibility for oneself and others, independence and planning.

Schools belonging to the “free schools” related to the “folkeoplysning” tradition are also responsible for open youth education. Courses are a combination of modules from educational civic work, participation in projects, trainee services, and stays abroad.

Open youth education lasts for 2 to 3 years, and for each student an individual action-plan has to be sketched with content, goal, length only of each module and expected level of competence. There are no tests or exams, but on completion a certificate is issued. State student grants are available for students over 18.

Arne Carlsen

PRODUCTION SCHOOL • PRODUKTIONSSKOLE

Established in the late 1970s, with their own legislation from 1985, the Danish Production Schools offer second chance education to youngsters under the age of 25 who do not have any formal education and therefore are exposed to long term unemployment.

The schools are based on the idea of integrating personal and vocational (metal-products, wood-products, etc.). They are private foundations, based on local initiative. The schools are funded by local authorities, the State and by the sale of the school workshops’ products. In 1997, 10,000 youngsters attended the 110 production schools in Denmark. All students receive a taxable school grant.

The schools are based on the “folkeoplysning” tradition, on the pedagogy of practical work which aims at the development of self-confidence and competence for life. The workshops have 7-10 students per teacher. Participants may choose to attend courses in general education, like the Danish language, foreign languages, computer, maths, etc. Extra activities like school camps and exchange visits abroad are organised. Students can be enrolled or dismissed all year round, and there are no limitations on the length of the course. The local district can refer young unemployed people to the schools. 20% are referred.

Arne Carlsen
SECOND-CHANCE EDUCATION

The second-chance education (TKO) prepares adult people for the central exams set by the Flemish Community's examinations commission. A secondary education certificate can be acquired outside the regular school system through these examinations.

This type of education is aimed at adults who have gone no further than their intermediate secondary school certificate. It offers a second chance to those who, for some reason or other, had dropped out earlier.

TKO has two strands:
• one is certificate-oriented i.e. preparing people for exams set by the State Central Examinations Commission,
• the other is general education-oriented i.e. preparing people for the acquisition of basic skills.

Lucien Bosselaers

SECOND WAY OF EDUCATION • ZWEITER BILDUNGSWEG

The “second way of education” (“Zweiter Bildungsweg”) in Austria has two aims: 1) to offer another chance to graduate from the different levels of the formal system and 2) to provide access to higher education. It involves general education as well as vocational education and state-accredited certification.

The common schooling for all pupils lasts only for the first 4 years of the primary level, afterwards the educational system is divided into two parts: the “Hauptschule” and the “Gymnasium”. The “Hauptschule” is, in many cases, the path into the vocational system of apprenticeship (dual education by enterprises and vocational schools) responsible to the middle and higher vocational schools. Graduation from higher vocational school gives access to the post-secondary sector. The “Gymnasium” leads via the “Maturita” (baccalaureat) directly to the post-secondary sector. The “Zweiter Bildungsweg” offers a chance to graduate from either level. Without graduation from the “Hauptschule” access to the labour market is closed.

Basic qualifications are a measure of literacy and numeracy without a state-accredited graduation.

Apart from final certification there are examinations to access post-secondary education (university and non-university). This access is limited to specific studies. The “Studienberechtigungsprüfung” leads to university studies corresponding to one's occupational background. A recent measure for access is the “Berufsgelerprüfungen” (1997) which combines elements of general education and vocational orientation to enable people with a vocational education (i.e. apprentices) access to higher education. The law is due to the strong engagement of the trade unions and the chamber of industry and commerce.

Courses for the “Zweiter Bildungsweg” are offered by the institutions of adult education, by private schools, by some universities and by a state-owned evening “Gymnasium” for employed people. The examination can also be prepared for through self-study.

The “Zweiter Bildungsweg” combines the formal system with the non-formal system of adult and continuing education. The criteria to meet the learning needs of adults are decisive in the conception of the courses and for the co-operation of the representatives of both systems.

Gerhard Bisowsky, Elisabeth Brugger

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3.4. CULTURE

CULTURAL CENTRE

This is a form of "association" that is quite popular in urban centres. It blossomed during the 1960s and was expressly established for the purpose of cultural dissemination. These centres changed their role after the consolidation of the democratic system. In general, their activities are based on promoting drama through groups of amateurs and, at times, on developing interest in reading and books through libraries. In other cases, they provide education activities. They also organise conferences, seminars, classes and debates concerning specific issues of interest to local groups. Emphasis is also placed on documentary and ethnographic collections. These associations do not have the same popular nature as communities, for example, because the founders, the individuals and the groups that use the cultural centres come from groups that are privileged from the socio-economic point of view. Despite this, they play an important educational role, and during the years of fascism, they had an important role in spreading democratic ideas and in promoting resistance.

Albino Lopès

CULTURAL CENTRES • PNEVMATIKA KENTRA

The cultural centres are multifunctional institutions, designed to provide a great variety of cultural and artistic activities to as broad a public as possible. They aim at extensive and active popular participation by motivating the public and utilising "latent" artistic talent. They constitute a fundamental element of cultural and social development and a means of cultural decentralisation.

For younger adults the aim is to provide a means of self-expression and communication, and to develop awareness in those who belong to the less privileged socio-professional groups who have never had the interest, knowledge or means to access cultural events. The most common activities of the cultural centres are lectures, seminars, conferences, exhibitions, concerts, plays, film shows etc. A number of cultural centres run artistic workshops (music, theatre, plastic arts, folk dance etc.), have a library or a small popular art collection. The workshops attract a significant number of young people and promote amateur artistic creativity in their area.

The cultural centres showed a considerable expansion during the eighties. According to figures from the Ministry of Culture, they increased from 200 in 1979 to 1,486 in 1989. Their geographical distribution shows considerable regional differences which, of course, reflect population distribution through the country. Most of them were established on the initiative of local government or belong to cultural associations. They operate under the supervision of the Ministry of Culture and receive financial support. Their contribution to cultural development is considerable, but they suffer from serious deficiencies in specialised managerial staff.

Magda Trantallidi

Reference

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The Act CXL.1997 provides for the protection of cultural properties, museums, public libraries etc. It states that preservation of cultural properties is a duty for every Hungarian citizen, and that endangering, damaging, destroying and falsifying them is a crime. Cultural properties (i.e. objects, pictures, painting, documents etc.) should be scientifically recorded and evaluated.

The Act emphasises the importance of close co-operation between governmental and local agencies, churches, non-governmental organisations, companies and private citizens for the preservation of cultural properties either individually or in collections, in their original sites or wherever they can be properly safeguarded, studied, displayed and accessed by the public. The act stresses that every citizen has the right to learn about cultural heritage, history and about minority and ethnic identities.

Laszlò Harangi

Reference
3.5. WORK

ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Supplementary training of persons possessing diplomas of post-secondary education for improving their professional competencies. This is a growing part of the adult education sphere in Russia with more than 500 educational establishments. They provide retraining courses of different content and length. These establishments research themes related to the organisation, contents and technology of training and continuing training at post-graduate level. Educational and research activities of this sector of adult education are co-ordinated by the Department of Further Professional Education of the Ministry of General and Professional Education of Russia.

Victor P. Rybalko, Serguey I. Zmeyov

Reference


CONTINUING AND FURTHER EDUCATION

Legislation relating to continuing and further education, passed on 16 July 1971, represents a turning point in the history of adult education in France. The specific historical context was the aftermath of the events of May 1968 and this explains the very open nature of its formulation: “Continuing and further education is part of lifelong learning. Its aim is to enable workers to adapt to changing techniques and working conditions, to encourage their social development by giving them access to new knowledge and qualifications and to enable them to contribute to cultural, economic and social development.”

The innovative aspect of this legislation relates to the clause obliging companies with more than 10 employees to dedicate a percentage of the total salary bill (initially 0.8%) to further training for staff. At the same time, decisions in relation to the choice of training course and delivery organisations were left entirely in the hands of company management. This had significant consequences:

- A rapid evolution towards choice by companies of vocationally related training. This evolution was paradoxically reinforced by the establishment of “individual paid educational leave”, also financed by the company (0.1% of salaries) but awarded by a joint commission independent of the company.
- The creation of a training market, in which training organisations both public and private, competed.
- The development of a very formalised, technical approach to training, sometimes referred to as “ingénierie de formation” (training systems design) to the detriment of traditional popular education which had represented a long established tradition in France. This formalisation was further strengthened by the application of the quality standard (démarche qualité) to training courses, and certification procedures such as ISO 9000.
- An increasing professionalisation of trainers.

Further and vocational training is also the responsibility of Central and Local Government, in particular for the unemployed and marginalised groups. More than 8.3 million people received training in 1996, amounting to expenditure of 135 billion francs.

Pierre Freyinet
THE CORPORATE UNIVERSITY

The Corporate University is based on the notion that a company can wholly or partly finance a learning institution in which employees can be taught specific skills and take courses with particular outcomes which are of especial use to that particular company. They have existed in the USA for a number of years and now there are more than forty of them, typified by McDonald's. The idea has been slow to take root in Britain where the British Aerospace initiative is the nearest equivalent. However, some similar ideas are now being pursued here.

Anglia Water, Motorola Ltd and British Aerospace amongst others have set up company learning centres which follow the idea of the corporate university in so far as the training provided is designed to be particularly suitable to the company. Ford has taken a rather different approach through its Employee Development and Assistance Programme. This programme is totally separate from Ford training programmes for its staff and operates on the basis of different assumptions. The courses taken are financed by a standard grant available to all employees which can be spent on any educational course so long as it is not related to the company training scheme. Results from this programme suggest that employees can gain useful experience and skills; and ‘unmeasurable’ benefits to themselves and the company like self confidence and belief in their own abilities as well as loyalty to the company. The scheme requires a support system which is also separate from the company and has benefited from strong union backing. The success of this scheme has encouraged other, similar schemes, for example, those at Rover and Sheffield City Council.

The disadvantage of both these types of scheme is that they are suitable only to large corporations with equally large training budgets and employee numbers. Small and medium sized enterprises find that despite undoubted benefits, start up and running costs are prohibitive. For these companies, it is hoped that similar benefits will arise from the Government’s plans for the University for Industry which will provide access to training specifically geared to particular industrial needs.

Together, these three types of initiative will help to bridge the perceived gap in training and education between Britain and her competitors.

Linda Merriks

EDUCATION ALONG THE WORK

Education for adults who are in full time employment. This formula is usually used in formal education but can be applied to the non-formal education as well. The term was used in Yugoslavia during the socialist-communist regime. It meant especially the interconnection between work and education. There were several similar terms which also designated the relation between work and education, like: “izobrazevanje na delu” (education at work), “izobrazevanje z delom” (education with work), “izobrazevanje iz dela” (education out of work). All these terms were inscribed in laws and acts in the period of socialist political order in Yugoslavia (1945-1989). After the fall of the socialist-communist regime these terms have not been in use as much as before, but they are still alive. People adopted the term and they use it to define the status of their education. In Slovenian there is no other suitable word to define adult education students. Officially the term “non-regular education” has a pejorative connotation in comparison with “regular education” which refers to the status of the participants in initial education. The term “along the work” was in practice first used to indicate full time employed individuals involved in education. Later its meaning...
became wider and is now used to indicate any adult involved in education. We can compare the term with similar terms in other languages, indicating part-time students who are not employed full time.

