



BROAD RESEARCH ON ADULT EDUCATION IN THE EU

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Executive Summary	i
Key Conclusions from Desk Research.....	ii
Conclusions and Recommendations for the further work in the EduMAP-project	iv
PART I: CONCEPTUAL REVIEW	1
Introduction.....	1
The Structure of the Report	3
Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Discourses and Definitions	4
Active Citizenship	10
Review of European Legislation.....	19
1. Introduction.....	23
2. Lifelong Learning, Education For All, and Active Participatory Citizenship as Guiding Notions	25
3. Who is Considered as Vulnerable?	36
4. Substantive Education Law with Impact on Vulnerable Youth.....	44
Concluding Remarks.....	55
PART II: COUNTRY-SPECIFIC REVIEW	61
Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania	61
Concluding Remarks.....	107
Denmark, Finland and Sweden.....	115
Concluding Remarks.....	158
Austria, Germany, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia and France.....	160
Concluding Remarks.....	233
Greece, Italy, Spain, Cyprus, Portugal, Malta and Turkey.....	235
Concluding Remarks.....	320
Turkey.....	326

Concluding Remarks.....	344
Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovenia and Hungary	345
Concluding Remarks.....	413
The UK, Ireland and the ‘Benelux’ region	415
Concluding Remarks.....	481
PART III: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION.....	497
Regional Summaries	497
Key Conclusions	503
Key Recommendations for policy and practice	506
The Next Steps: recommendations for the further work in the EduMAP-project	509
Criteria and Recommendations for next work packages.....	509

Executive Summary

This report, written as part of Work Package 2 (WP2, Task 2.1) of the European Union (EU)-funded project ‘Adult Education as a Means for Active Participatory Citizenship’ (EduMAP), presents an overview of the state of the art of adult education across EU member states and one non-EU country (Turkey), specifically focusing on the role of adult education (AE) and lifelong learning (LLL) in motivating and engaging vulnerable young adults in the 28 EU member states (referred to as the EU28) and Turkey.

The report comprises three main sections:

PART I: CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

PART II: COUNTRY-SPECIFIC REVIEWS

PART III: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Part I provides insight into the key concepts of LLL and AE, highlights country-specific notions of active citizenship, and subsequently offers a review of European legislation concerning the target group of the EduMAP project. Part II presents country-specific reports, covering both historical and contemporary developments in the areas of LLL and AE in the EU28 countries and Turkey. Part III presents conclusions and recommendations and underpins both similarities and differences and offers possible solutions and approaches for the social inclusion of vulnerable young people.

The aim of this report is to provide an overview of research and policy developments in AE and LLL of the EU28 and Turkey. It endeavours to investigate the effectiveness of Adult Education for engaging and involving young adults aged 16–30 in political, social and economic participation. The specific focus is on vulnerable young people, and in particular the report aims to highlight the extent to which AE and LLL initiatives have been effective for engaging and re-engaging vulnerable (disadvantaged) young people, and facilitating their social inclusion across the EU28 countries. The concept of active citizenship (AC) is considered to provide a better understanding of social inclusion and participation of vulnerable young people, where AC is seen as related to the following: social, political or economic dimensions of participation and engagement. Engaging vulnerable young people through adult

education has been strongly related to addressing the specific needs and requirements that would facilitate their participation in the social, economic and civic/political life in their country contexts.

The promotion of active participatory citizenship of young people, both directly and indirectly, is an area where many adult education programmes overlap. Our desk research findings supported the view that the development of social, political and economic skills can take place through different types of adult education and lifelong learning (e.g. vocational education, basic skills classes, second-chance education) in both formal and informal settings. (e.g. Saar et al, 2013; Jarvis, 2012; Evans, 2011). The overall conclusions, pulled from our desk research, suggest both divergences and convergences in lifelong learning and adult education across the EU28 and Turkey.

Key Conclusions from Desk Research

1. The concept of active citizenship is used across the EU28 and Turkey with different aims, purposes and interpretations. Policy agendas and country-specific priorities define overall objectives and the meaning of active citizenship and the role of education and its promotion.
2. This lack of clarity and definitions of AC in the adult education and lifelong learning literature make the understanding, interpretation and role of citizenship/active citizenship somewhat fragmented and patchy, and the concept varies from context to context both nationally and internationally. The controversies and broad interpretation of AC that emerged from the literature suggest that there is a need for in-depth empirical research to explore the complexity of relationships between adult education, active citizenship and social inclusion.
3. Equally, within research and policy analysis, the concept of adult education and lifelong learning remains poorly defined and open to various interpretations and, often, with no explicit link to AC.
4. The role of adult education in promoting active citizenship for vulnerable groups is not clearly defined across the EU28 countries' adult education systems. Engaging vulnerable young people through adult education has been related to addressing specific problems (e.g. poor literacy level or unemployment), defined by current national political, social or economic agendas.

5. With the exception of programmes for newly arrived migrants and/or refugees, the majority of adult education courses do not demonstrate an explicit focus on citizenship education/skills.
6. However, different dimensions of active citizenship, such as economic, social and political dimensions, have characterised (often implicitly) AE programmes and initiatives across all countries considered in this report. While some programmes are specifically focused on citizenship (e.g. programmes for migrants), often ‘citizenship’ is not used explicitly and/or may be embedded. AE programmes and initiatives across all countries are seen as related to social, political or economic dimensions of AC. In particular, the:
 - a. Social dimension focuses on the development of social competences, social capital;
 - b. Political dimension encourages civic and political participation, running for boards, neighbourhood activities; and
 - c. Economic dimension relates to employment (e.g. developing employability skills), access to social benefits.
7. These dimensions of active citizenship, such as economic, social and political dimensions in AE programmes, are often driven by current national policy developments and agendas, rather than by the specific needs of disadvantaged groups.
8. Specifically, in the most recent decade, developments and policies related to adult education and AC have been strongly influenced by both the economic crisis and the influx of migrants across the EU28 and Turkey. These trends have resulted in the prevalence of market-oriented approaches and strategies to integrate refugees and migrants across adult education programmes.
9. Different types of AE have become important tools for engagement and (re)-integration of young adults into society. The role of AE has largely been associated with providing opportunities for young adults to acquire the range of skills required in order to participate in social, economic and political life. All country-specific reports have emphasised the significance of the following types of programmes:

- a. Basic skills and remedy programmes
- b. Second-chance education
- c. Retraining
- d. Vocational programmes
- e. Informal learning and non-formal learning
- f. Selected higher education programmes

10. Across AE context, the term ‘vulnerable young adults’ remains open to various interpretations (different perceptions among stakeholders: practitioners, policy-makers and young people themselves).
11. Gender differences need to be taken into account. Gender is not generally perceived to be a vulnerability, and there are few gender-specific programmes that focus on the promotion of AC. However, research has indicated that in some contexts young adults need some specific extra support on account of their gender (e.g. reports from Turkey and the Mediterranean region).
12. The review of European Legislation indicates, that the promotion of the active participatory citizenship of young people is an area where many EU programmes overlap. The issue relates to the agendas of entrepreneurship, young people in a NEET situation, young people with a migrant background, youth work and youth organisations.

Conclusions and Recommendations for the further work in the EduMAP-project

The following are the recommendations on the criteria for selecting good practices to be taken into account in WP3 and WP4. The overall findings of desk research and empirical research will contribute to the development of the IDSS (Intelligent Decision Support System) to be used by practitioners and policy-makers.

1 Relation to the project target groups: age and vulnerability

The cases of good practice that will be selected for empirical work for WP3 and WP4 will aim to identify policies and practices that facilitate the social inclusion of vulnerable young adults aged 16–30. The programmes selected as examples of good practice will aim to cover different elements of vulnerability (e.g. NEET, unemployed, refugees, young adults lacking basic skills, etc.). The concept of vulnerability is subject to interpretation from context to context, including

both country-specific and international contexts. Both the desk research and the empirical work will contribute to developing a shared understanding of the concept of vulnerability within the project. Gender will be employed as a cross-cutting theme, underpinning the concept of vulnerability across different contexts of AE.

2 Relation to the types of programme

The desk research of WP2 indicated that AE programmes that aim to facilitate engagement and inclusion of vulnerable young adults, include the following types of programmes: Basic skills and remedy programmes; Second-chance education; Retraining; Vocational programmes, Informal learning and selected Higher education programmes, for example, those that aim to address specifically the needs of vulnerable groups (e.g. summer schools). In order to ensure a fair representation across different types of programmes, examples of good practice from each country group will aim to cover at least two different types.

3 Relation to active citizenship (both implicit and explicit)

Active citizenship is one of the core concepts of the project. Within WP3 and WP4 we will aim to identify examples of good practice that relate to the promotion of active citizenship (either implicitly or explicitly) for vulnerable young adults. As defined in the EduMAP project proposal, active citizenship is considered through the following dimensions: economic (e.g. getting adults into employment); social (development of social skills and competences, social capital) and political (facilitating civic and political participation, running for boards, neighbourhood activities). Examples of good practice selected for empirical work for WP3 and WP4 will address one or more of these dimensions.

4 Criteria related to defining successful programmes (contextual analysis)

In the process of identifying examples of good practice, we aim to select successful programmes. For consistency across the consortium, some criteria that will help to consider the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful have been identified through desk research. It is noted, though, that we recognise that programmes may not cover all of the criteria below, and, on the contrary, some successful programmes may exemplify additional criteria, that will be identified in the course of our fieldwork. The contextual analysis is considered to be an important step in in the course of our fieldwork. The significance and

richness of individual contexts is recognized within our project, and therefore, it was regarded of crucial importance to provide opportunities for the partners to undertake context analyses in their country/ regional settings in order to identify and select cases empirical fieldwork. During the contextual analysis, in considering the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful, the following types of evidence have been considered: desk research (including statistics, policy papers, internal programme documents) as well as practitioners' and policy-makers' views. The following criteria are recommended for initial screening and identifying of successful programmes during the first stage of empirical field work (context analysis).

1. Participation. Are the programmes successful in ensuring the participation and retention of vulnerable young adults? (e.g. completion rates) ?
2. Accessibility. To what extent are the selected programmes accessible for vulnerable young people? For example, terms of ensuring funding; reaching out those who are hard to reach; other elements of accessibility (e.g. disabled access, childcare provision).
3. Outcomes, both formal and informal. Does the programme ensure meaningful outcomes for vulnerable young people, either formal or informal (e.g. certificates or qualification, development of social skills)?
4. Contribution to active citizenship. To what extent does the programme aim to promote AC (including economic, political or social dimensions)?
5. Sustainability. Is the programme sustainable?
6. Scope of the programme (national, local). Although we do not consider the scope as the measure of success, for fair representation of the programmes with different degrees of scopes, the country groups will aim to include at least one national initiative within each country.

Both the conceptual framework and the country-specific reports underpin a range of issues that relate to AC and adult education, and provide a context for the project work packages (WPs that follow the broad research). Theoretical and conceptual considerations have contributed to a framework for the presentation of country-specific cases. The developments of adult education at the level of EU policies and practices have been considered in order to provide a background for the role of adult education and lifelong learning at the EU level (seePart I). The country cases have been presented within region-specific groups, thus offering reflections of particular regional challenges and problems. This report, which was written as part of WP2, provides an important background and the recommendations on the criteria for selecting good

practices to be taken into account in WP3 and WP4, specifically through identifying the types of adult education programmes that relate to the engagement of vulnerable groups and the promotion of active citizenship, either implicitly or explicitly. A supplementary document, an Active Citizenship Concept Note, was developed to facilitate a shared conceptual understanding of the notion of AC among the consortium members. The Concept Note paper was developed to bridge the transition between WP2 and WP3/4. The work on WP2 emphasises the need for a shared conceptual understanding as well as for further empirical research in relation to AC. This is considered to be of significance for empirical work concerning both adult education initiatives and communicative ecologies. WP5 provides scope for feeding in the findings from these three work packages into the IDSS (Intelligent Decision Support System) to be used by practitioners and policy-makers.

PART I: CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Introduction

The aim of this report is to provide an overview of research and policy developments in adult education (AE) and lifelong learning (LLL) of 28 European Union (EU) member states (later referred to as EU28) as well as to investigate the effectiveness of AE for engaging and involving young adults aged 16-30 in political, social and economic participation. This report specifically aims to provide state-of-the-art knowledge on AE in EU member states and Turkey. This includes providing historical perspectives on LLL and a theoretical-conceptual overview of various conceptions of AE.

The specific focus is on vulnerable young people, and in particular the report aims to highlight the extent to which AE and LLL initiatives have been effective for engaging and re-engaging vulnerable (disadvantaged young) people, and facilitating their social inclusion across EU28 countries. The concept of active citizenship (AC) is employed to provide a better understanding of social inclusion and participation of vulnerable young people, where AC is seen as related to the following dimensions: social, political or economic dimensions of participation and engagement. In particular:

- Social dimension focuses on the development of social competences, social capital;
- Political dimension encourages civic and political participation, running for boards, neighbourhood activities; and
- Economic dimension relates to employment (e.g. developing employability skills), access to social benefits.

The examples of good practices of adult education and learning selected for this report, aim to facilitate the social, political, and economic dimensions of participation.

The methodological approach employed in this report involved undertaking a desk study to provide an overview of both historical and contemporary developments in each of the EU28 countries. The methodology involved undertaking a review of the relevant literature, including research publications, policy papers and materials related to various educational initiatives to engage vulnerable young people.

Qualitative analysis of existing research and policy reports as well as comparative qualitative content analysis were exercised through the following phases in the desk research: (1) identification of the material relevant to the study; (2) interpretation of the nature of the policies; (3) comparative analyses of the policies; and (4) identification of the main drivers and patterns in EU 28 and Turkey. Broad categories (themes) identified through the desk research, contributed to better understanding of both effectiveness of adult education and identification of the main drivers, policies and practices. The themes and sub-themes provided a structure for considering relevant developments in country specific contexts, including: Lifelong Learning and Adult Education (historical developments, conceptions and national approaches, adult education and vulnerable young adults); Existing research in the field and policy documents at national level; Specific programmes related to adult education (basic skill and remedy programmes; second chance education; retraining; vocational programmes; informal learning; higher education).

Examples of good practice from the EU28 countries have been used to provide an illustration of practical approaches to engage and facilitate the life chances of vulnerable young people across Europe. In selecting examples of good practice, the focus is on initiatives that relate to learning about, for or through active citizenship either directly or indirectly (tacitly) through promoting economic, political and social engagement and the participation of vulnerable young people.

The target groups for this project are vulnerable young adults. Over the last decade unemployment and social exclusion of young people have become important issues of concern for practitioners, policy-makers and young people themselves across Europe and beyond. Vulnerable young people often lack both skills and formal qualifications, specifically being held back by deficiencies in basic skills as well as wider personal skills. This often results in lack of self-confidence and motivation, leading to the disengagement of young people from education, training or employment as well as social exclusion. The term and meaning of 'vulnerable young adults' are open to interpretation and may vary from country to country and even from context to context. Many vulnerable young adults are suffering from disengagement and disaffection, and, therefore, they are at risk of social exclusion. The political concern in many European countries is how to ensure that this group of young people, often categorised as 'disadvantaged' or 'marginalised', is motivated towards social, political and economic

participation. The strategies vary from country to country, and therefore some initiatives are considered to be country/context-specific. This report will highlight various strategies for the social inclusion of ‘vulnerable’ young people in European countries.

The Structure of the Report

The report includes the following chapters:

PART I: CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

- Introduction
- Adult education and lifelong learning: discourses and definitions
- Review of European Legislation

PART II: COUNTRY-SPECIFIC REVIEWS

PART III: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

- Regional summaries
- Key conclusions
- Key recommendations
- The next steps: recommendations for the further work in the EduMAP-project

The first chapter ‘Adult Education and Lifelong learning: discourses and definitions’ provides insight into the key concepts of LLL and AE and discusses relevant theoretical considerations, contexts and discourses. The next chapter offers an overview of AE policy development at the EU level. The subsequent chapters present country-specific reports, covering both historical and contemporary developments in the area of LLL and AE in the EU28 countries and Turkey. Examples of good practice that exemplify the initiatives to engage vulnerable young people in all countries will be presented to provide a better insight into possible approaches adopted in specific contexts. Conclusions and recommendations underpin both similarities and differences and offer possible solutions and approaches for the social inclusion of vulnerable young people.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Discourses and Definitions

AE and LLL are indisputably complex concepts and can be perceived differently in different discourses (e.g. Saar et al, 2013; Jarvis, 2012; Schuller, 2009). As noted by Aspin et al (2012) different cultures have their own discourses on learning throughout the life course, informed by their own traditions. Similarly, the EU's terminology around education and AE has not always been clearly defined. It included references to both broad forms of 'lifelong learning' as education and training, 'from cradle to grave' and more specific interpretations, relating to particular types of education for adults. As noted by Hefler and Markowitsch (2013), within research and policy analysis on LLL, the concept of formal AE remains poorly defined and open to various interpretations. Furthermore, Hefler and Markowitsch (2013, p.82) refer to this concept as a 'poorly understood oxymoron'.

Given that it is challenging to develop a unified definition of LLL and AE, it seems more sensible to conceptualise these notions in the context of different historical and contextual discourses. As the country-specific reviews of this report clearly show, different discourses have contributed to context-specific interpretations of the concepts of LLL and AE. As observed by Evans (2009), in the educational debates of the past 30 years, and specifically during the most recent decade, the concept of LLL has been redefined both strategically and functionally. It is associated with a new way of defining tasks of education in modern societies specifically related to both moving to a knowledge-based economy and shifting to a more complex social world where individuals are expected to take control of their lives and acquire skills that would enable them to navigate different social spaces in the contemporary world. Education (in a broad sense) and LLL is seen as a key to learning and understanding how to meet the challenges of the modern society (Evans, 2009; Kersh, 2015; Evans and Kersh, 2017).

The end of the twentieth century brought about a global shared understanding of the nature of LLL represented in a range of policy papers and reports, such as those from the EC, OECD and G8, and these fundamentally reshaped discourses on the role of LLL. The relationship between education, life and learning has been defined by the knowledge-driven economy where the relationship between education and 'real life' is that 'the more we learn, the more we earn' (Evans, 2009). The Faure report (Faure et al, 1972) 'Learning to be: the world of education today and tomorrow' was crucial in developing a new vision of LLL, highlighting the significance of learning through the lifespan as individuals face a number of challenges in a

changing world. The interpretation of learning through the lifespan, i.e. LLL, has been based on different perspectives (Aspin et al, 2012; Evans et al. 2009). One perspective emphasises the economic justification of LLL, where the value of LLL is in acquiring job-related skills and competences, i.e. skills that would enable individuals to succeed in the job market. The second perspective provides a different view of LLL, where education is seen as intrinsically valuable, as something that is good in and for itself (Aspin et al, 2012: 1). The country reports have indicated that the first discourse provides a very powerful context and rationale for the development of lifelong learning and adult education across Europe. Moving young adults into work and enabling them to learn skills required by the contemporary labour market has been considered as one of the most significant prerequisites of adult education courses. This also reflects some of the findings from GRALE III (Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) III, 2016): it was observed that more than half of the countries, taken part in the GRALE survey, agreed that adult learning and education can have a "moderate" to "strong" effect on employability. Evans (2009), however, argues that LLL is more than simply about intrinsic value of learning or developing skills and competences required by the labour market. She maintains that repositioning AE within LLL requires a shared philosophy of the purposes and benefits of adult learning, which relates to a capability approach and the expansion of human capabilities rather than merely economic development. Such an approach presupposes that learning is rooted in interactions in the social and material environment as well as in the ways in which people connect new experiences to their prior learning (Illeris, 2009; 2011). This approach extends beyond the economic dimension, and the mere pursuit of happiness, and emphasises the importance of social and political participation as well as the responsibilities of participation, developing capabilities and the rights to participate. (Evans, 2009) These aspects strongly relate to the notion of active citizenship - one of the most significant foci of this project. The strong interdependency between civic values, learning and adult education has been increasingly recognised both in Europe and beyond. The GRALE III report has placed a specific emphasis on the role of adult education for civic and citizenship skills, particularly observing that there is strong evidence that adult education can help citizens become more active and resourceful members of their communities, specifically through not only helping individuals improve their literacy, numeracy and practical skills. It also fosters life skills such as resilience, confidence and problem-solving as well as encourages people to become more tolerant of diversity and cultural heritage. (GRALE III, 2016.) This brings to the fore the

question of the relationships between human agency, capability and responsibility (Evans, 2009).

There are differing perspectives of LLL and individual versus social responsibility. Evans (2009: 25) brings to attention a debate between opponents arguing for and against an emphasis on individual responsibility. One view is that the learning society is based on the principle of individual responsibility, encouraging learners to invest in themselves and facilitate their life chances. However, this may pass too much responsibility to those with the least capacity to exercise that responsibility. Evans (2009) further argues that there are both individualistic and social versions of the responsibilities of individuals. The individualistic responsibility as summarised by Ball, brings with it an ‘up-to-date’ version of ‘pulling yourself up by own bootstraps’ (Evans, 2009). The social dimension of responsibility recognises the wider social context at different levels (e.g. social and institutional), emphasising individual aspirations as well as engagement with the wider social world. Evans (2009) further argues, that this always involves mutual responsibility, social contribution and learning. However, encouraging individual responsibility may actually lead to lack of confidence, social exclusion and marginalisation of vulnerable groups specifically if they are not ready to assume such responsibility (Evans, 2009).

Policies that aim to tackle social exclusion became an important item of the European LLL agenda (please see ‘Review of European Legislation’ section in this report). Current political and social challenges have indicated the need to address a wide range of issues, such as the integration of migrants, engagement of vulnerable young adults and youth unemployment. Within the European context, the significance and role of LLL and AE in its various interpretations, has been highlighted by both research publications and policy papers (e.g. Saar et al, 2013; Jarvis, 2012; Schuller, 2009; Kersh et al, 2012; European Commission, 2015). The importance of the development of AE has been strongly emphasised by the current challenges (such as social exclusion, youth unemployment, low levels of basic skills) that need to be addressed, specifically through engaging and re-engaging the adult population in LLL and skills development. The seriousness of the situation is demonstrated by recent statistics and studies, which indicate that one in four adults in Europe have completed lower secondary education at most; what is more, differences between countries and age groups are significant. A recent EU report shows that around 25% of adults (25–64 years) in the EU – that is around

70 million people – have not completed any formal education beyond the level of lower secondary education. In addition, of these, around 20 million adults (6.5% of adults in the EU) left the education system with no more than primary education. The report suggests that Southern European countries are the most affected by low levels of educational attainment among the adult population. (European Commission, 2015).

Over the last decade one of the main concerns of governments in Europe has been to raise the skills level of the adult population as a way of increasing competitiveness in the global economy. The new debate has highlighted the importance of the development of AE and LLL in developing ‘knowledge’ economies and society. Weedon and Riddell (2013) note that the concept of LLL, originating from the beginning of the twentieth century, has been undermined by the difficult political situation between the 1930s and the 1950s, and then it subsequently re-emerged in the 1970s. It was promoted by institutions such as UNESCO, OECD and the EU. Adult learning and LLL are indisputably complex concepts and can be perceived differently in different discourses (e.g. Saar et al, 2013; Jarvis, 2012; Schuller, 2009). As noted by Boeren and Holford (2016), contemporary education policies show extensive common patterns, and for adults they generally encourage a close alignment between education and training and paid employment.

From the 1970s, in addition to more conventional formal education, the role of both non-formal and informal learning has been recognised as a valuable type of education for adults. A cross-national study undertaken by Holford et al (2008) indicated the significance of national context and suggested that Europe’s diversity was highly important and a single model of LLL across Europe was unlikely to be achieved (Holford and Mleczko, 2013, p. 27). Educational reforms starting in the 1970s have contributed to somewhat blurred boundaries between formal/non-formal types of education (Hefler and Markowitsch, 2013), and these are also observable in the country-specific reviews of this report. As Hefler and Markowitsch further note, recently formal AE has been redefined in order to try to cover reforms in educational systems, e.g. credit-based qualifications and national qualification frameworks. However, adult learning that takes place in a range of informal settings, including the workplace, community and leisure settings, has been an important area of research and policy debates both nationally and internationally. The lifelong learning agenda, underpinned by a range of European and international documents and policy papers (e.g. European Commission, 2000, 2001 and 2008;

European Parliament, 2006; GRALE, 2013; GRALE, 2016), has emphasised the significance of wider learning contexts, and accentuated the role played by both formal and informal learning modes. The complexities of the interplay between various configurations of formal and informal learning have been reflected in the changing requirements for skills development and the changing nature of the learning space (Evans et al. 2004; Evans, 2002; Eraut and Hirsh, 2007; Eraut, 2004; Eraut, 2000).

The origins of research on the informal learning of adults and the significance of its different dimensions can be found in the studies of philosophers and psychologists of the early to mid twentieth century, such as Dewey, Piaget and Kolb, who brought attention to the specific requirements of adult learners and the need to find appropriate learning approaches for uncovering their potential. More recently, the issues of informal learning have been discussed extensively in a number of research publications (e.g. Coffield 2000; Eraut 2000; Livingstone 2001; Malloch et al. 2011; Evans et al. 2006; Boud 2006). Issues such as community learning, on-the-job learning, informal skills development, learning through experiences and experiential learning have received much recognition in the literature and policy papers. A range of changes in economic and social development, the impact of globalisation and the expansion of modern technologies have contributed to the changes in perception of adult informal learning and have facilitated the changing nature of the ways adults learn and the extent to which learning acquired outside formal educational settings is being recognised and accredited. Informal learning has been gradually recognised as a core component of national and international strategies for lifelong learning, which aim to bring about wider participation in learning by adults together with expanding the range of learning opportunities and enhancing adults' life chances.

Both formal and informal programmes in AE (Adult Education) have been used increasingly to overcome social exclusion and facilitate the engagement of young adults. Specifically, in relation to facilitating inclusion and engagement, the following types of programmes have been identified (Saar et al, 2013):

- Basic skills and remedy programmes
- Second-chance education
- Retraining
- Vocational programmes

- Informal learning and non-formal
- Selected higher education programmes

For the purpose of this project we include some higher education-related programmes that, from our desk research, have been identified as programmes that provide motivation and contribute to the inclusion and social mobility of vulnerable young adults. These five types of programmes, listed above, and some selected higher education programmes contribute to a better understanding of adult education developments and provide a framework for the presentation of country-specific cases. The developments of adult education at the level of EU policies and practices have been presented in order to provide an insight for the role of adult education and lifelong learning at the EU level. The country cases have been further considered within region-specific groups, thus providing reflections of particular regional problems and challenges. Active citizenship (AC) is considered through three dimensions: economic, social and political. The next section will consider some emerging trends in AC across the EU28 countries and Turkey, identified through desk research. The interpretation, conceptions and understanding of AC vary across national contexts. Through our desk research, we aimed to develop some initial understanding of perceptions, developments and the role of AC in adult education in the EU28 and Turkey (setting the scene). A supplementary document, an AC Concept Note, was developed to facilitate a shared conceptual understanding of the notion of AC among the consortium members. The Concept Note paper was developed to bridge the transition between WP2 and WP3/4. The work on WP2 emphasises the need for a shared conceptual understanding as well as for further empirical research in relation to AC. Our fieldwork to be undertaken through WP3 and WP4 will enable the research team to further explore this issue, in relation to the inclusion and motivation of the target group.

Active Citizenship

The following highlights of country-specific notions expand particularly on the social, economic and political dimensions as essential elements of active citizenship, encompassing the development of social competences and social capital, civic and political participation and skills related to the economy and labour market, including employment and work-related skills, access to social benefits, and awareness of rights.

The concept of active citizenship is used across European countries with different emphases. To a certain extent, the way the term is used reflects the policy priorities of the countries in question. For instance, there appears to be a growing focus on political participation in France and Germany, while in Britain, community activities seem to be the focus of political discussion (Hoskins et al, 2012: 23–24). In France, politico-legal values like liberty, equality, fraternity, human rights, tolerance, rule of law and citizen duties are explicitly stressed, while support for the development of democratic competences and active socio-political participation of citizens are highlighted in Germany (Nosko and Szeger, 2013). The current discussion in Germany on people's involvement in active participation concerns both citizens and denizens (e.g. humanitarian migrants). The societal activities of individuals and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are seen as important contributions to German society and complementary to governmental measures (Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy, n.d.); however, this development has been criticised by some scholars. For instance, Benedikt Widmaier (2014) argues that the current tendency to stress societal participation and engagement has resulted in a depoliticised concept of participation and thus an uncritical and affirmative concept of active citizenship. In Britain, 'Big Society' and 'localism', key themes of the Conservative-led governments from 2010 onwards, marked a shift from policies under the previous New Labour government (1997–2010) away from a focus on civic and civil society to encouraging people to take an active role in their communities (including volunteering) (Burls and Recknagel, 2013). More recent policy papers have moved away from 'Big Society' terminology and instead focus on themes such as 'social action', but the underlying idea of increasing community self-help and reducing state intervention remains a key influence. Burls and Recknagel (2013) argue that the emphasis on social action and localism have gone hand in hand with a depoliticisation that downplays the role of civic participation or critical forms of active citizenship.

A tendency to increase social cohesion through community activities can also be seen in the ways that active citizenship is discussed in Southern European countries. In Spain, respecting others, showing tolerance, co-operation and solidarity among people and groups are seen as central values (Hoskins and Kerr, 2012). Policy discussion is related to the actual political, social and economic situations in the country in question. For instance, concerns about deliberative democracy and citizen involvement as they have been developed in the international community echoed in the Greek context without ever gaining enough prominence to motivate substantial change across a wide range of policies. These concerns found expression in the political domain with the adoption of a modernisation agenda that promoted decentralisation in order to make the administration ‘friendlier to citizens’, to give local communities a more active role and to make democracy more efficient. The General Secretariat for Youth is the only state organisation responsible for the development of youth policy and has worked for the mainstreaming of the youth dimension in governmental policies since 1982.

Currently, there is no legal framework for youth participation apart from the establishment of local youth councils. Youth discourses in the Greek context construct young people as ‘citizens in formation’, while concerns about ‘youth at risk’ and anxieties about its management have become more prominent in recent decades. Nevertheless, it was mostly the obligations deriving from the country’s membership in the international community that promoted ideas of youth participation and active citizenship. For example, the endorsement of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) resulted in the establishment of the Greek children’s ombudsman, which established a Youth Advisory panel in 2009. References to the benefits of participation and active citizenship appeared initially in the early 2000s in official papers regarding youth and dramatically increased around 2010. Existing participatory arrangements include school councils, youth parliament, the national youth council, local youth councils, student unions and political party youth organisations. A number of young people have chosen to self-organise in youth-led groups, which in many cases are oriented towards activist action often related to environmental issues and human rights. In official policy documents, in Greece, the term ‘citizenship’ is mostly described as a set of responsibilities and behaviours rather than in terms of a social-contractual citizenship of rights and responsibilities. Overall, the current rhetoric locates active citizenship within the individuals’ responsibility to motivate themselves and become active, indistinguishably employing notions of citizenship that are either duty- or responsibility-based. Most policy documents include a number of

elements in their description of a responsible citizen, the most common involve consideration, care and active participation in the community.

In Scandinavian countries, there appears to be an obvious focus on democratic community values. The values of human rights and freedom, diversity and equality are topical in Sweden, and in Denmark the concept of active citizenship is strongly connected to the social aspects of citizenship. Active citizenship is declared to be a cornerstone for the interaction between individual people's voluntary activities, those of voluntary organisations and the public sector. The voluntary commitment of individuals is expected to grow into a larger binding spirit of community, being a pillar of Danish democracy (Charter, 2013: 1, 3). The concept of an active citizen is connected both to citizens and foreigners who apply for permanent residence in the country. By passing an active citizen exam or through having exhibited active citizenship for at least one year, e.g. taking part in organisations that support the fundamental democratic values and legal principles of Danish society, foreign newcomers can meet the requirements needed to be granted a residence permit (New to Denmark, n.d.).

In Finland a considerable change in the way active citizenship is understood has recently taken place. Whereas in the previous policy programme (Ministry of Justice, 2007) it was expected that active citizenship would be practised and measured mostly by voting, *new* means of citizen political participation and influence have become a central topic of interest in the recent programme (Ministry of Justice, 2014). The sphere of active citizenship has also widened. The Child and Youth Policy Programme 2012–2015 portrays it as no less than an ethical attitude to the world. The notion of active citizenship is connected to global citizenship and includes social and civic activities, protection of human rights and non-discrimination, as well as a person's self-development, responsible consumption and environmental responsibility (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012: 14).

In the Baltic countries, neo-liberal tendencies are obvious in the ways that active citizenship is understood. In Estonia the focus lies in the citizen's capability and willingness to have a positive impact on society. Neo-liberal views can be seen in the ways that the national curricula treat citizenship at both basic and secondary levels. The concept of an 'active and responsible citizen' is used in the curriculum for basic schools (Art. 11), in which it is named as one of the democratic competences to be achieved, and the curriculum for secondary level (Art. 5)

highlights ‘civic initiative and entrepreneurship’, aiming for students to become active and responsible members of society.

In Latvia the concept of an ‘active and responsible citizen’ plays an important role in the policy document *Sustainable Development Strategy of Latvia until 2030*, which claims that ‘[E]veryone will have the opportunity to feel safe and belonging to Latvia, everyone [here] will have the opportunity to achieve his or her goals’. Apart from seeking to achieve their own goals, active citizens are important actors for Latvia’s ambition to ‘become the leader of Europe in the introduction of innovative government mechanisms’. In Lithuania the substance of citizenship is discussed mainly in Lithuania’s Progress Strategy ‘Lithuania 2030’. The concept of ‘active citizen’ is not explicitly used in this document but citizens are described to be proactive, enterprising, trusting their fellow-citizens, creative in their solutions and ready to take risks. Ideally, citizens would assume responsibility not only for themselves but also for others and for society, with a strong feeling of national ownership. The image of the citizen as an active and responsible actor, demonstrating ‘growing civic maturity’ is connected with an ideology claiming that the government must reduce areas of intervention, thus enabling citizens and communities to take responsibility into their hands (Lietuva, 2030: 10, 25). The Lithuanian Progress Strategy is a pure example of a neo-liberal view of society. Active citizens are needed because of the desire to diminish the role of the state in favour of private entrepreneurship.

In some Eastern European ‘post-communist’ countries, recent policy endeavours with the aim to ensure social cohesion have resulted in increasing nationalist rhetoric and intolerant attitudes. In this political climate, active citizenship is rarely highlighted. For instance, in Hungary, instead of active citizenship the concept of ‘responsible citizenship’ is used in government-issued policy documents. In the strategy of the Government of the Republic of Hungary for Lifelong Learning for 2007–2013, the concept of active citizenship is mentioned once: ‘Indicators of active citizenship (e.g. rate of participation in elections, indicators of confidence in public institutions, corruption indicators), and indicators of education and welfare (average minute ratings of TV programmes, rate of divorce, frequency of death causes related to alcoholism, low birth rates) paint a surprisingly accurate picture for the experienced reader about how essential informal learning is’ (Government, 2005: 25). It is stated in the document that the strategy for lifelong learning can be translated into productive action plans only if people have a positive social vision of the future based on public consensus. Thus, in

the Hungarian policy debate, the understanding of active citizenship is inextricably connected with public institutions and representative democracy in a traditional sense; no initiatives are expected from the citizens. Overall, in post-communist countries the term AC does not have real weight or a role in official governmental politics. However, in certain specific policies (such as public education, integration of disabled people and Romas, employment and lifelong learning) policy-makers are dealing partially with this issue. On the other hand, the functioning of civil organisations, educational autonomy and freedom of the press is impeded at the same time by these policy-makers. Consequently, we should take this contradictory situation into consideration during interviews and analysis with young adults.

Use of the concept of ‘active citizenship’ in Turkish state legislation is limited. It is striking that there is no reference to this concept in the strategy documents of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Justice, General Secretariat of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey or the Ministry of Family and Social Policies, in which the concept might be expected to bear importance. In other words, a holistic approach or an attempt to define the concept does not exist in state discourse. However, there are uses of sub-concepts and some scattered uses in some cases. For instance, ‘active participation of the disabled in social life’ comprises a part of the vision of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies as indicated in the decree law on regulating the organisation and the responsibilities of the ministry.¹ One of the rare documents where a direct use of the concept of ‘active citizenship’ can be found is the 2013–2017 Strategic Plan of the Ministry of Youth and Sports. This Strategic Plan articulates ‘ensuring that the youth become active citizens’ in the beginning of Strategic Aim 1.² In line with this aim, Chapter 26 of *Education and Culture in 2016–2019 National Action Plan for EU Accession* requires the Ministry of Youth and Sport to make legislative changes so as to ‘support active participation of the young people in society in social, economic, and political areas and their personal development’.³ The final remarkable document where the concept of active citizenship is used directly is the *2014–2018 Strategic Document and Action Plan for Lifelong Learning* prepared by the General Directorate for Lifelong Learning at the Turkish Ministry of

¹ Law no: 6518, Article: 70

² <http://dergi.gsb.gov.tr/2013-2017-GSB-STRATEJIK-PLAN/files/assets/basic-html/index.html#40>

³ The same statement was used in the law establishing the Turkish National Youth Council.

Education. This document formulates the aim of lifelong learning as gaining the skills for three primary pillars: one of which is active citizenship, along with employability and personal development (p. 24). According to this document, a strategic aim within the legislation regarding lifelong learning is ‘to enhance the individuals’ awareness on becoming active participatory citizens’.⁴ NGOs have adopted the concept of active citizenship in their documents on mission and objectives more easily compared to the state. Concerning active citizenship, the shared goal of the agents of civil society in Turkey is to raise the consciousness of individuals/citizens of their rights and empower them. Depending on the areas of expertise of the NGOs, the focus of their programmes and projects vary among political, economic and socio-cultural dimensions of empowerment. Nonetheless, works on good governance, in other words, on supporting individuals in taking over responsibility in decision-making and action phases of public service are still in their early stages.

To summarise, the promotion of active participatory citizenship of young people, both directly and indirectly, is an area where many adult education programmes overlap. The development of social, political and economic skills can take place through different types of adult education and lifelong learning (e.g. vocational education, basic skills classes, second-chance education) in both formal and informal settings. The overall conclusions, pulled from our desk research, suggest both divergences and convergences in lifelong learning and adult education across the EU28 and Turkey. Desk research supplemented by the AC Concept Note has allowed us to provide some preliminary insight into the notion of AC and its role and interpretation across the EU28 and Turkey. Further research to be undertaken through WP3 and WP4 will aim to investigate these issues through targeted field research in relation to policies and practices that motivate vulnerable young adults and facilitate their social inclusion. The controversies and broad interpretation of AC that emerged from the literature suggest that there is a need for in-depth empirical research to explore the complexity of relationships between adult education, active citizenship and social inclusion.

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Review of European Legislation⁵

Päivi Gynther, December 2016

Executive Summary

The purpose of this report is to review European legislation concerning the target group of the EduMAP project. For reasons of space, the inventory focuses primarily on the European legal acts that have a binding force and are currently effective. Both the European Union framework and the Council of Europe framework are reviewed. Data is retrieved from the Directory of European legislation, from the search tools of the Council of Europe, and from the sites maintained by the entities under examination.

The report comprises three main sections:

- The notions of ‘lifelong learning’, ‘education for all’, and ‘active participatory citizenship’ in the EU terminology;
- The notions of ‘vulnerable’, ‘young’, and the European non-discrimination law;
- Entitlement to education for vulnerable youth in the substantive European law.

The key conclusions from the study are:

1. From the viewpoint of educationally disadvantaged young people, EU policy and regulation emerges as fragmentary. Several DGs, their specialised divisions and decentralised agencies target at-risk youth. No evaluation study is done here concerning duplication or overlap of the many programmes and activities; however mission fragmentation makes it difficult to draw up a comprehensive report.
2. There are some EU acts containing legal definition of ‘lifelong learning’, but only for the purposes of the provision concerned. Otherwise, reference is often made to the European Key Competences for lifelong learning. The reference framework is said to apply in particular to disadvantaged groups whose educational potential requires support.

⁵ For helpful comments on an earlier draft of this report, *the author is indebted* to Professor Pirkko Pitkänen, University of Tampere, and to Professor Judith Tóth and her research team at the University of Szeged.

3. Development of qualification frameworks is a crosscutting issue for the EU, as for other international organisations concerned with quality provision in education. This includes the incorporation of the adult basic education into the qualifications frameworks.
4. The EU's accession to the European Convention of Human Rights, along with the process that aims to reinforce the relationship between the European Social Charter and the EU law, is expected to strengthen the recognition of the right to education within the EU.
5. The promotion of active participatory citizenship of young people is an area where many EU programmes overlap. The issue is connected, inter alia, to the agendas of entrepreneurship, young people in a NEET situation, young people with a migrant background, youth work and youth organisations. The Council of Europe legal instruments, for their part, cover participation rights of categories such as national minorities, migrant workers, foreign residents, and persons with disabilities.
6. The notion of vulnerable exists in the EU law, even if less than in the myriad of policy documents. Besides, awareness of vulnerability is reflected in the European anti-discrimination clauses. The six grounds of discrimination enumerated in the Lisbon Treaty are: sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age, and sexual orientation.
7. The Council of Europe minority rights instruments provide group-based protection for national and historical/traditional linguistic minorities; however State Parties have considerable latitude in defining which of the minorities present within their territories should have their language learning needs satisfied.
8. The European Court of Human Rights has in its case-law regraded several categories of people as "vulnerable groups". At first the Court deployed the concept of group vulnerability to Roma, both as an ethnic minority and as a socially disadvantaged group. In recent years, the Court has applied the concept increasingly, for instance to people with mental disabilities, people living with HIV, persons in detention, and asylum seekers.
9. In the EU law, the Charter of Fundamental Rights provides that everyone has the right to education. However, the provisions of the Charter shall not extend in any way the competences of the Union as defined in the Treaties. Secondary EU law

contains specific provisions on the basic education for asylum-seekers, refugees, and family-members of European citizens.

10. Council of Europe legal instruments address the right of young persons to social, legal and economic protection, to free primary and secondary education, to vocational education, and to vocational guidance. These instruments are in varying degrees limited as regards the scope of persons protected and the range of services, and hence require a separate review.

Recommendations

Without devaluing other legal instruments, the following recommendations on elements to be taken into account in WP3 are anchored mainly in the Revised European Social Charter:

Relating to vocational guidance (Article 9)

- Is the Good Practice under consideration (hereafter GP) connected to generally recognised qualifications frameworks?
- Where is responsibility laid for the provision of professional vocational guidance?

Relating to vocational training (Article 10)

- Which stakeholders are consulted in developing the GP? Has attention been paid to new trends in employment?
- How are the questions of direct or hidden costs (books and basic equipment, uniforms, lunch costs, insurances, travels, exam fees) solved?

Relating to disability, independence, social integration and participation (Article 15)

Is the GP provided in the framework of general schemes or through specialised bodies?

- What incentives are developed to promote the move from the GP to employment?
- What particular measures respond to accommodation needs (technical aids, teaching methods)?
- How students are made aware of and enabled to claim their participation rights?

Relating to social, legal and economic protection (Article 17)

- What preventive measures against violence in the learning environment are developed?
- What proactive strategies exist for managing conflict situations, irregular attendance, drop-out?
- How are staff qualifications ensured?

Relating to migration status (Article 19)

- What aspects of the legal status have affected in the selection of students?
- How is the teaching of languages organised? Is the teaching of the mother tongue(s) included?

Relating to equal treatment on the grounds of sex (Article 20)

- What measures are developed to ensure the avoidance of gender bias?

Relating to poverty and social exclusion (Article 30)

- What mechanisms are developed to track and actively reach out to the NEETs?
- Is the GP provided for persons with an express cause for social exclusion, if so, what? (E.g. illness, family breakdown, violence, release from prison, alcoholism, drug addiction).

Relating to non-discrimination (Article E, Part V)

- Does the GP affront some grounds for discrimination expressly, if yes, which?
- When at issue is positive action measure, what justifications are given for it?

1. Introduction

With the research problem of the EduMAP –project as the basis, mission fragmentation is the first thing that a review of European level input comes up against. From the viewpoint of educationally disadvantaged youth, EU emerges as fragmentary, both as to authorised actors and to missions.

The Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) is the executive branch predominantly responsible for policy on both ‘education’ and ‘youth’. Policies and activities of relevance to educationally deficient youth are dealt with by several of its units. Whilst the management of issues related to school, VET and AE are placed under Directorate B (Modernisation of Education), the management of youth programmes, youth outreach tools, and traineeships takes place under Directorate C (Youth and Sport).⁶ The DG EAC manages the Erasmus+ programme, with an ambition to provide Europeans “at any stage of their life” with learning opportunities. Erasmus+ also promotes the ideals of citizenship, solidarity, and tolerance among young citizens from 13-30, through diverse projects.

The Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion (DG EMPL) has several topic areas of relevance for the EduMAP-project. Within the DG EMPL, Directorate C has a unit for Disability & Inclusion (C3), whereas Directorate E has a unit for Skills & Qualifications (E2) and another for VET, Apprenticeships & Adult Learning (E3).⁷ DG EMPL is active in the area of social inclusion through several key actions falling under the umbrella of the Youth Employment Package. These actions include, for instance, the Youth Guarantee, which aims to ensure that all young people under the age of 25 years receive a good-quality offer of employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship within a period of four months of becoming unemployed or leaving formal education.⁸ Moreover, the DG EMPL is responsible for a Quality Framework for Traineeships that proposes guidelines for traineeships outside formal education, and of the European Alliance for Apprenticeships, which also may be relevant for youth at risk of social exclusion. Most recently, DG EMPL is responsible for the management of the Social Agenda n°45, comprising ten initiatives to implement the New Skills Agenda for Europe. Social Agenda n°45 focuses on the skills

⁶ Organisation chart ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/docs/organisation_en.pdf

⁷ Organisation chart ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=2796&langId=en

⁸ Council Recommendation of 22 April 2013 on establishing a Youth Guarantee (2013/C 120/01).

guarantee (a pathway to enhance literacy, numeracy and digital skills for adult workers) and on the way the European Qualifications Framework is being boosted. It also aims to ensure better skills evaluations for third-country nationals.⁹

Despite having distinct missions, some other DGs and specialised agencies also have a role to play in the promotion of education for vulnerable youth. An important executive branch is the Directorate General for Justice and Consumers (DG JUST), with its responsibility for EU policy on fundamental rights (Directorate C) and on equality, Union citizenship rights, non-discrimination & Roma coordination (Directorate D).¹⁰ Likewise, the Directorate General for Migration and Home Affairs (DG HOME) has a role to play in the management of Europe for Citizens Programme.