According to Jarvis (1990: 259) “part-time student” is an “adult who is a registered as a student, but has other obligations, such as work or domestic commitments, and is therefore unable to pursue his/her studies full time”. Similarly, the UNESCO Terminology (1979: 56), gives this definition: “Learning which involves the selection of one of several different ways of combining employment, leisure and education”. The term in Slovenian does not indicate merely the student, but the participant in formal adult education in general.

Zoran Jelenc

References

THE LEARNING ORGANISATION

There are many definitions of a learning organisation. Generally the term refers to an organisation in which learning is promoted and supported, with an intentional effort to utilise learning towards business goals. There has also been much emphasis on related themes such as “knowledge-based” organisations.

The learning organisation includes, but is more than, encouraging the learning of individual employees. Watkins and Marsick incorporate several themes into their definition:

“The learning organisation is one that learns continuously and transforms itself. Learning takes place in individuals, teams, the organisation, and even the communities with which the organisation interacts. Learning is a continuous, strategically used process - integrated with, and running parallel to, work. Learning results in changes in knowledge, beliefs and behaviours. Learning also enhances organisational capacity for innovation and growth. The learning organisation has embedded systems to capture and share learning.” (1993 pp. 8-9)

There is no unitary theory of the learning organisation. The term represents a theme or frame more than a coherent system of thought. Some see the concept as a response to outdated bureaucratic forms of organisation in which thinking and doing typically are separated. Others regard it as an ideological device for the maintenance of organisational power relations.

Contemporary interest in the learning organisation dates from the mid-1980s. The related term “organisational learning” (concerned with processes, often informal, through which collective learning takes place in organisations) can be traced back to the work of Chris Argyris and Donald Schön (for example, 1978). In Europe, leading thinkers in the field have been Mike Pedler, John Burgoyne and Tom Boydell (1991). Their approach is eclectic; for example, they draw strongly on Total Quality Management. Another leading author is Peter Senge, from the USA. His book, The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation, has brought the concept to popular attention internationally. For Senge the essence of the learning organisation lies in five “disciplines” which he calls “Personal Mastery”, “Mental Models”, “Shared Vision”, “Team Learning” and “Systems Thinking”.

Many companies have taken up the challenge of becoming learning organisations. In the UK, Rover Learning Business is a well-known example. Motorola is known internationally for its “Motorola University”. There is a growing literature on practices and experiments in the field, such as Watkins and Marsick (1993).

Peter Jarvis
Open Learning for Labour Market Training

This national project started in February 1998 and aimed at compensating unequal chances to get into the labour market, and involving broader layers of society in adult vocational education. Open and distance learning and teaching means that in the process of learning the communicator and the learner are separated from each other. The project is managed by the Public Foundation of Open Learning for Vocational Training (Nyitott Szakképzésért Közalapítvány), which was founded in December 1997. In the course of implementing the project some seventy officially registered trades were chosen to be taught through this method. The courses last one to two years. GCE qualification is required. The project is based on colleges, universities, further education centres, vocational secondary schools, qualified training companies and adult education NGOs. The mechanism operates in a competitive way, the interested organisations can apply for grants from the foundation budget through the accreditation committees of the Foundation. Each of the trades has a “manager” organisation who prepares the software and runs the course. At the end of the course, the learners can sit an examination organised by an independent, authorised examination board. In 1998 there were over 15,000 learners including employed, unemployed and young mothers returning to the labour market. The government supported the project with 1,000,000,000 Hungarian forint, equal to 4.9 million US dollars. The courses and the learning materials are free or at a very low cost.

Laszló Harangi

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The University for Industry

The University for Industry (Ufi) is the latest in a long number of initiatives designed to improve the learning and training and therefore the employability of the British workforce and to boost the competitiveness of British business. It will be a new organisation for open and distance learning which is at the heart of the Government’s vision for lifelong learning.

The Ufi will analyse the needs of the market and potential customers, gaps in skills or training, trends in employment and technology which lead to the need for new kinds of learning and identify the extent to which learning resources are available. It will institute a new partnership of business, education and training providers. Private sector companies and providers, FE colleges, schools and other organisations involved in learning will all be involved.

The aims of the Ufi are to stimulate demand for lifelong learning and to promote the availability of and access to relevant, high quality and innovative learning. By achieving these aims the Ufi intends to overcome the barriers which are at present seen to deter learning. The stress will be on flexibility. Open access is seen as vital and a national helpline is already set up to provide information and guidance which...
is clear and accessible and which provides a starting point for learners. Existing programmes may be offered in more accessible forms through innovative technologies and where necessary new ones will be developed. The use of new technologies will enable the time and place of learning to suit individual learners. Through these means, new learning markets will be stimulated and the costs reduced so that learning becomes more affordable. Details for possible government loans for this programme have yet to be announced, but some link with the Individual Learning Accounts, being developed simultaneously, is envisaged.

Its protagonists argue that the UfI will result in a comprehensive redevelopment of learning in Britain and so will take time to become established. Four areas have been prioritised as being in most urgent need of development; information and communications technologies for the workplace; literacy and numeracy skills; the needs of small and medium-sized businesses and some specific sectors of industry.

Peter Jarvis

WORK-RELATED EDUCATION

Education for adults has three different areas: general education, liberal (popular) adult education, and work-related education. As the changing world of work is an issue of great concern and relevance to adult learning, we should commit ourselves to promoting the right to work-related adult learning, ensuring access to it from different target groups, and diversifying the content of work-related education. The improvement needed in society requires increased competencies, the development of new skills and the capacity to adapt productively to the continually changing demands of employment throughout working life.

Work-related education enables the acquisition and development of knowledge, skills and experience in a profession or occupation, and re-training in the workplace or at an adult education institution. It operates either according to state educational standards, through courses, or through individual studies. We differentiate these three parts in work-related education:

1. Specialised education is a system of knowledge, skills, value estimations and norms of behaviour which, once obtained, enable an individual to work as an expert in a certain profession or occupation. For example: computer graphics, applied mathematics, paediatrics, cookery, etc.
2. Professional education is a system of knowledge, craftsmanship, skills, value estimations and norms of behaviour which, once obtained, enable an individual to be a highly estimated worker in a trade/business. For example: teacher, engineer, psychologist, physician, etc.
3. Occupational education is a system of knowledge, skills, attainments, value estimations and norms of behaviour which, once obtained, enable an individual to hold office and perform duties pertaining to management, government, administrative decision making. For example: director, head of department, project manager, counsellor, etc.

To have a high level work-related education is not enough for a successful life and career. Professionality must go together with a sense of responsibility and a willingness to take risks.

Merle Lõhmus, Talvi Märja

References
4. Organisations and providers

The initial process began during the transition which took place during Franco’s regime. It arose from the proposal made by progressive social movements that aimed at increasing the educational level of the working class and less favoured sectors of society. These Centres for the Education of Adult Persons (EPA) promoted literacy campaigns, basic education for obtaining the Basic Education Qualification and other complementary training. Later, the central Administration subsidised, incorporated or created other centres, broadening and institutionalising this type of educational action. The model used for the creation of new centres imitated that used in primary school education, as it considered this initiative to be merely compensatory. Hence, the relationship between these centres and other institutions was, at first, difficult.

Today, an EPA Centre constitutes the “basic unit of the system for Adult Education”.

These centres are based on the following principles:
1. To be a nucleus which unites the efforts and educational actions of EPA in the geographical area in which it operates.
2. To have an innovating and flexible style, capable of adapting at all times to the social, technological or characteristic fluctuations of the groups of adults.
3. To offer a wide range of educational options.
4. To create organisational structures which allow a wide margin of personal participation and management of the students. To promote flexible teaching processes centred on developing basic learning skills.

Centres of Continuing Adult Education are those whose organisation makes it possible to give and coordinate both academic and professional activities and cultural activities in general. These centres form part of the system coordinated by the central or regional Administration and are staffed by official teachers who are responsible to the provincial offices of education.

There is also a great variety of other centres that promote training for adults, in association with private, local and regional initiatives. Therefore clear future objectives for integration of projects and policies will have to be set.

At present the regional organisation of the State is generating a great variety of policies for adult education in the different regions. The fundamental responsibility of the official EPA Centres was focused on primary levels or their equivalent in compulsory education. Currently, mention should be made of the
development of training activities for adults in the field of secondary education, both in class and through distance learning.

Joaquim Garcia Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Victor Martín

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ASSOCIATION OF INSTITUTIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION • ASOCIACE INSTITUCI VZDELÁVANÍ DOPSELYCH (AIVD) Czech Republic

The Association of Institutions of Adult Education (AIAE) was established in 1992 as an organisation of institutional members (legal entities). At present, there are some 120 collective members, i.e. institutions and agencies focused on adult education and adult learning.

The AIAE distributes information, co-ordinates activities and represents its members in governmental bodies and with other partners. The AIAE organises training for its members in relation to business activities in the educational market. The AIAE has organised a number of study trips abroad for its members. There are regular meetings of members, together with non-member educational institutions, with the aim of discussing the concepts and policy in Czech adult education. It participates in the creation of adult education policy and maintains dialogue with the Ministry of Education and other governmental bodies.

The Association is financed from annual fees and irregular financial contributions of its institutional members. The bodies of AIAE are as follows: the president, twelve-member board representing regional councils, three-member supervisory board and the general assembly of members.

Since 1995, the AIAE is a co-organiser of the Czech Adult Learners Week, especially the regional conferences throughout the republic. Since 1992, the Association has published an AE bulletin, which, in 1997, became a quarterly called “Andragogika” (Andragogy, see the entry).

Pavel Hartl

Reference


CENTRES FOR AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION • KENTRA GEORGIKIS EKPEDEFSIS (KEGE) Greece

These are schools for the inhabitants of the agricultural areas of the country, are concerned exclusively with the agricultural sector, and aim at the economic, cultural and social development of the agricultural population. They fall under the supervision of the Educational Directorate of the Ministry of Agriculture, and provide both regular and accelerated learning courses.

There are approximately 60 KEGE and connected schools throughout the country, which annually educate or train around 33,000 people in 24 specialities. These courses are followed by self-employed farmers, farm labourers, and middle management employees of large agroindustrial concerns and cooperatives. Although they are addressed at both sexes, 97% of the participants are women. The content
and aims of these courses cover a wide range of activities. Apart from purely agricultural subjects, they deal with handicrafts, agro-tourism, co-operatives, and specific crafts, as well as the environment, socio-cultural matters etc. The KEGE also organise open days and seminars. Lessons are free of charge.

The agricultural schools have been in operation since the early sixties. The agricultural population was, and unfortunately remains, the sector of the Greek population with the highest percentage of illiteracy, with incomplete general education and a low level of cultural development. From the eighties onwards the training provided has been mainly vocational, and today the KEGE are being transformed into KEK (Centres for continuing training), which fall under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour. Their funding comes mainly from Community sources, from the ESF since 1982, and from the FEOGA since 1986.

Magda Trantallidi

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CENTRES FOR LIBERAL STUDIES • ERGASTIRIA ELEFTHERON SPOUDON (EES) Greece

These are private organisations which provide liberal education. A continuously growing number of them offer educational programmes for adults especially in the field of language learning and computing. Also, in response to growing demand in recent years, large private institutes have been organising adult education programmes, which are of a high standard, but expensive for the participant.

The subjects on offer to adults are mainly in the fields of foreign languages, computing, business management, economics, arts and crafts, social and human studies; also physical education, yoga, folk dancing, cooking - pastry making etc. Lessons are held in the afternoon or evening, and progress or certification examinations in foreign languages are optional. The majority of the pupils are women and senior citizens, with an income allowing them to invest in learning.

These organisations operate under the laws 9/9.10.35 and 1966/91 as commercial enterprises, so they are not controlled by the Ministry of National Education but rather by the Ministry of Commerce.

In recent years several, about 30, private organisations, operating under the same law have been providing post-secondary education. Some of these are affiliated to foreign universities but the State does not recognise degrees awarded under these circumstances.

Magda Trantallidi

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CENTRES FOR (POPULAR) ADULT EDUCATION • KENTRA (LAIKIS) EPIMORFOSIS Greece

An education centre is considered to be a geographical area covering a group of towns and villages in which specific adult education activities are carried out. The centres constitute relatively autonomous units both as regards the design of the educational program and as regards their choice of training personnel. Approximately 330 centres operate throughout the country.

On the basis of a decision by the Prefect, a Director is appointed to manage the centre. The Director is responsible for the identification of the educational needs of adults of his region, the development of
training programs in collaboration with the educators, and the management of the centre. The training carried out by these programs must be according to the needs and interests of the local population, in conjunction with the prefecture development program. The programs include classes of general education, professional orientation, and cultural content. The centres also organise educational and cultural events, open days and conferences.

Despite their ambitious original concept, the education centres, in the course of their development were, and continue to be, plagued with operational problems which are due mainly to budgetary reductions, to lack of specialised personnel, but also to the creation of a parallel system by the Centres of Continuing Vocational Training (KEK), which fall under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour. The KEK programmes are co-financed by the European Social Fund and from national funds in the context of an active employment policy. Some of the centres are being transformed into KEK.

Magda Trantallidi

Reference

CLASSROOMS FOR SENIOR CITIZENS AND THE UNIVERSITY OF EXPERIENCE  •  AULAS DE CULTURA

Classrooms for Senior Citizens are centres of socio-cultural activity and promotion for people over 55 years old. Their configuration as Centres for Senior Citizens following the French model of Universities for Senior Citizens (“Universidades de Tercera Edad” - UTE) was adopted in Spain in the late seventies. At that time, the term “University” was considered to be too ambitious or inappropriate for that educational model. The Programme “Classrooms for Senior Citizens” was created in 1978 with the aim of offering a service able to respond to the specific needs and demands of senior citizens, with special regard to culture and leisure activity. The best example of this programme was the National Pilot Centre of Classrooms for Senior Citizens in Madrid. In 1980 the Ministry of Culture attempted to consolidate the project by regulating the Classrooms within a network of coordinated centres with three types of functions: 1) encouragement to active involvement into community life; 2) promotion of culture; 3) those functions which, within the sociocultural sphere, favour the development of the individual.

Today in Spain, the Classrooms for Senior Citizens depend on different institutions. At present, throughout Spain there are more than 60 Classrooms for Senior Citizens grouped within the “Spanish Confederation of Classrooms for Senior Citizens”. In some cases, such as in Catalonia, these Classrooms have their own association, the FATEC: “Federacio d’associacions de la Tercera Edat de Catalunya”, to which more than 22 Classrooms belong. In the nineties, the model was updated and the name of these centres was changed, in some cases, to “University for Senior Citizens” or “University of Experience”. In the latter, how the centres were run and how the study plans were designed indicated a more formalised and academic nature more in accordance with the term “University”.

There was a trend towards the creation of “Training Programmes for Senior Citizens” within the universities. These programmes, together with specific cultural programmes, offered the possibility of more flexible access to the normal study plans of universities without taking an academic degree course.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

References
Centres
Club schools, neighbourhood centres or community centres, and situated mostly in city areas, were introduced in the 1950s and 60s following the French example of the “maisons de la culture”. They accommodate rooms for courses, a hall for large plenary sessions (sometimes including a stage for drama) and workshops or outdoor space for handicraft with a tutor or as an independent activity.

If a club school has several premises with full infrastructure (which for club schools also includes a cafeteria, reception area etc.), each of these is called a “Center”.

Methods
Combined teaching (Kombi-Unterricht)
A combination of distance learning and students' meetings, mostly held on Saturdays, organised by the provider of the distance teaching. Applied by the Swiss institute AKAD, this method is nowadays some times replaced by virtual meetings.

Buzz method – Methode 66
Interrupting a plenary phase by requesting the participants to form small discussion groups with their neighbours, without leaving their seats. The groups are asked one question, and at the end one group member has to report to the plenary group. The groups have to include 6 persons and have to talk for 6 minutes exactly. The definition “buzz method” came from the USA.

Flash – Blitzlicht
A group method to quickly assess the momentary state of mind of each participant in the midst of a teaching or discussion phase, most easily applied to a circular sitting order. The participants make a short statement in turn, starting with somebody volunteering to begin or designated by the tutor. The result is a “flash picture” of a given learning process.

Personnel
Trainer (Betriebsausbilder)
Trainer employed permanently by a company or hired as a freelancer for single occasions. The only federal diploma for adult educators in Switzerland uses this official title, which is also applied to people who work as trainers in associations.

Director of Studies (Studienleiter)
Member of the directing team of a residential centre, mostly employed full-time or in a large part-time project. The term implies pedagogical and content responsibility. Thus it does not apply to persons responsible for premises or administration.

Carl Rohrer

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COMMUNITY

Portugal

This is a generic name indicating a cultural, leisure and sport association that developed from within the community and expanded. A few have been around for more than one hundred years, many being founded around the middle of the 19th century in the suburbs of Lisbon, the South of the country and in the islands of the Atlantic. They also exist in Portuguese immigrant communities. They were the preferred places for meeting, leisure and discussion. They operate as schools for social, political and sports training and have thousands of members. From a structural point of view, their organisation and operational process is democratic. Despite the fascist repression that prevailed in the country from 1926 to 1974, they succeeded in maintaining their place as schools of learning about democracy, and they played a crucial role in the period after 1974 (democratic revolution). People living in the large cities and in the country's southern countryside felt comfortable with the new democratic regime, while those living in rural areas in the centre and the north found it much more difficult to participate in the country's democracy and in the exercise of local power. Their names still reflect those of the founder groups, but they have evolved according to the recognised organisational system: Gymnasium, Philharmonic, Maritime, Nautical Centre, Academy, etc.

Albino Lopês

DAY FOLK HIGH SCHOOL • DAGHØJSKOLER Denmark

Established at the beginning of the 1980s as a grass-root movement, with their own legislation from 1991, the Danish day folk high schools combine “folkeoplysning” with the labour market. They provide education for unemployed, often unskilled workers with a curtailed educational background. Students are 18 years of age. The aim is to improve the participants' possibilities in relation to mainstream education and the labour market. It is full-time education.

The courses last 16 weeks and aim at giving the participants self-confidence and developing personal qualifications in a welcoming learning environment. Through a wide range of subjects, e.g. computer, languages, film, body-expression, dream-interpretation, psychology etc.

The pedagogy relies on the life-experiences of the participants and is participant-ruled. Both content and methods have as their starting point the participants themselves and is project-oriented.

Dialogue is at the centre of the learning processes in the day folk high schools. There are no exams and hence no formal certification, but by building lifecompetence there are proven good possibilities for getting a job afterwards.

In 1997, there were ca. 200 day folk high schools in Denmark.
The schools often have a widespread local network involving trade unions, employers, the city-council, and other educational institutions, and can combine elements from different educational providers. They often offer also shorter vocational continuing training courses, too.

The schools are private foundations, financed by a minor municipal grant, and the state pays for each student a fixed amount, according to the taxi-meter grant system which means that the money follows the student and not the school, and is fixed at a certain amount per student/week.

Arne Carlsen

FOLK HIGH SCHOOL • HÖJSKOLE

The Danish folk high schools were established in 1844. The Danish priest, philosopher, poet and politician N.F.S. Grundtvig is considered their founder.

There are about 100 folk high schools in Denmark today. They offer 1-2 weeks summer courses, and 16 or 32 week courses. They are residential centres and aim at providing general adult education and social interaction. They function as schools for life and for democracy.

They are private foundations, students are younger adults. Participants pay 15% of the course expenses, the State grants “taxi-meter” to the schools. Some municipalities offer grants for the students.

Arne Carlsen

FOLK HIGH SCHOOL

A folk high school is a residential school in which adults who have usually, but not necessarily, completed formal schooling pursue at least several months of studies. The study aims are furthering both moral and intellectual development and instilling an understanding of local and ethnic traditions and customs. The age may vary from teenagers to the elderly.

The First Statute establishing Latvian Folk High schools was approved in 1922. By the end of the 30s, fifteen schools functioned in Latvia and around 6% of the inhabitants took part in different forms of adult education.

One of the most popular ones is Murmuizha folk high school (“muizha” means patrimony and “Mur” is the name of the place). The founder and the “soul” of this folk high school was Paulis Petersons. He was born in 1895 to a family of house owners. In his youth he lived and studied in Riga and acquired both technical and humanitarian education. He was influenced by the ideas of prominent personalities. One of them was Rabindranat Tagore, the great Indian poet, who also established a folk university in Shantiniketon. Especially important to Peterson was Tagore’s idea that social disasters are due to passive attitude and ignorance. His interest in India and Tagore made him establish close connections with the Rerihs society, where he once found the proof of his basic idea that happy can only be the man who brings enlightenment to the broad masses. This folk high school functioned most actively during the 30s. During the Soviet period it gradually lost its importance. It was not financed from the State budget and local authorities did not develop old traditions as they were worried that they would contradict the interests of communist ideology. Since 1992 Murmuizha is flourishing again. Famous artists, writers, scientists, clergymen, and officers from different embassies located in Latvia have visited it and delivered lectures.

Tatjana Koie
This is the educational institution of the General Confederation of Greek Workers, which organises union education and training for its members and for the middle and upper level trade unions officials. It is organised at a national level, with 11 regional and 5 sectorial branches. The institute also
- carries out research and studies on labour relations and has a documentation and publishing department,
- develops vocational education and training programmes for all sectors and underprivileged social groups,
- develops training programmes for trainers of adults,
- actively participates in EU programmes and human resources networks,
- organises open days and seminars,
- develops associative relations with European and international W E A S,
- organises union training seminars for unions of the Balkan countries.

Since its foundation the GCGW has operated a training department which was only reorganised as a Study and Documentation Centre (KEMETE) in 1982. In 1990 the Institute was established from the KEMETE. It processes the positions taken by the GCGW in the context of the social dialogue. Since 1997 the Institute functions as an observatory of labour relations and is funded by the Dublin-based European Foundation for the improvement of Living and Working conditions.

Reference

Magda Trantallidi

LEARNING EXCHANGE • BORZA ZNANJA Slovenia

A learning exchange is a special information centre on learning opportunities. It is an “educational brokering agency whose task is to match those who wish to teach something to those who wish to learn the same topic” (Jarvis 1990: 197). It establishes contacts between people who are looking for specific knowledge (or skills) and those who possess this knowledge and are willing to communicate it to them. This means connecting knowledge/skills seekers and knowledge/skills offers and establishing a mutual process in a learning exchange.