The EU has several decentralised agencies to support development of its education-related policies and to contribute to their implementation:

- CEDEFOP supports development of vocational education and training, inclusive of guidance and counselling, recognition and validation of learning that takes place outside the education system; and development of qualification frameworks in the EU.
- Centre for Research on Lifelong Learning (CRELL) works on the education priorities identified by the European Council, most currently on the EU2020 headline targets in education and training (early school leavers and tertiary attainment).
- Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) is entrusted with the implementation of, e.g., Erasmus+, Eurydice, and Europe for Citizens.
- EUROFOUND contributes to the planning of better living and working conditions, and has, for example, done research on young people not in employment, education or training (NEET).
- European Training Foundation (ETF) has as its vision to make vocational education and training a driver for lifelong learning and sustainable development, with a special focus on competitiveness and social cohesion.

⁹ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions A New Skills Agenda for Europe. COM (2016) 381 final.

¹⁰ Organisation chart ec.europa.eu/justice/about/files/organisation_chart_en.pdf

- European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) contributes to the promotion of gender equality and to the raising EU citizens' awareness of gender equality.
- European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) provides advice to EU institutions and Member States in the issue of fundamental rights, inclusive of education rights.
- European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (EASIE) is an independent organisation and platform for collaboration for the ministries of education in its member countries.

Though all these bodies and agencies provide some of their specialised services to the benefit of educationally deficient youth, the fragmentation also draws focus on the parts without adequately appreciating their relation to the whole.

2. Lifelong Learning, Education For All, and Active Participatory Citizenship as Guiding Notions

In the policy area of education, vocational training and youth, the main contribution from the EU is predominantly to set joint goals and share good practices. The Union shall not regulate what can be regulated more efficiently at national or regional levels. The reverse also applies: Union action is required when the objectives of an action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States.

What are, then, the legislative actions affecting educationally deficient youth that the EU has considered as necessary? The *Directory of European Union legislation* gave altogether 123 acts in force under Chapter Education and Training. From among these, relevant acts were sorted out by using following keywords with variances and cognate concepts: adult education, lifelong learning, active participatory citizenship, and vulnerable youth.

In what follows, attention is focused in the first place to legally binding acts, which under Article 288 of the TFEU, are regulations, directives and decisions. Documents that do not pose legal obligations to Member States are included when their content is clearly relevant for educationally deficient youth and when legally binding clauses are missing. It is worth emphasizing here that, in spite of their legal character, not all provisions discussed below are mandatory to the EU member states. Several of the acts under consideration leave more or less space for opt-outs or reservations. The same applies to the Council of Europe legal instruments.

These conditions require a separate study. Furthermore, it needs to be stressed that the inventory is not exhaustive, in particular insofar that it does not cover the UN legal instruments adopted by the EU.

2.1. Lifelong Learning (LLL)

The growth of a European lifelong learning agenda has been described elsewhere (Milana & Holford 2014, 35 ff.) In this review we must be content with a statement that the proclamation of the year 1996 as the European Year of Lifelong Learning was an important catalyst. Another landmark year was 2000, when life-long learning was declared as a key measure in Europe's response to globalisation and the shift to knowledge-based economies on the Lisbon Agenda.¹¹

As to the effective EU law, a definition of LLL is found in Regulation (452/2008/EC) concerning the production and development of statistics on education and lifelong learning. The Domains covered therein are: (1) education and training systems; (2) the participation of adults in lifelong learning; and (3) other statistics on education and lifelong learning, such as statistics on human capital and on the social and economic benefits of education. For the purpose of the Regulation, 'lifelong learning' is defined to mean: "all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective." The coverage of the data collections in Domain 1 shall "extend to all student types and age groups". Domain 2 shall cover at least the population age range of 25-64 years.¹² According to the Commission Regulation (1175/2014/EU) the age groups 18-24 and 65-69 shall be covered on an optional basis.¹³

Another legal act in force that expressly defines LLL is the Regulation establishing Erasmus+. This Regulation (1288/2013/EC) refers as its authoritative source the TFEU, Articles 165 and 166, which oblige the Union to contribute to the development of quality education, and to implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States. The Regulation stipulates that for its purposes, "lifelong learning' means all

¹¹ European Parliament and Council Decision n° [95/2493/EC](#) of 23 October 1995 establishing 1996 as the European Year of Lifelong Learning.

¹² Regulation (EC) No 452/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 April 2008 concerning the production and development of statistics on education and lifelong learning, Articles 2(e), 3 and Annex.

¹³ Commission Regulation (EU) No 1175/2014 of 30 October 2014, Article 2.

general education, vocational education and training, non-formal learning and informal learning undertaken throughout life, resulting in an improvement in knowledge, skills and competences or participation in society within a personal, civic, cultural, social and/or employment-related perspective, including the provision of counselling and guidance services.¹⁴

This broad definition indisputably covers education provision for the target population of the EduMAP-project. In addition, people at risk of social exclusion are expressly mentioned both in the opening paragraphs and in the text proper of the Regulation establishing Erasmus+. According to the preamble, there is a need to widen access for members of disadvantaged and vulnerable groups and actively to address the special learning needs of people with disabilities in the implementation of the Programme. Furthermore, the potential of VET in addressing youth unemployment and countering social exclusion is mentioned. Particular attention is drawn to improving learning opportunities for low-skilled Europeans, in particular by improving literacy and numeracy and by promoting flexible learning pathways and second-chance measures. With vulnerable youth in mind, a specific objective shall be pursued, inter alia, to improve the level of key competences and skills of young people, “including those with fewer opportunities”¹⁵

Implementing measures are specified in the annex of Recommendation (2006/962/EC), titled “The Key Competences for Lifelong Learning – A European Framework”. The eight key competences identified therein are: 1. communication in the mother tongue; 2. communication in foreign languages, mediation and intercultural understanding; 3. mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; 4. digital competence, basic skills in information and communication technology (ICT); 5. Learning to learn; 6. Social and civic competences; 7. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; 8. Cultural awareness and expression. The Recommendation considers all the eight key competences equally important. The EU Member States’ education and training systems are recommended to support the development of all these competences for all young people, and their adult education and training provision to give real opportunities to all adults to learn and maintain these competences. According to the Recommendation, the reference framework applies in particular to disadvantaged groups

¹⁴ Regulation (EU) No 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013 establishing 'Erasmus+', Article 2.1.

¹⁵ Ibid, Preamble paras 7, 16, 24, and Article 11(a).

whose educational potential requires support. As examples are mentioned people with low basic skills, early school leavers, the long-term unemployed, people with disabilities, and migrants.¹⁶

2.2. Education for All (EFA)

In line with the request of the Researcher in charge of the EduMAP-project, the European Framework is here juxtaposed to the Education for All movement (EFA) led by UNESCO. The EFA aims to meet the learning needs of all children, youth and adults globally and identifies six key measurable education goals (Dakar 2000). In order to evaluate progress with regards to the EFA's goals, UNESCO has developed the Education for All Development Index (EDI). Four of these goals are most directly relevant to educationally vulnerable youth, that is, Goals 3, 4, 5 and 6.¹⁷

Goal 3 (promote learning and life skills for young people and adults) is not measured by the EDI, reportedly due to unavailability of data. Nonetheless, young people are the special theme of the EFA Monitoring Report 2012. Goal 4 (increase adult literacy) was addressed in the second global report on adult learning and education, which states briefly that gaps remain in reaching young adults, especially from marginalised groups. Goal 5 (achieve gender equality) was the special issue of the EFA Monitoring Report in 2003.¹⁸

EFA Goal 6 (improve the quality of education), has been central to UNESCO lately, especially as regards recognition and measurement of learning outcomes in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills. In contribution to moving this agenda forward, UNESCO has developed Guidelines for the Recognition, Validation and Accreditation (RVA) of the outcomes of non-formal and informal learning (UNESCO 2012) and assessed RVA's role in promoting equality and inclusiveness in education (Singh 2015a). Incorporation of the adult basic education into the qualifications frameworks (QFs) is considered as a means to address inequalities in education systems (Singh 2015b).

¹⁶ Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning (2006/962/EC).

¹⁷ For the EDI, see <http://en.unesco.org/gem-report/node/888> and links therein.

¹⁸ Global Education Monitoring Reports are available from <http://en.unesco.org/gem-report/reports>

The need to recognise and measure learning outcomes even in the lowest levels of QFs appears to be a crosscutting issue for both the UNESCO and the EU. On the other hand, education for all, basic education for individuals who have not completed primary education being part of it, is not an EU policy area by tradition. Evidently, an expansion of education to cover even this dimension is taking place. Whilst the founding Treaty of Rome (1957) made only vocational education and training a policy area of the Community, and the Maastricht Treaty (1992) expanded EU competence further to education policy in general, it was the Treaty of Lisbon (2009) that increased the role of European legislation in the policy area at issue.

Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty the Charter of the Fundamental Rights of the European Union (CFR) is legally binding across the EU. The CFR shall apply wherever the Union has agreed it will legislate and where it has agreed it has competence, inclusive of issues related to education, training and youth. The CFR requires that those Charter rights which correspond to the rights already guaranteed by the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) be given the same meaning and scope as, and no lesser degree of protection than, provided under the ECHR. Moreover, the Turin process, launched in 2014, aims at reinforcing the relationship between the normative system of the European Social Charter (ESC) and the law of the European Union. One of the key objectives of the Turin process is to improve the implementation of the rights covered by the ESC across Europe. Thus, even though each Member State assumes full responsibility for the organisation of its education and vocational training systems, the current role of the EU comprises overseeing that educational rights enjoyed by people within the Union are respected and promoted. Chapter 4 below deals with the provisions of European legislation relevant to addressing education and related services of young adults at risk of social exclusion.

2.3. Participatory Citizenship

An understanding of European citizenship as a legal concept dates back to the Treaty of Maastricht (1993). The objective of the introduction of a Union citizenship status was then said “to strengthen the protection of the rights and interests of the nationals of its Member States”. The Treaty of Amsterdam (1999) modified the citizenship clause by adding the phrase: “Citizenship of the Union shall be additional to and not replace national citizenship.”

As it stands at present, the Lisbon Treaty (2009) defines that in all its activities, the Union shall observe the principle of the equality of its citizens, who shall receive equal attention from its institutions, bodies, offices and agencies. Every national of a Member State shall be a citizen of the Union. It is for each EU country to lay down the conditions for the acquisition and loss of nationality of that country. Rights deriving from citizenship of the Union are, inter alia, the right to move and reside freely in the Union, the right to vote and stand as candidates in elections to the European Parliament and in municipal elections in their Member State of residence under the same conditions as nationals of that State, the right to petition the European Parliament in any of the Treaty languages, the right to submit citizens' initiatives, and the right to lodge complaints with the European Ombudsman against institutional maladministration (Article 9 TEU, and Articles 20 to 23 TFEU).

In terms of participation, Article 11 TFEU reads: “The institutions shall, by appropriate means, give citizens and representative associations the opportunity to make known and publicly exchange their views in all areas of Union action. The institutions shall maintain an open, transparent and regular dialogue with representative associations and civil society”. Article 24 TFEU establishes “citizens’ initiative”, on the basis which one million EU citizens may call on the European Commission to make a legislative proposal. A new citizens’ initiative “[More than education - Shaping active and responsible citizens](#)” was registered just recently, with a subject matter to develop citizenship education in curricula on all levels of formal education throughout Europe.¹⁹

Regarding youth involvement in particular, Article 165 TFEU provides for Union action to be aimed at “encouraging the participation of young people in democratic life in Europe” and to adopt incentive measures for this purpose, excluding any harmonisation of the laws and regulations of the Member States. By the authorisation of this Treaty provisions, active participatory citizenship is dealt with in a number of EU legal acts in force. Regulation (390/2014 EU) sets up the 'Europe for Citizens' programme for the period 2014-2020, which as one of its two main objectives aims “to encourage the democratic and civic participation of citizens at Union level, by developing citizens' understanding of the Union policy making-

¹⁹ The European Citizens’ initiative “[More than education - Shaping active and responsible citizens](#)” Date of registration: 06/10/2016. <http://ec.europa.eu/citizens-initiative/public/initiatives/open/details/2016/000003/ga?lg=en>

process and promoting opportunities for societal and intercultural engagement and volunteering at Union level”.²⁰

In parallel, Regulation (1381/2013 EU) establishing a Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme for the period 2014 -2020 states as the general objective of the Programme “to contribute to the further development of an area where equality and the rights of persons as enshrined in the TEU, in the TFEU, in the Charter and in the international human rights conventions to which the Union has acceded, are promoted, protected and effectively implemented”. By this definition, several provisions recognising the right to participation at some levels of the government of specific categories of individuals may need to be taken into account.²¹

With reference to the mission fragmentation within the EU administration that was described in the introduction of this report, Regulation (1381/2013 EU) requires, in Article 11, the Commission to ensure overall consistency and complementarity and synergies with the above-mentioned “Europe for Citizens” –programme and with other Union programmes. As was already mentioned, “Citizenship” as policy issue falls currently under the responsibility of Directorate General for Justice and Consumers. In the area of education, training, youth and sport, the requirement for consistency concerns primarily Erasmus+, which shall promote, inter alia, active citizenship through strengthened links between the youth field and the labour market.²²

Active citizenship is frequently mentioned as part of the European Key Competence Framework cited above (Chapter 2.1.) Erasmus+, in its chapter on youth, specifies as one of its objectives to: “improve the level of key competences and skills of young people, including those with fewer opportunities, and promote participation in democratic life in Europe and the labor market, active citizenship, intercultural dialogue, social inclusion and solidarity. The same was said before in the Decision establishing the European Year of Citizens (2013) which stated that Union citizens should be informed, inter alia, about the social and civic competences

²⁰ Council Regulation (EU) No 390/2014 of 14 April 2014 establishing the ‘Europe for Citizens’ programme for the period 2014-2020.

²¹ Regulation (EU) No 1381/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 December 2013 establishing a Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme for the period 2014 to 2020. Council Decision [2007/252/EC](#) established a similar programme for the period 2007-2013.

²² Regulation (EU) No 1288/2013 establishing ‘Erasmus+’, Articles 11 and 14.

which form part of the European framework of "Key Competences for lifelong learning" and which can equip them to fully participate in civic life and empower them to exercise their rights under Union law.²³ The role of basic skills as a foundation and the role of adult learning in promoting active citizenship are also acknowledged.²⁴ Moreover, "ET 2020" clearly states that the emphasis should be on ensuring basic skills for all and on better integrating LLL provision, particularly to stimulate the participation of low-skilled adults (2012 Joint Report, Chapter 2.4).

As to existing policy documents, The Europe 2020 Strategy reiterates the role played by active citizenship as an instrument of cohesion and action to combat economic, social and environmental disparities, encouraging citizens to get involved in public life through sport, culture, the arts, and social and political activism.²⁵ Furthermore, the Resolution on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018) mentions the promotion of young people's active citizenship among its overall objectives, and identifies participation and social inclusion as two of its eight fields of action. This Resolution also calls member states for greater cooperation between youth policies and relevant policy areas, in particular education, employment, social inclusion, culture and health.²⁶

Taking account of the fact that young people are not a homogeneous group, EU policy documents of recent years connect the promotion of active participatory citizenship of young people, inter alia, to the agendas of entrepreneurship,²⁷ young people in a NEET situation,²⁸ young people with a migrant background,²⁹ youth work³⁰ and youth organisations.³¹

²³ Decision No 1093/2012/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 November 2012 on the European Year of Citizens (2013), para 14.

²⁴ Ibid, Article 2(19); Council Resolution on a renewed European agenda for adult learning 2011/C 372/01; Recommendation 2006/962/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning.

²⁵ European Parliament resolution of 15 November 2011 on the European Platform against poverty and social exclusion (2011/2052(INI), para 6.

²⁶ Council Resolution of 27 November 2009 on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018) 2009/C 311/01.

²⁷ Council conclusions of 20 May 2014 on promoting youth entrepreneurship to foster social inclusion of young people 2014/C 183/04.

²⁸ Council conclusions on enhancing the social inclusion of young people not in employment, education or training, Brussels, 25-26 November 2013, paras 7 and 29.

²⁹ Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, of 27 November 2012 on the participation and social inclusion of young people with emphasis on those with a migrant background (2012/C 393/05)

³⁰ Council Resolution on encouraging political participation of young people in democratic life in Europe (2015/C 417/02).

³¹ Council conclusions on the contribution of quality youth work to the development, well-being and social inclusion of young people (2013/C 168/03), para 18. Resolution of the Council and of the representatives of the

In the wider European framework, Council of Europe also has produced numerous documents directly relevant to participatory citizenship. In its legal instruments, the Council of Europe stipulates on the right to participation at some levels of the government of particular categories such as national minorities,³² migrant workers,³³ foreign residents,³⁴ and persons with disabilities.³⁵ In political documents, the Council of Europe has produced a conceptual model of the competences that citizens require to participate in democratic culture and live peacefully together with others in culturally diverse societies (Council of Europe 2016). The Partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth brings together the two institutions' experience in non-formal education, youth policy, youth research and youth work practice. The Partnership has existed since 1998 and since 2005 all its activities have been merged into one single Partnership agreement. The EC-CoE Partnership focused on the topic of youth participation in its work in 2014 (EU-CoE, 2014).

As to evidence-based policy support, CRELL has constructed a composite indicator on active citizenship within a European context as a broad range of value based participation. The Active Citizenship Composite Indicator (ACCI) covers 19 European countries and is based on a list of 63 basic indicators for which the data was principally drawn from the European Social Survey of 2002 (CRELL 2006, Hoskins and Mascherini 2009, Hoskins et.al. 2012).

2.4. Active Citizenship and Volunteering

Based on the feedback from the EduMAP-partners on the draft of this report, an additional effort is made here to look separately at the conceptual pairing of 'active citizenship' and 'volunteering'.

'Volunteering', 'voluntary activities' or 'voluntary service', particularly on the part of young people, has been a subject of interest for both the European Union and the Council of Europe for over 20 years. In the EU framework, a pilot action of 1996 led to launching of the European Voluntary Service Community Action Programme (1998-1999), where after the EVS became

Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, of 20 May 2014 on the overview of the structured dialogue process including social inclusion of young people 2014/C 183/01.

³² Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (ETS No. 157), Article 15.

³³ European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers (ETS No. 093) Article 29.

³⁴ Convention on the Participation of Foreigners in Public Life at Local Level (ETS, No. 144), Article 5.

³⁵ Revised European Social Charter (ETS No. 163.) Article 15.

part of the YOUTH programme (2000-2006), Youth in Action programme (2007-2013) and further on of the Erasmus+ programme (2014-2020).

Currently, a guiding EU document is the Council Recommendation (2008/C 319/03) that calls for Member States and regional and local authorities to recognise the value of volunteering in promoting social and economic cohesion; and, inter alia, to recognise learning outcomes of voluntary activities through schemes such as Europass and Youthpass; and to pay particular attention to young people with fewer opportunities. In this Recommendation, cross-border voluntary activities are characterised as follows: “open to all young people, undertaken by their own free will in the general interest, for a sustained period, within a clear framework and in a country other than the country of residence, unpaid or with token payment and/or coverage of expenses. Voluntary activities should not have an adverse effect on potential or existing paid employment, nor should they be seen as a substitute for it.”³⁶

The contemporary role of the EU in volunteering consist of: supporting Member States through the development of the Volunteering database; promoting exchange of experiences through the Expert Group on the Mobility of Young Volunteers across the EU; offering through the EVS young people aged 17-30 the chance to volunteer in another Member State as well as outside the EU; and maintaining the European Youth Portal³⁷, including a Volunteering Database and InfoKit for volunteers setting off on EVS.³⁸ The European Knowledge Centre on Youth Policy is a tool for implementing the European Commission’s common objectives for knowledge on young people and the Council of Europe’s monitoring and evaluation of youth policy.³⁹

As a most recent activity, the EU launched, in December 2016, European Solidarity Corps. This initiative allows young people to volunteer (or work) in projects for the benefit of communities and people around Europe. The European Solidarity Corps is open to people between the ages of 18 to 30. 17-year-olds can register their interest in participating. According to the launching Communication, the aim is to see the first 100,000 young Europeans joining the European Solidarity Corps by 2020. It is said to provide an extended basis for supporting

³⁶ Council Recommendation of 20 November 2008 on the mobility of young volunteers across the European Union (2008/C 319/03).

³⁷ https://europa.eu/youth/EU_en

³⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/youth/policy/youth-strategy/voluntary-activities_en

³⁹ <http://pjp-eu.coe.int/fi/web/youth-partnership/-/the-european-knowledge-centre-for-youth-policy-ekcyp-correspondents>

organisations around Europe that provide solidarity opportunities for young people, and to serve the needs of vulnerable communities, of public national and local structures on areas such as providing food to the persons in need, cleaning forests and beaches, supporting disaster stricken regions or helping with the integration of refugees.

The European Solidarity Corps brings together two complementary strands: volunteering and occupational. Participation in the volunteering strand is estimated to open up a new opportunity to engage in a meaningful activity that could prove a stepping stone to the job market. The occupational strand will provide young people with an opportunity for a job, traineeship or apprenticeship in diverse sectors in another or their own country. An occupational placement will last between 2 and 12 months and will be full- or part-time. Activities will be initially financed through the EU Employment and Social Innovation programme and other existing EU programmes like the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund and Europe for Citizens. Under both strands, participants will receive a certificate detailing what they have done during their placement. The Commission will also promote the assessment and validation of skills that they have acquired in the European Solidarity Corps.⁴⁰

Another recent European initiative that warrants particular mention is EU Aid Volunteers. Established by Regulation (EU) No 375/2014, it offers the possibility for European citizens and long-term residents in EU countries to participate as EU Aid Volunteers in capacity building of humanitarian organisations and local communities working in disaster-affected countries outside Europe. The European Commission sets out the priority areas for the deployment and the capacity building to be funded each year; runs the EU Aid Volunteers networking platform and communications to promote the initiative; and supervises and supports the implementation of the training programme for candidate volunteers. The Commission's executive agency is the EACEA. The first deployments of EU Aid Volunteers to humanitarian projects outside Europe took place in autumn 2016.⁴¹

As potential obstacles to volunteering, in particular across borders, has been identified, inter alia: lack of a clear legal framework; lack of national strategies for promoting voluntary activities; financial constraints; mismatch between supply and demand; lack of recognition; tax

⁴⁰ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. A European Solidarity Corps, Com (2016) 942 Final.

⁴¹ Regulation (EU) No 375/2014 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 3 April 2014 establishing the European Voluntary Humanitarian Aid Corps ('EU Aid Volunteers initiative').

obstacles; and insufficient data.⁴² One controversial issue is whether it is acceptable for volunteering to be used to replace paid employment in the public services. It falls outside the scope of this report to analyse how volunteering is regulated in the EU or its member States, or how potential obstacles are addressed.

With regard to the Council of Europe instruments, worthy of a special mention is European Convention on the Promotion of a Transnational Long-Term Voluntary Service for Young People (2000). A direct quote from the site of the Treaty Office reads as follows: “This convention aimed at 18-25 year olds wishing to perform voluntary service abroad for periods of 3 to 12 months. This text prepares the ground for providing young volunteers in Europe with a proper legal status. It aims to settle certain problems connected with the rights and obligations of voluntary workers and of the various partners involved, as well as the sending and receiving organisations (prior information and training, social insurance cover, accommodation, leave and pocket money). The Convention takes into account existing measures and offers solutions to the problems and obstacles encountered by young people wishing to engage in voluntary service abroad. It provides for the issue of a certificate recognising the skills acquired by the volunteer through this means of informal education.”⁴³

3. Who is Considered as Vulnerable?

3.1. Conceptualisation in European Law

The Europe 2020 Strategy, in its flagship initiative “European Platform Against Poverty”, aims “to design and implement programmes to promote social innovation for “the most vulnerable” By way of example, the Platform mentions groups at particular risk such as: one-parent families, elderly women, minorities, Roma, people with a disability and the homeless.⁴⁴ Likewise, the European Commission proposes in 2013 steps to strengthen the rights of the more vulnerable EU citizens, identifying categories of concerns such as children, people with disabilities, and vulnerable adults.⁴⁵

⁴² Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions — Communication on EU Policies and Volunteering: Recognising and Promoting Cross-border Voluntary Activities in the EU’COM(2011) 568 final

⁴³ <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list/-/conventions/treaty/175>.

⁴⁴ Communication from the Commission Europe 2020 A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. COM (2010) 2020 final. Brussels, 3.3.2010.

⁴⁵ Citizenship Report 2013 EU citizens: your rights, your future /* COM/2013/0269 final.

Some groups of vulnerable people are acknowledged in the two principal treaties of the EU, even if the term itself is not used. Article 3(3) of the Treaty of the European Union (TEU) states that the Union shall, among other issues, combat social exclusion and discrimination and promote social justice and protection, solidarity between generations and protection of the rights of the child. The Treaty of the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) protects the rights of the child to: protection and care; free expression of views; child's best interests as the main concern; and right to contact with both parents (Article 24). Children as a category of special protection and care are mentioned also in the areas of human trafficking and sexual exploitation (Article 83), and the minimum age of labour (Article 32).

A couple of EU Directives define, for their particular purposes, who is vulnerable. In the 'Return Directive' (2008/115/EC) 'vulnerable persons' means: "minors, unaccompanied minors, disabled people, elderly people, pregnant women, single parents with minor children and persons who have been subjected to torture, rape or other serious forms of psychological, physical or sexual violence."⁴⁶ The 'Recast Reception Directive' (2013/33/EU), laying down standards for the reception of applicants for international protection, has Chapter IV titled "Provisions for Vulnerable Persons". Member States are obliged to take into account the specific situation of "vulnerable persons such as minors, unaccompanied minors, disabled people, elderly people, pregnant women, single parents with minor children, victims of human trafficking, persons with serious illnesses, persons with mental disorders and persons who have been subjected to torture, rape or other serious forms of psychological, physical or sexual violence, such as victims of female genital mutilation, in the national law implementing this Directive" (Article 21).⁴⁷

The notion of vulnerability has been increasingly applied by European Courts, particularly by the European Court of Human Rights. In its case-law, the ECtHR has identified, inter alia, people with mental disabilities, people living with HIV, and asylum seekers as "vulnerable groups. The Court has deployed the concept of group vulnerability to Roma, not only as an ethnic minority but also as a socially disadvantaged group. Vulnerability of Roma claimants

⁴⁶ Directive 2008/115/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 December 2008 on common standards and procedures in Member States for returning illegally staying third-country nationals, Article 3(9).

⁴⁷ More about this Directive below in Chapter 4.2.1.

has been determined resulting from prejudice and stigmatization on the one hand, social disadvantage and material deprivation on the other hand.

The use of the notion ‘vulnerable groups’ in EU multilateral, regional and bilateral cooperation has been reviewed within the FRAME-project, focusing expressly on policy documents regarding children, women, Roma, asylum seekers and refugees, persons with disabilities and LGBTI’s. The questions examined in the review are: whether the EU gives a definition of these particular groups; what makes them vulnerable according to the EU; are any vulnerable sub-groups recognised; and what are the key priority areas and action identified (Churruza Muguruza. et.al. 2014).

There is growing body of literature discussing the use of the vulnerability as a justification for law. Recent studies include, for instance, an overview of how the European Court of Justice and the European Court of Human Rights attend to the vulnerable in their case-law (Ippolito & Iglesias Sánchez 2015); critical assessments of how the ECtHR uses the term ‘vulnerable groups’ (Burgorgue-Larsen 2014, Peroni & Timmer 2015), and an analysis of the vulnerability theory’s potential tendency to promote unduly paternalistic policies (Kohn 2014).

3.2. Young age as an additional characteristic to vulnerability

As no single, formal European definition of “youth” nor “child” due to age exists, the main legal parameter is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), according to which every person is child until the age of 18. Broadly speaking, vulnerable youth below the age of 18 are protected both under the CRC and the European children’s rights law.

However, a broad definition in this issue, as in many others, is a loophole with consequences for youth at risk of educational marginalisation. The CRC is progressive insofar that it offers protection for any person below 18 years of age, but at the same time it makes this definition conditional by stating that it applies only ‘unless, under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier’. Likewise, the European Social Charter, to be discussed shortly below, stipulates in its body text on the right of young persons to education; yet at the same time its Appendix explicates that the provision in question does not imply an obligation to provide compulsory education up to the age of 18.

Even though the concept of ‘young people’ is used in several European instruments, it is recurrently left undefined. As an exception can be mentioned ‘Young Workers Directive’ (94/33/EC)⁴⁸, which stipulates -- among other things – on the duty of member states to ensure that working time and working conditions of ‘children’, ‘adolescents’ and ‘young people’ shall not adversely affect their ability to benefit from education. For the purposes of the Directive, each of these concepts is defined separately. Accordingly, ‘young person’ shall mean a person under 18 years of age having an employment contract or an employment relationship defined by the law in force in a Member State and/or governed by the law in force in a Member State. ‘Child’ is stipulated to mean any young person of less than 15 years of age or who is still subject to compulsory full-time schooling under national law. As a third term defined in the Directive, ‘adolescent’ shall mean any young person of at least 15 years of age but less than 18 years of age who is no longer subject to compulsory full-time schooling under national law (Articles 2(1) and 3).

With some exceptions, then, definition of what is meant by young people is left for member states to decide. On the other hand, European anti-discrimination legislation should cover vulnerable youth above the age of childhood, as anybody. Before we go on to that, one more definition, closely linked to vulnerability, needs to be given, which is ‘disability’ as understood in the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). Even if the review in hand does not cover UN legal instruments, an exception was asked in the feedback from the EduMAP-partners on the draft report. The CRPD notes that disability is an evolving concept and that disability results from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others. According to Article 1, “persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others”.⁴⁹

⁴⁸ Directive 94/33/EC on the protection of young people at work.

⁴⁹ Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, (entered into force on 3 May 2008) 2515 UNTS 3.

3.3. Groups on which the EU has been conferred power to legislate relating to non-discrimination

The TFEU expressly names six grounds of discrimination which the Union shall aim to combat in defining and implementing its policies and activities: *sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age, and sexual orientation*. It is on these specified groups that the EU also has been conferred power to adopt legislation to combat discrimination (Articles 10 and 19 TFEU). Key EU directives targeting these six grounds are in the following described one by one, where possible from a perspective of educationally vulnerable youth.

The ‘Gender Recast Directive’ (2006/54/EC) which brings together several older directives, prohibits direct as well as indirect discrimination on grounds of sex -- in particular harassment and sexual harassment -- in the public or private sectors, including public bodies, in relation to, inter alia, access to all types and to all levels of vocational guidance, vocational training, advanced vocational training and retraining, including practical work experience.⁵⁰

The ‘Race Directive’ (2000/43/EC) provides protection from discrimination based on racial or ethnic origin in several sectors of society, including education. The Directive shall apply to all persons on both the public and private sectors.⁵¹

The ‘Framework Directive’ (2000/78/EC) prohibits discrimination on grounds of religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation. In contrast to the Race Directive, the Framework Directive is more restrictive in its scope of sectors where discrimination is prohibited. However, it does apply both the public and private sectors, in relation to access to all types and to all levels of vocational guidance, vocational training, advanced vocational training and retraining, including practical work.⁵² The sector of education as such is not included.

Religion or belief does not seem to be considered as discrimination ground that demand strengthened legal protection, whereas efforts have been made to reinforce the protection of persons with disabilities by the “European Accessibility Act“. The proposed Act requires

⁵⁰ Directive 2006/54/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast), Articles 1, 14, 26.

⁵¹ Directive 2000/43/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin.

⁵² Directive 2000/78/EC establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation, Articles 3, 6.

Member States to “take appropriate measures” to ensure equal access for disabled people to all services and products, inclusive of educational services.⁵³

Whilst the Accessibility Act has not been adopted into EU law so far, vulnerability of people with disabilities is clearly acknowledged in the Revised European Social Charter (ESC). Article 15(1) stipulates that, persons with disabilities, “irrespective of age and the nature and origin of their disabilities”, shall be provided “with guidance, education and vocational training in the framework of general schemes wherever possible or, where this is not possible, through specialised bodies, public or private; the effective exercise of the right to independence, social integration and participation in the life of the community. The CFR also stipulates on the integration of persons with disabilities, by stating that the Union recognises and respects the right of persons with disabilities to benefit from measures designed to ensure their independence, social and occupational integration and participation in the life of the community.⁵⁴ These wordings in the ESC and the CFR go clearly beyond mere rehabilitation measures.

With regard to age as a prohibited ground of discrimination, protection differs from the other non-discrimination grounds in that the Framework Directive allows age discrimination that pursues ‘legitimate employment policy, labour market and vocational training objectives’, provided that this meets the proportionality test. The setting of special conditions on access to employment and vocational training, employment and occupation for young people, in order to promote their vocational integration, is given as an example of such lawful direct age discrimination.⁵⁵

The need to combat discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity has been raised several times after the entry into force of the Framework Directive. In 2014 the European Parliament suggested that transgender and intersex persons should be covered under ‘sex’ in the above-mentioned Gender Recast Directive (2006/54/EC).⁵⁶ In 2015, the Commission, for its part, published List of Actions to advance LGBTI equality. Education was

⁵³ Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and the Council on the approximation of the laws, regulations and administrative provisions of the Member States as regards the accessibility requirements for products and services. COM (2015) 615 final 2015/0278(COD).

⁵⁴ Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, Article 26.

⁵⁵ Framework Directive Article 6

⁵⁶ European Parliament resolution of 4 February 2014 on the EU Roadmap against homophobia and discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity ([2013/2183\(INI\)](#))

mentioned as one of the policy areas where the social acceptance of LGBTI people should be improved.⁵⁷

Furthermore, there is, since 2008, the proposed Directive on implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation. This directive aims to supplement the existing EU legal framework and to extend the scope of the principle of equal treatment between persons. According to the proposal, the principle shall not apply to differences in treatment based on religion or beliefs with regard to access to educational institutions founded on religion or beliefs. Furthermore, the scope of the proposal does not cover differences in treatment based on the nationality or legal status of foreigners in the territory of Member State.⁵⁸ In other respects, the proposed Directive would have impact, *inter alia*, on education.

3.4. Groups on which the power to legislate remains with the Member States.

The six forms of discrimination discussed above are different from other grounds in that the Union has power to adopt legislative acts to combat them (Article 19 TFEU). In addition to these exhaustively listed forms of discrimination, the Charter of Fundamental Rights prohibits discrimination on “any grounds, such as” ...social origin, genetic features, language, political or any other opinion, membership of a national minority, property, birth.⁵⁹ At least two of these grounds are relevant for educationally vulnerable youth, namely ‘membership of a national minority’ and ‘language’.

Remarkably, the reference to membership of a national minority differs from the TEU, which does mention “ethnic origin” and “religion” as protected grounds of discrimination, without reference to minority status. Elsewhere, the TEU does recognize "the rights of persons belonging to minorities", among the values on which the Union is founded (Article 2 TEU),

⁵⁷ List of Actions by the Commission to advance LGBTI equality, 6 December 2015.

⁵⁸ Proposal for a Council Directive on implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation {SEC(2008) 2181 }/* COM/2008/0426 final - CNS 2008/0140 */

⁵⁹ Article 21 CFU. These grounds of discrimination, not being compatible with Article 19 TFEU, only address discriminations by the institutions and bodies of the Union themselves when exercising powers conferred under the Treaties, and by Member States only when they are implementing Union law. Explanations Relating to the Charter of Fundamental Rights (2007/C 303/02).

but without reference to nationality. On the other hand, the Council of Europe law comprises distinct legal instrument providing group-based protection for national minorities of the Contracting States, namely the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (FCNM). The State Parties have wide margin of appreciation to assess which groups are to be covered by it.

From the viewpoint of educationally disadvantaged youth, another important ground of discrimination that the Article 21 CFR expressly names is language. In the immediately following Article 22, the CFR states that Union shall respect cultural, religious and linguistic diversity. The EU Directive for regional, minority or endangered languages is currently a topic of hearing in the European Parliament. The Council of Europe, in turn, does have since long a policy instrument providing for linguistic diversity. The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) contains a wide range of provisions on language and education, calling for minority language education at all levels, inclusive of adult education. The ECRML is based on respect for national sovereignty and territorial integrity. The scope of application of the ECRML is limited to historical/traditional languages used within a state's territory. Languages of recent migrants are explicitly excluded.

Is European non-discrimination legislation so construed as to protect vulnerable youth from educational exclusion? None of the European non-discrimination provisions makes reference to attributes such as basic skills deficiency, limited language proficiency, early school leavers, teenage parents, young unmarried mothers, youth with mental disorders, homeless youth, youth that has 'aged out' of foster care or of supported housing units for adolescent asylum seekers, etc. However, the non-discrimination clause in the CFR, as well as in the ECHR and the ESC, starts with the phrase "on any ground such as..." and end with the phrase "or other status".⁶⁰ Such 'catch-all' provisions can cover even youth at risk of social exclusion that do not fit into any of the enumerated grounds discussed above.

⁶⁰ See ECHR (1950) Article 14; Protocol No. 12 to the ECHR (2005 Article 1; and the Rev. ESC (1996) Article E.

4. Substantive Education Law with Impact on Vulnerable Youth

4.1 European law as a political arena

In line with the principle of subsidiarity, education policies in the EU are principally agreed on at the level of the Member States. Harmonisation of the laws and regulations of the Member States is explicitly excluded in the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. It also clearly requires the Union to fully respect the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems (Article 165(1) TFEU).

Nonetheless, the EU can take action under the ordinary legislative procedure, that is, co-decision where the European Commission has the right of legislative initiative and the Council of the EU and the European Parliament are legislators. The Lisbon Treaty even puts pressure on the Union to be active on the policy area under discussion, by stipulating, that “in defining and implementing its policies and activities, the Union shall take into account requirements linked to the promotion of ... a high level of education [and] training. (Title II, Article 9 of the TFEU). Likewise, the recognition of the right to education in the Charter of Fundamental Rights, which enjoys the same legal force as the Treaties, contributes to the increasing role of European legislation in this field.

The objective of this Chapter is to map to what extent European legal frameworks provide educational opportunities for young adults at risk of social exclusion. In order to generate useful knowledge for the EduMAP-project, the inventory is structured in line with the instructions for the country reports on WP 2.1.

Before going further, it must be underlined that the purpose is not to extol judicialisation of education at the expense of politics. International legal standards on education contain a wide range of vague words and phrases, gaps and lacunae, which need not to be left to courts and judges. An explicit reference can here be made to other research within this Work Package of the EduMAP. For instance, the Hungarian partners introduce in their report an interpretative framework to identify the various ways in which ‘adult learning’ is understood by transnational actors involved in the contemporary discourses of lifelong learning and the knowledge economy.

4.2. European legal framework on basic skills

Educationally deficient youth may enjoy the protection of law, not only through anti-discrimination legislation, but also through substantive provisions on education.

4.2.1 EU Law

Article 165(1) TFEU stipulates that the Union shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, “while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity”. According to Article 165(2), Union action shall be aimed, inter alia, at: “encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of socio-educational instructors, and encouraging the participation of young people in democratic life in Europe”. At this point, youth as a category of concern are mentioned, but not youth with basic skills deficiency.

The CFR, in its Article 14(1), provides that “Everyone has the right to education”. Furthermore, Article 14(2) specifies that “This right includes the possibility to receive free compulsory education”. According to Explanations regarding the CFR, Article 14 merely implies that, as regards compulsory education, each child has the possibility of attending an establishment which offers free education. It does not require all establishments which provide education to be free of charge.⁶¹

As to secondary EU law, basic education is mentioned in a number of Directives. In chronologically reverse order, the most recent ones concern: asylum-seekers, refugees, and family-members of European citizens:

The ‘Recast Reception Directive’ (2013/33/EU) stipulates on the education and schooling of applicants for international protection. Article 10 reads as follows:

- (1). Member States shall grant to minor children of applicants and to applicants who are minors access to the education system under similar conditions as their own nationals for so long as an expulsion measure against them or their parents is not actually enforced.

⁶¹ Explanations Relating to the Charter of Fundamental Rights (2007/C 303/02).

Such education may be provided in accommodation centres. The Member State concerned may stipulate that such access must be confined to the State education system. Member States shall not withdraw secondary education for the sole reason that the minor has reached the age of majority.

(2). Access to the education system shall not be postponed for more than three months from the date on which the application for international protection was lodged by or on behalf of the minor. Preparatory classes, including language classes, shall be provided to minors where it is necessary to facilitate their access to and participation in the education system as set out in paragraph 1.

(3). Where access to the education system as set out in paragraph 1 is not possible due to the specific situation of the minor, the Member State concerned shall offer other education arrangements in accordance with its national law and practice.⁶²

The ‘Recast Qualification Directive’ (2011/95/EU) aims to create of a uniform status for refugees and for persons eligible for subsidiary protection within EU. It concerns ‘third country nationals’ or ‘stateless persons’. In Article 27, Member States are obliged to grant full access to the education system to all minors granted international protection, under the same conditions as nationals. Moreover, adults granted international protection shall be allowed access to the general education system under the same conditions as third-country nationals legally resident.⁶³ The ‘Long-Term Residents Directive’ (2003/109/EC), for its part, stipulates that long-term residents shall enjoy equal treatment with EU Member State citizens as regards access to education in accordance with national law.⁶⁴

[Regulation \(EU\) No 492/2011](#) details workers' rights to free movement and defines specific areas where discrimination on grounds of nationality is prohibited. These areas include access to training and access to education for children. Article 10 reads: “The children of a national of a Member State who is or has been employed in the territory of another Member State shall be admitted to that State’s general educational, apprenticeship and vocational training courses under the same conditions as the nationals of that State, if such children are residing in its

⁶² Directive 2013/33/ laying down standards for the reception of applicants for international protection (recast).

⁶³ Directive 2011/95/EU on standards for the qualification of third-country nationals or stateless persons as beneficiaries of international protection, for a uniform status for refugees or for persons eligible for subsidiary protection, and for the content of the protection granted.

⁶⁴ Directive 2003/109/EC concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents, Article 11(b).

territory. Member States shall encourage all efforts to enable such children to attend these courses under the best possible conditions.⁶⁵

According to 'Free Movement Directive' (2004/38/EC) "Union citizen" means any person having the nationality of a Member State, and, "family member" means, for instance, spouse, partner in a registered partnership with an EU citizen, direct descendants under the age of 21, and family members who are not nationals of a Member State and who have the right of residence or permanent residence⁶⁶

4.2.2. Council of Europe legal framework

The Revised ESC stipulates on education under the heading "The right of children and young persons to social, legal and economic protection". From a viewpoint of vulnerable youth, the provision is worth citing in full:

Article 17

With a view to ensuring the effective exercise of the right of children and young persons to grow up in an environment which encourages the full development of their personality and of their physical and mental capacities, the Parties undertake, either directly or in co-operation with public and private organisations, to take all appropriate and necessary measures designed:

1 (a) to ensure that children and young persons, taking account of the rights and duties of their

parents, have the care, the assistance, the education and the training they need, in particular by providing for the establishment or maintenance of institutions and services sufficient and adequate for this purpose; (b) to protect children and young persons against negligence, violence or exploitation; (c) to provide protection and special aid from the state for children and young persons temporarily or definitively deprived of their family's support;

⁶⁵ Regulation (EU) No 492/2011 on freedom of movement for workers within the Union

⁶⁶ Directive 2004/38/EC on the right of citizens of the Union and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States, Article 24.

2. to provide to children and young persons a free primary and secondary education as well as to encourage regular attendance at schools.

According to Explanatory Report to the ESC, the scope of Article 17 covers all persons below the age of 18 years, unless under the law applicable to the child majority is attained earlier. Paragraph 2 is not considered to imply an obligation to provide compulsory education up to the age of 18 years. As to the reason that there is no mention of compulsory education in the paragraph itself, it is explained that in some states only primary education is compulsory, whereas in others secondary education is also compulsory.⁶⁷

Article 19 ESC, on the right of migrant workers and their families to protection and assistance, contains two paragraphs on language education. State Parties shall promote and facilitate the teaching of the national language of the receiving state or, if there are several, one of these languages, to migrant workers and members of their families: Furthermore, the Parties undertake to promote and facilitate, “as far as practicable”, the teaching of the migrant worker's mother tongue to the children of the migrant worker (paragraphs 11 and 12). The importance of integration / the possibility of reintegration when returning to a country of origin are mentioned as the reason for these paragraphs.

The ECHR, in Article 2 of Protocol No. 1, stipulates on the right to education in negative terms of non-denial as follows: “No person shall be denied the right to education. In the exercise of any functions which it assumes in relation to education and to teaching, the State shall respect the right of parents to ensure such education and teaching in conformity with their own religious and philosophical convictions.” The drafters of this provision, in the early 1950's, aimed to express a general intention of state parties not to interfere with the right of parents to freedom of thought, conscience and religion. This aim has remained important over time, as becomes apparent from the CFR Articles 14(3). Fifty years later it also recognises this right of parents, though now on condition that democratic principles are respected whenever educational establishments are founded. Subsequently, the case-law of the ECtHR has interpreted Article 2 of Protocol No. 1 to cover more than merely a negative right not to be denied access to an educational system already in place. A positive conceptualisation is merely

⁶⁷ Explanatory Report to the ESC (Rev.), paras 71, 74.

based on the Courts interpretation of the provision at issue. Article 2 of the first Protocol itself guarantees neither minimum amount nor quality of basic education to anybody.

The FCNM is a relevant Council of Europe instrument for education rights of those groups that are recognized by State parties as national minorities within their territories. Nominated groups are not necessarily homogeneous regarding vulnerability of individuals, yet several topics covered by the FCNM are of direct concern to youth at-risk belonging to or living in the areas of minorities. Such topics are, for instance: special measures to ensure full and effective equality, preservation of identity and non-assimilation, equal access to education, freedom to establish private schools, language and education.⁶⁸

4.3. Second chance education

The primary EU law mentions the role of the Union in the fight against social exclusion (TEU Article 3 and TFEU Article 9). Next to this, provision of second chance education is identified as a specific issue of concern in a number of European Council conclusions.