The “Learning Exchange project” started in 1992, following the model and experience of the “Learning Exchange” first organised in Chicago (USA). With learning exchange some of the ideas of Ivan Illich de-schooling came to life (Illich, 1972). He suggested we should develop a system, where we could more effectively use the knowledge people (individuals) have through a network of centres, where people could help each other with learning. After an initial pilot phase of “learning exchange” activity implementation in Slovenia at the Slovene Adult Education Centre, the model was transferred to another location, a public library in Ljubljana. Within the last five years three more “learning exchange” centres have been developed, each one in a different kind of institution: a private institution for adult education, a regional centre and a folk high school. The four of them have been inter-linked through a special computerized information system.

Zoran Jelenc
In national and trans-national adult education systems, the dimension of decentralisation and autonomy is an established part.

Its central point can be found in the EDA’s local centre. There can be various institutional and associative solutions for community and local centres. This depends on the configuration that the EDA system adopts in various countries, across their relative local communities on the basis of the various communities’ and local centres’ respective educational policies and the development of their own traditions and socio-cultural characteristics. This variety also arises from the placements and denominations that are given in the various national and local contexts, e.g.: Centre of Popular Culture, District Social Centre, Citizens’ Cultural Centre or Club, District Library and Community Centre.

The institution of the EDA’s community and local centres has recently become part of the Italian Ministry of Public Education which, today, leads all basic adult education. However, in practice, it is a reform process of the Italian State in an autonomous sense with the objective of completing political and institutional decentralisation as intended in the Constitution and initiated in the 70s through the regional institutions, with their own regional Parliament and regional government.

Also, the Italian school education system leading to professional training and higher education is currently in a phase of restructuring, based on the principle of autonomy.

In this context, Italy is for the first time moving towards the EDA System’s definition, the realisation of which corresponds either with the State, community or local centres, but also social and work forces: a system which groups formal adult education and legitimizes regional and local informal adult education in keeping with the principle of lifelong learning.

With this prospect of lifelong learning, the community and local centres assume a very precise role and function, hence the term given to the centres in various countries in keeping with the specific national and regional EDA systems. The EDA’s territorial dimension places projection, realisation and evaluation of the educational interventions within the cultural, social and economic development of the local community (refer to sub-section Integrated Territorial Model in the Glossary). The centre is the head-office where the EDA’s work is carried out, co-ordinated and evaluated, geared towards various educational areas in relation to local social development which, therefore, constitute its area of competence.

The relationship between development and educational problems, such as the problems between responses to local development and local educational opportunities, leads to the surpassing of the EDA’s theories and practices solely in terms of literacy and post-literacy or vocational or formal education, or the separation of informal from formal education.

The centre, therefore, forms the point of contact and integration for the work of the various education or training providers relevant to the same local adult population who enter into a relationship for specific associations with the other providers of social, economic and cultural development.

In brief, the role and function of the EDA’s community and local centres revolve around three axes: the development of the local community, networking and the roles the participants assume.

Paolo Orefice
This project began in 1971 in a primary school. It was initiated by Claire Heber-Suffrin, then a young teacher. It re-emerged ten years later in a Parisian suburb. From 1984-85, when it drew the attention of the media, many networks developed in towns and disadvantaged areas, often at the initiative of social workers. In May 1987 a national meeting led to the creation of a national movement: the Movement for Skills Exchange Networks (Mouvement des Reseaux d’Echanges des Savoirs - M.R.E.R.S.).

The networks’ philosophy and methodology are based on a number of key points:

• free mutual exchange, based on offer and demand: participants develop their project, discuss it, evaluate and modify it according to the partner’s expectations etc. with the help of a facilitation group which plays an important role in relation to mediation;
• diversity and equality of participants: there is no specific target group, even if most projects are aimed primarily at disadvantaged groups who have difficulty in fitting into existing official initiatives;
• diversity and equality of skills: academic, day-to-day-, artistic, professional etc. with no hierarchies dividing them;
• diversity of learning methodologies: group, individual, mixed etc.

The networks work a lot with other partners: the formal education system, the National Employment Agency, social centres etc. In 1996 there were 400 networks operating in France, representing approximately 50,000 members and others were beginning to be established in other countries (Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Spain, Belgium, Brazil etc.)

The skills exchange network initiative is significant not only as an alternative to the traditional tutor-student relationship and the normal hierarchy of knowledge, but also because it represents an interesting and democratic response to the general problem of knowledge management in a society.

Pierre Freynet

References

People's universities may be defined as centres or projects for sociocultural activities of adults and adult education aimed at promoting social participation. They are non-profit institutions, publicly controlled through local corporations, meant to reach both the general public and particularly the less favoured and more marginalized sectors of society, especially women and young people.

People’s universities, which date from the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, arose from the activity carried out by workers’ organisations and trade unions as well as by the Free Institution of Education (Institución Libre de Enseñanza). These organisations contributed to
spreading knowledge and culture among the masses, first, through the Departments of University Extension (Departamentos de Extensión Universitaria) (along the lines of British universities), and later as autonomous entities of adult education known as people's universities. The activity of the people's universities was interrupted during Franco's regime and did not resume until 1981, at which time the people's universities began to follow the model of their German counterparts, with a revised ideology in accordance with Spain's new social reality.

Today these organisations provide training in three basic areas: education, culture and social issues, covering a broad and diversified range of educational-cultural activities and programmes. At present there are more than 120 people's universities in Spain, most of which are located in rural areas, small towns and in the industrial belts of large urban districts. They are grouped and organised in the Federation of people's universities, which acts as their representative organ at State level.

The educational sphere of action of these people's universities, contrary to what their name suggests, is not at university level, but rather at compulsory secondary education (Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria) and vocational training level.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

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POPULAR OR OPEN UNIVERSITIES

LAÏKA I ELEFTERA ANIKTA PANEPISTIMIA
Greece

This institution made its appearance in Greece in the eighties. It offers lectures, seminars or courses which are provided free of charge. Usually it is run in the premises of the local council or in cultural centres.

The subject matter of the courses is not based on any survey of the educational needs, interests or occupations of the local population. It is general and usually has academic overtones; teaching methods are traditional. Despite this, it encourages further reflection and critical thought, and contributes to the cultural development of the region.

The initiation was started by the town councils of Attica, and subsequently spread to the rest of the country. In 1988, according to data from the Ministry of Culture, 64 popular universities were operating in 33 prefectures, with the co-operation and support of local government and the Ministry of Culture. Due to organisational, financial and other problems such as lack of specialised teachers for adults, etc., this institution has lost its impetus, and continues only in particularly active and well-endowed towns.

Magda Trantallidi

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POPULAR UNIVERSITY

Romania

Romania's political, economic and social system has been undergoing change since December 1989. At that time, Romania's adult education infrastructure consisted of: a) 213 "maisons de la culture", 3,000 popular universities in urban areas (without legal personality) and 2,738 "foyers culturels" in rural areas;
b) institutions that operated in the system of mass culture: popular universities, centres for the guidance of popular creation, libraries and museums, a culture inspectorate, a regional entity co-ordinated by the Ministry of Culture and a regional department reporting to the regional prefecture. The popular universities are partly funded by public institutions.

In addition to these institutions, which belong to the network of the Ministry of Culture, there are other organisations coordinated by the Ministry of Labour and the social welfare system, trade unions and employers' organisations, political parties, non-governmental organisations, non-profit organisations, Romanian and foreign private agencies, state entities, and chambers of commerce. These organisations are particularly concerned with vocational education.

Popular universities are concerned both with education and culture. They are open to anyone who wishes to attend courses either on general or vocational subjects. These institutions also help adults to acquire vocational and life skills.

Between 1960 and 1989, popular universities implemented a programme for the dissemination of general and vocational knowledge; this is reflected in the programmes referred to in these institutions' archives.

It is fair to say that Romania has experienced a continuous growth in the area of continuing and open education, which is reflected in the number of conferences, classes and cultural activities supported by experts on Romanian culture and civilisation.

After 1989, popular universities suffered a serious identity crisis, as they were labelled communist institutions; Romanians confused yesterday's institution with yesterday's ideology, punishing the institutions, instead of criticising outdated ideas. These institutions were abandoned in the first "post-December" years. It was difficult to re-launch them given their precarious financial conditions and the challenges facing this type of institution.

Ileana Boeru

References

REGIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING CENTRES
REGIONALE OPLEIDINGSCENTRA (ROC)
The Netherlands

A regional education and training centre (ROC) is a bringing together of institutions from all the sectors of education for adults, (full-time) senior secondary vocational education and institutes for apprenticeship training. That is to say, such an institution generally comprises at least the following components:

- a unit for Adult Basic Education (basiseducatie)
  (ABE courses are aimed at adults with less than two years of secondary education and are geared to functional literacy and numeracy and social competence. Entitlement to BE is limited to five years and 1,000 contact hours),
- a unit for secondary general adult education (VAVO), formerly day-/night schools for adults,
- a unit for vocational further education,
- a unit for vocational secondary education.
- In principle an educational institute for young adults is also part of an ROC; these institutions have traditionally concerned themselves with the needs of premature school leavers.

The 45 or so ROCs in the Netherlands have come about from mergers between the institutions referred to above, which were made compulsory with the introduction of the Education and Vocational Education Act of 31st October 1995.
As a consequence of this merging process fairly big centres have been established, ROC Amsterdam being on top with approximately 48,000 students (short term contract education included) and some 2,700 staff, spread over 80-90 locations.

The objective in setting up the regional centres is to achieve coherent educational provision covering the whole area of basic education (including Dutch as a second language), continuing general secondary education for adults and vocational education with, among other things, better opportunities for participants to get on to orientation courses and bridging courses, a variety of routes to learning, and more coherence between the different learning routes.

To a certain extent ROCs could be compared with the influential community colleges in the USA.

The “BVE Raad”, National Council for Adult and Vocational Education, represents the 45 regional education and training centres (ROC) in the country. The council is a merger of approximately eight organisations for adult and vocational education, established in June 1996. Within the “BVE Raad” a platform for adult education champions the interests of adult and continuing education.

Willem Box

Reference
Gids Beroepsonderwijs en Volwasseneneducatie (Guide to Vocational Education and Education of Adults), Vuga Uitgeverij, The Hague

REPUBLICAN CENTRES/POPULAR SCHOOLS

These types of institutions were founded around 1910 with two very specific goals: to promote republican and secular ideas (democratic ideas according to the word’s meaning at that time), develop basic education and combat inequality. In order to survive the fascist period these types of associations withdrew into formal primary education, although in practice, this was under the cover of a broader cultural activity that was most closely related to workers and the non-denominational (even anticlerical) public. They now focus on developing civic education.

Albino Lopês

STUDY ASSOCIATION • STUDIEFÖRBUND

The Swedish study associations can in many respects be compared to the German “Volkshochschule” but are not related to the local authorities. They were started by big popular movements in the 19 century, mainly the Free Church movement, the Temperance movement, the Labour movement and the Co-operative movement, in order to organise educational and cultural activities. Today there are eleven study associations, all related to non-governmental organisations, some of them related to political parties.

They organise learning which is not related to the set curricula and examinations of the public education system. The study associations determine themselves the content of the courses, and each teacher has the free choice of pedagogical methodology. Education is open to everybody, and the participants have some say in the content and process of the course. Popular subjects are practical-aesthetics, languages, computer technology, social issues. The aim is to give all adults equal access to knowledge so as to promote their personal development and democratic participation.

Arne Carlsen
This is a specific institution for adult education and a typical representative of adult education organisations in former Yugoslavia. Originating from non-residential folk high schools, the term indicates a special variety of folk high schools. In 1950 the then central political party - the Communist Party of Yugoslavia - required that folk high schools aimed their educational activities mostly at workers. This orientation was to be reflected by their names and so they were renamed “workers universities”. The restructuring and renaming process has been carried out only in part. Many folk high schools did not change their name and therefore remained “folk universities”. Their programmes followed the directed ideological and political issues only up to a point and they therefore kept in their programme structure many programmes, designed for all kinds of people. Workers universities were required by political authorities to organise specific programmes for workers. There were three programme areas: a) self-management; b) vocational training and c) general education. Their contents and function were consequently socio-political, vocational or educational. With the introduction of the social system of socialist self-government after 1950 - a great deal of the programme on offer concerned self-management for workers and citizens. This kind of education was called socio-political education. The restructuring process from folk high schools into workers universities took place in Yugoslavia between 1952 and 1960.

In Slovenia their development has been slightly different from other former Yugoslavian republics. After 1952 all former folk high schools turned into workers universities, while the opposite process started after the fall of the socialist system (after 1989) and they were named folk universities. Quite often the former workers universities took completely new names. This did not happen in a consistent way in other republics of former Yugoslavia, and there are even now many workers universities left alongside the folk universities.

Zoran Jelenc

References
5. Programmes, activities, methods

5.1. PROGRAMMES AND ACTIVITIES

THE ADULT EDUCATION INITIATIVE • KUNDSKABSLYFTET Sweden

The adult education initiative in Sweden is a 5-year-long programme which started in 1997. It aims at reducing unemployment by giving unemployed and other adults who lack full three-year upper secondary qualifications a second chance. The programme aims at updating labour market policies, improving economic growth and reforming adult education. The programme focuses on individual learning needs.

The state contributes a special government grant which covers 100,000 full-time study-places per year. 10,000 places are given to the folk high schools, 3,600 to pilot projects on advanced vocational training, and 86,000 places to the municipalities in the form of a lump sum. The municipalities with the county councils, the national schools for adults (SSV - schools with facilities for distance learning), the labour market training agencies (AMU), the adult education associations and other course organisers are involved. Most of the study-places go to the municipal formal adult education centre (Komvux). Every municipality has a local liaison officer responsible for the Adult Education Initiative.

The progress of the Adult Education Initiative is followed and evaluated by the municipalities themselves, by the National Schools Administration and by the Commission for Adult Education and Training.

A special student grant has been introduced for the students of the Adult Education Initiative. Students between 25 and 55 can get a grant corresponding to the unemployment benefit. This special grant may be paid for a maximum of one year.

Arne Carlsen

ADULT LITERACY WORK • LUTTE CONTRE L'ILLETTRISME France

All European countries have now recognised the problem of adult illiteracy: in some cases the term functional illiteracy is used. In France the problem was not given official recognition until 1984 and a new term of “illettrisme” (as opposed to “alphabeticité”) was coined. The term “illettrisme” was introduced by the charity AT D -Fourth World who considered the term ‘alphabeteme’ too pejorative. The new term was coined in a campaigning rather than an academic sense. Its definition and its relevance provoked debate from the time of its inception. The “Groupe Permanent de Lutte contre l'illettrisme” (GPLI) - the interministerial co-ordinating group for adult literacy work - offered a rather long definition in 1995: this
definition, while not receiving unanimous approval does provide a consensus of opinion. “The GPLI considers the term ‘illettrisme’ to apply to people over 16 who have passed through the formal education system but whose writing skills are insufficient for the minimal requirements of their vocational, social, cultural and personal lives. These people have received formal instruction in literacy at school, but have left the system without having mastered basic skills for social, familial or functional reasons. They have not been able to apply these basic skills, or have never been motivated to do so. These men and women do not write automatically or spontaneously or easily and avoid or fear having to use this method of communication.”

Practitioners in the field refer more and more to the term adult basic education, which is less negative and relates more to their work. In general terms other European countries also use this term or that of “basic skills”.

It is very difficult to provide precise or reliable figures for France and then to make comparisons between European countries. A recent international large-scale survey conducted by the O.E.C.D. provides interesting quantitative and qualitative data on this subject.

Pierre Freyinet

References

BASIC ADULT EDUCATION • GRUNDBILDUNG Germany

In the German debate on further and continuing education the term “Grundbildung” is a relatively recent one and has not been introduced in all fields yet. Often the term “Elementarbildung” is used instead, or the even more traditional term “Alphabetisierung”. “Grundbildung”, however, refers to an additional development, not covered by the other two notions.

The suspicion, aroused in Germany as well as in other industrialised countries during the mid-1970s, that despite a well developed school and educational system a considerable number of adults could not properly read or write (in “operational” terms) was soon confirmed. According to UNESCO estimates three to five per cent of the German population were illiterate. As a result, literacy training programmes were developed.

These educational programmes were characterised by an in-depth discussion of adult education issues, concerning not only possible ways of reaching the target group, raising motivation and bringing down barriers to access, but also the difficulties in initiating individual learning processes in small groups within the existing system of adult education. Thus the analyses of literacy programmes have also had a considerably stimulating effect on the study of adult teaching and learning in general.

The seminars for literacy training have also shown that the basic cultural techniques - following the changes in social conditions - are undergoing changes as well, shifting within their overall structure and bringing about new demands and requirements: this regards for example the necessity to understand messages conveyed by the media and judge them critically; to use the new media in a self-confident manner; to have reading, writing and speaking skills not only in one’s native tongue but also in a foreign language; to integrate communicative cultural techniques with organised ones.

The term “Grundbildung” covers the whole set of cultural techniques, changing over different historical periods, by which people are empowered to live in an industrialised society in an autonomous way and in accordance with their own interests. “Grundbildung” in Germany embraces today:

• reading, writing, calculating skills in one’s native tongue,
• the mastery of one or two foreign languages in speech and writing,
• “reading” pictures and critical use of the media,
This concept of “Grundbildung” will necessarily have some consequences as regards the restructuring of the subjects and contents taught at school. It also calls for a more open and integrated structure within the educational provision for adults. In any case, thanks to the “Grundbildung” discussion, the traditional debate on literacy programmes in Germany has conspicuously widened.

Ekkehard Nuissl

References

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL ADVANCEMENT • ONDERWIJS VOOR SOCIALE PROMOTIE Belgium

The courses are designed for those who seek social advancement. The idea is to improve one's career opportunities by improving one's level of education. Generally speaking, this type of education fulfills three functions:

- second chance secondary, technical, vocational and higher education,
- completion of professional studies, additional courses or reorientation,
- general education according to personal interest e.g. in languages.

Having succeeded in the course the student receives a diploma or certificate.

A distinction is made here between final and intermediate studies. Courses are given at various levels:

- secondary level, both technical and vocational,
- higher non-university college level,
- language courses for beginners and advanced students.

A credit system of self-contained modules is used. It consists of various training packages from which the students make their own choices. This system allows for global training on a modular and optional basis. The temporary courses are of a special nature. These consist of experimental schools and courses which are organised on an irregular basis by socio-cultural associations.

Lucien Bosselaers

FARMERS TRAINING AND REFRESHER COURSES Belgium

The farming sector also runs its own specific courses. The courses here are on farming and horticultural technology and aspects of business management.

The courses are divided up into different categories and are organised by the Flemish Government, national and regional centres and amateur centres.

Concerned here are recovery courses in basic training, courses designed for analysis and management and for those taking over a business, information on technical and economic management problems, contact days, study-meetings, lectures and refresher courses for instructors.

Lucien Bosselaers
The process of management and leadership training in Estonia started in the second part of 1970s. In autumn 1974 the training of professional managers was initiated. The lead was taken by the Centre of Scientific Organisation of Labour and Management of the Ministry of Light Industry. In 1976 the faculty of advanced schooling for school principals was opened at Tallinn Teachers' Training Institute and in 1978 the Refresher Institute of Estonian Executives and Specialists was founded. This became the established methodological and organisational centre for continuing education, funded by the state. It was set up to ensure a certain level of scientific research in the field of adult education and also to provide leadership training. All the mentioned educational establishments, also the Department of National Economy at the Tallinn Technical University contributed to establishing the conceptual basis and methodological principles of leadership training. The following practical applications are attempted:

1. Leadership development must start from the top level. If the top leaders are left out of the training process there is no use in training other, lower level leaders and/or other personnel.
2. At the same time the development process has to start from the bottom. There is no need to lead (control) if no one is bringing your decisions into practice. Or - there is no need of being a leader, if you do not have any subordinates.
3. The training/development process should be organised together for two or three hierarchical (management) levels in an organisation. It guarantees the transition of information. At the same time it works as a team building process and in certain circumstances may produce a synergy effect.
4. The functional leaders from different levels, from the top to bottom, should be trained together and work together with development projects concerning their field of activity and response.
5. The organisation will focus on its own problems from inside so that every person gets needed information and support from others - colleagues and team members.
6. Every organisation should be outward oriented in order to find reasons why there are hinderances to the normal functioning, changing and/or development of one's own organisation.
7. Integration with other organisations inside large system or systems.

The overall end output of this sort of training is competence in management and leadership.

Talvi Märja

References

SOCIAL GUARANTEE PROGRAMMES • PROGRAMAS DE GARANTÍA SOCIAL Spain

The fundamental goal of the Social Guarantee Programmes is to correct the differences in schooling and training that exist in young people between the ages of 16 and 21 who have finished the compulsory period of education without having fulfilled the requirements established for this period by the General Law for the Regulation of the Educational System (Ley General de Ordenación del Sistema Educativo - L.O.G.S.E.) and who also lack a qualifying certificate from an Occupational School (Formación Profesional). The aim of this type of Programme is to facilitate the incorporation of these young people into active life or to help them to continue their studies. This takes the form of one- or two-year training Programmes.
with the following possibilities: Professional initiation (in Secondary School Centres) and professional initiation for students with special needs; training and employment (in collaboration with town councils); professional workshops (in collaboration with NGOs).

The Social Guarantee Programmes offer such students the possibility of gaining experience in real work situations, sometimes with an actual contract. On completion of these studies, the student obtains a Certificate of Competence issued by the MEC (Ministry of Education and Science) (from the corresponding Provincial Office), or, in those cases where the student has not fulfilled the requirements satisfactorily, accreditation issued by the Centre itself.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

References
Acuerdos sobre Formación Continua (1993-1996) Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social (BOE. 10-3-93)

TRADESPEOPLE PERMANENT TRAINING • MIDDENSTANDSvORMING Belgium

Tradespeople have their own specific training programmes. They are directed towards those who wish to become self-employed or those seeking secondary training.

The “Flemish Institute for Self-employed Enterprise” was set up to provide permanent training for the self-employed and business managers. These courses consist of three steps: apprenticeship, training as an entrepreneur and secondary training. Apprenticeship courses are for the young who are still at school and learning a trade. They receive additional general education and trade oriented courses at an educational centre. Entrepreneurial training is for those who wish to fulfil the requirements needed to practise a certain trade.

Secondary training is given to the self-employed who are already in responsible positions in small and medium-sized business and who wish to complete courses, remain up to date or acquire new skills and techniques. The educational centres also organise optional language courses in various languages.

Lucien Bosselaers
5.2. METHODS

BRAINSTORMING

Non-traditional teaching method concerning problem solving through discussion. It was introduced by A.F. Osborn in the 1930s. He started from the assumption that problem solving is directly connected to the amount of available ideas. The method uses group work and strict rules which facilitate the creative atmosphere and the effective use of this method:

- the prohibition of comments (no-one should criticise the offers of others);
- the rule of releasing imagination (apparently ideas could be essential to problem solving);
- the rule of mutual inspiration;
- the rule of equality of participants.