In the Conclusions on enhancing the social inclusion of young people not in employment, education or training (25/11/2013) the Council invited the Member States with due regard for the principle of subsidiarity, inter alia: to widen access to second-chance education and support the acquisition and/or development of skills and competences that meet the needs of the labour market (para 25) and to promote and increase the availability of professional counselling and guidance adapted to the needs of socially excluded young people at all stages of their life (para 26). The call to encourage and support high quality guidance and more comprehensive advice and support especially for young people at risk of getting into a NEET situation, and their families, is also mentioned among the preventive actions to be taken (para 16).⁶⁹

These Conclusions do not suggest any deadline for the presentation of legislative proposal. As to the Council of Europe legislation, the ESC is the prime instrument for youth in need of second chance and related supportive guidance. Article 9 of the Revised Charter aims to guarantee “a service which will assist all persons, including the handicapped, to solve problems

⁶⁸ FCNM, Articles 4, 5, 12, 13, 14.

⁶⁹ Council conclusions on enhancing the social inclusion of young people not in employment, education or training (25/11/2013). See also Council Recommendation of 28 June 2011 on policies to reduce early school leaving (2011/C 191/01).

related to occupational choice and progress, with due regard to the individual's characteristics and their relation to occupational opportunity: this assistance should be available free of charge, both to young persons, including schoolchildren, and to adults.”

4.4. Retraining

Retraining is expressly mentioned as one of the means by which the Union action shall facilitate adaptation of the Member States to industrial changes (Article 166(2) TFEU).

[Regulation \(EU\) No 492/2011](#) on the free movement of workers within the Union stipulates, in Article 7(2), that a worker who is a national of a Member State shall, by virtue of the same right and under the same conditions as national workers, have access to training in retraining centres.

The ‘Recast Qualification Directive’ (2011/95/EU) concerning third country nationals and stateless persons obliges Member States to ensure that employment-related education opportunities for adults, including training courses for upgrading skills, are offered to beneficiaries of international protection under equivalent conditions as nationals. As to other forms of education, adults granted international protection shall be allowed access to retraining under the same conditions as third-country nationals legally resident. The Directive explicitly shall not apply to financial benefits from the Member States which are granted to promote education and training.⁷⁰

The ‘Gender Recast Directive’ (2006/54/EC) prohibits direct as well as indirect discrimination on grounds of sex in the public or private sectors, in relation to retraining, including practical work experience.⁷¹ Likewise, the ‘Framework Directive’ (2000/78/EC) expressly prohibits discrimination on grounds of religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation in relation to access to retraining.

In the Council of Europe framework, a significant new paragraph was inserted to the revised ESC, with the explanation that it is necessary to adopt “special” measures for the retraining and reintegration of the long-term unemployed, as their possibilities of re-entering the labour market are particularly few. The added paragraph reads: “With a view to ensuring the effective

⁷⁰ Directive 2011/95/EU, Articles 26(2), 27(2) and Preamble para 43.

⁷¹ Directive 2006/54/EC, Articles 1, 14, 26.

exercise of the right to vocational training, the Parties undertake: to provide or promote, as necessary, special measures for the retraining and reintegration of the long-term unemployed.”

72

4.5. Vocational Education

Vocational education is an area where the Union enjoys, ever since the Treaty of Rome 1957, legal competence to support, coordinate or complement the action of EU Member states. The TFEU states in Article 166 that the Union “shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States...” To this end, the Union shall aim, inter alia, to “improve initial and continuing vocational training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labour market” and to “facilitate access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people.”

The CFR extends the right to education to comprise “access to vocational and continuing training” but does not stipulate on this point in more detail (Article 14.1). Explanations relating to the CFR refer to the ESC, which has a far more comprehensive Article on VET (see below).

As was already mentioned above, the children of the EU citizens employed in another Member State shall be admitted to that State’s, apprenticeship and vocational training courses under the same conditions as the nationals of that State. The Regulation in question also stipulates on the right of the workers themselves to have access to training in vocational schools under the same conditions as national workers.⁷³

With regard to applicants for international protection, the ‘Recast Reception Directive’ leaves it on the Member States to decide how broadly the right to vocational training extends to them. According to Article 16, Member States “may allow” applicants access to vocational training irrespective of whether they have access to the labour market. The ‘Long-Term Residents Directive’ (2003/109/EC), for its part, stipulates that long-term residents shall enjoy equal treatment with EU Member State citizens as regards access to vocational training, including study grants in accordance with national law. Member States are allowed to restrict equal

⁷² Article 10.4. ESC and the Explanatory Report, para 53.

⁷³ [Regulation \(EU\) No 492/2011, Article 7\(3\)](#).

treatment with nationals in the some cases, such as in requiring proof of appropriate language proficiency for access to education and training.⁷⁴

The ESC is the major European legal provision on the right to vocational education. In Article 10 it secures not only general and vocational secondary education, but also university and non-university higher education as far as they provide students with the knowledge and skills necessary to exercise a profession (Article 10.1) Several paragraphs of Article 10 are most directly relevant to educationally vulnerable youth., that is Articles 10.2 (system of apprenticeship); 10.3 (training facilities); Article 10.4 (retraining and reintegration); 10.5 (financial assistance, adequate supervision). Moreover, in Article 15 the ESC stipulates specifically on the vocational training of persons with disabilities.

4.6. Higher Education

The main European reform process of higher education, the Bologna process, is not based on European legislation, but on the Bologna Declaration, which was agreed to and signed by the European Ministers of Education in 1999.

In the EU law, an important category of legislative measures is the recognition of diplomas for professional purposes. Article 53 TFEU provides the legal basis for legislative actions that oblige Member States to recognise qualifications obtained in other Member States, allowing the holder of the qualification to pursue the same profession there. The EU has enacted legislation only for the professional recognition of qualifications in the context of the regulated professions.

It is unclear to what extent the ‘Service Directive’ (2006/123/EC) applies to higher education. The preamble is implying, with reference to the case-law of the ECJ, that courses provided under the national education system, for no consideration, are not included in the scope of the directive.⁷⁵ Yet, consideration of higher education as a tradeable service may pose a threat for genuine equal access in terms of vulnerability. Relating to this, the ‘Free Movement Directive’ indicates specifically that host Member States are not required to grant maintenance aid for studies in the form of grants or loans, prior to the acquisition of the permanent right of resident.

⁷⁴ Directive 2003/109/EC, Articles 11(b) and 11(3)(b).

⁷⁵ Directive (2006/123/EC) on services in the internal market. Para 34, see also para 40.

The ‘Long-Term Residents Directive’ (2003/109/EC) stipulates in Article 11 that, in addition to proof of appropriate language proficiency, access to university may be subject to the fulfilment of specific educational prerequisites.

In the Council of Europe framework, the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region (ETS 165) was adopted in 1997 as a joint effort with UNESCO and entered into force in 1999. The ‘Lisbon Recognition Convention’ was designed to place in the long run six conventions adopted in this matter by the Council of Europe or UNESCO. It stipulates that higher education qualifications must be recognised unless substantial differences can be proved by the institution that is charged with recognition. The responsibility to oversee, promote and facilitate the implementation of the Lisbon Recognition Convention is shared between two bodies: the Committee of the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, and the European Network of National Information Centres on Academic Mobility and Recognition (the ENIC Network). The ENIC Network cooperates closely with the NARIC Network, which is similar to the ENIC Network, provided by the European Commission. In June 2004 the two networks adopted the Joint ENIC/NARIC Charter of Activities and Services. The Lisbon Recognition Convention serves as the key legal instrument for the above-mentioned Bologna process. The first monitoring of implementation of the Convention was published in February 2016.⁷⁶

ECtHR has in its case-law ruled that although the ECHR does not impose a duty on the Contracting States to set up institutions of higher education, any State doing so will be under an obligation to afford an effective right of access to them, -- in which case non-discrimination provisions shall be applied.

4.7. Informal Learning

The role of the EU and the Council of Europe in acknowledging the relevance of promoted voluntary work abroad was described above in Chapter 2.5 Accordingly, it is possible to recognise learning outcomes of voluntary activities as a contribution to informal (experimental)

⁷⁶ <http://www.enic-naric.net/>

education, language and intercultural learning of young adults.⁷⁷ Moreover, the value of non-formal and informal learning is recognised in several Council Resolutions and Conclusion. In these documents attention is drawn, inter alia, to:

- the role of youth work as a provider of non-formal learning opportunities to all young people;⁷⁸
- the work of youth organisations and youth workers by, with and for young people, particularly those with a migrant background;⁷⁹
- the comparability and transparency of the skills and competences acquired by young people through non-formal and informal learning;⁸⁰
- the development of national qualifications systems in relation to the European Qualifications Framework and credit transfer systems relating to both formal, non-formal and informal learning, with a view to improving adult access to qualifications systems.⁸¹
- the development and dissemination of European instruments to recognise non-formal and informal learning.⁸²

In the European Qualification Framework, level 2 is considered as the qualification to enter the labour market. Action Plan on Adult Learning invites Member States and other stakeholders to increase the possibilities to achieve a qualification at least one step above their present qualification level.⁸³ The European Framework for Key Competences (discussed above in Chapter 2.1.) for its part, defines a set of skills that are considered as fundamental for each individual in a knowledge-based society. The question that arises is whether educationally deficient youth can benefit from either of these two Frameworks without supportive legislation.

⁷⁷ Council Recommendation (2012/C 398/01) on the validation of non-formal and informal learning, does include the recognition of competences acquired through volunteering.

⁷⁸ Council conclusions (2013/C 168/03), paras 2 and 7.

⁷⁹ Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, of 27 November 2012 on the participation and social inclusion of young people with emphasis on those with a migrant background (2012/C 393/05), paras 2, 3, 13,14.

⁸⁰ Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on the recognition of the value of non-formal and informal learning within the European youth field (Official Journal C 168, 20.7.2006).

⁸¹ Council conclusions of 22 May 2008 on adult learning (2008/C 140/09).

⁸² The Council conclusions of 28 May 2004 on common European principles for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning.

⁸³ Communication from the Commission of 27 September 2007 presenting the Action Plan on Adult learning - It is always a good time to learn [[COM \(2007\) 558](#) final].

Concluding Remarks

It is not possible to include in this review an analysis of how the European courts and monitoring bodies have interpreted the meaning and content of the right to education as contained in the legal provisions discussed above. Nor is it possible to analyse the integration of the EU into the protection system of the Council of Europe. Achieving a coherent system of fundamental rights' protection across Europe was given as justification for the accession by the EU to the ECHR. However, this accession does not mean that the EU is automatically bound by Additional Protocols to the ECHR, wherein the right to education and a general prohibition on discrimination are guaranteed. Separate decisions may be required for the EU to become a Party to these Protocols.

As an interim conclusion, it is first and foremost the ESC among all the European legal instruments that sets out education rights comprehensively, stretching from primary to higher education and covering the right to vocational training and guidance, the right to vocational training for persons with disabilities, and the right of children to assistance, education, and training. Even though the scope of the ESC in terms of the persons protected is limited, and even though rights therein may be accepted selectively by the member states, it nevertheless pays special attention to the protection of vulnerable persons in diverse categories, inclusive of educationally deficient youth. It also establishes a system of collective complaints that plainly strengthens the role of social partners and non-governmental organisations working with vulnerable populations. For that reason, a separate review of the practice developed in the course of the monitoring of this treaty across the EU, including its relation to other relevant instruments, would allow for in-depth analysis of the topic issue.

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LEGISLATIVE ACTS (in chronologically reverse order)

A. European Union

1. Primary legislation of the European Union

Treaty of Lisbon Amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty Establishing the European Community (2007/C 306/01)

Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2000/C 364/01).

2. Secondary legislation of the European Union

2a. Regulations

Regulation (EU) No 1175/2014 of 30 October 2014 implementing Regulation (EC) No 452/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council concerning the production and development of statistics on education and lifelong learning, as regards statistics on the participation of adults in lifelong learning and repealing Commission Regulation (EU) No 823/2010.

Regulation (EU) No 375/2014 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 3 April 2014 establishing the European Voluntary Humanitarian Aid Corps ('EU Aid Volunteers initiative').

Regulation (EU) No 1381/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 December 2013 establishing a Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme for the period 2014 to 2020.

Regulation (EU) No 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013 establishing 'Erasmus+': the Union programme for education, training, youth and sport...

Regulation (EU) No 912/2013 of 23 September 2013 implementing Regulation (EC) No 452/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council concerning the production and development of statistics on education and lifelong learning, as regards statistics on education and training systems

Regulation (EU) No 492/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 April 2011 on freedom of movement for workers within the Union (codification).

Regulation (EC) No 452/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 April 2008 concerning the production and development of statistics on education and lifelong learning,

2b. Directives

Directive 2013/33/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013 laying down standards for the reception of applicants for international protection (recast).

Directive 2011/95/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 December 2011 on standards for the qualification of third-country nationals or stateless persons as beneficiaries of international protection, for a uniform status for refugees or for persons eligible for subsidiary protection, and for the content of the protection granted.

Directive 2008/115/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 December 2008 on common standards and procedures in Member States for returning illegally staying third-country nationals.

Directive 2006/123/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 12 December 2006 on services in the internal market.

Directive 2006/54/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast).

Directive 2004/83/EC of 29 April 2004 on minimum standards for the qualification and status of third country nationals or stateless persons as refugees or as persons who otherwise need international protection and the content of the protection granted.

Directive 2003/109/EC of 25 November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents.

Directive 2000/78/EC of 27 November 2000 establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation.

Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin.

B. Legislative Acts of the Council of Europe

Protocol No. 12 to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, ETS No. 177, entered into force 1 April 2005.

European Convention on the Promotion of a Transnational Long-Term Voluntary Service for Young People, ETS 175 Strasbourg, 11/05/2000

European Social Charter (revised), ETS No. 163, entered into force 7 January 1999.

Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, ETS No.165, entered into force 1999.

Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, ETS No. 157, entered into force 1998.

European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, ETS No. 148, entered into force 1998.

Convention on the Participation of Foreigners in Public Life at Local Level, ETS No. 144, entered into force 1997.

European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers, ETS No. 93, entered into force 1983.

Protocol No. 1 to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, ETS No. 9, entered into force 18 May 1954.

Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights), ETS No.5, entered into force 3 September 1953.

PART II: COUNTRY-SPECIFIC REVIEW

Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania

Kai Pata, Irina Maslo, Paulius Gedvilas

Executive Summary

The document provides overview of the adult education (AE) and educational opportunities and programs for vulnerable young adults in three Baltic countries – Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. The document introduces each countries state of art of AE using the following structure: The introduction chapter gives a short overview of all findings in the country. The following chapters expand and elaborate the findings in more detail: Providing overview of historical development of AE in each country; Highlighting the main conceptions how AE and lifelong learning (LLL) have been dealt with in the national acts and agendas; Opening up who are dealt as vulnerable young adults in the countries; Providing short overview of existing research in the field and policy documents at national level; Explaining the specific programmes related to adult education (basic skill and remedy programmes, second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, informal learning and higher education programmes); and bringing some examples of good practice. Each country section is summarized with short country specific conclusion. The whole document ends with the summary of main findings where Baltic countries are compared.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Estonia

Introduction

The AE development in Estonia has went through three distinctive periods. The Soviet occupation time AE was characterised by the idea that there is highly focused intrinsic motivation of people in self-education to contribute to the advancements to the society – besides training in vocational schools and preparatory departments in higher education institutions, several adult education forms like secondary education evening schools for working youth, adult education schools, connected work practices and studies, training at work, as well as, informal learning circles were applied. In the transition period to market economy after regaining independence starting from 1992 the AE was in decline, the skill formation

system was under construction and the main conception was that AE has mainly to target labour market competitiveness in general and one's current job in particular. European agendas for LLL have been adopted in national documents but Lifelong Learning was seen as the tool for managing labour market success. In Estonia a human capital model where lifelong learning connotes continuous work-related training and skill development to meet the needs of the economy and employers for a qualified, flexible and adaptable workforce still dominates. The dominant discourse in Governmental acts is the self-advancement because of workplace needs. AE institutions and study programs on the other hand support self-realization and self-advancement aspects to adult educators, youth workers. Estonian educational system recognises universal and national values, freedom of the individual, religion and conscience and aimed at creating favourable conditions for the development of the individual, the family and the Estonian nation, also for ethnic minorities, and economic, political and cultural life in Estonian society and also nature conservation, within the context of the global economy and global culture; shaping individuals who respect and abide by the law; creating opportunities for everyone to engage in lifelong learning. Education is divided into education into general education, vocational education, continuous education and hobby education. The Estonian Educational System Acts also contain description of Educational Information System and Estonia targets electronic access to different web-based services using ID card. Services in Educational domain are connected with other domains services providing constraints and opportunities for social support, legislative requirements to access educational services etc. Four major vulnerability groups could be distinguished by statistics: i) caretakers for young children or other family members, ii) young people with illness or disability, iii) young people who are unemployed but wish to continue studies, iv) young people without job and not in learning (iii-iv is considered under category NEET). Additionally, Young with regional access constraint to adult education (e.g. from countryside, from remote regions); Young with cultural access constraint to adult education (e.g. roma people); Young with educational constraint to adult education (e.g. basic level education, unfinished educational levels, refugees with undocumented educational record); Young with language constraint to adult education (e.g. other nationalities, refugees); Young with citizenship constraint to adult education (e.g. refugees, "grey" passport) are in focus of EduMap.

The main trends in AE and LLL are enabling access to secondary education in flexible forms (adult schools), transitions between educational levels are made more flexible, targeting

retraining in the forms of formal education courses (continuing education), unemployment training is personalized and targeting also people who may need to gain new competences due to the changes in the job market, on the job learning and job mentoring is practiced as a form of unemployment training besides course based training. Vocational training has many entrance level educational levels, also continuing courses can be taken, and new program is studying under workplace arrangements. Study allowance systems are not unified in different AE levels, that decreases access to AE for vulnerable young. Informal learning is considered Hobby education and is not unified with LLL. There are no means of validating informal education as part of formal education. Informal learning at workplaces is piloted in some digitally supported forms (collecting and sharing learning evidences, practices, ideas) in practice networks. Higher education studies enable different supportive allowancies for vulnerable students, cycle-based studies are increasing that support simultaneous working and studying, however, full program requirements must be fulfilled to study at free tuition programmes, employees must give payed study-holiday.

Historical Development

I. Soviet period of adult education in the USSR was derived by communist ideologies where motivation to work was considered inherent to people, as they want to contribute to the advancements of the society, and that ideology affected education and labour policies (Roberts, 2001). Second ideological trend emphasized communist views to oneself, internal responsibility of persons to work out communist views for oneself and becoming a socialist person that highlighted self-education. In the ranking of values at that period the highest place was taken by self-development, second were altruistic values and third was material values and social status (Helemäe et al., 2000).

Khrushchev period (at the end of 1950s and beginning of 1960). Under Soviet Rule, skill formation was part of the party-state institutional structure. In socialist Estonia schools were divided to general and vocational education. In the soviet economy the blue collars who also were less educated earned more than white collars (Helemäe et al., 2000), there was a chronic shortage of primarily blue-collar labour, and there was always opportunity to change and find work that suppressed learning for new competences. The pressure on the skill formation system to secure flexible upgrading of skills was rather weak. The state was so profoundly involved with the formation of skills that there was no need for proactive training policies

managed by enterprises (Saar et al., 2013). In this period the blue-collars were massively imported from vast USSR to Estonia, and the ethnic background of blue-collars was different from white-collars in Estonia (Saar et al., 2013). However, the white-collar workers were obliged to upgrade their qualification after normatively defined periods (e.g. once in five years) (Saar et al, 2013).

In 1959 Estonian Soviet Republic, guided by similar USSR law in 1958 passed the law Strengthening the connections between school and life and the development of the Educational system in Estonian SSR, that defined the connected studies and work practices. Theoretical and practical production training of 10-12 lessons a week together with work in an enterprise were added to secondary school curricula. At the start of 1960s, quotas were determined for the admission of working people to the higher education institutions and a widespread strategy was 1) work and evening part-time study, and 2) commencing learning after some working period.

From 1964 after the fall of Khrushchev the benefits of working and learning were reduced and day study at the higher education started to prevail. For working people special preparatory departments were opened for students candidates with work background but they contributed about 10 % of admitted students. From mid 1960ies the universal secondary education was a goal, and there was a pressure to enterprises to send lower educated workers to continue education at so called working youth secondary schools. In the 1970ies there was a restriction for people older than 35 years to enter the studies, decreasing the number of persons continuing studies after a working period (Saar et al., 2013).

The education system in Soviet Estonia was more advanced compared to current EU policies, and in ways had reached a level where the immediate instrumentalist labour-market-related aims of education were seconded by more general aims of education as a value in itself (Saar et al., 2013). During soviet period the education (including adult formal education) was free of charge, state guaranteed additional study allowance and it was common that also the employers payed prospectively study allowances to receive graduated students into their workplaces in return. Non-job related adult education for personal development was relatively well developed in Estonia, courses were provided free of charge or very cheaply. The vocational skill development was determined by the segments of the economy (Saar et al., 2013).

II. Transition period to marketing economy 1990-2000s. In the transition period Estonian educational system was influenced by marketization. The marketization period transformed the values of people, the personal interests were put beyond social interests, material status values over intellectual values and professional aspect of education over the general cultural aspect (Saarniit, 1998). Education became the tool to get higher salary. The discursive space for adults decreased enormously between 1997-2007 with regard to learning for other reasons than labour market competitiveness in general or one's current job particular (Saar et al., 2013). Employed people who participated in any type of training were much less likely to study for personal reasons in 2007 than in 1997 (Tamm and Kazulja, 2010), indicating to major shift in society either reasoning or understanding of the nature of LLL as solely a tool for managing labour market success. Work-related motives and the wish to bring more benefit to the society were accepted in 2007 among the dominant legitimate reasons for enrolling in formal education (Roosalu and Roosmaa, 2010). Republic of Estonia Education Act (1992) considered fundamental principles of education - the recognition of universal and national values, freedom of the individual, religion and conscience and aimed at creating favourable conditions for the development of the individual, the family and the Estonian nation, also for ethnic minorities, and economic, political and cultural life in Estonian society and also nature conservation, within the context of the global economy and global culture; shaping individuals who respect and abide by the law; creating opportunities for everyone to engage in lifelong learning. It divided education into general education, vocational education and hobby education. It set the goal for free secondary education in public educational institutions for everyone. The act sees general education targeting the personality development, choosing profession and acting creatively and being a responsible citizen; vocational education targets successful professional activity and hobby education comprehensive development of personality. Only in 2015 the continuing education institutions were added to the list. The act also contains from 2004 the description of the Educational Information System.

The transition period to market economy in Estonia started from 1991, and then the difficult situation in enterprises pushed employee training and development aside and the priority was given to short-term goals related to survival in the market. At this period any traces of old soviet system in vocational education were likely to be denied and destroyed as being part of the colonial Soviet regime. The advancements in the sphere of education and lifelong learning during socialist period were partially reversed since the beginning of post-socialist Estonia

(Saar et al., 2013). The previously well-established institutionalized systems for adult education and lifelong learning were discontinued but the development of new adult education institutions was suppressed compared with the prioritized economic growth. Europe reform initiatives in 1990-2000s were mainly limited to formal educational system. The orientation in vocational training was transformed to preparing the workforce in narrow technical fields that makes the need for further skill education of great importance (Saar et al., 2013). Foreign companies preferred low wage workforce, export was based on labour intensive traditional industries and services controlled by transnational corporations. The blue-collar workers' training was limited in some industries, however other corporations offering higher wage levels organized international trainings for local managers (Saar et al., 2013).

III. Marketing economy period starting from 2000. There is the lack of education and training provisions for adults in Estonia (Saar et al., 2016) and the skill formation system is rather under construction (Saar et al., 2013). In post-soviet period the employer-financed training in private sector is agreed in individual contracts or collective agreements, however the role of collective bargaining for vocational training is low (Nurmela and Roosaar, 2009). In the previous era workplaces were a major driver of adult learning, the emerging private ownership of small enterprises did not take up this role (Roosalu and Roosmaa, 2010). Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act (2010), Vocational Educational Institutions Act (2013), Institutions of Professional Higher Education Act (1998), Standard of Higher Education (2008), The Standard for Hobby Education (2007), the Adult Education Act (2015) and the Vocational Education Institutions Act (2013) are the main government laws regulating AE. The Adult Education Act (2015) provides the bases for the management of the area of adult education, the requirements for the management of continuing education institutions and for the provision of continuing education. It established the Adult Education Council - an advisory body comprised of the representatives of the relevant ministries, continuing education institutions, formal education institutions, representative organisations of employers and employees and other persons and authorities engaged in the area of adult education.

Conceptions and National Approaches

It has been noted that also in Estonia the full toolbox of key terms and institutionalized EU lifelong learning policies was implemented without due national discussion of their suitability (Holford et al., 2007). Lifelong learning concept has in recent years transformed to stand for

education and training, although drawing attention to the wider role of learning in a learning society, and EU educational policy in education has been constrained by its vocational orientation, having the needs of the economy and employers in mind (Holford et al., 2007). The LLL policy at EU level has been shaped by the demands of competitiveness and the requirements of the subsidiarity, while LLL is seen as a key of addressing social exclusion as well as being a key to economic competitiveness and employability. Estonia tends to see LLL as a way to enhance economic development (Holford et al., 2007), the aim of schooling is narrowed to work-related goals and self-actualization through increased labour market competitiveness (Saar et al., 2013). In Estonia a human capital model where lifelong learning connotes continuous work-related training and skill development to meet the needs of the economy and employers for a qualified, flexible and adaptable workforce dominates (see Aava, 2009). This model sees primarily individual workers as responsible for acquiring and updating their skills or for acquiring new qualifications in order to enhance their employability and career chances.

High level officials in lifelong learning (Jõgi et al., 2007) point out that in Estonia economical competition is the key issue that is forming the values of lifelong learning. They confirm that greatest expectation in society is economical development and growth, therefore the relation of personal success and education is not widely seen as relevant to it. The discussion of the more intrinsic aims of the learning processes is present, even if only weakly in the relevance attributed to self-realization and self-advancement in popular beliefs (Saar et al., 2013). The dominant discourse is the self-advancement because of workplace needs (Saar et al., 2013). Politicians have traditionally underestimated the importance of active citizenship and therefore also the concept of active citizenship. It is also evident that at least in the level of policy documents, concept of learning citizen in Estonian policy documents (see Jõgi et al., 2007) is based on understanding that learning person is a person who has gained knowledge, skills, and values to manage outstandingly in personal, work and social life, so concept of active citizen assumes that an individual is participating in all spheres of society and community life – in cultural, economical and political/democratic sphere. It seems the professionals in the field tend to believe the subjects of lifelong learning as not fully ready for life, or for work, or for both, and their task is therefore to help them getting ready for the challenges life is offering (Jõgi et al., 2008). Estonian adult learners, while speaking from the position of their own lifecourse experience, connect their learning with outputs for being and self-constructing,

working and living (Jõgi et al., 2008). The Standard of Hobby Education (2007) defines the purpose of hobby education in providing opportunities for the comprehensive development of personality and to support young persons in their development into members of society with good coping skills.

The Vocational Education Institutions Act (2013) conceptualizes vocational training as the aggregate of learning, teaching and organisational activities the purpose of which is to enable the acquisition of vocational education. The purpose of organisation of vocational training is to create the possibilities for the formation of such individuals who possess the knowledge, skills and attitudes or competencies, and the experience and social readiness for working, participating in social life and for lifelong learning. In details vocational training should support the acquisition of key competencies necessary for self-realisation and development, civil activity, social involvement, continuing education and employment in order to enable the learner to manage successfully in the changing learning, physical and social and working environment; support the formation of the student's vocational, professional and occupational competence in order to enable the student to perform successfully in the labour market; develop and support the student's motivation for participation in lifelong learning.

Vulnerable Young Adults

Desjardins & Rubenson (2011) provide a general model of characteristics that influence participation in adult education: I. Individual characteristics: social background, being immigrant, age, gender, education and qualification, competences, experiences, actual competences; II. Work-related characteristics: job context, job tasks, need for competences, usage of competences, organizational structures, innovation and adaptation level of organizations, career opportunities, training opportunities, work safety, salary, effectiveness, flexibility of work; III. Environmental characteristics: socio-cultural norms and practices, trade unions role, political context.

Simplifying this model we propose considering the vulnerability in Estonia through the set of measurable characteristics: Age frame, Current educational level, Economic constraints to access adult education, Physical, mental and health constraints, Social constraints to access adult education, Regional constraints to access adult education, Cultural constraints to access

adult education, Employability; Citizenship, Language barrier, National language level. Describing any young adult at risk has unique a combination of characteristics.

The closer look to young vulnerable adults' groups in Estonia based on NEET statistics highlights only some of abovementioned characteristics that have more impact in causing the young adults' educational vulnerability - the social constraints, physical constraints and employability. According to Roosimägi (2016), in Estonia, the NEET youth group statistics from labour force survey (2015) indicates that proportionally four major vulnerability groups could be distinguished: i) caretakers for young children or other family members (43%), ii) young people with illness or disability (12 %), iii) young people who are unemployed but wish to continue studies (7 %), iv) young people without job (38%). The young females appear to be more vulnerable (63%) than males (37 %). The proportion of NEET with Estonian nationality is twice as high (69%) compared with other nationalities (31%). More than two fifth of the NEET have secondary level education (43.6%), but more than one third of NEET are with primary or lower educational level (36.5%), and the proportion of NEET with third level education was lowest (19.9 %). More than half of the NEET lives in towns (57%), the rest 43% in the countryside, however the regional distribution of NEET in Estonia was quite even. Saar and associates (2014) found that the nature of work and the characteristics of work have more impact on participation in lifelong learning than the individual characteristics (such as educational level and skills). People with Russian home language, and with lower level of education, blue collars, mothers of little children and these located in East-Estonia participate less in trainings (Saar et al., 2014). The financial support to participate in trainings is lowest in Estonia for the low-educated adults, employees in SMEs, and the low-skilled adults (Saar et al., 2014). Men's educational path is disrupted earlier and is terminated at lower levels of education (Saar et al., 2016). Age influences the participation of women in non-formal learning to lesser extent than that of men, the participation rate of men becomes declining at the age of 35 (Saar et al., 2016). Men with vocational, general secondary, and lower levels of education very rarely continue their formal education (Saar et al., 2016). Men with low level of education rather do not participate in non-formal education (Saar et al., 2016). The quality education is less accessible to Russian young compared with Estonians, since the official language in teaching is vocational and higher education is Estonian (Estonian integration report, 2015). In 2014. 2,9% young (aged 15-24) Estonians and 20,7% of young Russians were unemployed (Estonian integration monitoring – job market, 2015). Estonia has unequal access of

demographic groups to formal education (Hefler et al., 2011). Regional, gender differences and having small children are not generally relevant in having access to adult education, but social barriers are, such as being early school drop-out, being weakly integrated to labour market, having low level of income (Saar et al., 2013).

The statistical data of NEET do not reveal several vulnerability aspects that may determine the person's access to adult education- and related services such as citizenship, language barriers, type of physical, mental and health-related constraints, regional access constraints to adult education and cultural constraints. Also there is no track in statistics of young adults' competences (competences, experiences, actual competences, need for competences, and usage of competences) that could motivate participation in adult education.

In Edumap we consider in Estonia the following groups of young vulnerable adults: Young with children or caretakers; Young with disabilities (physical disabilities, diseases); Young with regional access constraint to adult education (e.g. from countryside, from remote regions); Young with cultural access constraint to adult education (e.g. Roma people); Young with educational constraint to adult education (e.g. basic level education, unfinished educational levels, refugees with undocumented educational record); Young with language constraint to adult education (e.g. other nationalities, refugees); Young with citizenship constraint to adult education (e.g. refugees, "grey" passport); Young with without vocational training and job record.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Several national agendas exist that define vulnerable young adults' area. The Civil Society Development Plan (2011-2014) aimed at increasing the awareness of Estonian residents on the functioning of a democratic society, on the importance of civil participation, opportunities, rights, and responsibilities as a citizen. The objective was to promote civil education in general education schools as well as among adults; to improve the quality and content of civil education, and include a larger proportion of people such as people of other nationalities and non- Estonian speakers in civil education and social life and avoiding their exclusion. The Estonian Lifelong Learning Strategy (2014–2020) outlines education opportunities for Estonian people equal to their needs and skills throughout their entire life. Youth Field Development Plan for 2014–2020 outlines providing all young people, regardless of their

ethnic nationality and native language, more opportunities for developing their creativity, own initiatives and common activities; to reduce the impact of unequal aspects on the development opportunities of young people and avoid exclusion; to ensure active participation in the community, in decision-making and success on the labour market as well as implement quality youth policies and youth work. Development plan for security, inclusion and equal opportunities for 2016–2023 is to help people improve and ensure functioning and equal opportunities for participating in social life (including on the labour market), encouraging gender equality in all areas of social life and promoting tolerance in society. The Strategy of Integration and Social Cohesion in Estonia 2020 supports the multiculturalism of society.

Defined by Basic Schools and Upper Secondary schools Act (2010) the Basic education in Estonia is minimum compulsory general education. Compulsory school attendance lasts until basic education is completed or the child reaches the minimum school leaving age of 17. The rural municipality government or the town government has a duty to provide basic education for all children of compulsory school age who live within the territory of the town or municipality. The basic school graduation certificate is issued to students who have completed basic education in accordance with the National Curriculum for Basic Schools (2011). The organisation of studies for students with special educational needs is based on the principle of inclusive education, i.e. such students attend, as a rule, in regular schools. Estonia is a member of the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education.

Successful completion of Basic school is the requirement to enter to the next educational levels Vocational Education or Secondary Education. Secondary education is based on basic education and divided into general secondary education, provided by upper secondary schools, and vocational secondary education, provided by vocational educational institutions. Upper secondary education is not mandatory. Full-time and part-time students who have fulfilled the criteria for completing upper secondary education are given school leaving certificates. The results of state examinations and the relevant certificates are made available in an electronic format. The data on state examination and school leaving certificates are entered in the national education information system (EHIS), the sub-register of documents certifying education.

Vocational education system in Estonia is regulated by the Vocational Educational Institutions Act (2013). Vocational training is organised by vocational educational institutions and professional higher education institutions. In order to speed up the implementation of reforms

instigated by the Vocational Educational Institutions Act and the latest Vocational Education Standard, a reform of the vocational education curricula and administration was carried out on years 2013-2014. Expanding workplace based study form in Estonia is one of main goals for vocational education training system till 2020. Vocational secondary education is equivalent to level 4 vocational training, meaning that besides vocational training the student also acquires upper secondary education. Vocational training offers the opportunity to study according to initial and continuing curricula. The vocational studies end with qualification exam that is free of charge. Vocational training offers the opportunity to study according to initial and continuing curricula. Continuing vocational training takes place only in level 4 and 5 of vocational training and requires the existence of previous professional competences. Professional standards that serve as the benchmarks of vocational education are positioned between levels two to five in the qualification strata. In many areas the new qualification standards have emerged (nursing, pre-school teaching etc.) that requires re-training for already working specialists.

Workplace based studies constitute a specialised form of vocational education where the ratio of practical assignments undertaken in companies or institutions encompasses at least two thirds of the curriculum. Expanding workplace based study form in Estonia is one of main goals for vocational education training system until 2020. Compared with the secondary schools, vocational schools have more students who have problems or are at risk of dropping out. A share of older students has also increased in vocational schools. There is a high dropout from vocational schools for financial reasons, when finding job.

The state budget involves a small budget to support the activities of the Adult education council as well as hobby education institutions. Knowledge acquired at Informal education is not recognized by formal education. Non-formal education is seen as hobby-club.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Basic education can be provided by home schooling upon request of a parent or for health reasons. Distance learning is available for individuals of at least 17 years of age and in special cases and on the recommendation of the advisory commission for younger students.

The state finances the accommodation of 700 basic school students who come from families with financial difficulties in boarding school facilities to support the fulfilment of their duty to attend school.

If a student's disability or disorder requires a highly specialised organisation of studies or support services, he or she is provided an opportunity to study in a special group or attend a special school. The additional support measures most often implemented by schools include differentiated instruction in the classroom, individual curriculum, extra help after classes, special-pedagogical help and speech therapy sessions in study support groups and individual learning curriculum.

Second chance education

Part-time upper secondary schools and upper secondary schools for students with special educational needs are available (in 2015 16 evening schools and 20 general education schools with evening and correspondence departments). A student can continue their studies in a part-time study format in an upper secondary school for adults. Student who have interrupted their studies at an upper secondary school have the right to continue their studies in a vocational educational institution.

Upper secondary schools for adults admit persons who have completed basic education and are at least 17 years old. Upper secondary schools for adults provide an opportunity to acquire upper secondary education for all adults, primarily in a part-time study format. Adult Upper secondary schools are flexible in preparing individual curricula. Persons who have acquired vocational secondary education may select the courses, which are required for state exams or for admission to higher education institutions. Approximately 1/6 of all upper secondary students (mainly persons who work or have interrupted their studies in mainstream upper secondary schools) study in secondary schools for adults. A large share of students at adult secondary schools comes from disadvantaged backgrounds for family or social reasons. - teachers in adult gymnasiums work with students individually (individual tutoring, extra classes) which prevents students from dropping out and improves their progress, adult secondary schools treat students as responsible adults and the learning environment is supportive.

Retraining

According to the Continuing Education Act (2015) in order to participate in formal education or continuing education provided by a manager of a continuing education institution, study leave must be granted to employees and officials and employee should be paid the average study leave pay. There are state-commissioned continuing education student places in continuing education financed from the state budget which are formed by continuing education curricula groups or courses, studying in a student place formed on the basis of state-commissioned continuing education is free of charge for a learner. The costs of continuing education external of state-commissioned places must be covered by the person or authority interested therein. Many university students have to work in parallel of studying and do not receive support from their employers.

In addition to formal education, institutions of vocational education and higher education (in the form of open university courses) are providing increasingly more continuing education courses and retraining courses. These courses allow adults to acquire and improve their professional, occupational and speciality knowledge, skills and experience as well as to retrain themselves. Ongoing training financed by state is currently mainly for civil servants and teachers in state and municipal schools, as well as for unemployed.

The retraining of working people tailored to individual needs is in the agenda of Töötukassa (<https://www.tootukassa.ee/eng>). Töötukassa labour market training is provided to those who are seeking work or registered with the Unemployment Insurance Fund as unemployed, a jobseeker with a notice of dismissal. Labour market training may last from one day up to one year, takes place in Estonia, is usually group-based (6-12 learners), is organised on the premises of the trainer or as distance training in the form of e-learning. The access to training is by consultation in Töötukassa, agreed by individual job plan, the unemployed person can use a training card to select the necessary course from among all of the training courses open to everyone provided by trainers who have the authorisation of the fund, or a specific training can be ordered. The training is payed by Töötukassa, the training materials are free of charge and remain accessible also after the training. Töötukassa offers some free e-training that are provided by partner organizations: jobseeking course, self-analysis course, national culture and language courses for different language groups (<https://www.keeleklikk.ee/en/welcome>), language courses tailored to professional vocabulary (<http://www.kutsekeel.ee>), citizenship

courses (http://www.meis.ee/kursused_eng). Töötukassa offers some educational services for people with disabilities: provision of advice and training to employers, compensation of labour market training for employers. The support person (a co-worker or someone suitable from outside of the workplace) is provided for people with disabilities, with decreased working ability, to those with a lay-off notice or to jobseekers who are studying, to unemployed individuals with special social needs or addiction problems and to the long-term unemployed to help them adapting and coping with workplace and duties. For the target group unemployed, without work experience and without professional training young aged 17-26 Töötukassa offers my first job programme that compensates for the employer the work-related training to a value of up to 2,500 euros over two years from the date the young employee commences work in order to facilitate the development of the young person's skills and to improve their competitiveness on the labour market.

Vocational programmes

There were 44 vocational education institutions in Estonia in 2015. In general, vocational education institution organises work-related training of adults in the areas that they teach, according to the curricula, in the form of courses and individual study. In some areas, such as medicine, such in-service courses for narrow qualifications and new competences are provided by hospitals' training centres. Compared with the adult educational offers in the beginning of transition from USSR to Estonian republic, the educational offer has become more flexible and diverse – shorter formal training programs, programmes designed together with enterprises or industrial clusters, programs for students with basic or secondary education or without basic education, vocational orientation courses and skill continuation courses, part-time studies in higher education, cycle based study programs for working students are available. Commencing studies based on the initial training curriculum does not require existence of previous professional competence. Each vocational curriculum has specific prerequisites for previous education, either at basic or gymnasium level. Also, young people up to 22 without basic education can enter the vocational studies if they can prove they possess required knowledge and competences to the specific commission established in the vocational school. Every year, some 500-600 students study in vocational education institutions under workplace study arrangements. The vocational studies end with qualification exam that is free of charge.

Vocational schools and Adult secondary schools are free of charge. Vocational schools pay study allowance, some cover also accommodation and catering costs of students from low economically disadvantaged backgrounds but no study allowance is offered in adult secondary schools.

The official language of Estonia is Estonian that is the mother tongue of the majority of the population of Estonia but a foreign language for others. Estonian is the primary language of instruction used in vocational training in Estonia. Russian is also used as language of instruction in some vocational education institutions. In the Latvian border one can also study vocational education in Latvian and English. The blended teaching of language with professional competences is practiced using special worksheets (LAK worksheets, <http://www.kutsekeel.ee/oppematerjalid/lak-oppe-toolehed-2014/>). Workplace based studies constitute a specialised form of vocational education where the ratio of practical assignments undertaken in companies or institutions encompasses at least two thirds of the curriculum. Every year, some 500-600 students study in vocational education institutions under workplace study arrangements (see the PRÕM program). Young people up to 22 without basic education can enter the vocational studies if they can prove they possess required knowledge and competences to the specific commission established in the vocational school

Informal learning

Informal learning is considered Hobby education and is not unified with LLL. There are no means of validating informal education as part of formal education. Informal learning at workplaces is piloted in some digitally supported forms (collecting and sharing learning evidences, practices, and ideas) in practice networks.

Higher Education⁸⁴

Part time higher education studies are self-payable, except for instance in teacher training. Study allowances are granted only for full-time students. Adult students studying part-time do not receive health insurance. Since 2012/2013 academic year, higher education is free of charge

^{84 84} If applicable - we will include those HE programme that relate to empowering vulnerable groups and enhance their life chances and/or progression/entrance to the labour market

in Estonia for those studying full-time and in Estonian. Students from less privileged families can apply for study allowance (~ 75-220 EUR per month) when studying full-time and in Estonian. The proportion of older and working students at Estonian universities is increasing, and universities try to attract with different means (cycle based studies, weekend courses blended with elearning etc.) students with working background (Saar et al., 2013).

Reserving places for certain groups (athletes, people with special needs) is not very widely adopted (Saar et al., 2013). High thresholds in admission rule out students coming from schools that do not have high teaching level (Saar et al., 2013). The obligation for employees to give payed study-holiday. There are free childcare for students at some universities, but childcare at cycle based weekend studies at master programs is a problem. Recognition of earlier studies and work is possible to obtain credit points only after admittance to educational institutions (VÕTA program). Since 2012/2013 academic year, higher education is free of charge in Estonia for those studying full-time and in Estonian. Students from less privileged families can apply for study allowance (~ 75-220 EUR per month) when studying full-time and in Estonian.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

The EEA grants programme “Children and Youth at Risk” 2013-2016 to improve the well-being of children and young people from birth to the age of 26 in Estonia. The main approach of the Programme is on prevention and cross-sectoral cooperation. In March 2014, the document Concept for Development of a Cross-sectorial Support System for Children and Young People was completed, which describes the core tasks upon the creation of a support system common for various sectors related to child wellbeing (education, child welfare, law enforcement, mental health, etc.) and submits proposals on most important goals and prioritised fields of activity for the purposes of ensuring more streamlined operation and smoother co-operation.

http://www.sm.ee/sites/default/files/content-editors/Lapsed_ja_pered/Riskilaste_programm/tugisusteemi_lahtealused_tervikodikumend_in_glise_keeles.pdf

STEP program (2016-2020) to reintroduce young with criminal background to work: Involving youth 15-26 with criminal background to study and job, activity is funded from European Social Fund, project is run by the Institute of Open Mind <http://www.ami.ee/step-annab-seadusega-pahuksisse-sattunud-noorele-voimaluse/>

Relation to active citizenship: economic dimension

PRÕM - the vocational apprenticeship development program targeting schools, vocational- and higher education schools (2015-2018). Six areas are: development of practice, workplace teaching, teacher training practice, additional language training, informing the employers, promoting vocational education. <http://www.innove.ee/et/organisatsioonist/programmide-ja-projektide/prom>

<http://www.innove.ee/et/organisatsioonist/programmide-ja-projektide/prom/tookohapohine>

PathFinder network (Rajaleidja võrgustik) (2008-2014) Career services development and provision, main target group was guidance practitioners, supported by producing different information and methodological materials (printed and electronic versions), organising seminars and trainings on regional, national and international level, and developing web sites. <http://www.innove.ee/et/haridustugiteenused>, <http://www.innove.ee/en/lifelong-guidance>

VÕTA programme – considering previous studies and work experience to start or continue studies in high education, get the profession licency etc. <https://www.hm.ee/et/tegevused/taiskasvanuharidus/varasemate-opingute-ja-tookogemuse-arvestamine>

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

In Estonia, the Ministry of Culture is responsible for the realisation of the national integration policy. The Integration and Migration Foundation Our People (MISA <http://www.meis.ee/implemented-projects>), the Foundation Innove, local municipalities and civil society organisations play a central role in the integration activities. In 2008-2013 the ministry co-ordinated the activities of the “Estonian Integration Strategy for 2008-2013” and was the implementing body of the programme “European Fund for the Integration of Third-country Nationals for the Years 2007–2013”. The main program outcomes were: The transitioning to Estonian as a language of instruction for secondary education in upper

secondary schools with other languages of instruction continued, aiming at increasing the competitiveness of Russian-speaking young people; Language programmes were launched for adults and people in vocational education; Language clubs were initiated; Free Estonian language courses were offered to third-country citizens and persons with undetermined citizenship as well as to people with fewer opportunities; Sunday schools as well as extra-curricular Estonian language teaching for young people with a language of instruction different from Estonian in Estonian families and camps was continued. The Strategy of Integration and Social Cohesion in Estonia 2020 supports the multiculturalism of society by following means: supporting practical use of language and culture as well as offering preparation courses on the Constitution and the Citizenship Act are targeted mainly at less integrated and young people; Non-formal language teaching, cultural immersion, participation in decision-making processes and offering practical, including labour market related information, with the help of information and support networks is targeted at more well integrated people; Offering adaptation training programmes for new arrivals; Increasing opportunities for initiatives, joint activities and increasing the involvement of young people.

Country Specific Conclusion

Estonian legal acts in AE determine LLL from the market and job point of view, the main trends in AE are on the job training as a form of vocational training, flexible transfer between study levels, bringing NEET to education and work, social cohesion programs. There is lack of attention to informal education, the self-directed educational development is underestimated compared with job-related development, validating the competences from informal education as part of formal education and qualification is possible only at higher education level, and has not become a mainstream practice.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Latvia

Introduction

In the different political time periods the focus of adult education in Latvia has changed. Schools for adults providing compulsory secondary education for adults to guarantee their active citizenship, together with the Adult Education Association and the Law for Adult education were available before WW II. In the Soviet period, the evening schools for adults were available, HE was seen as education for adults with the dominant orientation to adults' academic education, not to their professional qualification, there was targeted "Research Institute of adult general education". The Change to re-establish Latvian independence was first dominated by unifying regional adult education activities with European documents and frameworks in adult education, Latvia became part of international organizations in adult education, AE was funded with lifelong learning perspective from national and European programmes. The direction of adult education for workplace needs has prevailed, providing opportunities for workplace training, but also informal learning for adults. The new trend is "education for adults" targeted on reaching the key social and economic benefits of adult learner benefits instead of "adult education" targeting the work or career purposes only. Currently, closing the evening schools and the opening of evening classes at ordinary schools and strengthening AE centres in becoming regional development centres, formal second chance education, targeting early school leavers is actual. The main vulnerable groups in Latvia are 1) Youth at risk of poverty and/or social exclusion and unemployment among the low skilled adults; 2) Young ex-offenders 3) Young ethnic minorities; 4) Young migrants from third countries; and 5) Young Latvian migrants and re-immigrants. New AE challenges are now included in the new policy documents for the period 2014-2020. Three of government ministries, [Ministry of Welfare](#) (MoW), [Ministry of Economics](#) (MoE) and the [Ministry of Education and Science](#) (MoES) are actively implementing various AE programmes for specific vulnerable youth groups: strengthening employee competitiveness to meet labour market needs, enhancing basic competences, continued professional education and disqualification of employees, providing short-term labour forecasts and AE in support of the unemployed, policy actions regarding the specific skills and competences necessary for the implementation of concrete assignments as requested by employers and implemented with their involvement (practice placements, courses), bilingual education. One big funding provider for intergrating

migrants is “Society Integration Fund”, second new actor targeting Latvian diaspora is Migration and Integration Fund (2014-2020), that preserves national identity, language and culture. Remarkable practices in retraining and vocational education: training and retraining takes place individually in accordance with the training voucher method, vocational training courses with different levels education are available, there are scholarships for learning available for unemployed, on-the-job training is practiced at vocational courses, validation of skills and professional competences obtained in non-formal and informal education is carried out by educational institutions, high school students’ education is considered as the first cycle of higher professional education.

Historical Development

Historically AE and LLL in Latvia can be structured in four sub-periods according to the official (Latvian National Library, 2016) periodicity of Latvian history documents (1920-1940; 1946-1988) and to the development stages of LLL conception in Latvia (1995-2013 and 2014-2020), in order to highlight the lessons to be learnt from the historical developments of the meanings of AE in Latvia.

During the first period of the independence of Latvia (1918-1940) the Folk higher schools [Tautas augstskolas] for adults (Darinskis, 1970; Babajeva, 2015) and the “supplemental schools for adults” were established in Riga in 1920, appointed by local governments with own financing. In the same year the AE association (AEA) was founded (Latvian Journal, 1920). As the main key actor of education for adults, AEA participated actively on the elaboration of the “Law of AE” in 1932, which took into account the needs of young people and legalized the clearly formulated concept of education for adults: the Articles 111 and 112 of the Adult law define the schools for adults next to ordinary and vocational schools; the Article 113 states, in reference to Articles 111 and 112, the objectives, minimal numbers of participants, content, learning materials etc., that may be suitable in different adult schools; the Article 114 states the obligation of the mandatory opening of adult schools in towns and populated centres with State or local government financing (Our future, 1932), in favour of ensuring compulsory education for all citizens of the Latvian national state, promoting the implementation of the “Folk law project on Schools for adults” [Skolas pieaugušiem: tautas izglītības likumprojekts] that was prepared and introduced during the educational reform of 1932, which was seen as the most successful educational reform in Latvian history showing the concern of Latvian society for

providing compulsory education not only for youngsters in school age, but also for the 34% of adults who, for different reasons, could not complete secondary education timely. In this way, the responsibility of the state, local governments (municipalities) and society appeared clearly: “it is the obligation of the state, the governments (municipalities) and the society as a whole to guarantee that these youngsters – already young adults– get the minimum compulsory education necessary for their life, which each Latvian citizen must acquire” (Latvian Journal, 1920).

During the second period (1946-1988) the schools for workers and peasants were established. These schools later received the name of “Evening schools for all adults” and they still exist. In fact, and it may be interesting for current discussions about the opening of Higher education (HE), the HE was seen as education for adults, and the “Research Institute of adult general education” (Sowjet Youth, 1970) existed. The main challenge was seen in the dominant orientation to adults’ academic education, not to their professional qualification. So as, the renaming of evening (shift) schools in adult schools, would be a good solution for the promotion of its attractiveness.

During the third period of development adult education in LLL perspective (1993-2013) the most relevant fact is the foundation of the Latvian Adult education association (LAEA) in 1993, which actively started the discussion on Adult education traditions, actualities and development opportunities in Latvia (Latvian Youth, 1993). In reference to the information provided by Latvian Higher Education Council (LAIP, 2006), Education Development Guidelines 2007–2013 for society and educational development were laid down in the European and Latvian policy planning documents: the Lisbon strategy, the Bologna education process, the European Commission's Memorandum on lifelong learning, UNESCO “Education for All”, the European Commission's work program “Education and Training 2010”, the "European initiative 2010 – a European Information Society for growth and employment”, the EU strategy on gender equality, long-term conceptual document “Latvian growth model: a human in the first place”, „Long-term economic development strategy”, “Unified Economic Strategy”, “Latvian Sustainable Development Guidelines”, „Policy Planning Guidelines”, “Latvian National Action Plan for Employment”, “Sports policy guidelines. 2004 – 2009,” “Regional Policy Guidelines”, as well as in the regional development planning documents. Guidelines were developed in conjunction with the existing documents (the National Development Plan 2007–

2013, and the National strategic reference framework, 2007– 2013), and bound to the guidelines of the MoES (MoES) policy planning documents (Lifelong learning strategy, the concept of Secondary Education, the Operational strategy 2007–2009, and Upbringing [audzināšanas] 2006- 2011-year work program). The guidelines were drawn up by the MoES in cooperation with the representatives from the Educational Content and Examination Centre (SPRAT), the Vocational Education Center (PIC), the State Youth Initiative Centre (VJIC), the Study Fund (SF), Academic Program Agency (APA), Agency for International Programs for Youth (JSPA), the State Language Agency (HAQ), Adult and vocational education association (PPIA), the Vocational Education Development Agency (PIAA), the Latvian Education and Scientific Workers' Trade Union (LESWU), the Trade Union of the Latvian Education (LIVA), Riga City Council Education, Youth and Sports Department, Latvian Employers Confederation (LDDK), the Latvian Association of Local and Regional Governments (LALRG), Latvian Rectors Council (RP), Latvian Teachers Council of Higher Education, the City Council, the parents' associations, the Advisory Board “Education for All” and the Latvian Association of Traditional Culture.

The founding of AE was provided by state with co-financing by local governments, ESF and NGOs (NVO). According to the Central Statistical Bureau data, AE in a lifelong education perspective was granted with 10,6 million lats (ca. 15,1 million €) from 2002 to 2004: 4,7 million € were paid by the companies themselves for employees training; the State funded the State Agency for Employment, the School of Administration and the national Latvian language education program for a total of 4.4 million € while 3,8 million € were funded by the citizens, in other words, by the education targets self. International funds and projects in Latvia provided 1.4 M€ for AE funding, while the local government founding was about 0,7 M€ (Baltic Institute for the social sciences, 2006, p.110). The elaboration of the “State program on lifelong education 2008-2010” is to be seen as the best practice of this period, as it guaranteed the main part of financing and coordination of AE by State, and also increased the opportunities of non-formal education for adults. The decreasing of this founding since 2010 resulted in closing of AE centres, evening schools, Folk High-schools, and opening of evening classes at the premises of ordinary schools, because maintenance of evening schools was left to the responsibility of the municipal authorities, which acted so for the purposes of austerity. In this period the Adult pedagogy as branch of the Pedagogical/Educational science was established in Latvia in 1996, and it had a wide impact on AE policy development and policy programs

and practices development. Existing research (Koķe, 1999, 2005;) in Latvia between 1996 and 2013 built the theoretical base of meaning of AE in policy documents of this period.

During the current period of development AE in LLL perspective in 2014 -2020 very important changes and new challenges are evident related to the preceding research on AE (Fernāte & Birziņa, 2014; Fernāte 2014a,b; Birziņa, 2014a,b, Pīgozne, 2014; Bērziņa, I., 2014, Godiņš, 2014), on workplace learning (Maslo, E., 2010), on learning outcomes approach in formal second chance education (Kulšs, 2014) and on identification and analysis of new challenges and solutions that have influence on engagement and reintegration of early school-leavers (18-24 aged) in lifelong learning (Maslo & Fernandezs et al., 2015), explored the meanings of "education for adults" through 18-24 old adults "voices", putting the accent on the concept of "education for adults" (instead of "adult education", as the policy documents did), and also contribute to explore the meanings of "adult formal, non-formal and informal learning of adults".

Conceptions and National Approaches

Regarding the meanings on "adult education", the overview of current policy reveals that legal documents are based on the concept of "adult education" rather than on the concept of "education for adults". They do not provide the meanings of the main characteristics of adult learning in terms of "formal/non-formal/informal learning" for adult learning concept in informative civil society is targeted on the adult learner benefits, not to the achievement of AE aims and objectives. Changes are necessary, taking into account the EC recommendation that Adult learning should not be implemented for work or career purposes, but for the purpose of reaching the key social and economic benefits of adult learning for learners themselves, for employers and for the wider community (EC, 2016).

Vulnerable Young Adults

In reference to the "Joint Memorandum of social inclusion of vulnerable groups" issued by the Government of the Republic of Latvia" (Saima, 2014), in accordance with the agreement signed in Brussels in December 2003, the main vulnerable statistical notable target-groups 1) Youth at risk of poverty and/or social exclusion and unemployment among the low skilled adults; 2) Young ex-offenders (statistical data to 16-30 year old target group N/A); 3) Young

ethnic minorities; 4) Young migrants from third countries; and 5) Young Latvian migrants and re-immigrants.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

New challenges are now included in the new policy documents (Guidelines for Development of Education in 2014 - 2020, 2014; Governance model of implementation plan of AE, 2016), elaborated in closely cooperation with meaningful interdisciplinary researches and in collaboration with European Commission and OECD (since 2016 May).

Youth at risk of poverty and/or social exclusion and unemployment among the low skilled adults

Three of government ministries, [Ministry of Welfare](#) (MoW), [Ministry of Economics](#) (MoE) and the [Ministry of Education and Science](#) (MoES), are actively implementing various AE programmes for specific target groups: The MoES and the State Agency of Development of Education are responsible for the provision of policy actions targeted at strengthening employee competitiveness to meet labour market needs, enhancing basic competences, continued professional education and disqualification of employees. The MoW and the State Agency for Employment are responsible for providing short-term labour forecasts and AE in support of the unemployed. The MoE and the [Investment and Development Agency of Latvia](#) (IDAL) are responsible for policy actions regarding the specific skills and competences necessary for the implementation of concrete assignments as requested by employers and implemented with their involvement (practice placements, courses).

Young ethnic minorities

The preceding research was made by the Latvian Language Agency on the “Language situation in Latvia: 2004 – 2010” (LVA et al., 2012) and “on the use of the Latvian language in vocational and higher education institutions: results in context of the of the reforming of the minority education in Latvia” (LVA et al., 2009, 2010a,b). This studies indicates that poverty and social exclusion do not differ among Latvian and non-Latvian native speakers, with the exception of the Roma minority. Low competitiveness in the labour market is not connected with influence of the official language (LCESC, Pabriks, (2002, 2003).

A best practice of supply for the active citizenship participation of minorities is the Bilingual education elaborated in 1997 and implemented in 2002 (Maslo, 2007), and expertise, methodologies and resources elaborated by the Latvian language Agency (LLA) that are not specific for Latvian language, but equally valid for any type of bilingual education in general. This expertise has already been used in Latvia's international development cooperation on Support for Developing Bilingual Education System in Georgia, financed by the Latvian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Dalbiņa & Pičukāne, 2013). There is research on the facilitation of youth participation in integration process in multicultural environment, based on the socio-cultural concept of active participation (Pigozne, 2010).

Young migrants from third countries

There is research on the impact of migration on the language environment in Latvia (LVA et al., 2012); the concept of inclusion for representatives of third countries (Pičukane, 2015), based on Bourdieu's human capital theory (social, economic, symbolic, cultural) [in note: the term "migrants" was not used in Latvia till end of 2015]. Key actors and funding: The main key actor in this field is the Society integration foundation (SIF). SIF is a public foundation established by the law on "Society Integration Fund" in 2001 (Legislation, 2011). The main objective of SIF is to financially support and promote integration of society. SIF also supports implementation of development programmes and projects by public and non-governmental sector. The decision making body of SIF is the Council. SIF Council encompasses MoFA, MoES, MoC, MoW, environmental protection and regional development, justice; representative of the President of the state; representatives of regions of Latvia, as well as six representatives of non-governmental organizations. SIF implements state budget support programmes, programs of European Union policies' instruments, as well as funding made available under foreign financial assistance programmes. During ten years of operation, the SIF was accredited and accumulated experience in implementation of financial instruments of European Union: PHARE and Transition Facility; programmes of ESF ([2004-2006](#), [2007-2013](#)), grant programmes of the European Economic Area Financial Mechanism and the Bilateral Norwegian Financial Mechanism, Latvian – Swiss cooperation programme, and other programmes. By 2011, SIF had rendered support to almost 2000 projects aimed at promotion of integration, strengthening of civil society, operation of public and non-governmental sector. The main recipients of funding are non-governmental organizations, local governments, their

institutions, and public authorities. In some programmes, projects were also implemented by courts, educational institutions, derived public bodies and commercial companies. SIF also participates in international projects and carries out other activities aimed at development of democratic, harmonic civil society and mutual understanding among different groups of society, based on common basic values.

Young Latvian migrants and re-immigrants

A new actor in this field is the MIF - Migration and Integration Fund (2014-2020) in the field of asylum, the responsible authority in Latvia is the Ministry of the Interior (MoI), which has the right to implement projects and measures in the framework of the Ministry of Finance (MoF), in order to achieve the objectives of the fund. The integration delegate authority is the Ministry of Culture (MoC). The Guidelines on National Identity, Civil Society and Integration Policy (2012–2018) were drawn up by the MoC in 2011 ensuring the preservation and enrichment of its unifying foundation – the Latvian language, culture and national identity, European democratic values, and a unique cultural space for a balanced development of Latvia as a national and democratic country defining the society integration as social inclusion of all people living in Latvia, disregarding their ethnic background and self-identification. New key actors: Centre of Diaspora and Migration Research of the University of Latvia founded by Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) within intensive studies on situation of this vulnerable group of youth (Kļave et al., 2015; Lulle et al, 2015a,b).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The MoW and the [State Employment Agency](#) had implemented the programme “Lifelong Learning Activities for the Employed” promoting employment and increasing the accessibility to lifelong learning activities over the entire territory of Latvia. Target groups included persons older than 45 and those within the age group 25 to 44, also covered the 25-30 aged youth, on the condition that the person had special needs or the person had two or more children, or if the person had the status of the needy or with income below subsistence level.

Second chance education

New policy documents (Guidelines for Development of Education in 2014 - 2020, 2014; Governance model of implementation plan of AE, 2016) point the need to strengthen the role of AE centres as the main successful actors in AE in last 10 years. They must be supported and developed as important regional development centres and second chance education (evening/shift schools) in all local communities to secure the equal participation rights in education for all adult citizens connected to local life and work needs.

Retraining

Training, retraining and skill development and acquisition in non-formal education (2008-2014): 1) Continuing professional education programs to enable the unemployed to acquire professional qualifications; 2) professional development programs to enable the unemployed to improve their professional skills and master the changing labour market requirements appropriate systematic professional knowledge and skills; 3) non-formal education programs appropriate systematic social and professional acquisition of basic skills. Training and retraining takes place individually in accordance with the training voucher method: the first qualification level professional continuing education programs with a duration of 480 training lessons - coupon baseline of 533.58 euros; the second qualification level professional continuing education programs with a duration of training 480 training hours - 533.58 € or the duration of the training of 640 training hours - coupon baseline of 711.44 €, third qualification level of professional continuing education programs with a duration of training 960, 1120 or 1280 training hours - coupon baseline of 1,067.15 €, professional development programs with the duration of the training of 160 to 320 teaching hours - coupon baseline of 355.72 € when using the voucher method of training educational programs whose duration of between 60 and 159 training hours, training coupon value of one unemployment rate for training up to a maximum total of 355.72 €. Unemployed received the scholarship 99.6 € per month (MoW, 2014).

Vocational programmes

Vocational education promotes knowledge, skills and attitudes that lead to vocational qualifications and support competitiveness in changing socioeconomic conditions, to create motivation for professional development and continuing training, and prepare learners to

continue education at a higher vocational education level. Good communication skills, knowledge in mathematics, sciences and social sciences, ability to communicate in foreign languages, modern IT application skills – these are the requirements of labour market today, and therefore the acquisition of these subject areas and skills are included in curricula. Besides, in the course of mastering vocational education and training programmes, attention is focused on the development of initiative, understanding of environment protection, intercultural issues, self-development of young people to help them to build their career and life successfully. The study process is organized in the way that the acquisition of theory interchanges with practical training in school workshops, laboratories, and on-the-job courses later in enterprises and organizations. The National Vocational Education Standard and the Occupational Standards or qualification requirements as well as the sectoral qualifications framework determine the curriculum of vocational secondary education programmes. Vocational secondary education can be accomplished in vocational schools (arodskola) and vocational secondary schools (named profesionālā vidusskola or tehnikums). Vocational schools provide basic vocational education and training programmes: 1) Vocational education programmes last for 3 years and are foreseen for students without a certificate of basic education (after completion of at least 7 grades of basic education, but they must be at least 15 years old); graduates receive a certificate of vocational initial education and vocational qualification (ISCED level-2); 2) Vocational education programmes (partial secondary level vocational education) last for 2-3 years for students with basic education or persons at least 15 years old, and graduates receive a Certificate of vocational basic education and vocational qualification (ISCED level-3); 3) Vocational upper-secondary educational programmes take 4 years and are open to students who have completed compulsory basic education. Graduates receive a Diploma of vocational secondary education and vocational qualification (ISCED level-4); 4) Post-secondary non-tertiary vocational education (ISCED level-4) can be followed after graduating from general secondary schools.

Informal learning

It is possible to receive a formal certificate for professional experience and knowledge thus confirming professional competence obtained at work during an adult's lifetime. Validation of skills and professional competences obtained in non-formal and informal education is carried out for the professions leading to 1st, 2nd and 3rd level of education of the [National](#)

[Qualifications Framework](#). Until June 1 2015, 40 education institutions have been delegated to assess professional competences obtained outside formal education system for 130 professional qualifications (National Qualification Framework (NQF) levels 1 to 3). 2113 persons have been issued an education document testifying professional competences obtained outside formal education.

Higher education

College programmes are of at least two-year duration and are considered as the first cycle of higher professional education. These programmes lead to Level- 4 professional qualifications (theoretical and practical preparedness for performing sophisticated executive tasks and for organisation and management of other specialists' work) and give credit to one's further studies in the second cycle of professional higher education. College programmes are currently being established at both the existing higher education institutions and at the former institutions of post-secondary vocational education. The fields in which college education programmes are first being established are engineering, computer science, business administration, nursing, and law (training of business lawyers for SME's). In order to ensure that training in college programmes can give credit for further studies in higher professional education, the quality assessment of college programmes will be carried out together with the appropriate "full" higher education programmes.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

European Roma Information Office (ERIO) involved in projects and initiatives together with inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations is to be seen as best practice of the country:

1) *Early EMPN -Marriage Prevention Network* (January 2016 - January 2018) is a project financed by the European Union under the Rights, Equality and Citizenship programme, which aims at targeting attitudes concerning early marriage in the Roma community. This two-year project is a partnership of seven partners of which ERIO is a part of; covering five countries: Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Slovenia, and Spain.

2) *SERCO* (December 2015- November 2017) is a project financed by the European Union under the Rights, Equality and Citizenship programme to address the problem of social and economic inclusion of Roma communities in the member states. The project's main objective is to streamline Roma social entrepreneurship creation in the National Roma Integration Strategies, as recommended by the European Commission. This two-year project is a partnership of eight partners of which ERIO is a partner, covering six European countries: Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Romania and Spain.

Relation to active citizenship: economic dimension

Other institutions are also involved in AE, including the non-governmental private sector as an important actor, whose intervention services continues to increase, particularly in the last seven years thanks to the European Structural Fund (ESF), and 2016-2020 with 22,9 million € supporting the rethinking of current meaning of AE as the education for work or career purposes (see Annex 2) to the purpose of reaching the key social and economic benefits of adult learning for learners themselves, for employers and for the wider community: “Adult learning can build people’s skills and competences for use in the labour market as well as their lives outside of work including how they manage their health and wellbeing and what they contribute to civil society. They can enable innovation and enterprise which can stimulate economic growth. Adult learning can also be expected to affect people’s attitudes to work, learning and the community they live in and in turn their behaviours” (EC, 2016).

Since the end of 2010 MoE and the [Investment and Development Agency of Latvia](#) (IDAL) has been implementing state support programmes for enhancing competitiveness of enterprises. The most important of them was training programme “Support to training of the employed to enhance competitiveness of enterprises - support to training for the employed of partner companies”. This was the first call designed to promote investment in human resources, as well as direct participation in labour force qualification, thus contributing to labour productivity, labour market and promoting business and raising economic competitiveness. Programme was targeted at different beneficiaries (project partner companies) to receive funding for training employees of different companies with similar needs of investment in human resources. Within the framework of the activity support was offered to associations of employers uniting at least five enterprises. Project applicants were the main partners responsible for project implementation and appointed by mutual agreement of partners. The

IDAL in cooperation with sectoral associations improve the qualification of general labour force by organizing training of employees by 14 sectoral associations, the [Employers' Confederation of Latvia](#) and the [Latvian Chamber of Commerce](#) and Industry. Entrepreneurs and training providers were involved in the implementation of the project. 60-80% of training costs were covered by ESF. Projects are still in implementing process. Within the framework of the activity support could be received by associations which had been registered in the Enterprise Register of associations and foundations. During the 3 years since the project's inception in 2011, the project involved 1241 industry and other technology companies, with 3764 different training courses organised within the framework and 37696 employees trained (20170 unique participants). The IDAL in cooperation with [Latvian Information and Communication Technology Association](#) (LICTA) promote further the development of information society in Latvia, so that all citizens may be given the opportunity to benefit from ICT and contribute to a knowledge-based economy. LICTA works toward increasing e-awareness in society by organizing conferences and educational endeavours and takes an active part in preparing professional study programmes for ICT specialists. LICTA is implementing two training projects for ICT industry. The first of them is titled "ICT Industry and Training Partners in Innovative Technology and Business Development" aimed at training employees of this area in using most recent technologies in the field of ICT and business development. 60-80% of training costs were covered by European Social Fund. During the three years since the project's start in 2011, the project has been involving 46 industry and other technology companies, with 702 different training courses organised and 3140 employees trained. Second training project is titled "ICT Training for Small and Micro Businesses to Promote Competitiveness and Productivity". Project's aim was to raise productivity and efficiency of micro enterprises and SMEs by increasing employee's qualifications and skills in ICT. During the two years since the project's start in 2012, it involved 890 industry and other technology companies, with 3764 different training courses organised and 4643 employees trained.

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

META (November 2015 - April 2018) is a European Union funded project under the Erasmus+ programme which aims to expedite the eradication of barriers that cause inequity in European education systems. This 18-months project is a partnership of four partners of which ERIO is a partner; covering three European countries: Belgium, Germany, and Italy.

Another example of best practice is the initiation of the project “Roma commune of the XXI century”: The Latvian Roma are ready to give an astounding present to commemorate the Latvian Republic’s 100th anniversary - an unusual compact village⁸⁵.

There are also current research projects implemented at the national level, such as “Supporting citizens of third countries (European) before the entry and an adaptation period” in 2014 (Nr. IF/2013/3a/1); “The availability of Latvian language learning opportunities for successful communication, naturalization and integration” (2013), including e-learning opportunities, and others (Pičukane, 2012).

Some programmes administered by “Society Integration Fund” (SIF) are: 1) since 2002, Society Unity Prizes have been awarded by SIF to express recognition and gratitude to persons or organizations, which have significantly contributed to society integration. At the award ceremony of the Society Unity Prize, the public has the opportunity to learn about the award winners who help others and create the feeling of belonging to our diverse community, ensuring equal opportunities for everyone. By 2011, Society Unity Prize was awarded to 30 people and organizations; 2) since 2008, SIF promotes the Memorandum of Good Will (MGW) inviting organizations and individuals to respect the diversity, prevention of discrimination and unequal attitude, in general, promoting society integration.

Country Specific Conclusion

Latvian legal acts in AE are based on the concept of “adult education” for continued personal and professional development rather than on the concept of “education for adults” in informative civil society targeted on the adult learner benefits, the latter is the future objective in national agendas. Several opportunities for young vulnerable adults exist, but active changes are taking place in on-the-job training, second chance education, validation of non-formally obtained competences.

85 URL: <http://sansaraen.weebly.com/21-century-tabor.html>

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Lithuania

Introduction

In Soviet period Lithuanian adult education was developed by the state to improve vocational skills and qualification. The formal organization called Knowledge Society (Zinijos draugija) organized educational lectures on popular science, innovations. After Independence Lithuania started an active process of integration into the democratic world and integration into the Western market economy, Lithuanian Association of Adult Education (LAAE) was established 1992 that from 2015 assists in creating the network of co-operating adult education institutions, and also exchanging information and programmes. After regaining Lithuanian independence the development of modern adult education in Lithuania begun, the country adopted many European adult education frameworks and integrated lifelong learning, humanism, democracy, commitment to Lithuanian culture and identity and renewal into national agendas of education. Several laws organizing Education in different levels (1991), Vocational education and Training (1997), and Non-formal adult education (2015) were approved. Lithuania has National Qualifications Framework (2007) to facilitate recognition of various forms of learning and to encourage lifelong learning and Lifelong Learning Strategy (2008) to systematically solve the problems of cooperation across institutions and to secure the accessibility of lifelong learning in various educational and non-educational institutions. Up to recent period adult education in Lithuania was considered a secondary concern of education system reformers, more prominence was given to formal education. Education of the adults in Lithuania provides at the educational institutions the following types of programs for young vulnerable adults: Adult secondary schools; Vocational schools provide access to different level education groups, but national language of learning in study programmes is still a constraint; Colleges and Institutions of higher education provide also study programmes aimed at retraining or programmes which do not award a degree, they also assist businesses in retraining, adults can choose the extended studies mode; college graduates may be admitted to a senior year to continue their studies at the university, the Additional and non-formal education providers are predominantly employers. There is a debate in Lithuania that is based on two views: education as a cost, which the state cannot bear; or education as an investment, which contributes to building social capital and fostering social cohesion. Ministry of Education and Science and Ministry of Social Security and Labour have approved lifelong learning at the strategy level.

Admission to labour market vocational training (employment training courses) is intended for the persons over 18 years of age, while those younger can be included only if they have already acquired initial vocational training. The Lithuanian government established a goal that by 2012 at least 15 % of the working age adult population should participate in some kind of education and training every year. While in the beginning period of Lithuanian independence the job-market competences obtaining focused goals of adult education prevailed, the new trend from 2015 is conception of adult education for the implementation of inborn human right for lifelong development of one's personality, to warrant individual with opportunities to acquire the knowledge and skills that one needs to be a citizen of democratic State and to be a specialist in a certain profession, to contribute for the creative and sensible use of leisure. Non-formal and informal learning is seen in the bridging role for vulnerables helping them to improve general skills, encourage personal development and increasing their access to employment, enabling them to acquire new or improving existing competencies, or retraining of the labor market needs. Adult education is seen in the role of providing learning opportunities for all, and especially to socially disadvantaged groups (low-skilled workers, the unemployed, adults, who have special needs, the elderly people, migrants, etc.). With the Law on Non-Formal and Continuing Education there exist the legal preconditions for the recognition of the informally acquired competences. Vulnerable groups in Lithuania that are officially determined in documents are persons with a severe disability, children (under 18), adults and families at social risk, NEETs. The youth Guarantee has been implemented in Lithuania. Lithuania has used EU funds for adult education provision, European agendas in Lithuania provide not only financial assistance but, foremost, the access to know-how and policy learning in this field. The main official stakeholders with young vulnerable adults in Lithuania are the Department of Youth Affairs under the Ministry of Social Security and Labour (implementing Youth Guarantee), National Youth Policy Development Programme (2011-2019) targets funds to consolidate youth organisations for engaging unemployed youth in participating social life and getting awareness of employment issues. National Programme for Voluntary Activities of Youth run the programmes Youth Voluntary Service, Discover Yourself. The Erasmus+ programs and NordPlus Framework Programme are actively used by vocational education stakeholders for mobility.

Historical Development

The history and tradition of Lithuanian adult education goes back to the second part of the 19th century when a famous Lithuanian bishop Motiejus Valancius widely spread ideas of education. In the period of Soviet occupation alongside adult education that was basically developed by the state to improve vocational skills and qualification there also existed a formal organization called Knowledge Society (Zinijos draugija) with its many branches, where educational lectures were given on popular science, innovations. Great political and economic changes in post-communist Lithuania that began in the 1990s opened new visions for its education system in general and adult education in particular. The greatest disadvantages of the soviet education system (the goals of education, education methodology, the teaching contents, underdeveloped area of adult education) have inevitably made the concept of lifelong learning particularly important. The idea of lifelong learning was mentioned in a number of documents adopted in Lithuania in the 1990s and acquired particular importance in the light of the EU documents.

The education reforms in Lithuania of the past 20 years have aimed to change some of the rules of the game education. New initiatives undertaken by Lithuanian education policy reformers in 2009 are expected to yield results in the future, however Lithuanian data on adult education show that the efforts to improve participation in lifelong learning are not sufficient. This raises a fundamental debate about the overall purpose of education, a debate that is based on two views: education as a cost, which the state cannot bear; or education as an investment, which contributes to building social capital and fostering social cohesion. We can also conclude that adult education has been a secondary concern of education system reformers, as they tended to give more prominence to “mainstream” education while underestimating the importance of adult access to higher education as well as lifelong learning goals. EU support and participation of adult education providers in the different EU funded projects and initiatives are highly important factors for development of adult education provision, because they provide not only financial assistance but, foremost, the access to know-how and policy learning in this field.

Three rather distinct periods in the Lithuanian lifelong learning trajectory during these 20 years can be traced (Taljūnaitė et al. 2010). In the first period, starting in the early 1990s and coinciding with Lithuania’s „Singing Revolution“ movement for independence, education reform became a focus of public debate. In the Concept of National School (1988-1991)

education was first and foremost viewed as an important vehicle of national-building and fostering economic and political stability. The Law on Education was adopted in 1991, which established the foundations governing the structure, activities and management of educational institutions (with the exception of the institutions of higher education) of the Republic of Lithuania. Education of the adults provided at the educational institutions of the following type: Adult secondary schools; Vocational schools; Colleges; Institutions of higher education; Institutions of additional and non-formal education.

The second period began in mid-1992, when the Lithuanian government published a document entitled *The General Concept of Education in Lithuania, 1992* - one of the most important documents of reform in the system of education. The issues discussed there in are: the entire structure of an educational system, general upbringing of children and youth, vocational training for youth, higher education, adult education, pedagogic training, management and financing of education, and support services for the process of training (scientific information, psychological, and medical). This concept declared the fundamental principles of Lithuanian education - (1) humanism, (2) democracy, (3) commitment to Lithuanian culture and identity and (4) renewal. (Taljūnaitė et al. 2010).

Law on Vocational Education and Training (1997) establishes the structure and administration of the vocational education and training (VET) system of the republic of Lithuania, based upon co-operation of the state government institutions and social partners, and also regulates organization of VET. The Law indicates that admission to labour market vocational training is intended for the persons over 18 years of age, while those younger shall be included only if they have already acquired initial vocational training.

Law on Non-formal adult education (2015) aims to "regulate the system of non-formal adult education, establish basic principles of its structure, activities and management. The objective of the Law is to provide the participants, providers and social partners of non-formal adult education with legislative guarantees, to help the implementation of inborn human right for lifelong development of one's personality, to warrant individual with opportunities to acquire the knowledge and skills that one needs to be a citizen of democratic State and to be a specialist in a certain profession, to contribute for the creative and sensible use of leisure" (The Law on Non-Formal and Continuing Education, 2015).

The country's burning ambition to join the EU (which happened in spring 2004) was a precondition for the main stakeholders in education (ministries, universities, academics) to engage in discussions on the European Commission (EC) Memorandum of Lifelong Learning in May-June 2001. This marked the third period in Lithuania's trajectory towards lifelong learning. The need for an educational focus on diversity also emerges from the interviews with education stakeholders presented in the Lithuanian national report on adult access to education: Lithuania struggles to become an open and diverse society, but in education this is slowed down by a small number of study programmes offered in English or other foreign language (Taljūnaitė et al. 2010).

Conceptions and National Approaches

After Lithuania became a member of the European Union, the development of adult education has become one of priorities of the Lithuanian Educational Policy. The new concepts – such as adult education, learner's competences and involvement in the labour market – have been introduced into Lithuanian education policy. The planning and implementation of the Lithuanian policy on the development of lifelong learning is based on the Strategy for Ensuring Lifelong Learning and the Action Plan for its Implementation approved by the the Ministers of Education and Science and Social Security and Labour. The Strategy sets out three basic types of adult education and training activities: formal, non-formal and informal learning in order to improve (gain) general skills, encourage personal development and increase access to employment, to acquire new or improve existing competencies, retraining of the labor market needs. General task of adult education is to provide learning opportunities for all, and especially to those who need them most - socially disadvantaged groups (low-skilled workers, the unemployed, adults, who have special needs, the elderly people, migrants, etc.). Formal adult education includes general education, vocational education and training, and higher education. The purpose of non-formal adult education is to provide an individual with conditions for lifelong learning, meet the needs of cognition, upgrade the qualification already acquired and acquire additional qualifications. Self-education (informal learning) is a natural daily self-directed process of learning which may not necessarily be premeditated; it is less organised and structured and may be driven by personal motives or professional and family circumstances; Rent of premises. Non formal education has an implicit goal alongside the formal education system to act as an option to stimulate the labour market to provide greater

chances of employability, and thus ensure the diversity of forms and modes of human capital development. Non formal education is a key bridge to those experience social exclusion (as well as ethnic minorities or immigrants) to participation in the labour market.

Vulnerable Young Adults

Social exclusion is a key challenge for Lithuania's social policy. In 2011, Lithuania was the fourth-worst-performing EU member state in terms of poverty and social exclusion, with 33.4% of the Lithuanian population at risk of poverty and social exclusion, compared to an the EU-27 average of 24.2% (Reform programme, 2015). The following groups are defined as vulnerable social groups in the national legislation: Person with a severe disability shall mean: 1) a child with a severe disability – a person who has been established a level of complete dependency under this Law and has been established a level of severe disability under the Law on Social Integration of the Disabled; 2) a adult with a severe disability – a person who has been established a level of complete dependency under this Law and has been rated as incapable of work under the Law on Social Integration of the Disabled; 3) a person with a severe disability who has attained the pensionable age – a person who has attained the pensionable age and who has been established a level of complete dependency under this Law (Republic of Lithuania Law on Social Services, 2006).

Child at social risk - shall mean a child under 18 years of age who is involved in vagrancy, begging, does not attend school or experiences behavioural problems at school, abuses alcohol, narcotic, psychotropic or toxic substances, is gambling dependent, is involved or tends to be involved in criminal activities, has experienced or is in the threat of experiencing psychological, physical or sexual abuse, violence in the family, which limits his possibilities of education and participation in society (Republic of Lithuania Law on Social Services, 2006).

Family at social risk - shall mean a family in which there are children under 18 years of age and at least one of the parents abuses alcohol, narcotic, psychotropic or toxic substances, is gambling dependent, due to the lack of social skills, does not know how to or is incapable of properly caring for children, abuses them psychologically, physically or sexually, does not use the state support he receives in the interests of the family, which results in a threat posed to the physical, intellectual, spiritual and moral development and security of the children. A family whose child has been established temporary guardianship (custody) in accordance with the

procedure laid down by laws shall be regarded as a family at social risk too (Republic of Lithuania Law on Social Services, 2006).

Adult at social risk - shall mean a person of working age who is socially excluded owing to his involvement in begging, vagrancy, alcohol abuse, abuse of narcotic, psychotropic or toxic substances, gambling dependence, involvement or tendency to be involved in criminal activities, experience or being in the threat of experiencing psychological, physical or sexual abuse, violence in the family and partial or complete loss of the abilities to independently care for his private (family) life and to participate in society (Republic of Lithuania Law on Social Services, 2006).

Youth unemployment rates in Lithuania are generally higher than unemployment for all ages. Young people are twice as likely to be unemployed as the adult population. Unemployment rates of the young people have increased considerably during the economic crisis of 2008. Moreover, employment prospects of the young people are considerably affected by their gender, educational attainment, previous work experience, etc. The possibilities of attaining decent, safe, stable, long term job become more and more complicated and challenging for the youth. However, a large part of people, younger than 25 years old, is still in education or training. The group of the youth not in education, employment, or training can be characterized by limited employment possibilities, low education, a poor family background, etc. A family background, such as family social status, parents' unemployment experience, family income, health, immigrant status are also risk factors which may be the causes of the youth NEET group membership. Moreover, a group of young people not in education, employment, or training face a constant risk of marginalization due to the lack of social, cultural, and human capital (The social report 2012-2016).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

In Lithuania youth policy comprises the activities targeted at finding solutions to youth problems and seeking to create favourable conditions for personality development of young people and their integration in social life. It is targeted at people aged 14–29, the number of whom was 580 000 in Lithuania in 2016. During 2014–2016, while developing youth policy, considerable focus was shifted on the strengthening of regional youth policy, integration of young people not in employment, education or training (NEET) in social life and the labour

market. The number of registered NEET's – 24462, not-registered – 20124, in 2016 (The social report, 2014-2015).

In 2015, the Department of Youth Affairs carried out the analysis of monitoring of the implementation of 2014 plans for the solution of youth problems in municipalities. This analysis is used for the planning of strategic documents on the local and national levels. Moreover, the Department of Youth Affairs initiated the preparation for youth problem surveys in municipalities in 2016.

Lithuania has a set of strategies related to lifelong learning. Strategic documents are led by the issues related to employment, such as upgrading qualifications and competencies, increasing accessibility to vocational training and services. Lifelong learning is perceived as an opportunity to develop individual competencies and skills, a presumption of acquiring relevant skills to meet the requirements of the labour market, as well as a prerequisite for successful and complete participation in the life of modern society. The policy of Lithuanian adult education is regulated by several national legal acts: The Law on Education, National Education Strategy, Lifelong Learning Strategy and the Law on Nonformal Education. It should be noted that the most relevant document regulating the field of adult education is the Lifelong Learning Strategy. The renewed strategy (Strategy for Assuring Lifelong Learning, 2008) was developed taking into consideration the attitude of a wide range of stakeholders. It is intended to systematically solve the problems of cooperation across institutions and to secure the accessibility of lifelong learning in various educational and non-educational institutions.

The Survey of Adult Skills was conducted in Lithuania from 1 April 2014 to 31 March 2015. Key results from the survey of adult education: Adults in Lithuania show above-average proficiency in numeracy and average proficiency in literacy compared with adults in the OECD countries participating in the survey. Lithuania is one of the two participating countries where men and women show similar proficiency in numeracy and literacy. Young adults in Lithuania have higher proficiency in literacy than on average across all participating countries and economies. A large proportion of adults in Lithuania show low proficiency in problem-solving in technology rich environments. Lithuania has one of the largest shares of workers who have higher literacy skills than those required for their jobs (Lithuania – Country note 2016).

Through reviewing Lithuanian education strategy and reforms, it has emerged that recent years Lithuania has been making active efforts in the entire education system in the direction of lifelong learning (Taljunaite et al., 2010). The interests of the state, employers and individuals concur in the sphere, as everybody understands that an individual without adequate qualifications will not be able to compete in the labour market. An employer will not be able to compete in the national market without qualified workers and the state will not be able to compete in European and world market without competitive enterprises (Dromantiene & Žemaitaityte, 2014). The Lithuanian government established a goal (Valstybinės švietimo strategijos 2003-2012 metų nuostatos) that at least 15 % of the working age adult population should participate in some kind of education and training every year by 2012. Despite an increase in participation in education and training by the working age population, this target seems to be unrealistic considering the present level that has been achieved (Kanopiene, Mikulioniene, 2010).

One of the purposes of National Qualifications Framework of Lithuania (2007) is to facilitate recognition of various forms of learning and to encourage lifelong learning. The Strategy for Assuring Lifelong Learning was approved in 2008. The purpose of the Strategy is to define both development directions and implementation measures of lifelong learning in the fields of vocational and adult education. The document describes guidelines for the development of a comprehensive, coherent and efficient lifelong learning system in correspondence with the national priorities and individual needs. The system will create opportunities to acquire, upgrade or change qualification and competences for better employment, integration into society and improved quality of life.

Lithuanian Strategy for the Use of EU Structural Assistance in 2007-2013 (2007), the 2007-2013 Action Programme for Human Resources Development and the 2007-2013 Action programme for Cohesion Encouragement. These documents expand encouragement of human resources development established in the Lithuanian Single Programming Document 2004-2006. The Single Programming Document, seeking to ensure that the workforce meets the requirements of the labour market better and that a culture of lifelong learning is fostered, extends the possibilities of non-formal and non-vocational education, and highlights the development and promotion of adult competencies.

The Lithuanian Association of Adult Education (LAAE), founded in 1992, in cooperation with the Lithuanian and foreign adult educators and institutions, promotes an approach of lifelong learning among the general public and the development of opportunities for continuing education. The LAAE assists in creating the network of co-operating adult education institutions, and also exchanging information and programmes (Reform programme, 2015). What regards informal training, there exist the legal preconditions for the recognition of the informally acquired competences (The Law on Non-Formal and Continuing Education accepted on the 1st January 2015), but the practices of assessment and recognition of these competences are only in the piloting stage and are not widespread.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Youth schools for the general education learners facing learning and behavioral obstacles in the traditional schools and learning environments. These schools provide standard general education combined with applications of specific pedagogic approaches and psychological support to learners.

Second chance education

An adult formal education system has been created and functions in Lithuania. There are 63 adult schools (30 adult learning schools and centers, 33 – secondary schools, which have programmes for adult secondary education), at which in the 2008-2009 school year registered 12,3 thousand adults studied primary, basic and secondary education. Adult learning is taking place in work environment, organized by the employers with regard to the market requirements.

Retraining

About 60 thousand businesses in Lithuania are potential providers or users of the educational services. The Department of Statistics, in 2010 listed 700 public and private institutions which administered non formal adult education.

Employment training courses for job seekers that are administered by the national employment agency and provided by the employment training centres and the VET schools. This measure

is considered as active labour market policy measure. Employment training contains the measures of upskilling and retraining (provision of the new qualification).

Vocational programmes

The following VET programmes included in the study and training programmes and qualifications register (Studijų, mokymo programų ir kvalifikacijų registras) are provided at: (a) lower secondary education level not leading to a basic education certificate; (b) lower secondary education level leading to a basic education certificate; (c) upper secondary education level for learners having completed basic education, not leading to upper secondary general education; (d) upper secondary education level leading to upper secondary general education; (e) post-secondary education level for learners having completed upper secondary general education (Vocational education and training in Lithuania, 2013). Learners without general lower or upper secondary education have an opportunity to acquire it together with a vocational qualification. Thus VET programmes help to bring early school-leavers back to education and training. After completing general upper secondary education and having acquired a vocational qualification, VET learners may continue their studies in higher education. In recent years, conditions to access higher education have been improved for successful VET graduates.

Informal learning

Non-formal adult education may be provided by various institutions, including adult education centres, high schools, and institutions for upgrading the qualification skills, businesses, non-government organisations or private individuals. The predominant non-formal education and training providers still remain employers. The following strengths of non-formal education in Lithuania can be highlighted: Independence from many formal procedures in comparison with the formal education system. The flexibility and orientation towards personal needs of the participants as well as labour market needs (Taljūnaitė et al. 2010). What regards informal training, there exist the legal preconditions for the recognition of the informally acquired competences (The Law on Non-Formal and Continuing Education accepted on the 1st January 2015), but the practices of assessment and recognition of these competences are only in the piloting stage and are not widespread.