The method uses the following steps: defining a problem - choice of participants - setting a date and place - instruction of participants - discussion about the problem - subject evaluation.

Obviously only a few submitted ideas will conform with reality but very often they become the “basic pebbles” of original and non-traditional approaches which could be continuously and scientifically worked upon.

Juraj Kalnicky

References
Rhoad, C.E. (1951) The Problem Method at Teaching. Univ. of Nebraska Publication

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

Adults can acquire further education through correspondence courses set by the Ministry. Correspondence courses are intended for old and young people who wish to get on, to improve themselves, to readapt or retrain, or to get a diploma. In correspondence courses, here known as “distance learning”, the student decides about the rhythm and time needed. Enrolment is not limited to any date.

Those participating are given no special conditions and must see to it that they return their papers for correction. Each time they do so they receive a new set of lessons. On demand, a certificate for the lessons followed can be issued. Correspondence courses are free. Those participating only have to pay for books for some courses and postage. Courses on offer are on a level with those in lower and higher secondary education or are preparatory courses for exams set by the Civil Service or other centrally organised bodies.

Lucien Bosselaers

EDUCATION AGREEMENT • Onderwijsovereenkomst

Agreement controlling the rights and obligations of the participants and the institution, and containing at least stipulations as to

- the content and arrangement of the education provided, as well as arrangements for examinations,
- the times at which, and so far as possible, the locations where, education is provided,
• the manner in which parties shall give shape to achievements arising from the agreement,
• information on course and career choice and educational counselling, inclusive of regular advice, on study both within and outside of the particular course,
• suspension and expulsion,
• if appropriate, compensation.

Willem Bax

Reference
Education and Vocational Education Act of 31 October 1995 (Clause 8.1.3)

FEEDBACK ON WORKPLACE TRAINING

Further education programmes based on feedback are limited to their effectiveness, i.e. better results for less money and less time.

In recent years, a number of case studies focused on evaluation of in-company training and education in Czech industrial companies. The most effective ones studied the feedback which followed the educational programmes, using questionnaires, group interviews and the Osgood Semantic Differential Scale.

In all cases, significant differences were found between training agencies, concerning the impact of different parts of the programme on the participants. These findings were based on the analysis of questionnaires and interviews with groups of 10-12 participants.

The Osgood Semantic Differential Scale proved to be a cheap and effective technique, as participants cannot judge which answer is correct/incorrect. On a 9-point bipolar scale, they merely tick their attitudes towards items such as: myself, training agency/agencies, lecturer, education, company, management, salary, and others. A graphic illustration of the results shows the differences in attitudes towards the work of individual training agencies, individual parts of the programme and other items.

Pavel Hartl

References

MENTAL TRAINING

Mental training is a method of adult training. Its objective is to provide group training in basic intellectual activities: conceptualisation - dialectic - historical and social thought - causality - reflecting on the future - and evaluative thought. Based on situations from everyday life, the trainer offers progressive exercises based on sports education principles.

While training combatants in the Resistance in 1944, and later on as part of the People and Culture association for popular education militants, Joffre Dumazedier experimented with and then formalised the method of mental training. Later, while working with Professor Henri Wallon, Dumazedier demonstrated the relationship between feelings and intelligence. Beginning in 1960, he led the Centre National de Recherche Scientifique's (CNRS) programmes for assessing this method in associations, industry and education. Nowadays, the significant growth in the numbers of adults undergoing training, and in particular,
the increase in the autonomy of work units has led to a sharp demand for intellectual training tools. The flexibility of the method, the use of which is very closely related to the trainer's personality and to the project of the initiating group, has given rise to two schools of thought:

- the first school believes that each individual must organise as he sees fit the learning of his emotional involvement while paying close attention to socio-emotional aspects in the group training exercises. Those who hold this belief take their inspiration from Vygotski and Brünner's work on relations between language and thought;
- the second school's thinking is based on certain knowledge from the field of psychology. As a result, in their exercises, they stress the expression of layers of the psyche, which is the birthplace of feelings and emotions. Their views are based on the work of psychoanalysts such as Charlotte Herfray.

Workers or adventurers of mental training? Should men base their actions on their dreams or allow themselves to be possessed by their dreams in order to create their life? Each person is different...

Jean-François Chosson

PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH

The methodological approach of participatory research springs from adult education within the field of the positivistic approach across social sciences on the one hand and the internal aspect of popular participation movements, such as overcoming the delegation's democratic limits and the research of a more complete democracy which grants the requests of largely marginalised social groups, on the other.

On an international level, during the 70s, the ICAE (International Council for Adult Education) welcomed the innovative movements in participatory research which were to affirm themselves mostly within the associative movement of more disadvantaged social classes in developing countries and began to promote their theoretical and methodological reasoning as well as the use of EDA programmes throughout associative networks across the five continents.

Participatory research rejected the interpretation of social needs, above all those of the less affluent population, according to the reasoning of scientific and ascetic objectivity. In practice however, this was linked to the fundamental interests of the dominant classes and therefore did not take the power struggles between the classes and the social and cultural groups into account. It supported the involvement of the populations themselves, even more so when their exclusion from the management of public affairs increased. This was their objective and educational process: the research method, which did not condition and discriminate cultural transmission, allowed the divide between official legitimate knowledge and popular knowledge to be overcome. As a result, providers of education/training and adults being trained became involved in the common research process into people's own needs, thereby returning to adults the cognitive power of which they had been dispossessed during the expulsion from the educational system and during their social and economic marginalisation. In this process, it is recognised that it was only through the creation of endogenous knowledge that the internal development process tailored to local cultures could be optimised. In the alliance with popular emancipation movements, education responded in this way to the obligation to contribute to the liberation of marginalised groups.

In Europe, it is generally in societies whose technology and economy is more advanced that participatory research into adult education has had to be confronted with social and economic reality as well as with more complex and sophisticated cultural dimensions. It has been put to the test in formal and informal adult education programmes, in research methods and contents of more accredited disciplinary knowledge compared to the content and ways of thinking of adults who are officially deficient in education. In practice, however, they do bring problems and cognitive evidence with them, the disciplinary knowledge of which was not always able to provide adequate solutions.
It is not a coincidence that the European adult learning network supported by the ICAE in the seventies and eighties found it intensely difficult to be accepted in the research environment during the revision of the EDA's policies. Participatory research put forward an epistle of knowledge which did not refer to itself and appeared to be neutral on a scientific level, but which measured itself against other forms of knowledge elaborated by those people who themselves presented problems that the world of legitimate knowledge was not only incapable of resolving, but, in fact, aggravated. Participatory research introduced criticism of adult education to the affluent society and its explorative and reality-distorting systems, denouncing its separation and discriminations.

Participatory research in Italy, but also in other European countries, has encountered similar approaches, albeit less focused on the protagonist dimension of developing subjects with regard to the assumption of their problems and knowledge. With action research as with intervention research, participatory research views the research method as the link between theory and practice, problems and their solutions in social and educational action.

Participatory research is becoming more commonplace in the "Knowledge Society" towards which the post-modern and post-industrial world of the "Global Village" is moving, along a path where there is no return to the past. This poses a problem of quality of knowledge, the creative and participatory dimension of which forms an integral part in the projection of lifelong learning.

Paolo Orefice

References

The need for a more systematic approach stems from the degree of difficulty in the problems facing society today. The problems in contemporary society require a multi-sided approach. Planning is regarded as a means to use limited resources in the most efficient way possible.

A plan of communication was adapted, from which a concrete plan could be drawn up. This meant that following discussions between the Government and the NGOs, a long-term plan would be drawn up concerning which priorities were to be carried out first. The aim of this organisational plan is to carry out a programme that will cover the various needs while taking into consideration the various choices concerning goals, functions, tasks and priorities. Central to all this are notions such as functional organisation, regional coordination and scale-increase. It would fulfil a double function: on the one hand, it would have the freedom to pursue its own options and on the other, link up with a system of government options laid down in the communications plan.

Lucien Bosselaers

This non-verbal technique is used more and more in training managers, social workers and all those working with people. It was developed by Hana Junova to be originally used in psychotherapy.

The aim of this technique is to deepen empathy and recognition of interpersonal relations. It is divided into three phases. The first phase is warming-up, lasting 10-15 minutes. During the second phase,
topics/tasks are gradually given to participants who are to express them non-verbally, only with the help of gestures and movements. Very often, these are ordinary everyday-life situations, such as travelling by public transport, etc. Another group of topics relates to specific problems: the most important experience of the year, childhood memories, etc. A group of fantasy/fairy tale topics is favoured by participants. Topics focused on inter-group relations and dynamics are quite sensitive.

When each task is fulfilled, the actor is the first to comment on his/her feelings, followed by the others in the group. The lecturer just moderates the discussion, encouraging all positive findings.

The third phase is relaxing. Very often the group stands in a circle, holding hands to underline the sense of belonging to the group. There can be some dance, little plays etc.

The technique is important because it gives adults the possibility to find out something new about themselves, in a non-harmful atmosphere and with few possibilities to pretend.

Reference

Pavel Hartl

TRAINING SYSTEMS DESIGN • INGENIERIE DE FORMATION / INGENIERIE PEDAGOGIQUE France

The development of vocational training in France has led to an increased professionalisation of adult educators and their working methods. The term ‘ingenierie de formation’ is used to refer to this area of work: it is a wider term than pedagogy or andragogy as it encompasses the whole range of activities that enable an adult education project to take place:

• analysis of learning needs (the use of this term is contested by some people who prefer the term learning demand);
• definition of training objectives, i.e. the expected results of the learning sessions in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes;
• the definition of learning objectives, i.e. the specific learning outcomes that the learner will be able to perform at the end of each stage of his or her course;
• the overall design of a learning project, i.e. the organisation of learning objectives in a coherent progression, the definition of corresponding content, the choice of method, learning tools and support materials;
• the establishment of the project;
• follow-up work
• on-going and overall evaluation;
• taking stock of conclusions of the evaluation process in planning new projects.

All these elements must be articulated in order to establish a coherent project. They must therefore be taken on board at the initial stages of the project, particularly the evaluation phase as it plays a very important role.

The development of this methodology is part of a general move towards formalisation and rationalisation, not only in vocational training but also in adult education in general. This trend also relates to the application of the “quality mark” and certification procedures (for example, ISO 9000) as well as the creation of a system of references for skills for professionals in adult education.

Pierre Freynet
This technique was developed to follow up a flow of information in the psychotherapy field and subsequently it has been used during longer-term adult education residential courses, mainly in managerial training focused on personality development and negotiation skills. It is fast, easy and flexible.

The technique is based on a simple principle: at the beginning of the morning programme, every participant hands over a piece of paper with just one Very Important item of News from the previous day, together with source of information and where it was obtained. For example:

- If roles do not change in a group, stagnation sets in. Charles - Lecturer. Discussion on dynamics in a group.
- When embarrassed, I close my eyes. A participant. Assertivity training.

VIN content analysis during and at the end of the course give us important data. It reveals the flow of information between the group and the programme and between the group and the individual lecturers/organisers. The items can be classified in three categories: knowledge and skills, personality development, others. In re-training courses, the focus should be on new knowledge and skills, in training of managers on personality development.