Higher education

There are no formal age limitations to access higher education in Lithuania. Under the Law on Higher Education and Research, study programmes aimed at retraining or programmes which do not award a degree may be offered by universities and colleges in accordance with the procedure laid down by legal acts. At colleges and universities, adults can choose the extended studies mode. Colleges provide non-university studies for training practical specialists able to work independently in educational, cultural, business and other fields. Apart from other objectives, colleges seek to create conditions for continuing learning and assist businesses in providing continuing professional development and retraining. After agreement with universities, colleges may include study programmes (or their modules) in their programmes that correspond to basic university study programmes. Under agreements with universities, college graduates may be admitted to a senior year to continue their studies at the university. This was a significant contribution to the task specified in the Strategy for Ensuring Lifelong Learning to remove any restrictions to persons seeking to acquire professions that are in demand and who wish to upgrade their qualification skills.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

The Youth Guarantee has been implemented in Lithuania since 2014. In 2015, the scheme of implementation of the Youth Guarantee in municipalities was approved. The Department of Youth Affairs under the Ministry of Social Security and Labour (hereinafter referred to as the “Department of Youth Affairs”) conducted the selection of partners for the implementation of YG in accordance with the approved partner selection regulations.

Relation to active citizenship: economic dimension

In 2015, the implementation of the National Youth Policy Development Programme 2011–2019 was continued. 50 measures were implemented in accordance with the Action Plan 2014–2016 for the Implementation of the National Youth Policy Development Programme. While implementing programme measures, considerable attention was paid to raising youth awareness of the employment issues, the activities of youth employees, work with youth, and its development in open youth centres and spaces. In order to consolidate youth organisations

and encourage young people to participate in social life as well as be active and aware Lithuanian citizens, 91 youth organisations and organisations working with youth were financed under the tenders in 2014.

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

In 2014, the European Commission joined sports, youth and education programmes to create the Erasmus+ programme (2014–2020), which gave a strong impetus for the improvement of the European education system and the development of youth potential. Already in the first year many projects were submitted and could be characterised by good application quality, innovative ideas and determination to solve problems that are relevant to young people, youth organisations and youth policy. Youth is distinguished as a separate project activity area of the Erasmus+ programme. The programme aims to enhance the key competences and skills of youth with fewer opportunities, encourage young people to participate in the democratic European life and labour market, promote active citizenship, cultural dialogue, social inclusion and solidarity (The social report 2012-2016).

In November 2015, the project “Youth Voluntary Service” was accomplished. 689 persons participated in the project. 634 young persons successfully completed voluntary activities (volunteering took 30 per cent or more time). Out of 689 young persons who participated in the project, 171 persons (24.8 per cent) found employment, 65 persons returned to the education system (19 of them are planning to do so), 20 persons emigrated. Seeking to ensure continuity of the National Programme for Voluntary Activities of Youth, cooperation agreements with seven partners of the project “Discover Yourself”, responsible for coordination of voluntary activities, were signed on 30 November 2015 (The social report 2012-2016).

Lithuania participates in the EC Lifelong Learning Programme, the Nordic Council of Ministers and the Government of Lithuania financed NordPlus Framework Programme and implements Structural Funds supported projects, among the key objectives of which is promoting mobility of people in all age groups. According to the data provided by the Education Exchanges Support Foundation, approximately 1000 vocational school learners and vocational training specialists (profession instructors, administration staff) participate in mobility projects every year.

Country Specific Conclusion

The most prominent trend in Lithuanian AE sets goals through "education for adults" targeting building social capital, supporting people in advancing themselves and their personality through lifelong learning to contribute to the society, and fostering social cohesion. Several laws and programs targeting informal learning have created the basis for approving informally obtained competences, informal education is seen as the tool for aiding vulnerables in state agendas.

Concluding Remarks

Despite of historical and regional closeness three Baltic countries have undergone different AE development after regaining their independence. National Acts and programmes have largely adopted the European concepts of AE and LLL in each country, however, the development differs in how the countries have operationalized the AE concept. In Estonia the market and job-related goal of AE and LLL still prevail and the AE focuses on continuing education and on the job training models. As an example, practice Estonia and Latvia offer personally tailored unemployment training. In Latvia and Lithuania the steps have been made at national acts' level to move from "adult education" to "education for adults" concept, that sees also the self-development in civil society as part of AE goals. These changes have brought the informal education in the frontline, seeing it as the means of supporting young vulnerables in becoming active citizens. Latvia and Lithuania enable formally validating in formal educational institutions the competences obtained at work context and in informal education, in Estonia this is realized at the higher education level. All the countries use some means for bilingual AE opportunities. In the national acts and agendas of Baltic countries the national language space protection is highlighted but it is combined with the social and cultural cohesion agendas and ecological sustainability means. Estonia has particular focus on digital service provision, that enables discovering the sets of constraints and requirements for supportive allowencies in case of each service. When searching for AE services, it is not yet possible to filter the prerequisites that young vulnerables may have as enablers or constraints to accessing AE services. Such services are not available at study program or informal education discovery level.

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Denmark, Finland and Sweden

Hanna Toiviainen and Paula Kuusipalo

Executive Summary

Denmark, Finland and Sweden are Nordic welfare states that historically have put a high value on education as a means to increase equality in the society. Citizens should have equal opportunities to participate in the society. Education is a right that is realised through special support for those in need. This educational ideology is today increasingly facing the dominance of the liberal market economies. Generally in all countries, budget cuts have affected adult education while resources have increased on guidance and counselling, transition from basic to upper secondary education and training, one-step-up activities for the low-skilled and continuing training for the work force.

Denmark, Finland and Sweden share a common history of liberal adult education. It was largely initiated by the labour movement and further developed by means of the engagement of the state and the municipalities supporting adult education opportunities. When comparing the adult education systems in these societies and their current responsiveness to the young adults' needs in vulnerable life situations we may direct attention to young immigrants' and asylum seekers' possibilities to receive education during their stay in a country. This report will illuminate the recent developments in each country, but one of the connecting issues is how current migration sets new challenges and opportunities for the liberal adult education mainly in folk high schools. The current demands to meet the needs of vulnerable young adults may also challenge the historically originated persistent division of tasks between the formal and non-formal adult education.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Denmark

Introduction

This chapter presents Denmark's adult education particularly focusing on the recognition of vulnerable young adults. The presentation casts light on adult education and lifelong learning in Denmark through some trends of historical development and present conceptions and national approaches. Adult education related with and targeted at vulnerable young adults will be discussed in the light of the existing research in the field and policy documents at national level. Specific programmes related to adult education will be reviewed including basic skill and remedy programmes, second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, and modes of informal learning. Out of this review, selected examples of good practices are picked up and the chapter is concluded.

Historical Development

Research distinguishes three main types of adult education that have developed as educational traditions in their own right, and reflects on them against the history of Denmark. The first type includes basic literacy education, such as reading, writing, and numeracy. An agricultural reform in the second half of 18. century led to a structure of many small family owned agricultural units and a general modernization of agriculture. A general school legislation was passed in 1814, which also included training in Danish language. Basic schooling remained very limited in rural areas. (Olesen, 2014.)

The second type refers to community and popular education, learning within, from and for a community or a social movement. The first folk high schools were established from 1844 on the education concept developed by Nikolaj Frederik Severin Grundtvig (1783 -1872). Grundtvig identified a growing democratic need in society - a need of enlightening the often both uneducated and poor peasantry. The aim of the folk high school was to help people qualify as active and engaged members of society, to give them a movement and the means to change the political situation from below and be a place to meet across social borders. The movement based on popular culture became one of the leading forces in Danish democracy. (Olesen, 2014.)

The third type is education and training for work, such as continuing education, retraining, and upskilling. In the beginning of the 20th century, class movements secured the implementation of the constitution. A committee that drafted a new framework of adult education synthesized the education traditions of folk high schools and working class evening classes in a national ideology of “popular education”. Olesen argues that community and popular education are often based on resistance against some of the influences of modernization, for example in minority and peripheral communities that are marginalized and/or impoverished by capitalist modernization and centralization. (Olesen, 2014.)

After the World War II, training of workers became part of welfare state policies in Nordic countries. In order to facilitate the transition from agriculture to urban employments a completely new adult education and training system was established, with a tri-partite governance and mainly funded by the state. In the period of crisis and stagflation in the 1970s, continuing education was redirected to take care of more long-term competence development for the more vulnerable segments of the labour force, e.g., women and young people without vocational qualification. (Olesen, 2014.)

Conceptions and National Approaches

The policy and practice of the Danish adult education system (AE) can primarily be divided into two aspects, formal and non-formal. The non-formal has been developed with the principles of self-governing institutions, life-long learning without the need for formal examinations, and a drive towards the recognition of prior learning (RPL) and validating this prior learning. In previous decades, there was also a move towards the full inclusion of adult education in to the general education system, and AE was taking a key role in educational policy in Denmark. This included a long-term strategy, aimed to upgrade and strengthen lifelong learning in all sectors of education, as well as the labour market and the society as a whole.

The formal system includes three areas. Firstly, General Adult Education (AVU) aims to provide competence based education for adults to improve knowledge and skills at secondary education level. All adults of 18 years and over have the right to access AVU (state provides by law). Secondly, Preparatory Adult Education (FVU) aims to improve basic skills in reading, writing and mathematics for adults. Implementation of FVU was a consequence of the 2001

Adult Education Reform, and the aim is to provide all adults (18 years or over) the possibility to improve and supplement their literacy and numeracy skills so that they will be better equipped within the labour market, but also as citizens in a democratic society. Activities take place within the workplace rather than in educational institutions. Thirdly, there is education for immigrant learners. Non-Danish citizens over 18 years of age with a residence permit and a civil registry number are entitled to a programme for non-native speakers. (EAEA, 2011.)

‘Non-Formal’ Learning takes place in and through Folkehøjskole (Grundtvig and Nordic countries), evening schools and study associations, day folk high schools, and university extramural departments. Formal Adult Education is based on Language centres, Adult Education Centers, (Voksenuddannelsescenter VUC), Labour Market Training Centers (AMU), Technical schools, business schools, agricultural schools and basic social and health service schools, Centres for Higher Education (CVU) and universities also offer AE. Most are self-governing state institutions. Non-Governmental Organisations are Danish Adult Education Association DAEA, Vocational Institutions and career-related training, vocational training programmes (arbejdsmarkedsuddannelser AMU), and e-learning institutes. (EAEA, 2011; <http://www.infonet-ae.eu/>)

The Ministry of Education is responsible for primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education, vocational education and training, further education apart from universities, adult vocational training and AE.

Educational and vocational guidance is given high priority in Denmark, both generally and politically. The overall structure and national targets in the field of guidance are defined in the ‘Act on Guidance in Relation to Choice of Education, Training and Career’, which was adopted by the Danish parliament in April 2003 and which has subsequently been revised (2006 and 2007). Within this Act the Ministry of Education is responsible for continuous supervision and development of guidance services in the educational sector. Although the Act on guidance is primarily targeted at young people (up to the age of 25 years), it does also concern services for adults wishing to enter a higher education programme. (EAEA, 2011.)

Ministry of Higher Education and Science and Ministry of Education (Ministeriet for Børn, Undervisning og Ligestilling) have launched an integrative portal on education to serve the

professionals working with immigrants and their families in municipalities and asylum centres (<http://ufm.dk/uddannelse-og-institutioner/>).

The self-governing state institutions are financed partly by the state partly by tuition fees that may either be paid by a local public authority or by the participant himself. Participants may receive National AE Support (SVU) on different sets of conditions. The finances of non-formal AE institutions are based on tuition fees. Evening schools are supported, though, by municipalities with up to 1/3 of expenses for teachers and free premises and university extension with the same percentage by the state. Tuition costs for the individual participants of day high schools are mostly covered by the municipality. Folk high schools receive a substantial government grant. In most of both formal and non-formal AE public funding have decreased over the last 12 years, leading to lower activity in some areas and higher participants' fees in most areas.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Like other Nordic countries, Denmark has high scores in adult participation in learning. The adult vocational training programs have managed to engage adult learners who are generally regarded least motivated - unskilled workers, especially male (Kondrup, 2013, cf. Olesen, 2014). The Danish adult education and training experience is assessed to be relatively well prepared to meet these new needs. "This is due to the combination of a long lasting and comprehensive influence of the free adult education – based in popular education and liberal school pedagogy – and the welfare security systems which are necessary to support a 'quality social demand' in a capitalist labor market, i.e. a social demand not linked to very narrow employer interests and limited by workers' immediate livelihood needs," argues Olesen (2014).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Youth at risk

The primary educational objective in Denmark is to ensure 'education for all', and one decisive logic within educational policy is that young people's transitions through the educational system and into the labour market should be accelerated and streamlined. The article by Pless

(2014) focuses on 'youth at risk' in education, post-15 educational choices and educational transitions. It is argued that the normal transition, which is currently held up as the political ideal, risks further marginalising young people who are already on the periphery of the educational system.

Dropout from education

Danish vocational training programmes are based on the dual system that represents a modernised form of apprenticeship, where learning by participating in work alternates with school-based learning (Juil & Jørgensen, 2011). The last two decades have seen an increasing political concern in the high dropout rates and low performance in education of boys compared to girls. In Denmark, 'the boy problem' in education is placed high on the agenda of education policy. The purpose of this article is to examine this 'boy problem' in relation to the dual system of vocational education and training (VET) in Denmark (Jørgensen, 2015). The analyses show that most students experience the dual system of VET as a valuable alternative to general education, but social and institutional processes of differentiation in the vocational schools place a significant group of students in a position where they have little chance of completing the programme.

Exclusion of multicultural perspectives and the deprivation paradigm

Horst & Gitz-Johansen (2010) have analysed the educational policy documents in Denmark and have come to the conclusion that multicultural positions are excluded from the Danish public educational policies. The dominant culture is taken for granted as the only useful base of knowledge and socialization. Moreover, the dominant language is seen as the only useful medium for learning, communication and expression. The way of presenting ethnic diversity and underachievement in education as a case of minorities lacking cultural, linguistic and social resources is referred to as *the deprivation paradigm*. Placing the problem within ethnic minority communities protects educational institutions and main stream dominant society from criticism and furthermore provides legitimacy for political interventions that seek remedies for persons who represent minorities (ibid.).

Implementation of three "Youth Packages" in Youth Work [outside AE]

The key words of these "Youth Packages" are early and active intervention and education with the goal to help vulnerable young people to a future with education and jobs. In Denmark the main approach is that young people with an education must work - and young people without education must start one - if they can. In this system, people between 16 and 30 years old are considered a young person. The laws are administered in municipal "Job centres", typically by educated social workers. (www.youthpolicy.org/)

The report maps the compensation possibilities in the legislation regulating the adult- and further education. It gives an overall view of the possibilities and obstacles that the disabled people meet regarding participation in this area. (Videreuddannelse; see also www.cedefop.europa.eu/)

Denmark has the highest proportion of VET (vocational education and training) students in work-based programmes of all the EU countries and its 2014 reform 'Better and more attractive vocational education and training programmes' is ambitious. Early reports are positive and indicate that drop-out rates for the first few months are reduced. However, especially Greenland has a remarkably high rate of dropouts from upper secondary school. An initiative to reduce the dropout rate is a central part of the parliament's (Inatsisartut) long-term plan for the field of education. A large proportion of students living and studying far from home appears to be a significant cause of young people dropping out of upper secondary school. Following a referendum in 1982 Greenland is not part of the EU as it withdrew from the union as February 1 1985. Greenland, however, represents an example of complex challenges of long distance to education, few employment opportunities and ethnic minority issues (language, life-style). (Greenland Education Plan.)

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The changes made to Act of Guidance in 2010 specifies, that the youth counsellors must assess if a young person between 15 and 17 is ready to progress in the educational system after compulsory education, or if the young person needs to go through preparatory measures first. Young people aged 18-25 years who receive cash benefits and are evaluated to be ready for a

youth education programme, can be sanctioned economically if they choose not to enter an educational programme. ([www.youthpolicy.org/.](http://www.youthpolicy.org/))

Combined youth education (KUU) is a programme for young people who are not ready for education at an upper secondary school or vocational education. The programme can last up to two years. Tuition is tailored to local or regional businesses based on the student's subsequent chances of getting a job. The programme can also provide a basis for completing an ordinary youth education, e.g. a vocational programme. (<http://ufm.dk>)

Specially planned youth education (STU) is a three-year youth education programme for young people with special needs that pre-vent them from completing other types of youth education. This may be the case if a young person is intellectually challenged and/or has a physical or mental disability. The aim is to promote the young person's personal development and improve their chances of living an independent and active life. ([http://ufm.dk.](http://ufm.dk))

Preparatory adult education (FVU) is offered to improve basic literacy and numeracy skills of adults who do not have sufficient qualifications to follow education and training or cope with the demands of working life. ([http://ufm.dk.](http://ufm.dk))

The youth guidance centres focus on guidance related to the transition from compulsory school to youth education or, alternatively, to the labour market. The main target groups are pupils in primary and lower secondary school, and young people under the age of 25 who are not involved in education, training or employment. The centres provide outreach services for this groups as they are obliged to establish contact with these young people and help them get back into education and training or employment. In addition, other young people under the age of 25 can contact the centres themselves for guidance; a transverse target group that includes young people whose problems are related to the continuing or completion of an education programme.

Danish language courses for foreigners at language centres are offered as an opportunity to all newly arrived foreign nationals over the age of 18. The courses are free of charge for the participants regardless their background or immigration status (labour migrant, international student, accompanying spouse or au pair). The programme consists of two levels, Danish for the labour market (elementary, 250 hours tuition) and Danish language training programme

(consisting of programme of maximum of three years). Enrolment to courses is made possible through contacting local municipality. (Ministry for children, education and gender equality)

Second chance education

General Adult Education Programme is part of the public education system. The programme aims to provide education that will enable young as well as mature adults to improve or supplement their knowledge and skills within general subjects. It also aims to enhance adults' ability to improve their future job and educational possibilities. General adult education is equivalent to – but not identical with – the municipal primary and lower secondary school (the Folkeskole). The target group is young as well as mature adults who have never completed lower secondary education or who have a need to improve or supplement their basic education. Every year, approximately 90,000 adults participate in general adult education. The number of students has been increasing in recent years.

Vocational programmes

Vocational basic course (egu) is an individually designed programme focused on a specific trade or composed of elements from several trades/programmes. The target group is people under the age of 30 who live in the municipality and are not in education, are unemployed and do not meet the requirements for completing an upper secondary programme. The egu alternates between school-based periods and periods of practical training in one or more companies. The main focus is on practical training and an individual programme is designed for each young person depending on his or her needs and interests. The trainees are offered individual guidance during the entire programme. In most cases, the young person finishes his or her egu after two years, but it may be extended by up to one year. The majority of egu trainees go on to seek employment or enter a VET programme. (<http://ufm.dk>.)

Production schools are for young people under the age of 25 who have not completed a youth education programme or are not ready to commence an ordinary youth education. The purposes of production schools are to enhance personal development and to improve students' future education and labour market possibilities. There are approximately 80 production schools in Denmark. Production schools are based on practical work in workshops, ranging from carpentry or metalwork to media or theatre workshops. Teaching aims to provide students with qualifications that will enable them to complete a vocationally qualifying educational

programme. Students are offered individual guidance on a day-to-day basis to support their efforts in clarifying their future choice of education, training and job. There are no examinations at production schools. Production schools have continuous intake. Students typically stay for an average of 5 months; approximately 30% stay for more than 6 months. A young person is entitled to a maximum of one year at a production school. (<http://ufm.dk>.)

Adult vocational training (AMU) targets, above all, unskilled and skilled workers in the labour market who need to update and/ or develop their competencies. The continuing training programmes are developed and adapted according to the needs of the labour market. (<http://ufm.dk>.)

Informal learning

In the Danish system, informal learning rather falls into the category of non-formal learning (see above). Non-formal adult education consists of educational opportunities that are free from pursuing formal credentials or following a fixed curriculum. In addition, no particular qualifications are required for entering and participating in the studies. The concept of non-formal adult education is associated with N.F.S Grundtvig, the Danish philosopher and educational thinker and his thoughts concerning free educational opportunities in 19th century. Currently the activities are based on initiatives of non-governmental organisations that receive public funding and are legislated under the Act on Non-Formal Adult Education Activity. Non-formal adult education comprises of 1) independent non-formal activities of evening schools and voluntary activity in associations, 2) university extension courses and 3) folk high schools, home economic schools and continuation schools. Independent non-formal adult education activities are based on fellowship and philosophy of the providers, either non-formal adult education associations or voluntary associations representing various fields as sports, politics, religion etc. The objective is to strengthen participants' academic insights and skills and enhance willingness to take responsibility over one's one life and engage actively in society.

Higher education

Higher education provides open education at vocational colleges and Academies of professional higher education, University colleges, and Universities.

Examples of Good Practice

Folkehøjskoler

There are about 75 folkehøjskoler (“folkhighschools”) spread right across the country. Most schools run long courses of 4-8 months during the winter, and shorter courses of 1-2 weeks during the summer. The winter courses are chiefly intended for young people between 18 and 23. Education may not be so specialised in one particular direction that it cannot fairly be termed generally broadening. No examinations may be held. The schools are obligated to offer guidance and counselling. The folkehøjskoler receive grants from the state for each student. The government also has established special financial incentives in order to support young people without formal education and with special needs can follow courses at folkehøjskoler. Danish citizens abroad receive the same benefits as Danes at home, as do refugees in Denmark and students who have already been living in the country for at least two years. (<http://danishfolkhighschools.com>.)

Youth Guidance centres

Youth Guidance Centres (UU-centre) should help young people become more conscious of their abilities, interests and possibilities, thus enabling them to make decisions regarding education and employment on a qualified basis. In Denmark, there is an act on guidance covering guidance in the education system. The act on guidance supports the Danish Government’s declared aim that by 2015, 95 % of a youth cohort complete at least upper secondary education. The Youth Guidance Centres and the job centres collect data on the education and employment of youths aged 15 to 29: 15-17 year olds are obligated by law to be in some sort of educational activity or activity with an educational perspective. For 18-24 year olds, who haven’t completed upper secondary education, and is not currently following an educational programme, the Youth Guidance Centres must contact and guide them. For 25-29 year olds, the data available are educational status including highest completed education. For this age group the Youth Guidance Centres have no obligations. The data are forwarded to the Ministry of Employment for the use of Job Centres. In Denmark, guidance must: help to ensure that choice of education and career will be of greatest possible benefit to the individual and to society; be targeted particularly at young people who, without specific guidance, will have difficulties in relation to choice and completion of education, training and career; take into

account interests and personal qualifications and skills of the individual; contribute to limiting the number of dropouts and students changing from one education and training programme to another; contribute to improving the individual's ability to seek and use information; help to ensure coherence and progression in the individual's guidance support. The program period runs through 2020. (Danish Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan.)

New portal to support the integration of refugees

The portal is developed in collaboration between the Ministry of Higher Education and Science and the Ministry for Children, Education and Gender Equality with contribution from other actors. It aims to offer a single source of information for the clarification and upgrading of refugees' competences, skills and education. Refugees' path to the Danish labour market may be facilitated by a process that clarifies their skills and educational qualifications and, if necessary, offer education. The ministries offer anyone who works with integration, an easy overview of the possibilities for clarification and upgrading. The portal is called "Education and Integration" and is aimed primarily at employees in municipalities and asylum centers who initially are in contact with the refugees and educational institutions. The portal introduces and links to information in areas such as: Educational and upgrading qualification opportunities from Danish lessons to vocational education and higher education; Educational support and financing; Assessment of formal educational qualifications and prior learning; and Offers from educational institutions. (<https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice>.)

Conclusion: Denmark

The Danish folk high school is considered as the single most original contribution to international thinking about adult education. What makes it special is the comprehensive and profound understanding of popular education as encompassing human existence as whole, not only as means of accumulating knowledge and technical skills. The distinction to formal learning institutions' understanding of "truth" as knowledge or skills to be acquired according to fixed curriculum, the Danish popular education rests on a democratic outlook of sharing of ideas, knowledge and life experiences. Most folk high schools are residential. During the course span of 4-8 months the school community is creating learning opportunities for students and staff and an essential part of learning rests in the everyday encounters outside classroom.

The long courses are mainly addressed to young people between 18 to 23 years. (<http://danishfolkhighschools.com>.)

By EU-standards Denmark has a relatively low rate of youth unemployment measured in both general terms and as long-term unemployment. Denmark fulfil the EU Youth Guarantee given the range of initiatives that are available to help young people to obtain an education and the range of employment and training measures aimed in particular at young people as part of the active labour market policy. Education is a special focus of the Danish policy concerning unemployed people below 30 years. In 2013, more than 50.000 persons below 30 years received cash benefit (kontanthjælp). Approximately 90 percent of this group did not have an education. With the cash benefit reform 2014 young people are therefore met with clear expectations and support for them to start and finish an education, which can give them access to the labour market. (Danish Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan.)

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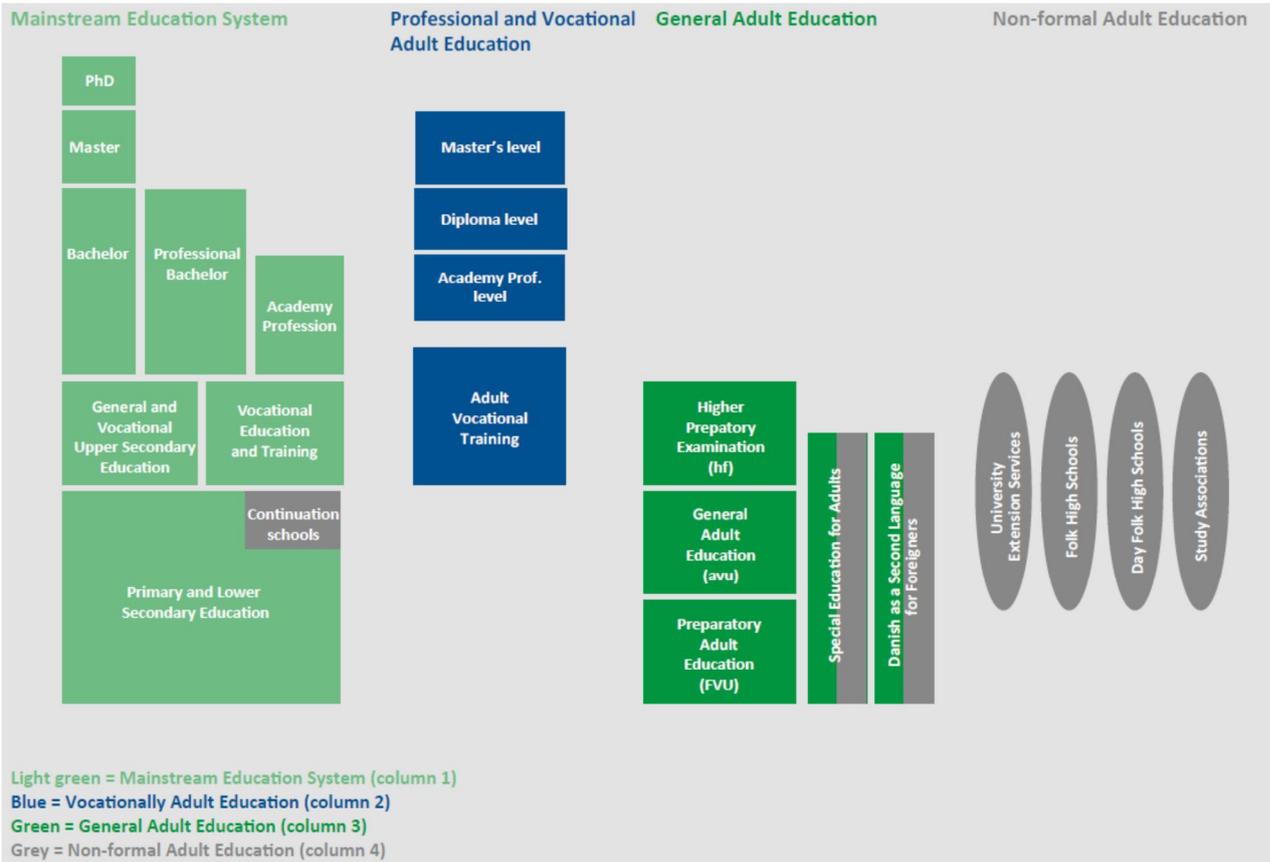
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Appendices

The Danish Education System: Adult education and training

http://ufm.dk/en/publications/2016/files/the_danish_education_system_pdfa.pdf



Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Finland

Introduction

This chapter presents Finland's adult education particularly focusing on the recognition of vulnerable young adults. The presentation casts light on adult education and lifelong learning in Finland through some trends of historical development and present conceptions and national approaches. Adult education related with and targeted at vulnerable young adults will be discussed in the light of the existing research in the field and policy documents at national level. Specific programmes related to adult education will be reviewed including basic skill and remedy programmes, second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, and modes of informal learning. Out of this review, selected examples of good practices are picked up and the chapter is concluded.

The overall educational level of population in Finland is very high and according to the European Adult Education Survey, more than 50% of adult population participates in adult education each year (Ruuskanen, 2014, 32). However, the 2012 Adult Education Survey showed that those in employment participated two times more often than unemployed in adult education. In addition, educational level indicates the most discrepancy in participation figures showing that 72% of those with university degree participated in adult education in 2012 compared to 35% of those with secondary education (Ruuskanen, 2014, 33-34).

Recent developments indicate changes in the structure and financing of adult education governed by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 2017. Finnish adult education providers will have to find complementary, possibly untraditional means of finance, and new partnerships. (EAEA Country reports 2015.)

Historical Development

The emergence of the Finnish adult education dates to the 1860s. Characterized by modernization, national romanticism and national awakening, the general intentions were the improvement of the educational level of population coupled with the enhancement of the ideological-political interests, and the strengthening of nation-based culture. The national ideology was the leading force until the 1920s. The milestones and promoters of liberal adult education of this period are: the Finnish Lifelong Learning Foundation (Kansanvalistusseura,

1874), folk high schools (1889), and adult education centres (työväenopisto, kansalaisopisto, arbetarinstitut, 1899) and the associations of popular education. (Panzar, 2007b; Koski & Filander, 2013.)

Researchers locate the first major turning point of adult education in the aftermath of the Finnish civil war of 1918 and the focus shift towards psychologically defined personalities and individual adults as the target of adult education (Koski & Filander, 2013, 590). Institutionally, the inter-war period meant expansion of the already established adult educational activities and extending the target group from those deprived of education to the whole population; emphasis was on general and civil subjects. (Panzar, 2007; Koski & Filander, 2013.)

The basic structures and forms of the present adult education were created during the 1960s and 1970s social- and education policy reforms. The development of the welfare state in the 1960s is according to the researchers the second turning point in the relations between adult education, individuals and society (Koski & Filander, 2013). The term “Adult Education” stabilised as the main subject area where the former liberal civic education was one sub-category among others. The Committee of Adult Education in 1971 defined adults as persons who ‘usually act or have acted in the working life’ (Koski & Filander, 2013, 591), which, besides representing notably narrow concept of adults, reflects the tendency to couple adult education with the needs of labour market and material production in contrast to the national-spirited ideals of personal growth.

In the turn of millennium, the status of liberal adult education was relatively weak compared with vocational adult education. Critical researchers see the rise of neo-liberal politics as the third turning point from the 1980s onwards (Koski & Filander, 2013). Academic discussion have addressed the potential of liberal adult education as balancing the dominance of vocational capabilities needed for the competitiveness in the global market. Recent increase in migration and a growing number of asylum seekers has assigned novel tasks to liberal adult education providers.

Concluding from the historical analyses adult education has always targeted large groups of population that in a given time have considered to be in need of academic improvement. Minorities and groups under the risk of marginalization have been addressed. An example is the inclusion of the national minorities, e.g., Samí and the Roma, in education. Finland is

considered a forerunner in many respects, but these national minorities still lag behind in academic achievements. Today's globalization and migration in various forms have changed the idea of a uniform population towards diversity. It follows that adult education will have to target most variable groups and subcultures. The concept of active citizenship captures this challenge better than the traditional and original popular education (kansansivistys), even though critical voices deem active citizenship under the conditions of politico-economic liberalism to represent a new mode of hegemony (Brunila et al, 2016; on citizenship, see Helve, 2015).

Conceptions and National Approaches

The definition by Ministry of Education and Culture (OKM) of adult learning covers vocational training and general education as well as formal, non-formal and informal learning. Adult learner is defined as one who is 25 or over. On the other hand, the institutions of adult education define the age of the adult attendants differently. A student in the age of 16 can enter folk high school courses, for example. Adult learner can be a student at all levels from primary to tertiary education.

Adult education policy by the Ministry of Education and Culture is set to ensure the availability and competence of the labour force, provide educational opportunities for the entire adult population, and strengthen social cohesion and equality. Adult education policy supports efforts to extend working life, raise the employment rate, improve productivity, enhance multiculturalism and implement the conditions for lifelong learning. In addition, adult education alleviates the effects of the recession. (<http://okm.fi/>)

The conceptions of adult education have historically evolved from pursuing the overall goal of "Bildung" to that of "competence" drawing the demarcation line between the liberal/civic and the vocational adult education (Pantzar, 2007a). This basic tension is observable in the ongoing academic debate on the meaning and mission of adult education, in politics as well as in university education and research. Today the main categories are liberal adult education, vocational adult education and general adult education.

The goal is to increase the study opportunities of people with no vocational education and training or whose education is outdated, entrepreneurs, the staff of small and medium-sized enterprises, immigrants and people aged over 55. (<http://okm.fi/>)

The analysis by Silvennoinen and Lindberg (2015) shows that adult education is a fragmented field and the demand is differentiated by population groups. Statistical information about participation hides the fact that a big part of adult education is based on the initiatives of work organisations and employment officials rather than adults' self-directedness and intrinsic motivation. Even though adult education offers the young the second chance its proportion of the whole offering is small.

Adult education is available within the official education system in: adult upper secondary schools, vocational institutions and vocational adult training centres, national and private vocational institutions, and in polytechnics and universities. Liberal adult education providers are: adult education centres, folk high schools, summer universities, study centres, and sports institutes. Adult education also includes staff-development and other training provided or purchased by employers. Labour market training is financed by the labour administration and mainly intended for unemployed persons and those aged 20 or over who are threatened by unemployment. (<http://okm.fi/>)

Adult education encompasses self-motivated education (the Ministry of Education and Culture), staff training (employers) and labour market training (the Ministry of Employment and the Economy). "Some 800 educational institutions provide further and continuing education of varying duration, non-degree studies, as well as education leading to a qualification. Learning mostly takes place in working life and through informal studies using networks, libraries and other learning environments." (<http://okm.fi/>)

About half of liberal adult education costs are covered by the government and the rest mostly comes from student fees and from the maintaining organisations. The purpose of state funding is to guarantee the largest possible provision without burdening the students with high fees. Adult education and training receives 12-13% of the appropriations allocated through the Ministry of Education and Culture main class in the state budget. Almost half of this funding is channelled to vocational training and one fifth to liberal education.

Employers purchase staff-development training from adult education institutions and firms. The labour administration also purchases a great deal of different training for unemployed people and for those at risk of unemployment. (<http://okm.fi/>.) In sum, funding of adult education comes from the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Employment and

the Economy, and the employers, correspondingly, and from the project-based financing of different educational agencies.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Finnish adult education system has addressed minorities and groups under the risk of marginalization, but there are still defects in adult education offering. An example is the organization of the Roma education where Finland is considered a forerunner, but this national minority group still lags behind in academic achievements. Due to recent (2015) influx of asylum seekers, the Finnish Government has launched an Action Plan to promote initial integration of migrants into education and labour market, which includes hastening of the initial guidance, skills mapping and integration training of new-comers (Hallituksen kotouttamista koskeva toimintasuunnitelma, 2016).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Exclusion, marginalization

Social exclusion is a frequently used concept in different youth programs in the European Union. Schools have participated in projects for the prevention of social exclusion. However, the definition of social exclusion is still unclear and it could be used also as a stigmatising label. Jahnukainen (2014) discusses the nature of social exclusion as a social phenomenon and the preventive, non-stigmatising potential of education.

Research results (Siivonen & Brunila, 2014) suggest that participants in adult education end up constructing their subjectivities within the limits and possibilities of the entrepreneurial discourse that are made available to them. Embracing the entrepreneurial discourse construed in terms of autonomy and freedom, young people are expected to make a project out of their own subjectivities, is the researchers' statement. Another analysis points out that marginalisation of young adults does not exclusively follow from objective factors such as low level of education, but also from the experiential factors such as loneliness, distrust and underachievement creating the spiral of marginalization (Lehtonen and Kallunki, 2013).

Low level of education

Based on various quantitative research projects low level of education appears a genuinely social risk factor for unemployment, health problems, and crime (Aaltonen, et al, 2016; Koskinen, et.al, 2012; Niemi, et al, 2014; Tilastokeskus, 2012;). This might be linked to intergenerational continuity, as the educational background of parents is still a strong predictor of the educational level even in Nordic welfare states. In case of crime, low educational level is assumed to have connections with individual traits, like self-control, ability to delay gratification and academic aptitude and intelligence, which provide possible explanations for educational attainment (Aaltonen et al, 2016, 176). The complexity of mechanisms that enhance success or make barriers to participation in Finnish educational system is yet to be exposed.

Disabled young adults

Research on disabled young adults and working life citizenship analysed which factors promote and which factors prevent the working life citizenship of disabled young adults. The focus was not on adult education (Ekholm & Teittinen, 2014).

Sámi

The Sámi Education Institute offers a variety of study programmes both in vocational qualifications, further and continuing vocational education. SOGSAKK also offers the possibility to study Sámi language and culture, Media and higher degree studies and a versatile course curriculum. As indigenous people the Sámi have actively spoken for their rights during the past decades. Their nature-bound sources of livelihood are endangered, which has effects on the integration of the younger generations in the society.

Roma (national minority)

The review by the Board of Education describes the Roma experiences of education in vocational schools, adult high schools, and liberal adult education institutes. Actions for the improvement of the Roma education and participation are presented. ([www.oph.fi/.](http://www.oph.fi/))

Youth guarantee

Research has been published by Gretschel, et al. (2014). See also section Examples of good practice.

Immigrants' integration training

In Finland, the Immigrants' Integration training for newly arrived migrants is implemented based on national curricula, The Curriculum for Adult Immigrants' integration training and the Curriculum for Adult Immigrants' Training for Illiterate. Young immigrants who have not completed their primary or secondary education is a serious concern that can affect integration in a society with very high educational level (more than 85% of young Finnish have completed post-secondary education). To overcome this challenge, the current Government Action Plan aims at revision of the curriculum for illiterate, reforming both its finance and student subsidy system as well as linking the learning of reading and writing to the general curriculum of adult primary and secondary education. Furthermore, specific curricula are used for education of adult immigrants who need language or other basic skills for entering post-secondary education or vocational education. The funding mechanism reflects the overall finance structure of the adult education sector with one exception. In general, the employer is obliged to organize personnel training, but only recently the need to provide Finnish language learning for migrant workers has been discussed. Employers have by far carried least responsibility of the integration training of their employees.

Legislation and policy documents

Finally, some notions on the adult education policy documents are presented. In legislation, vocational education is meant to “maintain and upgrade vocational skills, provide students with entrepreneurship, develop working life and fulfil its needs for qualifications and skills” (Act on Vocational Adult Education). The task of Liberal Adult Education is to “enhance coherence, equality and active citizenship” (Act of Liberal Adult Education) and primary and secondary education for adults (over the age of compulsory education) is to “support growth into humanity and into ethically responsible membership of society and to provide with knowledge and skills needed in life” (Basic Education Act). (www.finlex.fi.)

Adult education legislation applies to those organisational units and activities that are financed by the public sector, which covers a significant portion of all activities. Liberal adult education organisations (folk high schools, residential folk high schools, popular education organisations, summer universities and sports institutes) receive a varying amount of support from the state, in accordance with the statutory stipulations in question. Vocational adult education is strictly regulated by laws and curricula that partly coincide with the labour force policy legislation. In

the area of general adult education, the legislation applies to higher adult education (e.g. open universities) and primary and secondary education for adults. Personnel training provided by companies and other organisations constitutes the most important area that remains outside educational legislation. (Pantzar, 2007a.)

Act on the Promotion of Immigrant Integration applies to persons possessing a valid residence permit in Finland. Sections 20-24 of the Act legislate the organizing of integration training in order to provide immigrants with the basic language skills required in daily life. The act applies to all immigrants regardless the initial ground of issuing the residence, but it legislates more specifically on humanitarian migration and other situations when new-comers are entitled to basic municipal services and public employment services (PES). The Act legislates on initial integration measures, which covers basic information on Finnish society for all initial mapping of skills, integration guidance and training. (<http://www.tem.fi>.)

The Action Plan 2016 by the Finnish Government sets the aim of providing more opportunities for language learning in working life and in vocational training instead of making lack of language skills a barrier of entering vocational training. Low educational level of many humanitarian migrants and the necessity of securing the right to basic education have been recognized and revision of the organization of primary and secondary education for adults is being implemented (Governments Action Plan for Integration, 2016). Documents addressing integration and education are: Act on the Promotion of Immigrant Integration (www.finlex.fi), Government's action plan 2016 (vnk.fi/documents/), and Studyinfo portal (<https://studyinfo.fi/>).

The European definition of early school leaving, people aged 18-24 who have only lower secondary education or less and are no longer in education or training, is used when providing statistical information for European use in Finland. In the national context the focus is on a larger group who are at a risk of marginalisation. A key initiative at the moment is the so called youth guarantee programme. The target group of the youth guarantee is 15-29 –year-olds who have no education and training after the basic education and have no job or study place. The youth guarantee means that each young person under 25 and recently graduated people under 30 will be offered a job, a traineeship, a study place, or a period in a workshop or rehabilitation within three months of becoming unemployed. (<https://cumulus.cedefop.europa.eu>.)

The Finnish Education Evaluation Centre (FINEEC) is an independent expert organisation responsible for conducting and developing evaluation of education. The evaluation (Pirinen, 2015) on the access to education and the support during studies for learners with immigrant backgrounds stated that the transitional phase after basic education is challenging to young people with immigrant background. Lack of Finnish or Swedish language skills, insufficient education range offered, and the need for special needs teacher services were among the challenges regarding learners with immigrant background.

As to its on-going and forthcoming contributions, the FINEEC has defined four focus areas for evaluation during 2016-2019. The evaluation projects to be carried out in the field of liberal adult education cover the following themes: Student transitions and smooth study paths at educational transition phases; The impact of national budget cuts on educational rights; International comparison of the integration of immigrants into the educational system. (Finnish Education Evaluation Centre, 2016).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Youth workshop is a community that combines working, learning by doing with the aim to improve the ability of individuals to manage everyday life and their capacity and skills in seeking education or employment. Work coaching improves the capacity to work and the skills and general competencies needed in working life, while individual coaching focuses on functional capacity and managing everyday life. Workshops make a significant contribution to improving various skills needed in life, growing up into adulthood and as part of the community, and learning at work. Youth workshops are situated within the public sector services on the interface between social welfare services and youth work, open education and labour markets. Funding is composed of state grants, contributions from organisers of the activity, project funding, revenue from coaching services and proceeds from the work. Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for developing the content of youth workshop activities and the decision-making on development projects concerning individual workshops, including grants and support, takes place at the Regional State Administrative Agencies. In 2015 a total of 25 449 persons took part in the coaching offered at workshops, 14 733 (58%) of them young

people aged 29 or under. This was a little more than the year before (14 200). The workforce employed at the workshops totaled 1 858 person-years.

Immigrant education in liberal adult education institutions was a study that charted the educational offering aimed at immigrants in liberal adult education institutions as well as participants with immigrants background in 2014 (Saloheimo, 2016). According to the survey 264 organizers reported having immigrant students. Majority of the 51.414 students (47.000 students) participated in liberal adult education studies that were exclusively organised for immigrants or participated in overall programmes in the institutions. Approximately 4.000 studied in various immigrants' integration training courses and the rest 500 studied in programmes varying from primary education for adults to vocational education (Saloheimo, 2016, 6-7).

Second chance education

Primary, secondary and upper secondary education for adults is offered to those who lack basic education. Adults can enter studies by completing their secondary and upper secondary education regardless of their background. The complementary system dates back to the educational needs of those Finnish adults who wanted to upgrade their basic education before implementation of universal comprehensive school (from mid-1970's). Municipal or private upper secondary schools and some folk high schools can offer programmes for adults to study secondary and upper secondary levels but, lately, the need for primary education has been recognized and provision of elementary studies has developed.

The discrepancy between the high educational level of overall Finnish population and many migrants from countries without universal basic education has been recognised and necessary actions concerning access, curriculum, and resources have been pinpointed by the Ministry of Education. (www.minedu.fi/)

Retraining

The overarching principle of the retraining is the interconnection of labour market policy and welfare. For instance, in a situation of loss of work opportunities because of changes in the international market, workers are entitled to generous benefits including labour market training in order to upgrade or adapt skills to find new opportunities. In 2015, labour market training was attended on average by 22,400 students, down 3,100 (12 %) on the year 2014.

A total of 6,800 of those having entered training, i.e. 15 per cent of all entrants, were under 25 years of age. Foreign nationals entering training represented some 160 nationalities. The share of foreign nationals was 34 per cent. (Official Statistics of Finland.)

Vocational programmes

System for the competence-based qualification (Näyttötutkintojärjestelmä) is a competence-based qualification system designed to provide adults a flexible way of demonstrating, renewing and maintaining their vocational skills, or of qualifying for a new profession when their work tasks change. The system enables uniform qualitative recognition of an individual's vocational competencies, regardless of whether they were acquired through work experience, studies or other activities. A competence based qualification is completed by demonstrating vocational skills at workplaces in actual work tasks.

Competence-based qualifications have become an established part of the educational system and the numbers of candidates seeking such qualifications and those who have completed them continues to increase. (<http://www.minedu.fi/OPM/Julkaisut/2015/nayttotutkinto;>

http://www.oph.fi/download/166215_nayttotutkintojarjestelma_20_vuotta.pdf.)

Higher Education

Courses preparing immigrants for studies at the University of Applied Sciences (UAS) are meant for people with migrant background who live in Finland, are aiming for UAS degree studies and have a minimum Finnish skill level of B1.1. On these courses, students will familiarise themselves with certain fields of study while improving their Finnish skills needed for the studies. Currently there are preparatory courses in fields of culture, social and health services, and engineering at the Helsinki Metropolia UAS⁸⁶. The courses last six months and consist of different modules worth 30 ECTS. Students who undertake the studies are eligible for full student allowances. The course does not automatically grant access to degree studies and students who finish the course will have to sit entrance exams like other applicants. (<http://www.metropolia.fi/koulutukset/maahanmuuttajille/>)

⁸⁶ There are also other providers but Metropolia's courses have been running the longest and are organised every year.