Experience shows that lecturers can be categorised as strong (in both positive and negative meaning), those who only rarely appear as source of information in VIN, and the weak ones, who never appear in VIN. Also, there are strong courses, full of most important news, and courses where most of the entries are from leisure time and concern the weather, TV news, gossips from other participants etc.

Pavel Hartl

References
Accreditation of prior learning is a relatively new concept in France, a country where the notion of diplomas is one of the main foundations of both the education system and the relationship between training and employment. The first official text on the subject, legislation published in 1985, outlined the "conditions for accreditation of study, professional experience or personal attributes in terms of access to different levels of higher education." At this stage regulations were related only to access to training. The second legislation (20 July 1992) omits the reference to personal attributes but is broader in scope as it relates to "the accreditation of professional experience in the form of diplomas". This accreditation may replace some examinations. Only those with at least 5 years' professional experience are eligible. The difficulty is obviously to identify the relevant aspects of this professional experience, necessitating the definition of indicators that allow the analysis of activities (job descriptions, organisation, amount of responsibility, relationships within the working environment etc.). The next step is to compare these targeted elements with the relevant formal qualification. Different "portfolio" type aids have been devised to facilitate this process.

French legislation currently only allows for accreditation of prior learning to take place in the context of traditional preparations for existing qualifications and does not enable skills acquired through experience to be translated directly into diplomas, as is currently the case in Great Britain with NVQs. Direct certification of skills acquired represents an important campaign issue amongst some professional groups and educators. Referred to in numerous articles and reports, some organisations and professional groups are already experimenting with such systems. It is likely to be addressed by legislation in the near future, despite strong resistance from teachers' unions.

Accreditation of prior learning represents the most visible aspect of a much wider review of the traditional education system, a review that is in itself part of the general movement of "Lifelong Learning".

Pierre Freyinet

The term "Mathitia" comes from the verb "mathitevo" (=I am under training) and means the situation in which a person gets theoretical as well as practical knowledge for a specific craft by working near a specialised craftsman. More than 100 years ago Cyprus' economy was mainly agricultural. The majority of the
Cypriot family used to work in the fields as farmers or shepherds. Children used to go for a few years to the primary school to get the basic literacy and numeracy skills. As soon as children were old enough to work, most of them started helping their parents in their farming tasks. This sort of apprenticeship was the main way for them to be acquainted with the agricultural tasks (i.e. ploughing, sowing, pruning, cattle-breeding, etc). Those of the male children who were interested in learning a handicraft (such as shoemaker, plumber, carpenter, etc.) worked as apprentices with a good craftsman. This system of apprenticeship could last from 2 to 4 years and usually was a hard time for the apprentice, who was obliged not only to work from sunrise to sunset but also to obey to any order of his boss. Corporal punishment was very usual and legal during this period of apprenticeship. Today apprenticeship is a part of technical/vocational education which is offered by the Cyprus Industrial Authority. This apprenticeship system is aimed at young people of 15 years and over, who wish to be trained and employed in technical occupations after completing 3 years of secondary schooling. Apprenticeship is 2 years long and includes attendance at Technical Schools and practical training in industry. Employers of apprentices receive subsidies for their participation in the apprenticeship system. Subsidies are granted to employers in relation to the wages of apprentices for the days when they attend technical schools. Each year more than 450 apprentices participate in the apprenticeship system and the total cost exceeds the amount of £250,000.

Klitos Symeonides

ASSIMILATION OF NEWCOMERS • INBURGERING NIEUWKOMERS The Netherlands

Assimilation is part of the process of integrating newcomers and relates to the first phase of the integration, in which newcomers must reach a form of self-sufficiency through swift and intensive provision.

The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science grants municipalities an annual subsidy for education, to help participants from non-Dutch cultural backgrounds to become assimilated.

In the education regulation, social competence aimed at education in the Dutch language and assimilation into society are discussed in particular, as is educational competence aimed at the ability to access further education and training.

Willem Bax

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GYPSIES, ADULT EDUCATION OF Hungary

The gypsy population estimated at 700,000 people, represents the largest ethnic group in Hungary. The “gypsy issue” in Hungary involves demographic, employment, educational, health, housing, cultural and psychological aspects.

The gypsy folk high schools were established as early as 1990. Since then, year by year, more and more folk high schools have been established exclusively for gypsies. The primary goal of these high schools is to train informal leaders, community development animators, social workers from among and for the gypsy communities, while strengthening the self-confidence and the cultural identity of the gypsy population.

For this purpose almost each school curriculum contains an outline of the origin and past history of the Roma population. Methods aiming at developing communicative skills of gypsy leaders and at improving
their public image and roles are represented the other areas of the curriculum. In this context the participants are taught how to prepare and deliver a speech, how to argue, what are the most suitable rhetoric styles in various setting. They also learn to write requests, applications and C.V.s. The curricula aim is also to provide traditional skills and at developing awareness of health, family planning, child care and environment issues. The courses take place on successive weekends, with a two-week summer residential camp.

The projects so far have been established by the county cultural centres and by the gypsy organisations e.g. “Lungo Drom”, the national civic association on protecting gypsy interests and the local branch of the Independent Union for Gypsies. All of the schools are free. The expenses are covered by different kinds of foundations, sponsors and municipalities. A special version of the gypsy folk high school are the “prison gypsy folk high schools”. Their main goal is to prevent the gypsy inmates from recidivism and to prepare them for their release. In 1992 the Gandhi Foundation financed principally by the government was established. The Foundation gives grants to fifteen gypsies at elementary and gymnasium level. It also has an important role in adult education for gypsies.

Apart from the above mentioned initiatives there are 160-180 gypsy clubs, which are cultural and educational communities of gypsies in villages. Gypsy clubs are often related to gypsy folklore ensembles, developing self expression and creativity in arts. There are altogether 35-40 high quality gypsy folk ensembles in the country. Gypsy cultural policy and practice is based on “romology” studies. Supplementary services to the adult education for gypsies is the “Roma Half-an-Hour” television programme in the Roma language relayed by the public channel of the Hungarian TV. This is the broadest forum of Roma life for the Roma society of Hungary. The philosophy of the Hungarian Gypsy Policy is: “If you give a man a fish, you feed him for a day; if you teach a man to fish, you feed him for a lifetime”. It has been guaranteed by the Law on the Right of Ethnic Minority (1995), by the government control of the Board of Ethnic Minority, the national and local self-government of gypsy communities and the Minority Ombudsman of the Parliament.

Laszló Harangi

References

PARALLEL COMPETENCE SYSTEM FOR ADULTS

Denmark

The adult education reform in Denmark has been developing since 1996. Its philosophy is to give all adults access to tailor-made courses according to their own needs, and to accredit experiential and non formal learning.

The parallel competence system which is at the basis of the reform includes four levels:
• Basic Adult Education
• Further Adult Education
• Diploma Programme
• Masters Programme

It will be possible to combine elements from different courses and subjects. Thus the personal qualifications, that are today new labour-market qualifications, can be rendered visible.

Arne Carlsen
With the exception of some types of continuing professional education, post-compulsory education is voluntary. Therefore the motivation of adults to engage in study is a matter of both practical and theoretical interest. It has also recently become a matter of government policy, as the need for lifelong learning, and the need to widen access to the education system becomes more imperative. Studies of participation on the part of adults have been carried out since the late 1920s in the United States, and the question of why, how, and when adults undertake systematic learning has been extensively theorised and researched (Courtney 1992) Removing the barriers to participation and widening access are regarded as necessary if the learning society is to reflect the principle of equity and the ending of social exclusion.

Adult education practitioners have a professional interest in stimulating adult motivation, and since the pioneering studies of Tough (1971) and others much has been learned about the motivation of individual learners, the social significance of participation and of wider access to the education system. Studies have demonstrated the connection between earlier and later educational participation, and also the ways in which it is influenced by factors such as culture, class or gender. Theories of the life-cycle, changing patterns of employment, and the need for a highly skilled and educated workforce have all been developed to explain the reasons why individuals participate in education.

Comparative studies of participation in higher education have related it to world-wide trends in demography, the expansion of the system, the redistribution of economic resources in the global economy, the increasing diversity of provision, the expanding international market in education, and more accessible modes of entry (Davies 1995).

Research has also demonstrated how participation relates to patterns of leisure and lifestyle, the kinds of subjects studied, forms of provision, and the reasons for non-participation (McGivney 1990; Sargant 1997). Such research increasingly forms the basis for national and international policies for lifelong learning, as educational participation is seen as crucially related to social participation (EC 1996; OECD 1996; UNESCO 1996; Dearing 1997)

Colin Griffin

References
In a long-term research project, male and female groups of prisoners were surveyed, comparing courses of civics mediated by lectures and counselling sessions focused on similar topics.

The courses were voluntary, there were two groups of about twenty people in each one of them, male and female prisoners in a wide age range. They were literate, with at least basic education level. The courses lasted six months and structured in 18 lectures of 90 minutes each. The following topics were included: History of Mankind, Role of Science and Culture in Society, Basic Principles of Ethics and Morals, Human Relations, Role of Happiness in Human Life, etc. The lessons were organised in a classical teaching way, i.e., as lectures followed by discussions. There were knowledge and attitudes pretests and post-tests, but hardly any change was found in either knowledge or attitudes.

Counselling groups is another way in which civics can be mediated. The aim is to stimulate group discussions on participants' personal experience and feelings. In the course of the session, the leader tries to focus on more general social conclusions and checks whether he/she applies this to his/her own behaviour. The course lasted three months.

At the end the offenders were found to have a better attitude towards the group sessions. The results revealed clearly that the lectures were met with passiveness and indolence, while the counselling courses led to a good acceptance of group sessions.

Pavel Hartl

Reference

SCHLUESSELQUALIFIKATIONEN

The term “Schluesselfqualifikationen” has been used in Germany since the mid-1970s. It was introduced in connection with labour market policy and vocational training (D. Mertens, 1977) in order to promote increased flexibility and a general education which could be used for many purposes. The original “Schluesselfqualifikationen” were:

• “Basisqualifikationen”: skills in obtaining information, grasping its meaning, processing it;
• “Breitenelemente”: knowledge/know-how which is useful and relevant for many different activities or problems;
• “Vintage-Faktoren” including knowledge which is normally acquired at school by young people but has to be acquired at later stages by adult persons.

The concept of “Schluesselfqualifikationen” reflected the shared interest of employers in staff who could be flexibly employed in varied contexts, and the interest of teachers in the development of “human” qualifications such as creativity and imagination. Altogether, the concept of “Schluesselfqualifikationen” was in keeping with the changes taking place in the world of business, in particular with its more and more rapidly changing qualification requirements and with the assumption that initial vocational training is not sufficient for the whole course of professional lives. The increasing number of changes of occupation as well as the deep impact of the changes taking place in the workplaces themselves (with micro-electronics as the major agent) make it a necessity, in economic terms, to create a higher potential of flexibility with employees.

After the adaptation of “Schluesselfqualifikationen” by employers and companies and the first experiences made with their implementation in education, the debate about “Schluesselfqualifikationen” in Germany led to the new concept of “alternative Schluesselfqualifikationen”. This opposed the idea of a number of “gesellschaftliche (societal) Schluesselfqualifikationen”, aiming at social competences and individual
Lifelong learning has become a reality in the past three decades as older people have returned to organised learning in great numbers. The term “third age” has come to epitomise those active, older, retired people—whereas the term “fourth age” tends to be restricted to the very old who are no longer active.