Supporting Immigrants in Higher Education in Finland (SIMHE) is a project that seeks to establish a model that can be used by other higher education institutes in Finland joining the activities. The aim of the project is to streamline the recognition of prior learning (RPL) of highly educated immigrants, who reside in Finland with various statuses, and guiding them to higher education both on national and regional level. The project is funded by the Ministry of Education and Culture and coordinated by the University of Jyväskylä. ([http://www.metropolia.fi/en/services/for-immigrants/.](http://www.metropolia.fi/en/services/for-immigrants/))

Examples of Good Practice

One-Stop-Guidance Center (Ohjaamo, Navigatorn – In Youth Guarantee programme)

The One-Stop-Guidance Center is a low-threshold service point aimed at those aged under 30 which young people can easily come to, and for which no referral is required. The One-Stop-Guidance Center operational model is comprised of the diversified service-providing Centre itself, the basic services of different administrative branches, and a wide cooperative network.

The implementation of the Youth Guarantee and the launching of the One-Stop-Guidance Centers is partially funded by the European Social Fund (ESF). The funding was obtained because the promotion of youth employment is one of the focus areas for the EU's current Structural Funds period (2014–2020). With the support of this funding, One-Stop-Guidance Center activities are currently getting started through pilot projects in several different localities. Efforts are being made right from the beginning, however, to get the operational model established nationwide within a couple of years.

There are already in existence well-functioning examples of the One-Stop-Guidance Center model, such as Byström House in Oulu, the Petra Project in Vantaa, the Open Vocational College in Joensuu, and the Olkkari in Mikkeli. The good experiences and operational models gained from these examples will be put to use in developing the One-Stop-Guidance Centers. There will be over 30 guidance centres in Finland by the end of 2015. The Kohtaamo project coordinates the national development of the centres and e-Guidance services. The project is coordinated by the Ministry of Employment and the Economy and it is carried out together with several different administrative fields, working life, and third sector parties. The centres will be developed with the support of the European Social Funds as a national development project 2015–2020. (<http://www.nuorisotakuu.fi/>; [https://www.jyu.fi/en/news/.](https://www.jyu.fi/en/news/))

Nutukka-programme, co-operation between Folk High Schools and The Finnish Immigration Service

Nutukka-programme is implemented in cooperation of The Finnish Immigration Service and Finnish Folk High Schools. The programme targets the vulnerable group of unaccompanied minors in the age of 16 to 17 years seeking asylum in Finland. The idea of the programme is to provide both shelter and education for young asylum seekers while their asylum application is processed. The aim of the programme is to prevent exclusion, enhance integration and support further studies as well as guarantee the right to safe living conditions for youth by providing proper housing and shelter. During the school year 2015-2016 some 20 Folk High Schools in Finland provided education and housing for more than 500 young asylum seekers. The Nutukka study programme applies the guidelines of the National Curriculum of Integration Training. According to Folk High School ideal the whole community of teachers, staff and students participate in mutual learning process.

The expected outcomes of the Nutukka programme are prevention of exclusion, accelerating integration and creating access to further education and working life. According to mid-term evaluation participation has strengthened the language skills. In addition, the participants' sense of trust and security have grown and they are capable of concentrating to studies. They have learned everyday skills and gained autonomy. Integration to the Finnish society has been implemented within joint activities within Folk High Schools. (www.kansanopisto.fi)

Online Comprehensive School (and Online Upper Secondary School)

Online Comprehensive School is targeted at students older than 18 years who lack the basic education diploma. Based on online and distant studies studying is independent of time and place. Students get a personal study plan. Applying period for Online Comprehensive School is not fixed; enrolment is flexible and studies available at any given time. The syllabus is based on course periods and follow the curriculum of adult comprehensive school. (<http://www.otavanopisto.fi>)

Preparatory education for upper secondary vocational education and training (VALMA)

Pre-vocational preparatory education for immigrants is available before entering upper secondary vocational education and training. This programme aims at improving language

skills and other abilities that are needed for studying. Preparatory education lasts between 6 and 12 months.

The studies are conducted entirely in Finnish or Swedish. Participants in upper secondary vocational education and training are required to have basic Finnish or Swedish language skills. To demonstrate the language skills students are expected to take a language proficiency examination or test before entering the education. <https://studyinfo.fi/wp2/en/vocational-education-and-training/preparatory-education-for-vocational-education/>

Preparatory studies for general upper secondary education (LUVA)

Preparatory education for upper secondary prepares students in language skills and diverse study skills that are required for entering general upper secondary education. Studies take one academic year concentrating in language studies, mathematical and natural science studies and knowledge of society and culture. <https://studyinfo.fi/wp2/en/general-upper-secondary-education/preparatory-education-for-general-upper-secondary/>

Conclusion: Finland

The short history of immigration in Finland still effects public service experiences of young migrants. It seems that service providers in many occasions are forgetting that Finland is not a country with homogeneous population (Nieminen et al, 2015, 68). For example, the Finnish educational system is still partly ignorant to educational needs of the newcomers and unable to match their skills or lack of skills with the overall educational system in Finland. The current aim is to provide more opportunities for language learning in working life and in vocational training instead of making lack of language skills a barrier of entering vocational training. Low educational level of many humanitarian migrants and the necessity of securing the right to basic education have been recognised and revision of the organization of primary and secondary education for adults is being implemented (Hallituksen kotouttamista koskeva toimintasuunnitelma, 2016).

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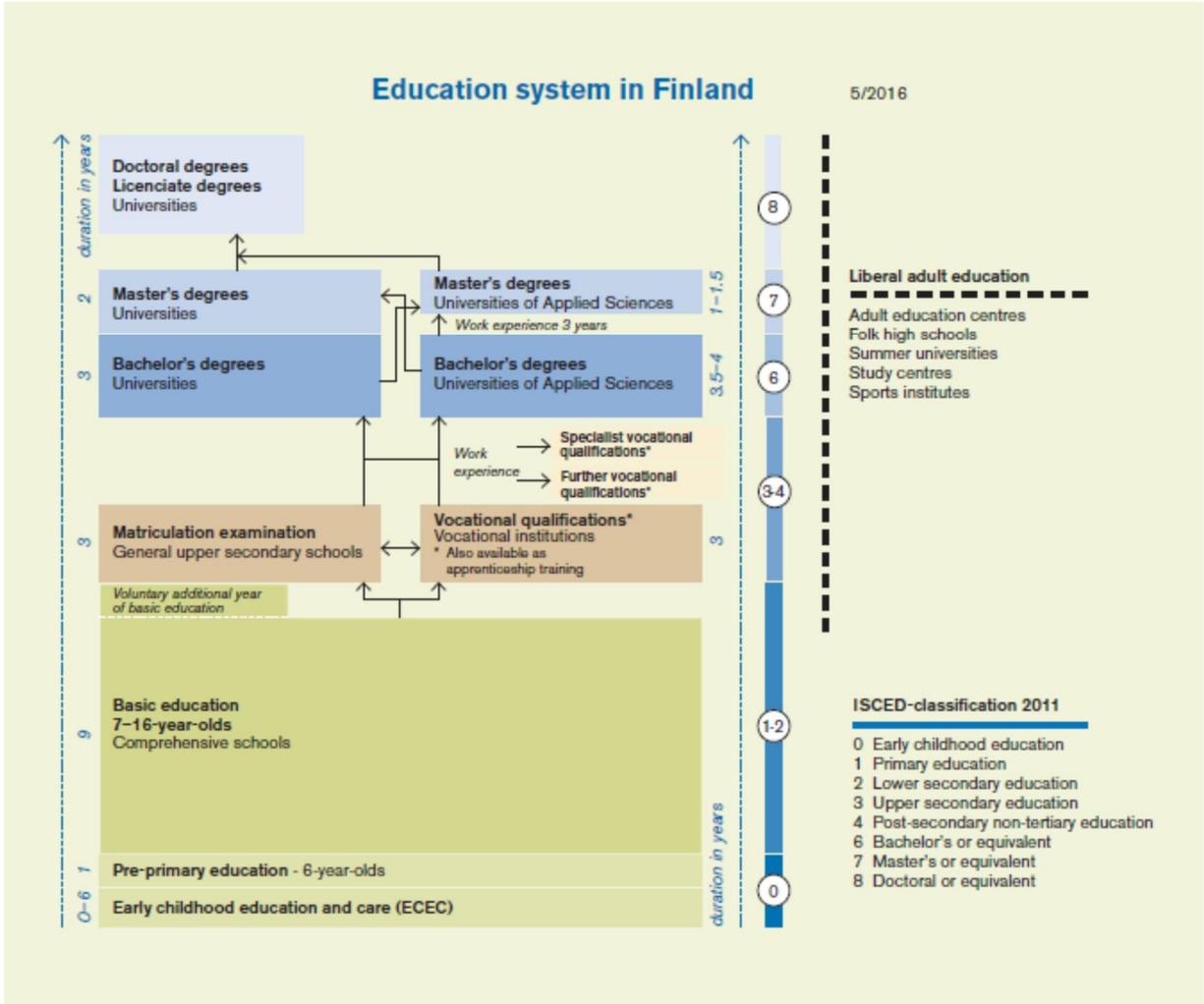
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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Sweden

Introduction

This chapter presents Sweden's adult education particularly focusing on the recognition of vulnerable young adults. The presentation casts light on adult education and lifelong learning in Sweden through some trends of historical development and present conceptions and national approaches. Adult education related with and targeted at vulnerable young adults will be discussed in the light of the existing research in the field and policy documents at national level. Specific programmes related to adult education will be reviewed including basic skill and remedy programmes, second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, and modes of informal learning. Out of this review, selected examples of good practices are picked up and the chapter is concluded.

Historical Development

The start of the institutionalised adult education in Sweden dates back to the foundation of the Folk high school in 1868. The main forms of the popular adult education stem from this period covering public lectures, study associations, study circles, correspondence courses, and libraries. After the Second World War there was a remarkable need to supply industry with competent workers. In 1953, the government created possibilities for adults to participate in evening courses, and then take the exams for a school qualification (on compulsory and/or upper secondary level). (Fejes, et al.)

In 1968, formal adult education was institutionalized when municipal adult education (MAE, Komvux) was established for adults to study in order to get a qualification at compulsory and upper secondary school level. Basis was on individual motivation, but due to political pressure from the Swedish trade union confederation, MAE came to be directed towards those who were furthest away from the labour market as well as those with the lowest level of education. (Fejes, et al.)

Further reforms in the 1970s were a legal study leave from work and study loans making daytime studies possible. MAE took a form very similar to upper secondary school (classes of students, daytime study etc.). (Fejes, et al.) The 1990s reforms were labelled by the trends of new public management and marketisation. On the initiative of the social democratic

government in 1991, there was a shift from the state to the municipalities as the funder of education. A procurement system was introduced in MAE in the mid-1990s, further supported through the Adult Education Initiative between (AEI) the years 1997-2002 targeting those who had the lowest level of education. The initiative brought 15% of the labour force into adult education and new providers were encouraged to offer adult education. Fejes et al. (manuscript) also see the market-like solutions as a way to create tighter couplings between policy, management and the teaching practice.

Municipal Adult Education in most Swedish municipalities is organized as franchises for the public sector. The transactions are regulated by a transnational law, the Purchase Act, which is used to establish procurement processes. In adult education, marketization means municipalities buying education from public (municipal) or private providers through a procurement system, on short-term contracts. The number of students enrolled with non-public providers is increasing, from 14.7 % in 1997 to 45.7% in 2014 (SNAE, 2015; according to Fejes, et al.)

Conceptions and National Approaches

Adult education is organized by many different operators in many different forms, national and municipal adult education, labour market training, in-service training and skills enhancement in the workplace. The two basic categories are non-formal and formal adult education. Non-formal adult education is called 'Folkbildning' and refers to Folk High Schools and Study Associations, i. e. the organizations that constitute the liberal non-formal and voluntary educational system in Sweden. Folkbildning exists for everyone in society, but should primarily reach out to adults with little formal education. Formal, public adult education comprises of municipally run adult education (komvux), adult education for the intellectually disabled (särvox) and Swedish for immigrants (sfi). There is also advanced vocational education and training (KY) as well as supplementary educational programs. Decree on Government Subsidies to Folkbildning (1991:977) was last revised in 2007. (<http://www.infonet-ae.eu>; [http://www.unesco.org/.](http://www.unesco.org/))

Non-formal learning is provided by Folk high schools and study associations. The Swedish National Council of Adult Education is a non-profit association made up of three organisations: the Swedish Adult Education Association (Folkbildningsförbundet) the Swedish Association

of Local Authorities and Regions (Sveriges Kommuner och Landsting, SKL) and the Interest Organisation for Popular Movement Adult Education Centres (Rörelsefolkhögskolornas Intresseorganisation, RIO). The function of the Swedish National Council of Adult Education is to implement the directives of the Swedish government and parliament on behalf of its members in the distribution of state subsidies to the activities of the study associations and adult education centres. Vocational institutions and career-related training comprise of higher vocational education courses and labour market training. Other main providers are universities and e-learning initiatives.

Since the 1960s, Sweden has ranked highly among European countries in terms of participation in adult education. This is largely related to the introduction of a formal national adult education system, the development of labour market training schemes and the student welfare reforms of the mid-1970s. The main policy overseeing the Swedish system for adult education is that it should be in principle open to all, and the only real limitation on access to adult education is that the student should be a resident in the country. The other main principle is that the system is voluntary, and relies on the motivation of the students to study for their own personal and social development.

Municipal adult education comes under the Education Act and the Municipal Adult Education Ordinance (2003). The Higher Vocational Education Act entered into force 2010. (<http://www.infonet-ae.eu>; <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu>.)

Adult education and vulnerable young adults

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

The number of unaccompanied minors has increased over the past ten years in Sweden, the European country that receives the most children from this group. Some of them emigrate after a period of time in Sweden, but the vast majority stay. Most of the arriving children are teenage boys who have not yet turned 18. However, the largest increase over the latest years is observed for the younger age groups. Furthermore, gender composition is also age dependent, where it is quite balanced for the younger age groups unlike the oldest age group. In the years following their arrival, most of them are enrolled in schools. When it comes to those aged 20 or over, the proportion undergoing education is higher among women but a higher proportion of men are

employed. The group that neither works nor studies is much larger among women than among men. (Çelikaksoy & Wadensjö, 2015.)

A recent study elaborates on struggles over the inclusion and exclusion of undocumented children and young people in the Swedish school system. Through conducting an in-depth case study on the issue of access to school in the city of Malmö in Sweden, the analysis demonstrates how the right to education for undocumented migrant children is subject to a process of struggle between divergent discourses on children's human rights. As the article shows, these local struggles are an expression of tensions between different levels of governance that are also affected by the migration control regime, as regards rights for children who are residing irregularly. (Lundberg & Strange, 2016.)

Young adults (19–29 years) with disabilities who are not studying or working are a vulnerable group in society. Unemployment at a young age can result in negative consequences such as impaired health and economy, and reduced participation and influence in society. The purpose of this study was to evaluate an individual tailored vocational rehabilitation program aiming to increase work capacity and facilitate return to work for young adults with disabilities. The program consisted of a close collaboration of officials from the Swedish Sickness Insurance Agency, and the Swedish Public Employment Services and the local municipality who worked together with the participants to support their rehabilitation process. Collaboration and individually tailored vocational rehabilitation increase the opportunity for young adults with disabilities to begin work or study. (Andersén, Larsson, Kristiansson, & Anderzén, 2015.)

The conditions for the government grants to folkbildning are set out in the Decree on Government Subsidies to Folkbildning. The new Swedish Education Act of 2011 contains basic principles and provisions for compulsory and further education, pre-school, pre-school year, out-of-school care and adult education. It promotes greater oversight, freedom of choice, and student safety and security. The bill proposes a greater emphasis on knowledge in adult education and changes in policy. The key issues are that adult education policy objectives will be introduced in all three types of school, i.e. municipal adult education, education for adults with learning disabilities and education in Swedish for immigrants (SFI).

Folk high school's attendants

Folk high school's attendants are unexpectedly active. Higher proportion than in a larger population were typically young, single, and childless, had short education background and did not own their accommodation. The proportion of abroad born and attendants with reduced ability to function is high. Research on civil society show that these social-demographic conditions generally lead to weak engagement [in contrast to this survey regarding folk high schools]. (Folkbildningsrådet, 2015; <http://www.folkbildningsradet.se>.)

Early school leaving

In the context of EU 2020 early school leaving is defined as 18–24 year-olds not having completed upper secondary school and who are not currently in education. In a national context this definition is not commonly used. Instead follow-up focuses on completion rates, i.e. the proportion of pupils who have received their final grades (slutbetyg) within three years. In the regular follow-up of pupils in upper-secondary school carried out by the Swedish National Agency the following concepts are also used: Drop-outs (avbrott)—pupils who have not studied the second or the third school year in upper secondary school. Drop-outs/study break (avbrott/studieuppehåll)—pupils who are not studying the current school year but were doing so the previous year (ie. first or second year of upper secondary school). However, among the pupils who do not drop-out there is a proportion who lacks grades or pass grades in one or several subjects and thus fail to receive a final grade (slutbetyg)(3) or attain basic eligibility to university and higher education. (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu>.)

Specific programmes related to adult education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Special education for adults targets adults with development disabilities or brain impairments in the age of 20 and beyond. The home municipality is responsible for providing education for those who have the desire and the right to participate in education at compulsory school level. It is also possible for municipalities to apply for state grants to run vocational adult education and apprenticeship education in special education for adults. (<http://www.skolverket.se/>)

Second chance education

Municipal adult education is activity that municipalities are obliged to provide. Municipal adult education has two levels, compulsory school level and upper secondary level. The starting point is the needs and conditions of the individual. Those who have received least education should be given priority (this applies only to upper secondary education). (<http://www.skolverket.se/>)

Swedish tuition for immigrants can be granted for those who are resident in Sweden, and who have reached the age of 16, and who also lack the basic knowledge in Swedish which the education aims to provide. The right also applies to Finnish citizens who are working permanently in municipalities, but live in Finland close to the Swedish border, and who otherwise fulfil the conditions. (<http://www.skolverket.se/>)

Retraining

Sweden's retraining programme for displaced workers sets its goal at one per cent of the labour force including both retraining of the unemployed and of women who are re-entering the labour force. Allowances are provided during the training course both for the trainee and for his/her dependents. (Robinson & Vaizeyd, 2016.)

Informal Learning (Non-formal)

Informal learning (Det informella lärandet) refers to individual learning and other every day activities that aim at learning. The personal interest of aiming to reach better skills or knowledge is the driving force of learning. Informal learning does not entail institutions but is often exercised individually or together with others without formal leader. Like in other Nordic countries, the non-formal educational tradition of folk high schools contains important elements of informal community-based learning.

Folk High Schools are independent adult education colleges, 148 in total. Folk high schools are for all adults over the age of 18. There are no special entrance requirements for general courses at folk high schools. Individuals can start at varying levels depending on their school background. The more specialised courses however have entrance requirements in the form of prior knowledge or work samples. Each folk high school decides independently what courses it provides, and freely designs its teaching. Some framework is set out in the "Ordinance on government grants to adult education (1991:977 and 1998:973)" and the conditions and

guidelines laid down by the Swedish National Council of Adult Education.
(<http://www.skolverket.se/>)

EU cooperation in the youth field consists, amongst other things, of cooperation over four areas with common objectives: Promoting participation of young people, Better information to young people, Promoting voluntary activities of young people and Better knowledge about young people. (<http://www.government.se>)

Examples of good practice

Unemployed youths

In Sweden, all unemployed youths who have been out of work for three months are offered specific measures to get closer to work. During the first three months the PES (Public Employment Services) will map out the individual situation, provide guidance to education or training and offer a coach for job search. In addition, subsidies for employers or for rehabilitation are offered for up to 15 months. The students receive support at the level of unemployment benefits while in the program. (<http://www.elmmagazine.eu/>)

‘Study motivating folk high school courses’ encourage young job-seekers to continue their studies. After the course, some 40 % of participants continued to either more studies or work, and over two-thirds feel motivated to study and believe that education is a route into work. ([http://www.eaea.org/.](http://www.eaea.org/))

Courses for immigrants

Special folk high school courses for immigrants to support their settling in Swedish society and study circles for refugees who are seeking asylum are taking place all over Sweden. [Not particularly targeted to the young.]

(<http://www.eaea.org/>)

Conclusion: Sweden

The school system for adults includes municipal adult education (Komvux), special education for adults (Särvux) and Swedish for Immigrants (SFI). Higher vocational education and supplementary educational courses are also available. Särvux works at basic level and at upper

secondary school level. This form of school is intended for adults with learning disabilities or acquired brain damage. SFI forms part of the school system and aims to provide basic knowledge of the Swedish language also offering adult immigrants who can't read or write the opportunity to acquire these skills.

Swedish folkbildning is the collective name for the activities conducted by the country's folk high schools and study associations in the form of courses, study circles and cultural activities. Folkbildning is a part of the liberal non-formal educational system. Every year, several million Swedes participate in folkbildning activities providing a rich offering of courses and educational programmes. They cover a wide learning opportunities from study circles where a small group meets a few times in their leisure time, up to multi-year, full-time courses of study at folk high schools.

To provide support for those furthest from the labour market, the government has focused on strengthening the link between education and the world of work, within both upper secondary and tertiary VET. An apprenticeship centre has been established to promote and increase provision of apprenticeships. Education contracts, agreements between young people, the employment services and the home municipality, were introduced in 2015 these encourage unemployed young people aged 20 to 24 to start or return to studies to acquire an upper secondary qualification. (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/publications/8095>.)

Many newly arrived immigrants have training and experience in occupations in which there is a shortage of trained and experienced labour in Sweden. To reduce the time from arrival to first job entry, the government has started consultations with the social partners, the Swedish public employment service and other relevant government agencies on measures for creating 'fast tracks' into the labour market. (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/publications/8095>.)

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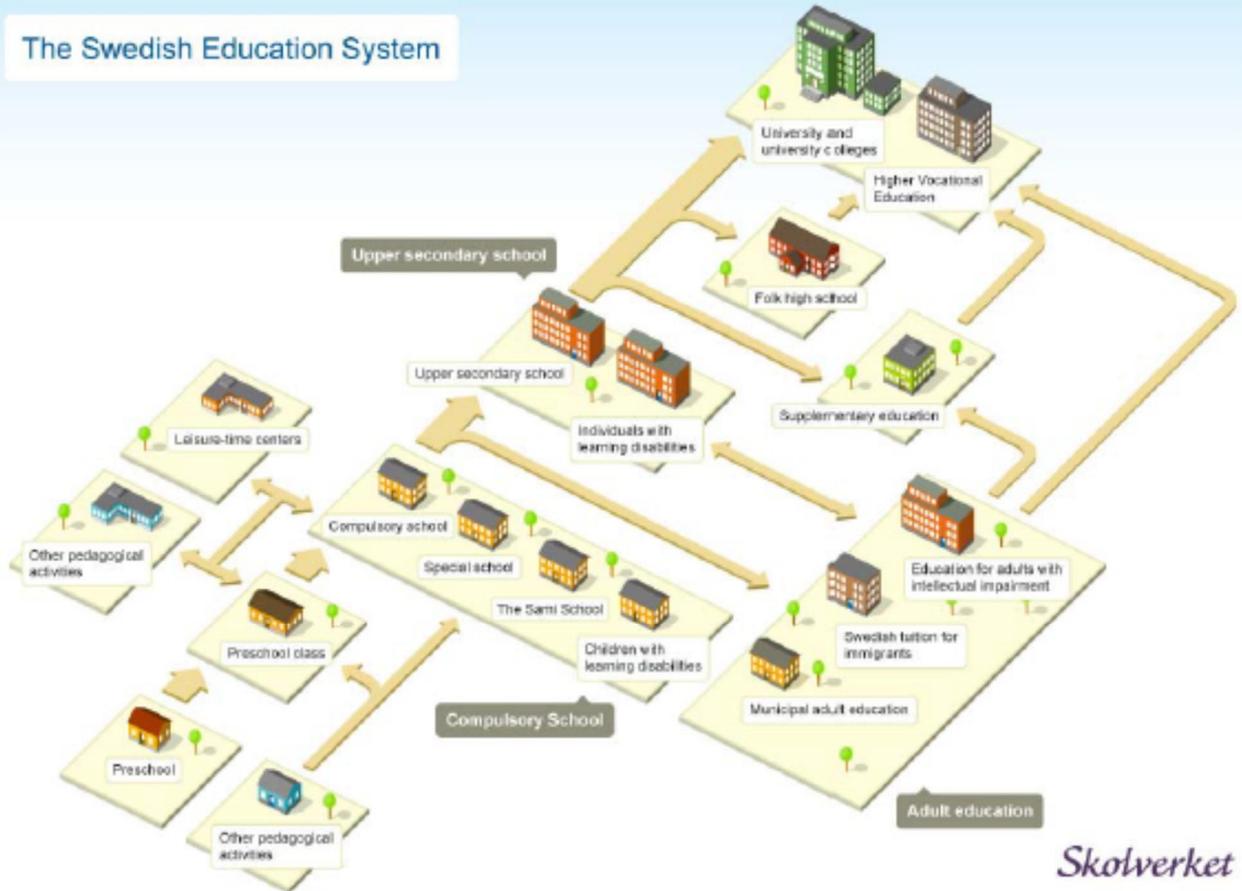
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Appendices

The Swedish Education System



http://www.skolverket.se/polopoly_fs/1.179240!/SVUS-Original-2012-EN.pdf

Concluding Remarks

Nordic EU member countries – Denmark, Finland and Sweden – share a common history of liberal adult education. It was largely initiated by the labour movement and further developed by means of the engagement of the state and the municipalities supporting adult education opportunities. Training of workers became part of welfare state policies in Nordic countries that form “an exceptional case of social democrat welfare societies” (Olesen, 2014) despite of many geographical, economic and political differences. The Nordic welfare model is known of its ability to achieve economic competitiveness, while, at the same time, operate high levels of taxation and public spending.

When comparing the adult education systems in these societies and their current responsiveness to the young adults’ needs in vulnerable life situations we may direct attention to young immigrants’ and asylum seekers’ possibilities to receive education during their stay in a country. Particularly in Finland, the preparatory training to basic education for immigrant children has been offered for many years; today there is also preparation to vocational and to some extent to higher education. This report illuminated the recent developments in each country, but one of the connecting issues is how current migration sets new challenges and opportunities for the liberal adult education mainly in folk high schools. The new challenges to meet the needs of vulnerable young adults may also challenge the historically originated persistent division of tasks between the formal and non-formal adult education.

Regarding formal adult education, a report on dropouts and social exclusion points out that the upper secondary school systems differ significantly in how the vocational tracks are organised in Nordic countries (Bäckman et al, 2011). In Denmark, vocational tracks are dual, i.e. they combine school based education and work place apprenticeships, whereas in Finland and Sweden they are primarily school based. The smaller risk among Swedish vocational school dropouts is largely thanks to the adult education system that seems to be better equipped to embrace dropouts and provide them a second chance than the systems in the other countries (Bäckman et al, 2011; school-to-work transitions, see also Albæk, 2015).

The Nordic countries have all adopted regulatory provisions, but in different ways, to enhance the employment prospects and opportunities of minority ethnic youth and youth with disabilities (Halvorsen & Hvinden, 2014). Sweden has adopted the broadest range of legal and

financial provisions to improve the employment prospects of youth with disabilities and minority ethnic youth, whereas Denmark has been the most reluctant to adopt statutory provisions to ensure non-discrimination and accommodation both for minority ethnic groups and youth with disabilities (Halvorsen & Hvinden, 2014).

In response to international economic uncertainty, the Nordic countries have expanded education and training programmes targeted at young adults to adjust their individual skills and increase their professional attractiveness for employers. The idea of a youth guarantee emerged in the 1980s and 1990s in the Nordic countries based on labour market policies aimed at activation (Escudero & Mourelo, 2015). Denmark, Finland and Sweden have introduced youth guarantee programs to enhance the social right to education, training or work for youth.

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Austria, Germany, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia and France

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Executive Summary

The Age of Enlightenment as well as the Industrialisation were the starting points of the development of the adult education systems in Austria, Germany, France, Poland, Slovakia and the Czech Republic - some traces even lead back to the last decades of the 18th century.

In most countries Adult Education (AE) can be differentiated between **formal and rather informal Adult Education** expressed for example by the locations (in formal schools/institutions (VET/HE centres) vs. outside institutions or (in Austria and Germany) also specific AE centres (Folk-highschools); or by the objectives (formal qualifications, CPD vs. a rather general, life oriented education).

In almost all countries adult education has become more or less **market oriented** over the last decades, however varying to a large extent in terms of public funding (less in the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia, higher in Germany and Austria) and towards an orientation to (continuing) professional development (France). However, the trend to increased vocational, professional education and a decrease of general and especially political education is evident also in Germany and Austria.

The lack of needs driven, **political and civic education** is an important issue when it comes to the question how adult education contributes to active citizenship in Europe, for instance with its function to prevent and combat right wing, nationalist tendencies Europe and to promote civic commitment and critical, democratic and pro-European thinking.

In the researched member states AE nowadays strongly depend on **EU education policy**, especially when it comes to the concept of Lifelong learning or the Validation of Informal and Non-formal Learning (VINFL).

Since 2015 Adult Education in Austria, Germany and to a lesser extent France has been under heavy influence by the **migration** waves that leads to a high level of integration courses and activities in the sector. Eastern European countries are less influenced due to their rigid anti-migration policies, especially in Poland.

In all countries a differentiation of young and older people in AE is difficult as there is normally not an age-segregation in AE offers and learning services.

Hence **vulnerable groups** can hardly be identified by statistical research and governmental funding mechanisms. However, among them are:

- Young people with an immigrant background (disadvantaged by origin),
- Young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) – especially those without a school degree or initial vocational training.
- Socially disadvantaged young people
- Young people with learning disabilities and special needs
- Young people with behavioural disorders, problems with addictions and criminal pasts

Vulnerability is in general age-independent. Therefore most education programmes for vulnerable young adults specify the young target group on basis of methodology and didactic decisions to customize their course for young learners and not because they have a different vulnerability than older learners.

The highest amount of **learning offers for disadvantaged groups** have been found in the **VET-sector** (partly funded by Ministries of employment) and in numerous **informal learning offers**.

The high relevance of professional education comes as no surprise, since, as mentioned above, AE nowadays is mostly related to vocational education and training these days. Among the programmes one finds also specific uplifting courses for young adults.

Basic skill and remedy programmes for vulnerable young adults mostly target young people with a migration background to promote their language skills. Research shows that other than that basic skills and remedy programmes do not specifically target young adults but adults with deficits in this area in general. The few Higher Education programmes identified only relate to orientation courses for refugees. Informal (non-institutional offers) often related to self-organised, volunteering actions that play an increasingly important role in civic education.

As mentioned above there are high numbers of immigration and language courses in Germany and Austria and (to a lesser extent) in France that tackle the challenge of refugees and immigration. However, in all countries a well-founded and reasonable concept on active

citizenship to foster integration (of young migrants and refugees) is missing. When it comes to programmes considered important to acquire competences related to active citizenship and integration it has to be stated that in some countries (e.g. Poland) the educational policies create more obstacles than solutions. Here (and to a much lesser extent in other countries) the whole area of intercultural education is missing, civic education and related competence development is largely unknown territory.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Austria

Introduction

The objective of the current Austrian policy agenda on education is to aim at an educational system with the key concept Lifelong Learning that allows people in every age group and regardless of their former educational level to further educate themselves according to their own interests and needs (Lenz, 2005).

Adult education in Austria includes general educational aspects as basic skills, political adult education, cultural learning, family learning as well as continuing and further education including further vocational training. A wide range of stakeholders provide and finance adult education measures. Over the past two decades especially private profit organizations swept on the adult education market. The offers include vocational, continued, and further education as well as measures to qualify young people to obtain their school certificate after initially dropping out of school, and training offers for personal development. However, due to the content of training offers and their self-conception educational institutions in Austria can clearly be distinguished in vocational further education or general adult education suppliers. There are no Austrian educational institutions that proclaim to work integrative in both fields. For learners it is very hard to get an overview of the vast offers. They are dependent on the information provided by the offering institutions (Lenz, 2005).

There are few to none existing connections between the Austrian adult education system and other parts of the education system like school, initial vocational training or higher education (Lenz, 2005).

Over the past five years adult participation in lifelong learning has remained at around 13-14 percent (14.2 percent in 2014) (Eurostat, 2014). People between the ages of 24-35 take part in training twice as often as those in the 45-64 age group. Austria has maintained a high rate of participation among the younger age group (24-35 years), at 22.5 percent.

Historical Development

Comparable to other European countries the Age of Enlightenment as well as the industrialisation had an important influence on the development of the Austrian adult education system. The Age of Enlightenment represented the hope and expectation to influence people

via education. In this times - the 18th century – institutions taht aimed at adult education already existed, like Sunday schools for adolescent school graduates, agricultural associations that were teaching new methods in farming and livestock breeding to people working in this area, learning offers for workers in factories, mining, or trading; literature associations that offered general education, patriotic associations discussing political, moral, natural science and technological questions. The philosophical view in the Age of Enlightenment was that human beings and therefore social structures are capable of development. This idea was of interest for the ruling and powerful people, but also for the concerns of the dependent and suppressed. Therefore close connection between social movements and the development of adult education in the 19th century is evident. The emerging working class held thoughts of revolution and the wish to change social structures. “Knowledge is power” was the guiding principal for adult education. In the second half of the 19th century industrialisation created a need for qualified workers. On the 15th of November 1867 a new law on the right to freedom of association and assembly was passed that proved to be the early foundation of today’s Austrian adult education system. Based on this law labour unions and charitable associations with educational purposes were founded. Due to economic and social developments adult education gained in importance. Adult education was necessary to develop human capital and therefore became an important economical factor. 1890 a government fund for vocational further education was established.

In the middle of the 20th century the international lifelong learning movement reached Austria. The government passed two laws to face these new demands on adult education (Labour market promotion act (1968) and a law to promote adult education and public libraries (1973)). After that the so far traditional general adult education system changed in the direction of differentiated education suppliers for specific educational need like language, communication training or company counselling. This is still characteristic for today’s Austrian adult education market. (Lenz, 2005).

Conceptions and National Approaches

There is no legal obligation for the Austrian government to finance adult education. This financially unregulated area promoted the emergence of a vast amount of educational institutions that are financed from different sources (government, church, labour unions, federal states, municipalities) or are organised on the basis of private-sector principles (Lenz, 2005).

Even though there is no legal obligation the Austrian government expressed an interest in financing adult education by passing the abovementioned law on the promotion of adult education and public libraries in 1973 (Bundesgesetz vom 21. März 1973 über die Förderung der Erwachsenenbildung und des Volksbüchereiwesens aus Bundesmitteln, 2016). This translates into practice via a dual system - the promotion of associations and institutions and the financing of governmental institutions. The Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture bases its funding decisions for adult education on this law. Institutions financed by the government and their tasks are for example:

- Two departments for adult education in the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture: They are responsible for the development and administration of current policy agendas regarding adult education as well as funding decisions.
- Federal Institute for Adult Education St. Wolfgang: It's administered by the Federal Ministry for Education and Cultural Affairs. The institute cooperates state wide with adult education institutions as well as schools and universities. It offers initial and further vocational training for adult educators and develops innovative aspects and methods for adult education

The different departments in different Ministries dealing with government measures for adult education, so far, are acting individually without a common strategy (Lenz, 2005).

With Austria's Accession to the European Union in January 1995 the term lifelong learning gained popularity. The official objective of education policy over the past years is the development of a lifelong learning system that allows every citizen regardless of his age and educational background to restart his or her course of education (Lenz, 2005). The 1996 position paper of the Federal Ministry for Education and Cultural Affairs states that further education plays an important role in the improvement of professional qualifications as well as in personality development. Therefore it is important to take into account and respect both dimensions of lifelong learning. Especially the cultural dimension might empower creativity and orientation which are important competences in the changing economic system (Bundesministerium für Unterricht und kulturelle Angelegenheiten, 1996).

The Federal Ministry for economic affairs stated 1996 that the social framework is changing and therefore adult education is also in need of new impulses. The following changes were explicitly mentioned:

- Redefinition and shaping of the working live,
- Structural changes in the direction of a service oriented society,
- Tackling unemployment
- Significance of new technologies,
- Globalisation and the increasing mobility of markets,
- Development of knowledge and qualifications,
- Depletion of hierarchic business structures,
- Employers develop entrepreneurial skills.

In the light of this increasing importance of adult education the fact that 70 to 80 percent of the Austrian population is not participating in further training poses a challenge. The Federal Ministry for economic affairs emphasized the importance to introduce educationally deprived strata to lifelong learning. Therefore it is necessary to pass educational barriers (Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Angelegenheiten, 1996; Holzer, 2004).

Of the abovementioned influence factors globalisation and internationalisation are the most recognized. The focus on intercultural adult education increased considerably over the past years. In this field topics are tackled that were considered as foreigner pedagogy and refugee support in the past (Lenz, 2005).

Regardless of current challenges for adult education arising from social and economic changes the Austrian adult education system has two major problem areas that need to be addressed over the next years:

1. According to the PISA Study 2003 up to 20 per cent of the 15 year olds leave school with an insufficient basic education. Literacy and numeracy are the biggest challenge (OECD, 2004).
2. Managerial and executive staff tends to lack social skills. Especially communication and leadership skills are insufficient. This problem arises from the change in work structure over the past years in Austria. Businesses organize themselves in a less hierarchic and more cooperative way. Therefore the further training of social skills for

junior and senior management is an important task for adult education in Austria (Lenz, 2005).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The following paragraph identifies vulnerable young adults in Austria and gives an overview of specific adult education programmes targeting those groups. There is no official Austrian definition of vulnerable young groups in the adult education system. Therefore this paragraph sheds some light on significant study results that help to define vulnerable groups for the purpose of this report.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

The Eurostat Labour Market Study from 2013 states that a large proportion of young people, particularly those with a migrant background, lack adequate basic skills and there is a strong link between educational performance and socio-economic background. Early school leaving for young adults with migrant background is 18,5 percent.

For young native born the strong link between education performance and socio-economic background also continues to give cause for concern. While Austria's tertiary attainment rate (ISCED levels 5 and 6) has been growing in recent years, 35 percent of students in Austria pursuing a university degree do not complete their studies as compared to an EU average of 31 percent. There also seems to be the issue of a growing mismatch between graduates' qualifications and demand (Eurostat, 2013). An early leaving of the education system often translates into less qualifications, less income, lower social status, higher risk for unemployment and lower chances to be reintegrated in the labour market. Specific measures for low-skilled workers are necessary but can barely compensate the vulnerability caused by lacking basic education (Lenz, 2005).

Another cause of concern is the low performing level of students in reading. Around 19.5 percent of students perform below the baseline level of reading performance, meaning that, at best, they can recognize the main theme or author's purpose in a text about a familiar topic and make a simple connection between information in the text and everyday knowledge.

Meanwhile 5.5 percent of students are top performers, performing at Level 5 or above. This proportion is also below the OECD average (OECD, 2012). A result is a significant number of illiterate adults in Austria of estimated 300.000 (whole population: 8.5 million). With increasing qualification requirements in professional life deficits in reading, writing and calculating become more prominent. From an economic, socio-political and human point of view those people need assistance (Lenz, 2005).

In addition to the abovementioned study results that help identifying vulnerable groups in Austria, government funding can be used as an indicator for vulnerability. The Federal Labour Office specifically supplies funding for school graduates with disabilities to support vocational training.

On basis of the presented study results and funding mechanism we can conclude that vulnerable young adults in Austria are:

- Young people with an immigrant background
- Socially disadvantaged young people
- School and higher education dropouts
- Young people with poor literacy skills
- Young people with disabilities and special needs

The unemployment rate in Austria is at a much lower level than in most EU countries, which is equally true of youth unemployment. Austria has a low share of young people (15-29 year olds) neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET). Youth unemployment rate is 10,3 percent for youngsters 15-24 (Eurostat, 2013). Therefore the NEET sector cannot be counted as a vulnerable young group in Austria, in contrast to other European countries like for example Germany.

Specific programmes related to adult education

The following description of specific educational programmes for vulnerable young adults in Austria promoting Active Citizenship in one way or another derives from and represents the basic results of a research done on the topic. The research results on specific programmes including all references can be found in the Annex.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The Austrian adult education market offers a lot of programmes for basic education/basic skills especially literacy. However, those skills are supposed to be taught and learned in school. Therefore, research shows that basic skills and remedy programmes do not specifically target young adults but adults with deficits in this area in general. The only exception is the vulnerable group young adults with migration background. There are specific programmes to promote their language skills and understanding for the Austrian culture, history, legal system and to adjust migrant`s knowledge to Austrian standards.

Second chance education

Second chance education programmes in Austria offer school dropouts the chance to finish their lower secondary education and obtain a school certificate. There are a few programmes that specifically target young adults or even young women but in general they are open for adults in every age group.

Retraining

In Austria there are no retraining programmes that target specifically the above defined groups of vulnerable young adults. Programmes and funding is offered for people who have valid medical, professional or social reasons that make a change in profession necessary, regardless of their age (Arbeitskammer Oberösterreich, n.d.; Arbeitskammer Unterösterreich, n.d.).

Vocational programmes

As mentioned above, the youth unemployment rate in Austria is at a much lower level than in most EU countries. Since NEETs are not counted as a vulnerable young group in Austria only few specific programmes for migrants and school graduates with disabilities exist. The federal labour office is supporting and funding courses to prepare young adults with disabilities for vocational training. Content is professional orientation, social manners, application training and motivation.

Informal learning

Our conducted research for informal learning programmes that target the identified vulnerable groups of young adults and try to improve Active Citizenship in Austria turned up very few

results. There are a lot of informal learning programmes in the culture and art sector but in comparison to for example Germany the connections to topics like social participation or democracy competence are rather few. A few programmes exist for young migrants in music and sports to support the exchange with native born and anti-racism.

Higher education

Specific programmes for vulnerable young adults in higher education can solely be found for refugees. Austrian universities offer guest student programmes that allow refugees who were studying in their home country to attend lectures and seminars even though they are not matriculated and not allowed to write exams. There is also the MORE Refugee Initiative to which all Austrian universities belong. The initiative offers courses to prepare refugees to be able to take up studies in Austria. Those include language and integration courses that teach knowledge about Austrian society and the higher education system to facilitate integration.

Examples of Good Practice

The following cases are specific programmes for young adults that belong to one of the abovementioned vulnerable groups that support active citizenship.

Mixed music

Category: Informal learning

Target group: Young people (age 13-23) with and without migration background.

Aim: Mixed music is an intersocio/intercultural youth project against racism and violence founded in 1999. The project offers professional support, a cultural field of activity as well as resources (rooms, technical equipment, artistic and social pedagogues support) for young people who are excluded from monoculture leisure programmes.

Relation to active Citizenship: Young people with different cultural background meet, work together on common goals, and exchange opinions and experience. Music and making music together in regular workshops, rehearsals and performances helps to reduce stereotypes and prejudice. The project strengthens the personality of young people and creates identity and a feeling of togetherness in living in Austria.

Source: ISOP Innovative Sozialprojekte

<http://www.isop.at/tatigkeitsfelder/ausgelaufene-projekte/mixed-music/>

Mama lernt Deutsch (Mum is learning German)

Category: Basic skills and remedy programmes

Target group: Mothers with migration background whose mother language is not German, with a need for basic education and a maximum of eight years of school education. (The programme got enlarged to also target farther with migration background, then it is called “Mum is learning German – and Dad, too”).

Aim: The main objective of ‘Mum is learning German’ is teaching German language skills. The courses content is mainly on realistic topics like kindergarten, school, education, profession, health, public authorities and housing. The language courses are completed by workshops, lectures and excursions. During the excursions participants visit and get to know local public authorities and relevant institutions.

Relation to active Citizenship:

The course aims not only on teaching the language skill but also to convey knowledge and action skills about national systems like school, public authorities or healthcare. The participants therefore learn how to comfortably live in a region and actively participate in local systems and society.

Source: Stadt Wien

<https://www.wien.gv.at/menschen/integration/deutsch-lernen/mama-lernt-deutsch/>

Conclusion

The Age of Enlightenment as well as the Industrialisation had an important influence on the development of the Austrian adult education system. Like in many other European countries the main topics today are characterized by EU education policy. Therefore lifelong learning is one of the most important keywords. Additionally the Austrians adult education system tries to tackle increasing globalisation and internationalisation as well as the above European

average number of adults with lacking basic education. Vulnerable groups can be identified by statistical research and governmental funding mechanisms. Nevertheless, there is usually no specification for vulnerable young adults. Like in Germany vulnerability is in general age-independent. Therefore education programmes for vulnerable young adults specify the young target group on basis of methodology and didactic decisions to customize their course for young learners and not because they have a different vulnerability than older learners. There are a lot more offers for the defined vulnerable groups in Austria that are not specifically targeting young adults but adults in general.

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Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Germany

Introduction

Adult education in Germany can be distinguished along a narrow and broad concept: The narrow concept relates to the educational processes that can be referred to as “Bildung” (education and development of the human being) and is mostly associated with general education (in contrast to qualification oriented, professional or occupational education). General adult education also includes special areas such as political adult education, cultural learning, family learning etc.

Within the broad concept, adult education and continuing education are more or less synonymous. The reason for this is that occupation becomes an overlapping characteristic and the sectors are increasingly difficult to separate. Vocational adult education in German can be categorized as a) training on the job – training offers at the workplace, b) training near the job – training offers from the employer that are carried out in the organisation but not at the workplace, c) training off the job – training offers that take place outside of the company. The largest part of vocational adult education in Germany is company-initiated. However there are blurred boundaries between VET and adult education for unemployed persons which is a rather large education sector in Germany.

The second broader usage prevails, especially in internationally comparative discourse. (Brandt, 2012).