In 1972, the University of the Third Age was founded in Toulouse and it has rapidly grown into an international phenomenon, although at both national and international level its associations are associations of independent organisations. The International Association of Universities of the Third Age holds a conference every two years. Two forms of University of the Third Age exist: the first is found more commonly in continental Europe where the University is integrally related to a local university, but the second is to be found in the United Kingdom where the University of the Third Age is a totally independent voluntary organisation. An off-shoot of the University of the Third Age was established in Toulouse (TALIS – Third Age Learning International Studies) at the end of the 1980s, which holds the only annual international conference on third age learning and publishes its proceedings.

Other third age educational organisations exist. In USA, for instance, there is an Institute for Retired Professionals and many universities have senior studies groups attached to them. In addition, there are folk high schools for seniors in Germany, and a separate Institute for Senior Studies at Strathclyde University, which is an integral part of the University.

In a number of ways, third age education reflects more traditional liberal adult education, since vocational education forms no part of the study programme and older students who follow certificate courses do so within formal education. However, there has been some consideration about introducing certificate courses into third age education.

The study of third age learning, educational gerontology, is becoming an accepted area of research and courses are to be found in Master's degrees both in Gerontology and in Adult Education. The bibliography contains a sample of the major books on the study of older learning, and there are one UK and one USA journal on the subject. There are also a number of academic associations which have sections for educational gerontology.

Peter Jarvis
References
7. Adult Learning Operators

CO-ORDINATOR • SINTONISTIS Cyprus

In Greek, the verb “co-ordinate” is a composed word (sin-tonos) which means: “acting in a particular way in order to obtain the agreement between the tone or the rhythm of two things. Generally, to adjust the aspects of a program, work, act, etc. for better performances” (Tegopoulos-Fitrakis, 1993, and Demertzi, K., 1982).

The “co-ordinator” is the person who undertakes the co-ordination. Two examples are mentioned for better understanding of the term:

a) There is the “programmable office” in Cyprus that undertakes the co-ordination of the efficiency and/or development works of every Ministry.
b) In March 1998, a service was created which co-ordinates the efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for the Cyprus enrolment in the European Union.

The people who work in the Adult Education Centres are called “co-ordinators”. “Co-ordinators” are the main organisers of Adult Education Centres of Cyprus. They are seconded teachers or headmasters of primary education schools. They have the responsibility for the program at district level. They deal with enrolments, they organise in-service courses, they deal with curriculum development, they “discover”, supervise and advise the educators and they also give guidance to many local committees of A.E. Centres.

Klitos Symeonides

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Tegopoulos-Fitrakis (1993) Greek Dictionary p. 742

EDUCATOR • EKPEDEFTIS Cyprus

From 1952 (when the Adult Education Centres first started functioning) to 1979 the teachers in the Centres were called “daskali” because they were primary school teachers (Daskalos = primary school teacher). Since 1979, due to the expansion of the programme offered by the Adult Centres, secondary education as well as technical education teachers joined the team working for the Adult Centres. This resulted in the introduction of two new concepts in the vocabulary of Adult Education: Kathigitis (= secondary school teacher) and Ekpedeftis (= technical school teacher). In addition to this, a large number of specialists
in several subjects started working in the Centres increasing the number of the teachers for adults as well as the diversity of their specialities, academic status and occupation. To solve the confusion deriving from the three different terms (Daskalos, Kathigitis, Ekpedeftis) and to take into account the aim and culture of the Centres the term “Ekpedeftis” (= Educator) was adopted as a comprehensive term standing for all those who teach in Adult Centres. Today in the Adult Centres more than 500 part-time educators (Ekpedeftes) are employed and teach to a 14,000 adults who attend courses on more than 65 different subjects.

Klitos Symeonides

Networking is a target-oriented, subject- and action-related co-operation of actors across institutional borders with an important cross-sectorial role. New occupations in adult and continuing education and new concepts for the improvement of adult and continuing education have promoted networking.

As the example of environmental education shows, the educational map is changing. Within the concept of “sustainability” networking is playing a vital part. In Austria environmental counsellors’ groups (“Umweltberatung”) benefit from public support. Environmental counselling sets initiatives and offers practice-oriented solutions for appropriate environmental action. The job of an environmental counsellor consists of structuring existing knowledge, stimulating new research, representing environmental requests through policy counselling and enabling the translation of sustainability into practice in small and middle-sized enterprises. Citizens’ participation thus becomes more important.

Similarly, there are special measures to support people who have difficulties in accessing the labour market with a combination of training, learning, guidance, work practice, search for work, design of individual paths and further education. Within European projects the profession of the educational manager (“Bildungsmanager”) was established. Educational managers co-ordinate a network between providers of adult and continuing education and small and middle sized enterprises with regard to the European dimension. Small and middle sized enterprises create the possibility and resources to train within their enterprises on a high qualitative level.

Within the framework of networking, partners with different competencies work towards a common goal. Besides the traditional providers of adult and continuing education, small and new providers and enterprises, educational and training agencies and other groups also contribute to a new professionalism in adult and continuing education. The system is getting more flexible, work is target oriented on clear lines.

Gerhard Bisovsky, Elisabeth Brugger

References

The debate on “Professionalitaet” in German Adult Education has been very intensive for many years. Underlying the use of the term “Profession” is a hierarchical structure: “Beruf” (occupation) is more than
“Arbeit” or “Taetigkeit” (work, job). “Profession” is more than “Beruf”. This makes certain demands on training and vocational education in general and has an impact on the self-perception of people, on image, representation of interests, quality, and “Professionstheorie” (theory of profession). In a sector, where most of the work is unpaid or part-time (ca 500,000 persons) and only a small part is done as a main job (ca 70,000 persons) it is difficult to speak of “Profession”. Though Adult Education has been taught as an academic discipline for about thirty years and examinations can be taken in this subject, the associated field of occupations is loosely structured and there is still no practice-orientated vocational training for it.

A different term is therefore used in this context, and often as a synonym with “Professionalltaet”: “Professionalisierung” refers to the attempts made at increasing the number of those employed full-time in Adult Education. Largely because of the uncertain situation and job prospects in this occupational sector, “Professionalltaet” has become an element of “Qualitaet”. “Professionalitaet” therefore usually means (good) quality of work. There is no well-defined inventory of criteria to identify good, professional work. The aspects most often emphasized in discussions are:

- Curriculum planning: “Professionalitaet” implies the thorough planning of the teaching and learning process, the analysis of the target group and participants and the provision of adequate materials.
- Evaluation: “Professionalitaet” implies the analysis and evaluation of the teaching and learning process with the aid of previously formulated and checkable criteria.
- Continuing training: “Professionalitaet” implies continuing specialized further training and education programmes, including methodology, for teaching staff.
- Teaching competence: “Professionalitaet” implies a high degree of expertise in methodology as well as the ability to make use of it in real situations.
- Links to institutions: “Professionalitaet” implies existing links between teachers and institutions and/or corresponding professional organisations.
- Ethos: “Professionalitaet” implies a proven professional ethos, personal authenticity and the legitimacy of one’s teaching activity.

Higher education institutions, associations and institutions such as the German Institute for Adult Education and the Federal Institute for Vocational Training are striving to anchor these criteria of “Professionalitaet” in the initial and continuing training of teaching staff in adult education. At the same time, noticeable attempts are being made to standardise criteria, integrate different concepts and proceed in a co-operative manner.

Ekkehard Nuissl

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Romania

The specialised staff who work at the Ministry of Culture institutions are called “Referents”. Most of the staff members who work in this area are hired on the basis of government regulations that require that staff must hold at least a baccalaureate diploma. The decision as to whether or not the baccalaureate is sufficient or if a university degree is required for the position of director is taken by the local administration, with the approval of the inspectorate for culture or other organisations.

Statistics provided to the Ministry of Culture indicate that the following staff work in the 334 “maisons de la culture” (of which 69 belong to trade unions, 8 to students, and 44 to young people): specialists - directors and referents - 33.6%; accountants and administrative staff - 29.8%; auxiliary staff - 36.3%. In
58 “maisons de la culture” (27%) there is no management staff. Salary levels are rather low, the percentage of unskilled staff is higher than that of specialists and, as a result, on average, there are fewer than two referents at each “maison de culture”. The average age is rather high: staff under 32 years old represent 25%, while those over 40 represent 49%.

The data from “foyers de culture” indicate that more than 50% of the management positions in the national network of 2,738 “foyers de culture” are vacant. Specialists’ salaries cannot be freely negotiated; the Ministry of Culture limits them. The “foyer de culture” are self-financing, so it is not possible to negotiate revenues collected via tuition fees. The result is that there is no incentive for those working for these institutions.

In Romania, young people are generally interested in staff positions in continuing education. Still, this work is seen as unattractive as a result of low salaries, and of the negative image of this work. “Maisons de la culture”, popular universities and “foyers de culture” are still seen as entities belonging to the communist past.

Ileana Boeru

Reference

TRAINING FOR ADULT EDUCATION TEACHERS

This is one of the objectives contemplated in the Law for the General Organisation of the Educational System (LOGSE) of 3.10.1990. This law mentions the responsibility of the educational administrations regarding such training, as well as the collaboration with the universities in the development of programmes and courses responding to training needs in the fields of teaching, management and organisation of EPA institutions (adult education).

Teachers for EPA centres in Spain are not specifically trained for this work through specific study plans, but rather are recruited from among the teachers trained in the fields of primary and secondary education. In some of the autonomous regions in Spain programmes for specific “professional qualification” do exist. At national level the only mandatory requirement is to have completed the first cycle (three years) in a Faculty of Education. In short, as yet there is no formal regulation regarding the specific profession per se. In various universities and autonomous regions there are post-graduate programmes and Master’s degrees.

For non-teaching activities in the area of cultural action a particular three-year degree has been created in Spanish universities: Social Education Degree.

It might be said that the education and training of EPA professionals in Spain is to be seen more in a perspective of continuing and complementary training rather than under the criterion of specific specialized professional education.

Nevertheless, the fact that these teachers must carry out a number of activities – adapt syllabuses, create teaching and training units, work in group organisation, manage institutions and initiatives, etc. – suggests that it would be highly advisable to create a specific university study plan for this type of professional.

Joaquim García Carrasco, José Luis Blázquez, Antonio Víctor Martín

References
Soon after 1989, benefiting from the co-operation of the Institut fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit - Deutscher Volkshochschulverband (IIZ/DVV), and with the approval of the Romanian Minister of Culture, a group from Bucharest Popular University created in 1993 the National Association of Popular Universities (ANUP). Within a short period of time (1997) this association included 100 popular universities, maisons de culture and foyers de culture in a national network.

Training was the key to the ANUPs institutional strategy, which targeted specialised staff, as well as participating professors. It offered the transmission of pedagogic and didactic knowledge of continuing education. Particular stress was placed on training cultural organisers, while eliminating as much as possible the concept of cultural “administrator”, to which they were used.

In the framework of a national programme of investment in this system (between 1993-1996, IIZ/DVV Projekt Rumanien invested more than D M 500,000), between 1993 and 1997, the ANUP organised more than 110 seminars. On average, this came out to more than 2 seminars a month on highly diverse subjects relating to: political education, vocational education, management, marketing, planning and management, teaching and education for adults, co-operation with partners from continuing education, such as the trade unions, chambers of commerce, employers’ organisations, non-governmental associations, and the representatives of government organisations: the Ministry of Culture, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, etc.

Ileana Boeru

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