In Germany the most common approach to formalise or categorise learning offered is the use for the terminology formal, non-formal and informal learning. Formal learning is a form of education that offers official degrees – regardless if the offers are in primary, secondary or tertiary education. Formal education relates to official, standardised qualifications. Non-formal learning is carried out by educational institutions but does not offer official degrees, an output may be a certificate. Informal learning happens outside of any educational institutions e.g. in families (Giese and Wittpoth, 2011) but also during workplace learning, volunteering etc.. It has to be emphasised that formal, informal and non-formal learning are rather artificial, non-discrete categories but should rather be understood as a continuum (Scholze, 2009).

Statistical research shows that in Germany the percentage of the unemployed and those with relatively low qualifications participating in lifelong learning is lower than in the EU as a whole (Eurostat, 2014). According to the Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC, 2012) low-skilled adults in Germany are seven times less likely to participate in job-related training than are high-skilled adults. Whilst it is true for the EU as a whole that employed people have, on average, higher skills than the unemployed, the gap in skill levels between the employed and the unemployed is even more pronounced in Germany. The survey also confirmed that Germany has one of the strongest links between socio-economic background and literacy proficiency. The gap between the skill level of adults born in Germany and those born outside the country is slightly above the EU average.

Historical Development

The historical development of adult education in Germany is based on two branches, which are on the one hand originated in public education for the middle class and on the other hand in labour force education for the working class. Both follow the philosophical concept of the Age of Enlightenment that the liberation of man “from his self-imposed immaturity” is possible via education (Kant, 1784). Representatives of the working class realised very early in the 19th century that the middle class tried to use education and wealth to suppress the workforce. As a counter reaction the working class set up own educational organisations. In the early 19th century both classes founded institutions that aimed at adult education. For the middle class there were reading, literature, and museum associations that organised discussions, joined events, and speeches as well as music clubs, and Sunday and evening schools. A very prominent example are the German Folk-Highschools “Deutsche Volkshochschulen”, that were originated in those times and by now can be found in every German city and county. Agricultural and workforce associations on the other hand were trying to prepare the working class for their newly won civil rights and professional tasks and the first labour union and socialistic initiatives for further education were founded. Educational institutions and their educational goals and foci were used as means in the class conflict.

In the 19th century a third corner stone of German adult education emerged, the specific professional development on the job. Big companies offered in-house trainings for the professional advancement of their employees.

The Second World War posed to be a deep cut in the German adult education history. In the first phase after the Second World War the victorious allies used adult education in West-Germany to re-educate the public to promote democratic values.

In the 1970s the German Board of Education and the Federal and State Commission for Educational made land marking decisions for the future German adult education. They specified that the first educational phase is incomplete without additional adult education. The term 'further education' for adult education was introduced and governmental responsibility appointed. From this point on till 1982/1983 the West German State systematically tried to regulate and fund adult education. After that phase the governmental engagement stagnated and support was reduced. Explicitly in 1993 a political phase started that aims at privatizing the responsibility for further education. Today a smaller proportion of German adult education is state regulated and funded.

Nowadays the adult education system is consisting of Folk-highschools, confessional bodies (catholic and protestant), labour union driven and a large part of private, partly unorganised AE-Institutions. Also chambers of Industry and commerce play a role at the interfaces of CPD and AE. The governmental regulation and funding fluctuates and is eventually declining. The state just intervenes if it identifies specific deficits regarding target groups or learning aims, as, for example in the present situation related to the large number of refugees who need adult education. In general adult and further education has increasingly evolved into a market-oriented service area.

Over the past years German adult education played a prominent role in European cooperation. With the contract of Maastricht 1994 an intensive phase of transnational project cooperation that has increasingly involved East and South Europe (Nuissl and Brandt, 2009).

Conceptions and National Approaches

With the Föderalismusreform (reform of federalism) 2006, the most extensive change of constitutional law in the history of the Federal Republic of Germany, the responsibility for education shifted to the jurisdiction of the Länder (16 federal states). The German constitution does not regulate adult education. The recompensate most of the Länder explicitly integrated adult education in their federal constitutions (Nuissl and Brandt, 2009).

In Germany adult education is regulated by a wide range of intertwined laws and regulations which sometimes aim at different key objectives (Rohlmann ,1994; Krug and Nuissl, 2004). Adult education does not have to be state-approved in Germany, unlike school education. Nevertheless, there are national accreditations for educational institutions and measures which are a necessity to receive governmental funding.

Despite the federal jurisdiction in education there are a number of state laws that have an important influence on the adult education system. For example extracurricular vocational training, basic policy for science education in higher education as well as integration promoting measures for immigrant fall in the state's jurisdiction.

The most important federal laws are the Weiterbildungsgesetze (further education laws) that are not identical but quite similar in the 16 German federal states. The key policy principles that are basically incorporated in every federal further education law are the security of the institutional structure via institutional funding and accreditation, the organisational autonomy (for example independent curriculum development and choosing of employees), qualification of teaching personnel, open access to education for every citizen. (Nuissl and Brandt, 2009).

The classic understanding of education that consists of a teacher imparting knowledge to a learner is getting less and less significant. Individualised measures involving new media, location- and time-independence, flexible and adaptable modules gain in importance. (BMBF, 1998; DIE, 2008). Such educational measures that are customized for the clients can be coaching, counselling, self-learn offers or new media offers. Even though there is a visible trend for customized educational offers, the classic offers still prevail in number (Nuissl and Brandt, 2009).

This trend goes hand in hand with the state of the art concept of cooperative-autonomous learning in Germany. Adult education is designed in a cooperative way. Autonomous personalities share their knowledge and experience and learn from each other. Key components are discovery learning, learning by doing, project lessons, learning by teaching. Teachers help learners to find their own learning objectives. They assist the learner in putting learned content into practice by being moderators and coaches (Kraft, S., 1999).

Over the past years German adult education became increasingly influenced by European educational systems. With the contract of Maastricht 1994 began an intensive phase of

transnational project cooperation that increasingly involves East and South Europe. Those co-operations are often supported by governmental institutions. Economic education institutions developed specific further education measures involving European labour market topics. Unions, churches and adult education centres work in international cooperation to tackle topics like political education, educating immigrants, literacy or education for the elderly with a European key idea. (Nuissl, E., Peter, B., 2009).

The strong European influence introduced key topics like lifelong learning. The concept was promoted by international organisations like the UNESCO and the OECD since the 70s. Lifelong learning since became a major education programme in Germany to modernise learning culture in general, further education, and educational theory formation (Brödel (2011)). The relevance of the topic evolves from the awareness that our society develops in the direction of a knowledge society. Today, knowledge is already the most important economic factor in Germany. To manage a successful transition to a knowledge based economy and society lifelong learning has to become a standard (Deutsches Institut für Erwachsenenbildung, 2000).

Another challenge in Germany is to offer inclusive adult education. Inclusive adult education is aiming at securing access to education for every citizen, regardless of their cultural, religious, or family background. This inclusion aspect is a significant challenge for social policy in adult education. Social boundaries can be reduced via discourse and cooperative learning. Nevertheless, inclusive adult education measures are still quite seldom in Germany. (Heimlich and Behr, 2011).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

There is no official German definition of vulnerable young groups in the adult education system in Germany, but the German government supplies funding through different institutions to support further education for young adults in need. A closer look on the eligible groups of young people helps identify the vulnerable young groups. The German social security code (SGBIII, §78) defines specific groups of young people as in need of funding to enable them to start or complete a vocational training or promote their employment after vocational training. Those groups are slow learners and socially disadvantaged young people. In legal practice those two groups are further specified as German and foreign slow learners who didn't graduate

school at all and those who graduated from a special needs school. Socially disadvantaged young people, regardless of their level of school education, especially young people with professionally identified behavioural disorders, dyslexics and young people with attention deficit disorder, former drug addicts, young people in detention or ex-offenders, young foreigners and late emigrants with language deficits and/or integration problems and young single parents (SGB III, 2016).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Job agencies are funding further education for unemployed and for people seeking work regardless of their age. They also offer funding for young people under 25 years of age who dropped out of school to obtaining their school leaving certificate or to start a vocational training.

The ministry of labour and social affairs offers funding for young adults between 25 and 35 without initial vocational training.

Form those groups of young adults eligible for funding to support their education we can conclude that vulnerable young groups in Germany are:

- Young people with an immigrant background
- Young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) – especially those without a school degree or initial vocational training.
- Socially disadvantaged young people
- Young people with learning disabilities and special needs
- Young people with behavioural disorders, problems with addictions and criminal pasts

The biggest and therefore most significant of those vulnerable young groups seem to be the young people with immigration background and the NEET group. Statistic on the German labour market and further education of young adults support these identified vulnerable groups. The educational success of immigrant youth seems to be decided by the opportunities to participate in education. A lack of German language skills and not enough knowledge on the labour market put students into a disadvantage. Also, the percentage of young people with an immigrant background lacking a professional qualification is twice as high as those without an immigrant background. A recent report on participation on education and further training

reveals that youth with immigrant background tend to decrease participation in further education. Based on all what mentioned above, young people with an immigrant background are in risk of facing unemployment or inactivity. Regarding youth unemployment and young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) the overall rates in Germany are low (unemployment rate is overall low (5.0 percent in 2014), it exceeds 10 percent in several federal states). Nonetheless, long-term unemployment is becoming an increasing concern (Country Report Germany, 2015).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

The following description of specific educational programmes for vulnerable young adults in Germany derives from and represents the basic results of a research done on the topic. The research results on specific programmes including all references can be found in the Annex.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Basic skills in Germany are literacy, numeracy, basic natural science knowledge, historical understanding and the ability to express yourself through sports or arts as well as basic IT competence. Those skills are supposed to be taught and learned in school. Therefore specific programmes for vulnerable young adults mostly target young people with a migration background to promote their language skills and understanding for the German culture and adjust their knowledge to German standards. Research shows that other than that basic skills and remedy programmes do not specifically target young adults but adults with deficits in this area in general.

Second chance education

Second chance education programmes in Germany offer school dropouts the chance to finish their lower secondary education and obtain a school certificate. There are a few programmes that specifically target young adults but in general they are open for adults in every age group.

Retraining

In the traditional sense re-training programmes target people who have to change their field of work because they are not able to carry out their old job any longer (for example due to health problems). In the past years programmes for people who want to change careers for personal

change and personality development reasons came on the market. But usually those programmes target older age groups who already worked for several years in their original profession. Another stream of re-training programmes targets adults (not specifically young adults) who recently immigrated to Germany to adjust their professional knowledge to German standards.

Vocational programmes

Vocational training has a very high cultural value in Germany. Since it is very difficult in Germany to get a decently paid job without a successfully completed vocational training there are a lot of programmes to support vulnerable young adults. For example there is public funding for vocational training support measures offered by the Employment Agency. Young adults with learning difficulties or social disadvantages who are in a vocational training get additional courses to assist them, so that they are able to complete the training successfully. Another example are programmes for young adults with mental disabilities to prepare them for a vocational training in specific professions so that they are able to cope with the demands. There are also publicly funded programmes specifically targeting young adults (up to 35 years of age) who do not have any kind of vocational training, yet – so called ‘latecomers’. Those courses help them to review their skills and interests for professional orientation. They provide social counselling and aim at improving professional action skills to assist those latecomers in taking up and completing a initial vocational training.

Informal learning

There is a very wide range of informal learning offers for young adults in Germany. Various organizations offer programmes in every imaginable field from political education to personal development. Regarding vulnerable young adults there are a lot of programmes for young refugees and young adults with immigration background coming on the market, lately. The fact that the German government has a considerable interest in integrating those young adults in German society and is therefore offering financial support contributes to this development. But there are also a lot of programmes for socially disadvantaged young adults that combine promoting social participation, democracy competence, anti-racism or other socially important topics with art, culture, sport or leisure programmes.

Higher education

Specific programmes for vulnerable young adults in higher education can solemnly found for refugees. Most German universities offer at least guest student programmes where refugees who were studying in their home country are allowed to attend lectures and seminars even though they are not matriculated and not allowed to write exams. A lot of universities additional offer courses to prepare refugees to be able to take up studies in Germany. Those include language and integration courses that teach knowledge about German society and the higher education system to facilitate integration.

Examples of Good Practice

The following cases are specific programmes for young adults that belong to one of the abovementioned vulnerable groups that support active citizenship.

Jugendintegrationskurs – Youth integration courses

Category: Basic skill and remedy programmes

Target group: young adults (under 27 but not in the age group for compulsory schooling) that recently immigrated (mainly refugees).

Aim: The programme aims at teaching basic language skills as well as orientation knowledge as a basis for social and professional integration. The course consists of a 900 hour language course (from language level A1 to B1) with the aim to introduce young migrant to the German language as well as the German way of living to prepare them to live independently. Thematic focus of the language course therefore is to teach common and orientation knowledge (especially regarding youth topics) about living in Germany. Second part of the youth integration course is a 60-hour orientation course to convey knowledge about culture, history, and legal system.

The youth integration course is supposed to be the first step in the direction of an successful and independent life in German society. The acquired language skills open up the possibility to attend a secondary school or start a vocational training or to study.

Relation to active Citizenship: The youth integration course qualifies young immigrants to be able to participate successfully in German social life and provides them with equal opportunities. Furthermore, the course tries to promote a positive experience with the new live environment by introducing young migrants to German culture, history, political values of the constitution, the legal system and the political institutions of the German democratic constitutional state.

Source: Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge

http://www.bamf.de/SharedDocs/Anlagen/DE/Downloads/Infothek/Integrationskurse/Kurstraege/KonzepteLeitfaeden/konz-f-bundesw-jugendik.pdf?__blob=publicationFile

Politische Literaturwerkstätten – Political literature workshops

Category: Informal learning

Target group: Socially disadvantaged young adults with low prospect on educational success and few points of contact with literary and written forms of expression

Aim: The political literature workshops were designed for young people who are seldom to never in contact with literary or other written ways of expression and have little chances of educational success. The workshops aim at introducing those young people to social and political topics in creative ways. Core topics of the workshops are the individual experiences of the participants that are analysed regarding the local political framework. Young people learn that they can articulate and represent their individual interest. Participants are encouraged to question politics, to discuss, to write reader's letters and so on. Young people become authors to express their opinions and interest.

Relation to active Citizenship: The project encourages socially disadvantaged young adults to become an active player in their living environment. They get trained in voicing and representing their opinion vis-à-vis other community members, political or other stakeholders.

Source: Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung

http://www.bpb.de/system/files/dokument_pdf/Politische%20Literaturwerkstaetten.pdf

Demokratieführerschein: Der Führerschein zum Mitmischen in deiner Stadt! – Democracy driver's licence: the driver's licence to get involved in your city

Category: Informal learning

Target group: Young people (age 10-26)

Aim: The democracy driver's licence is an extracurricular educational concept for young people to pursue a communal-political topic of their own choosing. During six modules they learn about the theory of the local politics as well as experiencing it first hand while pursuing their own project. Young people gain first experience with simulations during the training modules and put what they learned into practice. The programme consists of 30 teaching units divided into six flexible, adaptable modules that can be adjusted to the interests, needs, level of knowledge and the group dynamics of the participants.

Module 1: Living environment city / municipality / school / work place

Module 2: Democracy – Count me in!?

Module 3: Negotiating and talking

Module 4: Democracy-competence or political ABC

Module 5: My question for politics – conversation with mentors

Module 6: Democracy-perspectives: Going deeper into politics

Relation to active Citizenship: The programme actively promotes the democracy-competence of young people and encourages them to become politically active in their own community to represent their own individual and specific interests. The project was initiated 2008 and had an overwhelming success so that it got picked up by a great amount of adult education centres in Germany.

Source: Deutscher Volkshochschul Verband

<http://demokratiefuehrerschein.de/startseite.html>

Conclusion

Germany has a long tradition in adult education. Its roots lie in the Age of Enlightenment and the class conflicts. Main topics today are lifelong learning and the development of a knowledge society as well as inclusive education for every citizen. The government recognizes vulnerable groups through funding mechanisms. Nevertheless, there is usually no specification for vulnerable young adults. It can be concluded that vulnerability in Germany is in general age-independent. Therefore education programmes for vulnerable young adults specify the young target group on basis of methodology and didactic decisions to customize their course for young learners and not because they have a different vulnerability than older learners. There are a lot more offers for the defined vulnerable groups in Germany that are not specifically targeting young adults but adults in general.

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Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Poland

Introduction

In Poland, adult education is often referred to as ‘Continuing Education⁸⁷’, which is defined as ‘education in schools for adults as well as the development of general knowledge, vocational skills formation and ability development in out-of-school forms by persons who have graduated from compulsory education. The system of Continuing Education in Poland is often seen by the terms ‘in school’ or ‘out-of-school’. On the whole these phrases quite closely relate to the idea of formal and non-formal education, as ‘in school’ comprises education in institutions and qualification driven vocational training, whereas ‘out of school’ is more independent and informal.

Vocational Adult Education (VAE) policy-making is also being driven by national and/or international reports and national/regional needs analyses and resultant priorities. Specific drivers include democratic values and the liberal ideal; demographic trends; productivity levels linked to skill levels of the population; unemployment levels; identified gaps in adult learning provision; a recognised need to address standards in education and training; participation levels in education and training; priority target groups; priority learning areas; high differentials between social groups and, mainly in the new Member States, European Social Fund funding priorities and criteria.

Adult ‘in school’ education is provided in primary schools, gymnasia (secondary schools), basic vocational schools, upper secondary and post-secondary schools, and in higher education establishments, although primary schools for adults are very rare. Postgraduate studies are also considered to be a form of continuing education, and are organised by public or non-public higher education institutions, research units and by units of the Polish Academy of Sciences.

In the year 2013 Poland adopted the national strategic document Lifelong Learning Perspective to ensure coherent actions in the area of lifelong learning. The introduction of such a document has led to some systemic changes, based on a policy focus of a human perspective as a strategic

⁸⁷ European vocational education and training definitions are not acknowledged by the Polish education community and sometimes stand in sharp contrast to their traditional connotations in general pedagogy or pedagogy of work. See Definitions under in the appendix.

objective. Not only has this led to the finalization of the National Qualifications Framework, but also since about 2011 to the modernisation of vocational education adapted to individual needs and demands and better financing of tasks in education and training (www.lll-hub.eu⁸⁸).

Historical Development

Although first initiatives for establishing public adult education institutions can be traced back to 1773 in Poland, it can be said that with the political, economic and social transition in 1989, the adult education the sector became completely market oriented (Greger/Przybylska 2001). The frequent turnovers at the top of the Ministry of Education in the nineties has not favoured a cohesive development in the field of continuing education., but nevertheless with the educational reform of 1999 regional and local self-government bodies were entrusted with the provision of education and parliament passed a number of statutory regulations defining and specifying the fundamental tasks of continuing education.

Over the past few years changes are emerging which show a new desire to make adult education more accessible, by developing systems - for example - with e-learning (The National Centre for Distance Education has introduced new forms of basic and continuing education). However; it is still true that most Continuing Education is aimed towards vocational training in one form or another, especially in relation to helping people adjust their skills to the needs of a rapidly developing market (EAEA).

Conceptions and National Approaches

The right to education is safeguarded by the Constitution of the Republic of Poland. It obliges the public authorities to ensure that citizens have general and equal access to education. Apart from the above mentioned important strategic document “Lifelong Learning Perspective”, continuing education is regulated by a couple of acts, amongst them the following: 1. The basic legislative act which regulates the functioning of the education system, including vocational education and continuing education for youths and adults, is the Education System Act of 7

⁸⁸ The Lifelong Learning Hub (LLL-Hub) project brings together ten partners from eight European countries representing public authorities, civil society organisations, chambers of commerce and educational

September 1991, with further amendments in 2003 which introduced vital changes to adult education in Poland.

The training for unemployed, job-seekers and vocational guidance and counselling is regulated by the 2. Act of 20 April 2004 on promotion of employment and labour market institutions, and by various ordinances of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (MPiPS) and the Ministry of National Education (MEN). According to the Act public and non-public bodies offering education in out-of-school forms and registered as training institutions with the regional authorities, are eligible to offer training to the unemployed. The act aimed to increase professional activity among the unemployed and to involve more participants in the programmes focused on the promotion of employment.

Most legal decisions regarding vocational education are made through ordinances by the Ministry of National Education.

Main state actors for the implementation are the Ministry of Education, which manages works on continuing education at the central level and the Ministry of Labour and Social Work which is responsible for continuing education matters, including cooperation with the relevant minister for the education sector in determining objectives and directions of lifelong education development. The Ministry of Science and Higher Education is responsible on the level of Higher education where educational provision is offered by open universities and third age universities

Out-of-school forms of educational institutions comprise also popular (community universities). Local Authorities at this level run the Register of Training Institutions. District authorities are responsible for establishing, running and financing public upper secondary schools as well as continuing education centres, practical training centres, further and in-service training centres. Communes are responsible for establishing, running and financing public primary and lower secondary schools.

Due to the fragmentation of the adult education system, there is no unified system of financial support for adult learners.

In 2014, as part of the reform of labour market services, the National Training Fund was launched. Employers can receive funding to cover up to 80 percent of the costs of training and

educating employees, while micro-entrepreneurs are entitled to 100 percent of the costs. Employers can use National Training Fund resources to finance the diagnosis of training needs, courses, postgraduate studies and examinations, to give just a few examples (UNESCO, 2016, GRALE report).

The most recent information on the development of the Education and training sector in Poland is available from the European Commission. Adult participation in education is limited – only 35 percent⁸⁹ of 25-64 year-olds participate in formal or non-formal education. Nevertheless, no in-depth analysis has been carried out to examine the low rate of adult participation in lifelong learning.

In 2014, 62 percent of all training and education in which adults in Poland participated was financed by their employers. At the same time, 60 percent of those who participated in education and training in 2014 cited employers' needs for specific skills as the main reason for participating. The 2016 European Semester country-specific recommendations (CSRs) to Poland (Council of the European Union 2016) included the recommendation to increase participation in the labour market, by [...] improving the labour market-relevance of education and training. The introduction of the integrated qualifications system and national qualifications framework has been a large step forward.

In Poland over 250 National Professional Qualification Standards have been developed by the Institute for Sustainable Technologies - National Research Institute in Radom between 2006 and 2008. As an outcome of this project there was an evaluation of standards and reviews, as well as the development of educational packages and module curricula (www.standardyiszkolenia.praca.gov.pl):

This development shows how the attitude to professionalism and developing national standards has been growing over the past decade, and still remains an important concern for the future. It also shows the direction that Poland is taking in striving to achieve the most up to date standards and innovative methods of teaching, especially related to vocational training, which is also demonstrated in the trend for promoting and developing e-learning and digital learning resources and techniques. Questions on the agenda are: Which skills and competences will

⁸⁹ OECD Country Note 2014

citizens need in the future to organize their working and learning careers and navigate through a completely different landscape of providers? How should the education system be organized to provide these skills?

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

This summary report aims to provide an insight into the field of accessibility of adult education and situation of vulnerable young groups in Poland based on a previous statistical research, which was composed by around 30 indicators of: quantitative indicators (Eurostat, OECD, Eurobarometer) and qualitative indicators, mainly based on information collected from the Eurydice network (but also information from sources such as COFOG, Cedefop, etc.)

Generally those threatened with unemployment, youths giving up education, school leavers and disabled people young people in rural areas can be considered as vulnerable, a specific focus should be paid to young immigrants. This group suffers the cultural differences with the majority, in education and employment areas. What was notable from the research was the lack of information for the groups of young immigrants NEET and young immigrants in risk of social exclusion and their percentage in the society. More research should be done on young immigrants by contacting specific institutions or NGO-s (which might be potentially more helpful) in order to provide information, which was not found even in Eurostat.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

According to the Act of 20 April 2004 on promoting employment and labour- market institutions, some institutions, such as district labour offices, organise training for the unemployed, those threatened with unemployment, youths giving up education, school leavers and disabled people. The training is aimed at increasing the employability of participants through the upgrading of vocational qualifications or requalification. Training is financed from the labour fund, a special-purpose fund, administered by the minister competent for labour issues. A labour office decides on the form of training, taking into consideration the needs of the labour market and the unemployed. Such training may last up to 12 months, and up to 24 months in the case of people with no vocational qualifications.

Various incentives are provided to job-seekers. For example, unemployed persons who are registered with the labour office may receive partial reimbursement of examination costs, costs for licence or postgraduate studies. Unemployed persons under 25 without vocational qualifications and from families entitled to social welfare benefits can receive a grant to continue education. In addition, a labour office may offer work placements or vocational training to people under 25.

In 2007 the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy conducted an in-depth analysis of training programmes and other services aimed at improving qualifications and offered by labour offices in the period 2000-2006. Training for the unemployed and job-seekers was provided by nearly 8.500 training institutions operating on the free market for training services. The national action plan for employment 2009-11, prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (MPiPS, 2010c), identified activities to promote employment. Currently, the greatest challenge is to increase economic activity, with the economic slowdown being the most serious threat. Other challenges include the demographic changes taking place in Polish society. The development of continuing training is the top priority. Professional insertion activities should be aimed at equalising the opportunities of those threatened with unemployment or social exclusion. These types of activity envisage the promotion of social economy, development of centres and clubs promoting social integration and expanding their operational scope (MPiPS, 2010c).

Input by the public employment services into vocational guidance is regulated by the Act of 20 April 2004 on promoting employment and labour market institutions. This Act specifies the tasks of the State in alleviating the consequences of unemployment, employment promotion and vocational activity. These tasks are performed by 338 district labour offices and 53 vocational information and planning centres at regional labour offices.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skills and remedy programmes

In Poland, even though there is no specific strategy for tackling early school leaving, it remains in low levels. In numeracy and literacy⁹⁰, the younger adult population (16-24 year-olds) scores around the average of the OECD countries participating in the survey.

Poland scores very well on basic skills, as measured by the OECD 2012 PISA survey (OECD 2013c). However, there are still challenges in the development of critical thinking, synthesising texts and using mathematical models to solve complex problems

Second chance education

Adult education in the regular school system, allowing adults to continue their school education after it has been interrupted or when they are already in employment (second- chance) is largely a copy of the formal initial vocational education system. With traditional pathways leading to the same recognised certificates and qualifications.

Young NEET is on high levels 23,9⁹¹ percent compared to Europe 20,3 percent. In the group of people between 18 and 24 the figure is much higher reaching 16.7 percent. This means that the group of NEETs in Poland (aged between 15 and 24) is estimated at 560,000 of which only 8,000 are aged between fifteen and seventeen (because of the obligatory education). The NEET figure in Poland (which is slightly below the EU average) results also from the high school enrolment index. Young people aged below twenty-five years of age (including NEETs) who are unemployed as a group are entitled to benefit from specific measures provided by local labour offices. Low education levels, disability, ethnic or national origin and social background are the main factors determining the NEET status and their exclusion.

Unemployment is a recent but increasingly severe problem in Poland. Different social groups experience its effects to different degrees. The group with the highest level of unemployment at present is the 25-34 year old age group. They fall into the category that adult education

⁹⁰ PIAAC Survey of Adult Skills

⁹¹ Eurostat data 2014

specialists call "young adults", but the law does not recognise them as unemployed persons in a special situation on the jobs market (Walulik, 2013)

It is difficult to state categorically what group of unemployed are considered as "young unemployed" in Poland. Employment offices go by the Employment Promotion Act of 20 April 2004, while employment market institutions focus particularly on getting young people on to the jobs market from when they become adults (18) until they reach the age of 25, which is the age at which they are considered under the Act to occupy a special position in the jobs market. The Ministry of Labour has launched an innovative pilot programme for people up to the age of 30. It covers 23 powiats. Young people are required to get support from the very first week they register as unemployed. If there are no job offers available to them, they are immediately covered by one of the schemes for getting them into the jobs market. The project includes amongst others training vouchers which allow the person and his/her adviser to find a training institute or an employer who will employ them when they complete their training. Another important element in the programme is the support given to employers who decide to take on a young unemployed person. The programme also provides relocation support for people who find jobs 80 km or more from their current residence.

Retraining

Amongst the target groups that need specific retraining immigrants are amongst the largest group. According the Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), there are no targeted policies, which try to guarantee equal access in practice for immigrant pupils throughout their education in Poland. In fact, Polish integration policies create more obstacles than opportunities for immigrants to fully participate in society, with average policies compared to the rest of Central Europe, ranking 32nd out of 38. What is notable is the lack of information for the groups of young migrant NEET and young migrant risk of social exclusion and their percentage in the society.

What is to be mentioned also is that intercultural education is largely absent from schools in Poland and schools can decide whether and how to make cultural diversity part of the curriculum and school, without required or extensive guidelines, monitoring and trainings.

Vocational programmes

Young people often work on temporary contracts, limiting their opportunities to receive work based education and training, further education or other services related during their employment period.

Poland ranges second in the EU7 with regards to temporary employment of people aged between 15 and 24 (66.6 percent in 2012; 68 percent in 2013⁹²). During the last decade, the rate of young people temporarily employed has risen by 14.3 percentage points. However, according to the survey carried out by the National Labour Inspectorate (NLI) this form of employment is abused in Poland. Inspections carried out by the National Labour Inspectorate gives some insight into the scale of employment based on civil-law contracts, yet this knowledge is still very limited and insufficient.

In general one of the main problems related to vocational education is a skills mismatch. It is planned to set up professional councils, specialized in specific sectors to consult and participate in developing VET, thus preventing skills mismatch.

Apart from this, school dropouts, lacking a school certificate, may have their vocational on-the-job acquired skills certified by state committees (appointed by school headmasters) and receive the title of qualified labourer or master in the given occupation. The completion of a vocational or post-secondary school is not any longer tantamount to receiving a vocational title but only skills acquisition. Skill certification is made possible by passing an examination organised by one of the regional examining boards set up in 1999 by the Ministry of National Education. In practice this means that an adult who wishes to acquire vocational qualifications does not have to finish a vocational or post-secondary school. He or she will be able to acquire these qualifications in the out-of-school system or at work. To gain formal recognition of these qualifications the candidate will have to pass an examination⁷.

The Education System Act also gives attention to learning by means of practical work experience, undertaken in school workshops, school studios, and the school's economically separate support units, as well as providing for work experience agreements to be signed with employing institutions, self-regulating trade, business and professional associations and other

⁹² Eurostat Data 2014

non-governmental organisations, with a view to improving the state of vocational education, especially as regards the conducting of work experience.

Informal learning

Volunteer engagement is low only 9 percent⁹³ in NGO-s compared to the level of 19 percent in Europe. Youth participation in voting/elections is 60 percent, meanwhile in voluntary activities is 20 percent. Young people (15-29 years old) at risk of social exclusion is on the levels of 28, 3 percent compared to the level of EU which is 29 percent.

The third sector in Poland is rather active in taking the initiative towards validation of informal and non-formal learning. One of the reasons is that many non-governmental organisations, associations and societies offer their membership and beneficiaries a possibility of learning by doing and other forms of informal and non-formal learning. Presently, there are about 47,000 non-government organisations in Poland, 15,000 of which offer social help. All of these organisations employ only a limited number of paid personnel with most of the work carried by volunteers (approx. 2 million). The Volunteer Centre is a professional operation, which matches individuals wanting to volunteer with organisations and groups who are interested in benefiting from the services offered by volunteers (<http://www.iriv.net/>; <http://www.wolontariat.org.pl>)

Associations may be the ideal place to get accustomed and trained to novel and innovative solutions and practices, to experiment or acquire new skills. For volunteers, a voluntary experience may lead or facilitate a professional career. Identifying and evaluating the skills and qualifications (http://www.fip.ngo.pl/programy/st_dok/4.pdf) acquired through volunteering in the associations should be the way to recognize and validate this informal learning. It should be very useful for people who have no professional experience to face with a first activity (youngsters) and for people who have been kept away from the labour market to renew a professional activity (parents who have raised their children, sick people when they have recovered, former prisoners).

⁹³ Poland Infographic- EU Commission

Higher education

In higher education, changes in the law were introduced on 24 September 2010 and a new law was adopted by the government in 2011. The PIAAC results confirm the existence of inequalities in access to higher education – those whose parents have a low level of education take up studies more rarely, even if they have a high level of competence. There is a general view that future reforms need to be based on a learning outcomes approach. Especially with the economic crisis in 2008 many of the young Polish people with tertiary degrees have emigrated to other European countries. One of the major institutions responsible for youth employment initiatives and projects are the Academic Career Bureaux. They focus on getting students and university graduates into employment. They are run by academic institutions or students' organisations. Their aim and mission is to provide careers advice and to provide a professional diagnosis of the optimum routes for students to embark upon their careers and to gain practical experience and how to present themselves on the jobs market to be employed by their chosen employer. Unemployment is on the rise amongst graduates. In December 2012 they made up 11.7 percent of the total unemployed. Employment Offices have very little to offer graduates.

Examples of Good Practice

Trainers for volunteer work in the NGO sector

Category: non-formal learning

Target group: trainers for volunteer work in the NGO sector

Aim: The Volunteer Centre in Warsaw has initiated Regional Volunteer Centre network building in Poland. Currently, the network comprises 17 Centres operating in different parts of the country. All Regional Volunteer Centres apply the same standards of work and are linked by mutual commitments as expressed in the Karta wolontariuszaí (Volunteerís cardí) The projects objectives are to identify and evaluate the skills and qualifications required and acquired in volunteering; validate these skills and qualifications in a professional perspective. Non-Governmental Organisations' Trainers' Association (STOP) implements a jointly developed certification system aimed at increasing professionalism of the occupation of trainers for NGOs. There is a description of competences of a trainer of STOP with a list of

minimum entrance competence requirements. The certification system is prepared for STOP members. STOP trainers are expected to be able to identify training needs, prepare training and evaluate its results, apply active learning methods, and have to implement training in accordance with the specific needs and situation of the group. The system has elaborated a 3-stage procedure of certification (<http://www.iriv.net/>; www.eEuropeassociations.net).

Source: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/life/report/candidate/poland_en.pdf.

<http://free.ngo.pl/stop/>

Conclusion

The Adult education on offer in Poland seems to be both ample and diverse, constituting not only a challenge to those who are seeking offers, but especially to the young vulnerable groups. Nevertheless, it can be concluded that Polish government has undertaken many efforts in the framework of the reform process in the initial VET and - more recently in policy development and implementation of CVT. Introduction of modular training, extramural qualification examinations and works in the field of harmonisation of vocational and occupational standards all create good preconditions for a well-functioning system where formal education can gradually become integrated with non- formal out-of-school training. From the point of view of an individual a real possibility exists in obtaining a recognised qualification without the necessity to undergo formal education in this field. Informally attained competences and experience can thus be validated and recognised. This is of special importance to vulnerable groups.

NVAE is the least regulated section of the overall education system. Multiple partners have a stake in NVAE policy-making and implementation, including ministries, regional governments, local governments, social partners, public providers, non-governmental organisations and private for-profit providers, all frequently operating from different values, objectives and approaches. Depending on the point-of-view, this diversity constitutes a 'rich mosaic' or a 'confusing mélange'. Clearly, maximisation of investment will depend on co-ordination and coherence in policy-making and implementation.

The importance of the validation of informal and non-formal learning in the country is widely recognised, it is well present in the political agenda as well as in the expert discussions. A

wealth of examples of initiatives in the academic circles, at sector level as well as among non-governmental organisations and public associations is accompanied by limited information and lack of awareness at a company level. The engagement of companies in provision and development of validation of informal and non-formal learning can be facilitated by enhancement of transparency and reinforcement of the systemic character of activities in this field.

Appendice

Definitions of vocational education and training in Poland:

Apprenticeship — Nauka zawodu u pracodawcy Apprenticeship in Poland can take one of two forms: practical training at the employer's, with theoretical knowledge completed in formal basic vocational school; or in non-formal forms to acquire qualification as an apprentice or skilled worker, such as training at the employer's premises to perform a specific job, covering only selected work activities.

Continuing education — Kształcenie ustawiczne (Unesco, Nairobi 1976) A set of educational processes, whether formal, non-formal or informal, which, regardless of their content, level and methods, allow improving educational attainment in school-based and other forms, as a result of which adults can improve their skills, broaden their knowledge, upgrade their vocational qualifications, learn a new occupation or change their attitudes. Source: MENiS (2003) — a document adopted by the Council of Ministers on 8 July 2003.

General education — Kształcenie ogólne Education intended to ensure an understanding of subjects or groups of subjects through courses with general orientation, not focusing on any particular specialisation. Source: (Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 6 May 2003 on the Polish classification of education)

Post-secondary non-tertiary education — Kształcenie policealne Post-secondary schools prepare students for those occupations and specialities which require secondary education. Programme duration varies from occupation to occupation and is defined in the VET classification of occupations (from 1 to 2.5 years). In the Polish system, post-secondary

schooling belongs to post-gimnazjum education (secondary), and corresponds to ISCED level 4. Source: Eurydice (2007).

School-based programmes — *Kształcenie szkolne* The term refers to instruction provided in full-time, extramural or evening programmes in various types of schools, using the curriculum statutorily defined for a given level of education. Source: BAED (survey on adult education activity) 2004.

Technical education — *Kształcenie techniczne* Technical education can be divided into general technical education and technical vocational education. Its main goals include provision of basic technical and technological knowledge and development of skills needed for performing specific tasks of a given occupational profile. Source: Nowacki (2004).

Tertiary education or higher education — *Kształcenie wyższe* Tertiary education is offered by colleges (teacher training colleges, foreign language teacher training colleges, colleges of social workers, level ISCED 5B), higher education institutions (ISCED 5A and ISCED 6), and academic and research institutions (ISCED 6). Higher education programmes include first-cycle courses (undergraduate, or first-degree), second-cycle courses (graduate, or second-degree) and long-cycle courses (directly leading to second degree).

Teacher training colleges, foreign language teacher training colleges and colleges of social workers are included in the higher education system for the purposes of international comparisons only and are not regarded as components of the tertiary system in national legislation (Education System Act of 7 September 1991). Source: Eurydice (2007).

Training — *Szkolenie* Training is a form of non-school instruction aimed at acquiring, supplementing or improving the vocational or generic skills and competences needed to perform a job, including the ability to seek employment.

Vocational education — *Kształcenie zawodowe* Vocational education refers to all forms of vocational development or further education and continuing professional development. It includes all structured activities and processes leading to the acquisition of vocational competences and qualifications, including career guidance and, in particular, preparation to

work in a specific occupation, in a specific sector, and at a specific position. Source: Nowacki (2004)

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Czech Republic

Introduction

Adult education in the Czech Republic (CR) has a long and rich tradition. Nowadays, it is provided in the following areas: - General education, for a small minority who have not reached the desired level of initial education, in preparatory courses for entrance examinations to secondary schools and to higher educational institutions, and in language education; - Further vocational education and training which is concerned with the acquirement, broadening or completing of qualifications, retraining, and obligatory periodical updating of knowledge and skills in specified professions; - Civic or special interest education, which is generally of a cultural nature and provides courses connected to political, historical, cultural interests or similar. Further education and training is provided by schools, including universities, by employers, public administration, self-governing bodies and their educational institutions, and by non-governmental non-profit organisations including professional and commercial organisations

Historical Development

The beginning of AE dates back to the period of the enlightenment. During the course of the nineteenth century, many 'cultural-enlightenment' institutions and associations were founded. Initially, AE was seen primarily as a matter of individual interest. At the beginning of the twentieth century, trade organisations in certain professions such as in medicine, or fields such as agriculture became the main providers of AE, and so in some professions the system is very well developed. After the foundation of independent Czechoslovakia in 1918, the state focused on the civic education with the aim of distributing basic knowledge of the principles of the state functioning, civil rights and obligations, historical development of Czechoslovakia, etc. At the time of economic depression in 1929–1933, the state subsidised mainly free courses for the unemployed. The period following 1948, adult education started developing very quickly. New possibilities for employed people to study at secondary schools or universities appeared. Later, adult education represented a "second chance" for those who had earlier not finished their studies. The beginning of the in-company training dates back to period between 1918 and 1939. The best elaborated and most complex was the system of *Bat'a*. Later, in-company training became widespread and many enterprises had their own education departments. There

were also other different educational institutions, which organised personal development courses, e.g. language and art schools, libraries, trade unions, political party organisations, educational institutions run by local government bodies, etc. The whole area of further education was deeply affected by the social and political changes following 1989. After this year, the number of private education institutions increased rapidly.

Conceptions and National Approaches

The act no. 561/2004 collection of law, on pre-school, basic, secondary, tertiary professional and other education (the education act) regulates pre-school, basic, secondary, tertiary professional and other education at schools and school facilities, lays down conditions under which education and training are executed, defines the rights and duties of natural and legal persons involved in education, and specifies the scope of competencies of the bodies executing state administration and self-government in the system of education. The last amendment of this act was approved on the 1 September 2015.

Other relevant national legislation:

- Decree no. 74/2005 Coll., on leisure-based education, as amended;
- Act no. 563/2004. Coll., on education workers, as amended;
- Act no. 111/1998 Coll., on universities and on amendments and additions to other Acts (the Higher Education Act), as amended;
- Act no. 109/2002 Coll, on institutional or protective care in school facilities and on preventive educational care in school facilities and on amendments to other Acts, as amended;
- Act no. 359/1999 Coll., on the social and legal protection of children, as amended;
- Act no. 198/2002 Coll., on volunteer service and on amendments to certain Acts (Act on Voluntary Service), as amended.
- Convention on the Rights of the Child

National strategic documents for the current period:

- Strategy for Education Policy of the Czech Republic until 2020
- National Employment Strategy of the Czech Republic until 2020
- Social Inclusion Strategy (2014-2020)

- The Strategy of Lifelong learning in the Czech Republic
- National Youth Strategy for years 2014-2020

Recent years have witnessed the implementation of several measures which effectively supported further education. These included mainly the enactment of Act no. 179/2006 Coll. on Verification and Recognition of Further Education Results, as well as the subsequent processing of a system for verification and recognition of previous education based on the National Qualifications System. Some schools have also begun to change into centres for lifelong learning, offering further education services in addition to initial education.

In general, education policy in the Czech Republic is heading towards an education system following the concept of lifelong learning. The level of awareness of interconnectedness between various parts of the education system has however gradually decreased over this period. The development of the education system has not been anchored in a longterm vision and a comprehensive strategy, and the tendency was towards isolated and haphazard solutions. The result has been increased levels of uncertainty that, in recent years, have been further exacerbated by uncertainty as to what policy moves would be taken by the Ministry of Education and other policy makers. This has also weakened levels of mutual trust between various players in the education arena.

Reducing inequalities in education is one of the three priorities for the upcoming period. Dropping out from education does not, in general, pose a problem, as the Czech education system ranks among those with the lowest rates of drop-out (in 2012 it was 4.5 per cent). Nevertheless, it is necessary to continue focusing on those target groups where the risk of leaving education early is high when compared to the rest of the population. In the Czech Republic these groups include children and pupils with special educational needs (i.e. with disabilities and physical or social disadvantages). Moreover, implementation of lifelong learning may also be hindered by some obstacles preventing return to education at a higher age. These barriers can be traced in the education system (e.g. formal admission requirements, inaccessibility of modes of study other than full-time) in other policy areas (i.e. insufficient coordination between education and employment policies) and, of course, on the part of learners (e.g. lacking motivation, the need to combine family and work duties). One area worthy of special attention is the education of Roma children, pupils and students. In recent years the Czech Republic has stepped up interventions with a view to integrating members of

this minority into mainstream schools and programmes and ensuring their better access to all levels and forms of education. In spite of this a number of challenges are still present and more attention will have to be paid to dealing with these challenges in years to come.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

No official national document defines a young vulnerable adult. Official Czech documents rather describe general vulnerable groups in which young people (15/30) take up an important position. Other important characteristics, such as social exclusion, low education, disability or ethnicity may further penalise this group.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

In the Social Inclusion Strategy (2014-2020), Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MLSA) considers as vulnerable those that are simultaneously at risk of income poverty, material deprivation and at the same time live in households with low work intensity. These include, in particular, the long-term unemployed and those living in single-parent families with children. MLSA recommends to keep focusing attention on vulnerable groups on the labour market, especially:

- older persons (55 +)
- young persons and graduates (15-25)
- parents with young children
- low-skilled persons
- socially excluded persons
- persons at risk of social exclusion
- disabled persons
- persons disadvantaged in the labour market for other serious reasons (disability, ethnicity or nationality, previous imprisonment, etc.).

There is an increasing specific group of adolescents and young people who do not continue their studies at secondary schools, register with the Labour Office after completing compulsory school attendance and do not develop any working habits.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Although the situation in the Czech Republic (CR) is not as critical as in other EU countries, there has been a significant increase of young unemployed adults (under 25 years) in the recent years.

MLSA criticizes inappropriate structure of their qualifications and lack of practical experience. This deficiency primarily results from the setting of initial education and insufficient practical training on the way, including cooperation with employers. The key instrument for tackling unemployment and inactivity of young people under 25 for the period 2014-2020 is the Youth Guarantee program (Záruky pro mládež). The programme guarantees that every young person under 25 years receives a good quality offer of employment, further education, vocational training or a placement within four months after becoming unemployed, completed formal education or dropped out of the formal education system.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

European Union defines eight key competences representing a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes, necessary for personal fulfilment and development; active citizenship; social inclusion; and employment. These are:

- communication in the mother tongue
- communication in foreign languages
- mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology
- digital competence
- learning to learn
- social and civic competences
- sense of initiative and entrepreneurship
- cultural awareness and expression.

All key competences are developed throughout the compulsory education therefore young adults have been offered an opportunity to develop them. Many public and private educational institutions offer courses developing some of the key competences, mostly communication in foreign languages and IT skills.

Basic schools (základní školy) organise courses for a small number of people who have not yet completed their basic (initial) education (ISCED level 2). (Less than 5 percent of pupils, including those attending special schools, finish the study before completing their final year, in proportion to all school leavers in a given school year).

Second chance education

Upper secondary schools provide education leading to a qualification in compliance with their specialisation. The education at upper secondary schools includes the follow-up studies and shortened courses. AE is usually organised in the form of evening courses, distance study, e-learning or combination of study forms. Having passed prescribed examinations, the learners receive a certificate of the same validity as those in full-time study. The education is financed by the Ministry of Education through regional authorities (i.e. for participants it is free of charge at public schools, although tuition fees are paid at private schools).

Higher education institutions (vysoké školy) provide some of their study programmes in a combined or a distance form for adults. Having passed prescribed examinations, graduates receive a degree of the same validity as those in full-time study.

Retraining

Subsidised requalification trainings for jobseekers is managed by the regional Labour Office (LO) branches and provided by tendered agencies. Most of it (up to 80 percent) is short-term (up to three weeks). Retraining is used to overcome structural mismatches and open new employment opportunities for jobseekers. The jobseeker commits to attend the whole course, the LO covers all the financial costs. After five months on the unemployment register, an Individual Action Plan is developed for every jobseeker which contains various services including access to subsidised training.

Vocational programmes

Generally, vocational courses are affordable to the majority of local residents and have little unsatisfied demand. The majority of training courses are public and subsidised. There is a weak link between government regulated compulsory education and continuing education which is predominantly free market based. Skills acquired are increasingly assessed and certified. Most public courses and programmes are linked to the National Register of Vocational Qualifications

(NRVQ) which provides recognised certification. Courses developed on a commercial basis by various public or private providers are not usually linked to the NRVQ as they intend to meet specific demand from firms or individuals, or training institution is not covered in a contract by the regional office.

Secondary schools offer short programmes which are suitable for adults. Since 2005, “shortened programmes” have been made available at a number of technical and vocational schools. They are designed for those who have already completed secondary education and want to acquire a qualification in a different field, or they have general education and are seeking a vocational qualification. In private sector, many companies offer in-company training for their employees, developing a specific set of skills. Vocational programs also aim at specific sectors where further education is required by law and is coordinated by respective ministries (health care providers, teachers etc.)

Informal learning

Strategic and official national documents covering life-long learning, education and employment pay more attention to non-formal education than informal learning. Some even use the terms interchangeably.

There is a rich variety of learning opportunities in this area organized by various regional institutions and can be looked up on the internet depending on the concerned area or topic.

The year 2009 has seen the beginning of systematic, continuing work in developing quality non-formal education and validating its outcomes in the CR. National Institute of Children and Youth lead a national project “Keys for life”. Under its key activity – “Recognizing non-formal education”, the “Memorandum about supporting recognition of non-formal education and informal learning outcomes” was signed by leading authorities.

The recognition system in the CR has a clear application procedure with regard to qualifications. Assessment standards are derived from qualification standards and are approved, amended, or repealed by the Ministry of Education. The approval, amendment and repeal of assessment standards are published in the Institute’s Journal. The Institute also publishes assessment standards by including them in the National Register of Qualifications.

Higher education

Higher education institutions can offer lifelong learning courses. Such courses can be career-related (e.g. in-service training of educational staff) or of personal interest (e.g. the University of the Third Age). The courses within the lifelong learning can be provided either free or fee-based.

Examples of Good Practice

Accumulator! (2016-2017)

Category: informal learning

Target group: young people (between 15 to 25).

Aim: The Czech Institute for Active Citizenship organizes a second five-weekends training for young people. The aim is to develop enthusiasm, ideas and experience of young people in the area of active citizenship at the local, national and European level. The learning and the experience of the project focuses on cross-cutting issues such as human rights, the promotion of renewable energy, environmental protection, public participation in decision-making, inclusive education, migration and the protection of minorities, local referendums and more.

Relation to active citizenship: increase the young people's awareness of cross-cutting issues relevant for the local, national and European community

Have your say!

Category: informal learning

Target group: young people

Aim: Effective youth-related policy is based on active cooperation between all interested participants and thorough consultation with young people. The strategic goals and operational goals of Strategy 2020 were developed on the basis of broad consultation with experts in the form of round tables (2011 – 2013), on discussions with experts and youth at the National Conference on Youth (November 2013), and take into account the outcomes of the structured

dialogue with young people through the Czech Council of Children and Youth project “Kecejme do toho – Have your say”.

Relation to active citizenship: promotion of an effective involvement of young people in the decision-making process in the areas of implementation and evaluation of the Strategy 2020

Source: <http://www.kecejmedotoho.cz>

Gateway to education (2013)

Category: second chance education

Target group: Roma early school leavers

Aim: The project implemented by IQ Roma Servis responded to low levels of education and high levels of drop-outs of secondary schools among the Roma generation and to difficult socio-economic nature, faced by their parents. Through its activities in areas of the South Moravian region the project has helped with changing this situation. Activities were implemented through the provision of social services, social work and low-threshold facility for children and youth. The primary target group were students of elementary school, second grade and their parents, residents of the South Moravian Region under the risk of social exclusion.

Relation to active citizenship: promotion of social inclusion through the development of socio-economic competences

Conclusion

The CR has a very rich history in adult education. Young people, of age between 15 to 30, are perceived as a vulnerable group on the labour market. Although the situation in the CR is not as critical as in other EU countries, there has been a significant increase of young unemployed adults (under 25 years) in the recent years. The key instrument for tackling unemployment and inactivity of young people under 25 for the period 2014-2020 is the Youth Guarantee program (Záruky pro mládež). Cooperation between the educational institutions, both formal and non-formal, and future employers proves itself crucial. There is also a need for motivating young people to take part in non-formal education and informal learning activities that are available

to them and have the potential of greatly developing their knowledge, skills and attitudes, which will in turn increase their employability.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Slovakia

Introduction

Commonly used term “adult education” is mostly understood as being included in “lifelong learning”. In Slovakia the major strategic documents and approaches use terminology as follows: formal, taking part in the school system - primary, secondary, tertiary – offering an official degree, non-formal,- carried out by educational institutions outside of the school system, it does not lead to acquiring any degree, however, an output may be a certificate, and informal – happens outside of any institutional learning, e.g. in families. This document focuses on adult education, often referred to as non-formal education.

Historical Development

Adult education has its roots in the 19th century and is linked to civic initiatives of different national movements in Austria-Hungary. In 1863 Matica Slovenská was established and worked actively within the territory of current Slovakia. The objective was to improve level of education in science and culture and general well-being of the Slovaks in Austria-Hungary.

After the 1st World War in Czechoslovakia we see a more sophisticated form even regulated by law. The Act adopted in 1919 regulated organising of so called “courses of civic education”. This triggered immense development of various “civic courses” focused on variety of topics from general courses to specifically designed vocational courses and trainings. The most sophisticated and advanced concept in 1920-1930 was the system of “schools of work” of a shoe manufacturer Tomas Baťa who understood importance of adult education and its links to the labour market and increasing production. This was so advanced and effective that it was often modified or replicated in post-war educational programmes.

In the period 1948-1989 adult education became completely subordinated to the interests of the Communist party. The major consequence of this era is that it primarily served as a tool of propaganda. Initiative was taken up by the Unions and the primary target group was the labour class. The companies - obviously all state owned - organised different courses such as: “company schools of work”, “company technical schools”, “company institutes”. The law regulation clearly distinguished further and formal education whereby it became impossible to achieve any formal degree in such courses. They were regarded as further education for adults.

In the 1970s the adult education became more centralised and complex and wider public was reached. Adult education was embedded in the national strategy for education. The coordinating body was the Ministry of Education and Culture and so called “cultural centres” across the country in all districts and municipalities were established to offer various courses to general public.

In 1990 the adult education became driven mostly by the demand and offer and needs of the labour market. There are several aspects which framed the adult education into the form we see nowadays:

- restructuring of industry places great importance on relationship between work and education
- increasing need for independent, qualified and creative personnel able to adjust to fast changes in environment and process more and more information
- stabilising of qualified staff and fair assessment of performance
- need for re-qualification linked to unemployment
- necessity to take responsibility – education as an investment and low guarantee of finding a job afterwards
- broad range of educational, and training institutions and programs (state, private, church, national, international...etc.)

All the above mentioned changes brought completely new target groups with their new specific needs into the adult education system.

Initially the adult education system developed rather spontaneously and was poorly coordinated. The first official step to a more systematic approach was the Act on adult education adopted in 1997. Although it did not solve all the problems it was indeed an official declaration of necessity to create a systematic approach and a long-term strategy.

The current system of adult education is based on the Lifelong Learning Strategy adopted in 2007 and updated in 2011. The strategy covers the following key problem areas:

1. Attitude and motivation of an individual towards the lifelong learning
2. Approximation of the educational outcomes towards the employers' needs

3. System and structure of the guidance and counselling services with an emphasis on the adult population
4. The level of competencies of an individual for his professional and personal development: financial literacy, entrepreneurship, communication in foreign languages, digital literacy and active citizenship
5. Funding of further education

There are no solid statistical data until 2007 since no complex monitoring had been carried out. Achieving goals set in the priorities of the strategy vision will be possible to monitor through a set of main and additional indicators to be evaluated in 2014, 2017 and 2020.

In general participation of economically active citizens in adult education is rather low. The average attendance of non-formal education courses was 3,45 percent in 2011.

The table below shows the latest results of monitoring of participation in non-formal education (other than formal) for 2013 published by the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic as part of the indicators set by the Lifelong learning strategy 2011. (www.statistics.sk). It shows which types of activities are attended most.

Educational activity type	Total	of which in %					
		Sex		Age groups			
		M	F	18-24	25-34	35-54	55-64
Total	3 732 949	49,9	50,1	15,0	24,7	41,8	18,4
courses	566 011	7,4	7,7	2,5	4,4	6,9	1,4
workshops and seminars	394 140	4,7	5,9	1,0	3,2	5,2	1,1
mentoring /on the job training	794 379	11,5	9,8	1,7	6,0	11,2	2,5
private lessons	111 325	1,2	1,8	1,1	0,8	0,9	0,2

The table shows that attendance of young adults is rather low and increases after the age of 35. It decreases again at the age of 50-55.

The Lifelong learning strategy identifies “inappropriate conditions” as the major obstacle of participation in further education. The conditions relate in addition to time aspects, also to accessibility of the locality and the form of education. They significantly influence the population of adults with primary and secondary education. Results of the Adult Education Survey showed that over 60 percent of adults did not participate in further education due to inappropriate conditions. In this population group, a busy schedule has to be taken into consideration as an obstacle for further professional development of an individual.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Perception of vulnerable young adults is mainly linked to the labour market. The most vulnerable age of young adults is 15-24. When compared to EU member states, Slovakia is a country with lower employment rate of people of the age 15-24. As it is generally the case in many European countries, the economic crisis had a significant impact on vulnerable young adults. Unemployment rate of young people went from 18,8 to 35,3 percent between 2008-2013. Currently the unemployment rate of young people is approx. 20 percent. In 2015 the NEET indicator (neither in employment nor in education) for young people 15-19 is 17,3 percent and young unemployed 20-24 percent (Eurostat).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The following groups are officially defined as vulnerable:

- Young people (15-24, however, some concepts include people up to 29)
- Older people (50+)
- Persons with disabilities

One of the reasons why there is so much attention focused on young vulnerable adults on the labour market is the fact that recent surveys show that the population of people in the post-productive age will rise from current 11 percent up to 16 percent (600 000 to approx 850 000) in 2035. It is therefore crucial also from the point of view of sustainability of the pension system. (Slovak Academy of Science, Institute of Prognosis, 2015).

Current reasons why young people become vulnerable at the labour market:

- Despite continuous growth, the Slovak economy is unable to integrate people into the labour market. Statistically this has an impact on young people whose unemployment rate is higher than general unemployment rate
- Discrepancies between official secondary education and the labour market needs. Secondary vocational schools produce large number of students with skills not so much demanded at the labour market. There is lack of qualified workers in the areas of industry and crafts. The problem is also contributed by the system of financing secondary schools which depends on the number of students. The result is that there are number of “popular” programs advertised by schools in order to increase number of pupils, however, with very little chance to get a job after leaving the school. This leads to rather strange situation when there is a high number of young unemployed and on the other side there are a lot of vacancies difficult to fill.

Existing Research and Policy Documents and Institutions

At the national level the major body for research in the area of vulnerable groups is the Institute for Labour and Family Research (ILFR). The founder of ILFR is the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family of the Slovak Republic. ILFR participates in various projects in cooperation with domestic and foreign partnership organizations (e.g. projects financed by ESF). Publishing and research activities focus among other groups also at young people.

The National Institute for Lifelong Learning has been established by the Ministry of Education and responsible for implementation of the National Strategy for Lifelong Learning. The indicators related to the strategy are monitored and statistics published by the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic (www.statistics.sk).

National projects related to employment and projects (national project funded by ESF) related to re-qualification and vocational education are implemented by the National Office of Labour, Social Affairs and Family. It also implements the Active Measures on the Labour Market (AMLM) described in this document in more detail.

IUVENTA - Slovak Youth Institute is a state organization directly managed by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic. Iuventa offers educational, methodical and informational activities for various target groups, performs tasks resulting from the state policy towards children and youth. It coordinates and implements activities to promote

and develop research in the field of youth, administrates grant programs of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the SR (ADAM) and the European Union (Youth in Action), operates in the sphere of work with talented youth (school subjects' competitions called „Olympiads“), is the seat of Eurodesk – European information network for youth and youth workers.

The measures adopted at national level mostly fall into the concept of so called Active Measures in the Labour Market (AMLM hereafter). The concept itself has its roots in 1920s and was more developed in 1970s. It is an opposite of the “passive” system when unemployed persons receive financial compensation.

As for the measures implemented by the AMLM most of them focus on providing direct support to creation of new vacancies or entrepreneurship (about 70 percent of total costs). Minimum of AMLM is allocated to education and training (only 7 percent of total costs).

The major source of funding is ESF. In order to increase support to young vulnerable adults in 2012 Slovakia re-allocated 70mil Eur from the Operation programme Education into the Operational program Employment and Social Inclusion.

These Measures aimed at subsidising creation of a new position are addressed to young people, nevertheless, they do not include elements of education. These are subsidy programs for supporting employment. The reason we decided to mention them here is the fact that in Slovakia this system had been applied on large scale and represents significant support to young vulnerable adults. In the last programming period it has been carried out in a form of three national projects funded by ESF. All three of them were focused on subsidising creation of a position either in private or state institutions. There was much greater demand in the private sector and less allocation (and many limitations as to the eligible sectors) of resources whereas in the state sector the demand was lower, however, the allocation of resources for state sector was very high. Efficiency of these projects measures is difficult to assess and at the moment cannot be measured since compulsory sustainability of the positions varied from 6 to 21 months after the project end and the results will be available in the forthcoming years.

This type of support is integrated also into other Operational programs. The Measures, focused on innovations and transfer of technologies as well as investments into the infrastructure in tourism, include compulsory indicators which force an applicant to employ a young person (up

to 29) and sustain the job position. Otherwise the application is rejected. These indicators are being currently assessed and the results are partial at the moment. The trends show that the planned number of positions (2400) may be exceeded by approx 10 percent. (Ministry of Labour Social Affairs and Family).

Specific Programmes for Young Adults Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programs

The law defines the following key basic competences:

- Social and communication competence
- Competence to apply mathematical thinking
- ICT competence
- Learning to learn competence
- Solving problems competence
- Personal, social and civic competencies
- Cultural competence

Generally, these competence areas fall under the state educational program at all levels of education from. Secondary schools offer programs which related to adult education and individuals are able to register, study and pass official exams. The exam is officially called “Maturity exam” and consists of subjects related to the above mentioned competences. This type of education is mostly focused on persons who left the school system prematurely.

Retraining

The system is regulated by the act n. 5/2004 Employment Services. Re-qualification courses are implemented and / or coordinated out by the Labour office as part of the AMLM. Requalification courses are mostly funded by the ESF. Courses themselves are carried out by different institutions dealing with adult education. However, the costs are covered by the Labour Office after the applicant had past the registration procedure and funding has been officially approved.

Currently one of the largest projects at national level is the RE-PAS project. References to the project can be found on websites of many educational institutions which advertise their courses

and provide guidance to participants in the process of getting the course funded. Participants are refunded the fee, but not other costs related to the course (travel, subsistence, etc.)

Vocational programmes

There is a wide range of opportunities for adults to improve their vocational skills in any areas. People can register for long-term or short-term courses and educational programs offering gaining, improving or updating vocational skills and competences. There are several types of programs. Most typically an individual can take part in:

- Educational and training programs accessible to everyone. These courses can be implemented by secondary schools, universities or private adult education institutions
- Unemployed people can register for courses funded by the state or the European Social Fund
- Employees very often take part in in-company training. This is attended by the employees and organised and paid by employers. Employers have opportunities to fund part of the costs by the ESF, provided that the project (program) complies with programme requirements.
- There are also very complex vocational programs aimed at specific areas and sectors such as: schools (teachers) health care (hospital staff, nurses, doctors, etc) financial sector (financial agents working for financial institutions). These programs are regulated by law coordinated by respective ministries.

Informal learning

This area is the one in which Slovakia still has a significant space for improving and developing approaches. Informal learning is applied in some programs, see also the case studies described below. Informal learning is included in Life-long Learning Strategy and the objective is to “cover all subsystems of education (formal, non-formal, informal) interlink these systems”. What is still being developed in Slovakia is a system for recognition of outcomes of informal learning.

Higher education

There is a large offer of programs related to higher education. Programs can be easily found via internet and institutions offering courses also vary from private to state universities. The

topics are also covered on a large scale. For example: economics, culture, politics, history, etc. The courses are open to different target groups including young adults and people with disabilities. The forms of learning also vary. From typical face-to-face courses to distance courses or courses where blended learning is applied.

Examples of Good Practice

The projects presented below are implemented by different institutions. Two projects are carried out by the Iuventa – Slovak youth institute as one of the major players in this field in Slovakia. They deal with active citizenship from different points of view and use different tools in their educational activities.

Service for Young People

Category: informal learning

Target group: vulnerable young people / young people with lesser opportunities up to 29 years

Aim: This is a project implemented by the Centre of volunteering in Banská Bystrica. Objective of the project is to increase the involvement of young people in voluntary work in their communities in order to improve quality of life of the communities.

Key project activities are:

- Informing young people about volunteering
- Exhibition about volunteering
- Week of volunteering
- Long term volunteering programs

The project a very complex set of activities and programs. Very interesting part, of the project, definitely worth highlighting, is a program called “Link”. It joints younger and older volunteers who learn from each other. In 2016 they will validate competences gained during volunteering using the tool D-skills for employment. The project is funded by the Ministry of Education of the Slovak republic.

Relation to active citizenship: promotion of social inclusion though volunteering activities which allow the development of a sense of community and belonging

Source: <http://www.centrumdobrovolnictva.sk/>

Education for coordinators of Students School Councils

Category: non-formal learning

Target group: students and teachers of secondary schools

Aim/Relation to active citizenship: This project is implemented by the Iuventa – Slovak youth institute. The project aims at supporting, establishing and complex capacity building of Students School Councils. The project plans to motivate students to take part in processes of active participation, increase interest in active citizenship, learn how to effectively communicate with school management, municipality, how to formulate and articulate views and proposals for changes.

The major target group are students and teachers of secondary schools. The topics included in the trainings are: project management and planning, motivation and coordination, marketing and presentation skills, how to successfully communicate with school management members, good practice examples. Learning is very much experience game based. The duration of learning activities is 32 hours and learners are then expected to actively participate in coordination of Students School Councils.

Source: <https://www.iuventa.sk/en/IUVENTA/Our-Mission.alej>

KOMPRAK – Competencies for practice

Category: informal learning

Target group: young leaders who work with young people as well as employers, representatives of formal learning institutions and general public.

Aim/Relation to active citizenship: This is a project implemented at national level since 2011 1) improvement of quality of informal learning in working with youth and 2) recognition of assets of working you youth. The project is includes trainings of youth leaders who subsequently carry out small projects in their respective communities. In 2014 the project carried out 263 learning activities for either directly young people or young professionals working with you and supported 5 615 small scale projects. A very interesting part of the

project which supports informal learning is a campaign named “Recognition”. The aim is to focus on informal learning and what motivate young people to look at results of informal learning situations. In 2014 1712 events (workshops, round tables, discussions) were organised for young people 15-25 where they shared what they have learned during working with youth. 111 young people were nominated and finally at national level three winning projects were awarded a prize. The aspect of informal learning was also incorporated into working with the lecturers and trainers who are involved in the KOMPRAX project. Iuventa applied the LEVEL 5 system to validate competences of trainers gained during working with young people.

Source: <http://www.style-research.eu/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/STYLE-D4.1-Country-Report-Slovakia.pdf>

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Conclusion

Slovakia has a long history in adult education. A lot of attention is being paid to persons between 15 and 29 mainly in terms of supporting their ability to compete at the labour market. The programs are carried out by different institutions involved in Adult education and the major sources of funding are programmes funded by the European Union. It is positive that informal and non-formal learning is applied in individual programmes. The long history of Adult education in Slovakia, reaching back to the 19th century, provides a lot of experience and lessons to learn from. However, there are still areas which need to be paid a lot of attention. One of them is recognition of outcomes of non-formal learning where Slovakia still has rather significant space for improvement.

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Adult education and Lifelong Learning: France

Introduction

Adult Education in France can be distinguished into lifelong learning (la formation tout au long de la vie) and further and continuing education (formation professionnelle continue). A clear distinction between those two key principals is not always given.

The Ministry of National Education defines lifelong learning as ‘a continuum between initial education, general education or vocational training and refers to all situations where competences are acquired: activities in further and continuing education, in the working context, in associations or voluntary work. It comprises measures of advice and guidance, documentation, counselling on behalf of employment/career (re-)entry, training and the validation of acquired experience’. (Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la Recherche, n.d.; English translation quoted from: Schreiber-Barsch, 2015:22).

Further and continuing education on the other hand falls in the area of responsibility of the Ministry of Labour. It was defined in the law on lifelong vocational training and social dialogue in 2004 as ‘Lifelong further and continuing education constitutes a national obligation. (...) [It] aims at fostering vocational re-/integration into the labour market, retention in employment, competence development and access to different qualification levels, contributing to economic and cultural development and to upward social mobility. Furthermore, it is meant to support those returning to work after parental leave or a break to care for family members’. (Law no. 2004-391 of 4 May 2004; English translation quoted from: Schreiber-Barsch, 2015:23).

Statistical research shows that between 2013 and 2014, the adult participation rate in education and training has risen by 0.9 percentage points to 18.6 percent, far above the 10.7 percent EU average (Eurostat, 2014).

Historical Development

The basic idea behind adult education in France in the 18th century was to enable a learner's professional and social advancement. This could be achieved via formal education for example in evening classes (Dubar, 2008). The French adult education system back then was characterized by republican values with their roots in the French revolution and Marie Jean

Antoine Nicolas Caritat's (philosopher, politician and mathematician) idea of public education as a form of permanent education which he described as a "duty of each citizen towards society, but also acknowledged as the right to universal, equal and permanent education for all" ("droit à une éducation universelle, égale et permanente pour tous"; Franchi, 1999:14; Santelmann, 2006:30; English translation quoted from Schreiber-Barsch, 2015:19). In this spirit a great number of urban political and literary salons emerged with the "objective of transmitting a rationally derived body of knowledge to adult learners and developing their bourgeois identity as citizens" (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015:19). The industrial revolution in the beginning of the 19th century and the arising need to adapt to the changes in working methods and workplaces initiated a change in adult education from the former idea to educate all citizens to the core principle to educate the workforce and therefore in the direction of vocational further and continuing education (Dubar, 2008). Due to this understanding of adult education as part of the workforce, adult education became a part of labour law in France which defines the financial responsibility of the employer. Adult education for unemployed on the other hand remains a public responsibility (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

The most recent movement in adult education in France took place in the middle of the 20th century and can be characterized by a holistic understanding of lifelong learning. Individual learning interests are the centre of this approach. Learners pursue a rather informal way of learning in associations, federations or self-education processes (Eneau, 2015).

Conceptions and National Approaches

The influence of all the three abovementioned movements can be found in today's French adult education system. There are still the old values and idea to educate people to serve their republican duties, as well as the vocationally-oriented further and continuing education strand based in the workforce and the holistic approach to adult education. Nevertheless today's French adult education follows two abovementioned concepts - lifelong learning (la formation tout au long de la vie) and further and continuing education (formation professionnelle continue) (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

Legislation and policy in France provides a framework in particular for the further and continuing education sector. Adult education - or "continuing vocational training" (formation professionnelle continue) how it is called in France – was acknowledged by law as a right of

every citizen and a national obligation in 1971 with the so called Dolors Law (Law no.71-575 of 16 July 1971, 2011; Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

Mainly two ministries provide the political framework. Organizing and financing initial (vocational) education as well as the continuing development of the lifelong learning agenda lies in the hands of the Ministry of National Education, Higher Education and Research. The Ministry of Labour, Employment, Vocational Training and Social Dialogue on the other hand is responsible for further and continuing education with the objective of individual employability. The Ministry of Labour also funds initial vocational education and continuing education for specific target-groups defined by the current policy agenda (migrants, senior citizens, people with special needs, prison inmates etc.) (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

The French State Employment Agency assists in implementing policy strategies in practice. It's task is mainly of guidance and counselling nature for citizens.

The regional governance level also plays a significant role in French adult education. Due to new legislation in 2009 (Law no. 2009-1437 of 24 November 2009), the Regional Council, consulting with regional stakeholders and in the framework of social and economic constraints, can prioritize adult and continuing education policies (Ferrand, 2012).

The abovementioned two key concepts in French adult education - lifelong learning and further and continuing education - are not only trends in practice in the field but also specified as targets by policy.

French policy makers picked up the European lifelong learning agenda from the 1990s and introduced the concept 2004 in the French law as national obligation (Law no. 2004-391 of 4 May 2004).

Further and continuing education was embedded in labour code of 2004 by the Ministry of Labour and is therefore relevant to every person over 16 years of age and having left the initial formal school system (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

The further and continuing education system in France is quite powerful in comparison to non-formal and informal learning settings. This is due to the fact that companies need to pay an education tax and that there is a funding system in place for financing vocational further and continuing education (Drexel, 2004).

The current French policy framework aims at expanding and/or ensuring learning opportunities for adults by implementing different forms of leave from work for employed people to seek an assessment of their competences and general career guidance during working hours, accreditation of prior learning leave or a period for professionalization (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The following paragraph identifies vulnerable young adults in France and gives an overview of specific adult education programmes targeting those groups.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

No official national document defines vulnerable young groups in the French adult education system. Nevertheless, there are descriptions of general vulnerable groups. The current policy agenda for example defines migrants, senior citizens, people with special needs and prison inmates as eligible for funding by the Ministry of Labour for initial vocational education and continuing education (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015). Therefore we can conclude that those groups are seen as vulnerable in France. Statistical research however gives us some indicators for vulnerable young adults. Like in most European countries also in France the least skilled are the most vulnerable group on the labour market. The youth unemployment rate increased from 24.5 percent in the third quarter of 2014 to 25.2 percent in the third quarter of 2015. Young people with low levels of qualifications or education are particularly at risk. For example in 2013, 34 percent of those young people who dropped out of school without a diploma were unemployed one to four years later. For young people who obtained a vocationally oriented diploma the share was just 24 percent (MENESR, 2014). Therefore the high numbers of young people leaving school without a degree poses a big challenge. The French national target for the early-school leaving rate has been reached at 9 percent in 2014 but masks large disparities between regions and sub-groups. Despite a decreasing trend, between 2010 and 2012, 15 percent of young people left education with at most a lower secondary education qualification. A reform of compulsory education and tackling early school leaving is ongoing and aims to address these challenges.

Also young people with a migrant background face a higher risk of prematurely leaving education or to be oriented towards educational pathways, which are less valued and make their integration in the society more difficult. They also experience a more difficult transition from education to work. This particularly applies to women.

On basis of the definition of general vulnerable groups by France current policy agenda and the presented statistical research results we can conclude that vulnerable young adults in France are:

- Young people with immigration background
- Young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) – especially those without a school degree or initial vocational training
- Young people with special needs
- Young people in the prison system

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

The field of adult and continuing education providers in France is heterogeneous but still mostly dominated by private organizations like profit- or non-profit-organizations.

There is a lack of a comprehensive monitoring system and the visibility of programmes is generally low with no coordinated communication strategy. However, in order to address the difficulty of integrating young adults into the labour market, the number of youth-targeted subsidized contracts, distance adult learning and career guidance services for the low qualified has been increased (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

The following description of specific educational programmes for vulnerable young adults in France derives from and represents the basic results of a research done on the topic.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

In the late 1990s policy makers declared fighting illiteracy as a national priority. In 2013 the Ministry of National Education even declared illiteracy a “Great National Matter” (Grande Cause Nationale). The education policy paper from 1998 (Law no. 98-657 of 29 July 1998) provided the framework to found ANLCI (Agence nationale de Lutte contre l’Illettrisme) – a public interest group to combat illiteracy. It consists of about 150 governmental, public and

private partners who coordinate and support measures to promote literacy (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015). In the ANLCI catalogue offers various programmes for different target groups including young adults.

Second chance education

In October 2012 the jobs for the future contract (contrat emplois d'avenir) was implemented. It targets young adults aged 16 to 25 (up to 30, if the person has special needs) who did not complete education and are not in work or vocational training. The programme assists and supports these young adults in precarious situation to (re-)integrate into work, to complete their education and therefore to find a way back into society. The programme consists of a work-study-training in which the young adults work in a company and get their obtained skills certified. Their salary is subsidized by the government (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

Retraining

Our research didn't yield any results for retraining programmes for vulnerable young adults in France. Nevertheless, there still might be programmes on the market that are offered by institutions that the authors of this report are not aware of.

Vocational programmes

The State Employment Agency offers the Vocational Training Contract programme (contrat de professionnalisation). It assists young people aged 16 to 25 as well as job seekers aged 26 or older (who receive a special kind of benefit) to complete their initial vocational education (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015).

Informal learning

Our conducted research for informal learning programmes that target the identified vulnerable groups of young adults and try to improve Active Citizenship in France turned up very few results. There are a lot of informal learning programmes in the culture and art sector but in comparison to for example Germany the connections to topics like social participation or democracy competence are rather few. A few programmes exist for young migrants for example in sports to support the exchange with native born and anti-racism.

Higher education

Since 1994 it was prohibited in France to teach classes in foreign languages to non-French-speaking foreign students at universities. To make French universities more internationally more attractive and to increase foreign language skills of French students this law was recently reformed and now permits classes in foreign languages (Schreiber-Barsch, 2015). This is also of great help for students with an immigration background studying in France.

Some French universities also offer special programmes for refugees to help them continue the studies they originally started in their home country.

Examples of Good Practice

The following cases are specific programmes for young adults that belong to one of the abovementioned vulnerable groups that support active citizenship.

Volunteering and skills, a portfolio for students

Category: Informal Learning

Target group: University students

Aim: The programme aims at helping students to identify and value skills that they acquired and developed during a volunteering experience. Students learn to describe their volunteering experiences and translate their acquired competences, skills and knowledge a skills language understandable by employers. They meet with human resource professionals and get some input on their CV's as well as tips on how to stand out in their letters of intent and job interviews.

Relation to active Citizenship: The students learn to assess their volunteering experience in view of their future professional integration. Therefore they learn how to be a reflected and engaged employee.

Source: Animafac, the French students' organisations network

www.animafac.net

Les visas du savoir, basic skills training for all

Category: Basic skills and remedy programmes

Target group: All citizens but the end beneficiaries are vulnerable groups

Aim: Courses for citizens to acquire the 7 sets of basic skills (for example reading, writing, learning to learn, digital competence (involving different uses of ICT), social competences or foreign languages) necessary for their autonomy and social inclusion. The aim is to reach out to as many learners as possible and notably those with lower qualifications. Access is open and free – funded by the European Social Fund.

Relation to active Citizenship: A key element in this project is to support individualised learning pathways and to serve as a first step towards further training or education. Through acquired basic skills necessary students become more autonom and social inclusion is promoted. The aim is to fight against different forms of exclusion but also to strengthen the competitiveness of the region.

Source: French Region Centre

www.regioncentre.fr

Hattrick: Football-Learning-Integration

Category: Informal Learning

Target group: Football coaches (young men with immigration background are the end beneficiaries)

Aim: The programme aims at promoting the social and intercultural skills of football coaches. Coaches learn to support young people with social disadvantages - especially those with immigration background. Goal is to raise awareness among their players on how they define their role and how they can support them in their personal development. Young male migrants or other young disadvantaged men are engaged in lifelong learning activities by meeting on the football pitch.

Relation to active Citizenship: Sport can provide a useful function in reinforcing social inclusion, playing football in a team offers various opportunities to develop transversal competences. After the training, the coaches were able to add topics such as teamwork, fair play, self-management and motivation to their regular training. The football approach is instrumental in delivering the necessary understanding and skills to players on how all these topics are linked to their professional life. Sport can provide a useful function in reinforcing social inclusion.

Source: die Berater® Unternehmensberatung www.hattrick-project.eu

Conclusion

France has a long standing tradition in adult education. It's roots lie in the French revolutions and republican values of the 18th century. In today's French adult education system there can still be found the influences of three movements. The old values and idea to educate people to serve their republican duties, as well as the vocationally-oriented further and continuing education strand based in the workforce and the holistic approach to adult education. Currently, the two main topics in French adult education are lifelong learning and further and continuing education.

Vulnerable groups of young adults can be identified by the French definition of general vulnerable groups and statistical research on young adults. Nevertheless, there is usually no specification for vulnerable young adults. Like in other European countries vulnerability is in general age-independent. Therefore education programmes for vulnerable young adults probably specify the young target group on basis of methodology and didactic decisions to customize their courses for young learners and not because they have a different vulnerability than older learners. There are a lot more offers for the defined vulnerable groups in France that are not specifically targeting young adults but adults with those vulnerabilities in general.

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Concluding Remarks

Each of the six European countries covered in this report presents its own peculiar features related to the elaboration and the implementation of Adult education policies. Education still remains a bulwark of national states and therefore varies, to different extents, from country to country. Against this backdrop, the European Union has imprinted a common legal and policy framework in the field of Adult education, introducing the concept of Lifelong Learning, which has been cascaded at national level.

Similarities

Similarly in all the countries here described, national Adult education initiatives and programmes are often addressed to vulnerable groups of the society, with the aim to bolster social inclusion, but the identified vulnerability is not always associated with a specific age-group. Therefore, it can be deduced that the vulnerability is age independent, as emerged in the cases of France, Germany and Austria.

In Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Poland, the young adults are identified as a specific vulnerable group in relation to the economic dimension, since a high percentage have difficulties in entering to and in positioning in the labour market. On the other hand, continuing education has been increasingly oriented towards the labour market needs, addressing a common need in all the countries.

Parallel, developing a knowledge society and promoting an inclusive education, as fostered by the European Commission, are concepts generally acknowledged and adopted by all the analysed countries.

Differences

France, Germany and Austria have solid and variegated system of Adult education developed since the Age of Enlightenment and Industrialisation, which to some extent is also observed in Slovakia. The latter is, however, tackling the recognition of non-formal education sector, similarly to Poland and the neighbour Czech Republic. The Polish adult education system has mainly developed around vocation and education training with some provisions still to be

validated, while the Czech Republic is struggling with attractiveness and motivation, especially of young people.

Main differences are therefore observed at the level of organisation and of target groups.

Greece, Italy, Spain, Cyprus, Portugal, Malta and Turkey

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Executive Summary

Recognition of non-formal adult education in Southern European and Mediterranean countries is still an issue. Education providers have to struggle for acceptance of their programmes among the population and the financial backing by public authorities and regional stakeholders. It will be a key challenge for the Southern European adult education institutions to raise awareness of their work within their own populations. All these factors combined lead to a still unsatisfying participant number in many Southern countries. Due to their geographic proximity, the Southern European countries are heavily affected by the current migration from third countries. Migrants and especially refugees became a key participant group for education providers. The needs of these groups differ from the needs of the “traditional” key groups, which causes providers to take great effort in re-structuring measures of programmes and organisation. As a result of the economic crisis in many countries in the South, youth unemployment rates are still dramatically high. To counter this situation, vocational educational training has become a key tool for the (re-)integration of young adults into society. Demographic change has also an effect on adult education, since an increasing share of participants is unemployed young adults and drop outs or NEETs. To meet this increasing demand, all Southern European countries develop and implement methods and programmes that are tailor-made for young unemployed adults. These new challenges adult education providers face created the need for further qualification of trainers and adult education professionals. Many organisations foster “train the trainer” programmes to prepare their staff for new participant groups and demands.

The prospects for adult education for vulnerable young adults are mixed. With the upcoming national and regional elections in countries like Italy, political campaigns are now in full swing; unfortunately none of the parties have mentioned adult education as part of their agenda. This leads to uncertainty over the way in which adult education will develop after the elections and under potentially new governments. In countries like Spain there is an ongoing problem with the coordination and cooperation among the different communities and regions. Under the status quo, there is barely any exchange of information between adult education providers of

the different regions. A closer cooperation would be a key step to improve adult education. Due to the ongoing change in the structure of participants, the key challenge for adult education providers will be to integrate two specific groups: older adults and immigrants. The share of young unemployed adults among the total population has increased, and therefore also among the participants. It is also to be observed that immigration from European and third countries mostly towards Greece and Italy has increased dramatically. Since both groups have needs and expectations that differ drastically from the former key target groups, adult education providers for example have to spend resources and pay specific attention to the development of suitable methods and programme designs to fit the demand of these participants. Efforts will also be taken in the field of literacy and basic skills, particularly through fostering the cooperation within adult education networks and partnerships. All Southern European countries recognize the profound impact of the ongoing financial crisis and the increasing number of job-seekers on the labour market. Keeping this in mind, they would like to see more of the unemployed involved in adult learning and thus improve their chances at getting employed.

A major challenge for adult education in the six countries is to take part in overcoming the economic crisis. Programmes to tackle unemployment have to be introduced. Hereby, an emphasis will lay on second chance education. Through projects in this field mainly young Roma and early dropouts can be integrated into the system. It is worth noting that some countries are sceptical about this process, since there is the danger of a “vocalization” of adult education. It will be important to find a balance and keep a wide range of programme topics, and not only vocational measures. Another crucial aspect in these measures is the validation of non-formal learning. This will open an alternative to school-based systems of validation, and help to raise the employability of participants. Financing is reported to be the second main challenge in all Southern European countries. In most of them adult education relies heavily on public funding and large cuts in this budget are endangering the whole adult education system. Therefore it will be essential to secure the necessary public funding and to open new sources of funding. Furthermore, volunteering has to be fostered in their adult education systems. Through volunteering it is possible both to ease the financial pressure on adult education providers and to raise awareness and acceptance for adult education among the population. Generally it will be a challenge to promote adult education and to make it obvious to what beneficial effects adult education can have for individuals and the society. Also, the

presence of private initiative in the field of adult education and training is very uneven and difficult to assess.

Last but not least, women of the ages 18-35 are in a very difficult situation in all six countries under study. Much more distanced from work than their male contemporaries, both in occupation (approximately half are employed) and in the expectation of finding work (despite fewer working, the absolute unemployment figures for women are much higher than those of men) in the short and long term (the unemployment rates for women over the long term are almost triple that of men), many of them have decided to take up once again the educational-training path, which often has an intrinsic value. Women over 30 tend to start educational processes with the idea of achieving a cultural background that will allow them to help their children in their studies. Later, as the children grow and the progressive process of emancipation continues, the time will come when the women can experience the so-called empty-nest syndrome, consisting of a feeling of loneliness caused by the disappearance of the children from the family home and the absence of the husband due to work. The fact is that two out of three students in adult education in South Eastern Europe are women. The educational situation for adults under 35 years of age is very different. In fact, those in the 25-29 age range have post-secondary education or higher. Nonetheless, occupation is decreasing, especially in ages under 25 years, and is becoming more precarious. The primary motivation for these young people, who mostly live in their parents' home, tends towards seeking the most stable position possible. Different means are used for this, according to their initial training such as objection to public service, occupational vocational training or employment-training programmes.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Greece

Introduction

The major policy target for adult education and VET system in Greece is to ensure those mechanisms that will endorse and improve the effectiveness of the existing National Strategy for Lifelong Learning, so that the ongoing as well as the planned interventions meet the local needs, are linked to the needs of the labour market, and are targeted to the target groups' particular needs. To this end, initiatives for matching education and VET with labour market needs, resolving issues of access and raising adult participation rates in education appear as the main challenges for the system. More specifically the key policy issues and challenges in the field of adult education include the following:

- Improving the correlation between education & training and the labour market is also a challenge. Despite the efforts and some relevant actions at policy level by the Council of Lifelong Learning and of Linking with Employment⁹⁴, the goal to increase the employment rate of those aged 20-64 to 70% cannot be realized without rebooting the economy within a strategic framework that builds a permanent link between adult education and training with the labour market.
- With regard to the enhancement of skills and competences of the adult population there is still much work to be done particularly in terms of raising participation in adult education and VET but also in terms of reforming relevant programmes and structures as well as improving the quality and attractiveness of VET, through the establishment of a national approach for the quality assurance in VET (according to the European Framework for Quality Assurance in VET) and the application of transparency instruments, such as the European Credit System for VET (ECVET).
- Moreover, Greece has to resolve inequalities in access to adult education which are reflected in extremely low participation rates, the minimum participation of workers, artisans and the low skilled in comparison to those with the highly skilled, the greater participation of residents of urban areas over suburban and

⁹⁴ This coordination policy instrument has been established with view to a better coordination, to contributing towards the improvement of the quality and of the effectiveness of lifelong learning services, as well as their linking with the labour market needs.

rural areas, and in the greater involvement of people with high level of education compared to those with lower level of education. In addition the intensification of the refugee crisis in 2015 has disproportionately affected Greece as a transit country, with as much as 856,723 refugees and migrants crossing into Europe via the Greek-Turkish sea borders within the year, while from January 1 to March 13, 2016 respective inflows have already surpassed 143,205 according to the United Nations Refugee Agency⁹⁵. This unanticipated increase in refugee and migration inflows, at a rate of 1601% in 2015 compared to 2014, and the estimated continuation or even escalation of inflows within the current year in response to the continuing geopolitical tensions in the Middle East, undoubtedly entail an additional challenge in terms of educational opportunities for this particular group⁹⁶.

- PIAAC data⁹⁷ also shows that a demand for raising literacy levels must be a priority. The low levels of educational attainment and qualification amongst adults over 55 years in particular reveal a deficit in building a sustainable lifelong learning approach despite the measures foreseen in the relevant laws.

Historical Development

Greece has a relatively short history in terms of developing education for adults. It was with Greece's accession to the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1981 that the interest in this form of education increased significantly. Until 1993 there were a series of important developments and changes in the field. In the period 1994-1999 the Greek adult education coincided completely with the acceptance and implementation of ESF guidelines, in order to ensure funding for ongoing training from European Funds. The development process for the continuing vocational training system lasted for more than three years.

The situation has become slightly different in more recent years particularly from 2000 onwards, with the introduction of some new policies and initiatives that now constitute

⁹⁵ Information available at: <http://www.unhcr.gr/genikes-plirofories/statistika.html?L=0>

⁹⁶ See National Reform Programme (NRP), 2016. Available at ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/csr2016/nrp2016_greece_en.pdf

⁹⁷ Greece participated in the second round of the international survey PIAAC of OECD, for the period 2012-2016. The full results have not yet been released, however the general indicators show that adults in Greece score very low in ICT skills. The full report is available at <http://www.oecd.org/publications/skills-matter-9789264258051-en.htm>

landmarks in terms of creating the conditions for further developing the field. However, it is as yet difficult to draw any conclusions on the effectiveness of these policies, as many of them were adopted under the threat of a loss of financial support from the European Union.

Greece today has developed a subtle yet active lifelong learning policy framework that largely covers all forms of adult education. Based on this framework the introduction of “General Adult Education” which includes all organized learning activities (formal and non-formal) that are addressed to adults and seek to enrich knowledge, to develop and improve abilities and skills (including literacy, numeracy and basic skills in ICT), to grow an individual’s personality and active citizenship, is provided by a large number of state subsidised educational institutions. Functional literacy programmes are only addressed to those adults who did not complete compulsory education. Depending however on the nature of the programmes and the educational activities they provide, and the target groups to which they are addressed, there are three (3) different categories of organisations active in this area in Greece. From these categories the first is where this report focuses:

- 1. Public (state funded or subsidised) providers that offer basic education programmes (formal and non-formal) to adults;
- 2. Providers that consist public (state funded or subsidised), private companies, and providers that consist collective organisations (such as Chambers) and offer initial and/or continuing education and training opportunities to unemployed, employees and professionals;
- 3. Public organisations that are established as educational institutions of a higher level such as universities and colleges and provide initial and/or continuing education and training opportunities to students, graduates, unemployed and professionals.

There are also a number of bodies and organisations that operate as legal entities of the public and/or private law, and which are in principle accountable to the Ministry of Education, Culture and Religious Affairs (MEC). The most important of those is the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (GSSL) who acts as the main stakeholder involved in the lifelong learning strategy, and who is responsible for implementing it through the Youth and Lifelong Learning Foundation (INEDIVIM) that was established in 2011 and constitutes a Private Law Entity of the broader public sector, with financial and operational autonomy. It is a non-profit and of

public interest institution, which is supervised by the Minister of Culture, Education and Religious Affairs. The GSLL plans, organises and funds the majority of adult education programmes. Where appropriate, it co-operates with other state agencies, such as the Ministry of Employment and Social Security, the Manpower Employment Agency (OAED), the Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Development and Ministry of Interior and Public Administration.

Conceptions and National Approaches

A coherent and updated strategy for lifelong learning on which existing policies could flourish has been implemented as a result of some serious attempts after 2000. The first serious attempt was with the seminal Law 3369/2005 on 'Systematisation of Lifelong Learning and Other Regulations', through which the operation of the already operating bodies-providers of adult education and training as well as of the newly-founded bodies was systematised and integrated into the rubric of a coherent institutional framework for LLL. The later Law 3879/2010 on 'Development of Lifelong Learning and other provisions' comes to support initiatives set by the previous Law and intends to establish an integrated legal framework for more efficient co-ordination and systemization of the Lifelong Education and Training actions and bodies. The reformed institutional framework attempts to cover all levels of adult education in the Public Sector, while it provides social partners with the potential to create their own adult education bodies, designed to increase active participation and strengthen social effectiveness.

All policy priorities today are set in the **law 3879/2010**⁹⁹ which defines lifelong learning as an activity spanning people's life and aimed at both the acquisition and the improvement of general and scientific knowledge, skills and competencies as well as personal development and employability. In addition, common ministerial decisions¹⁰⁰ define the jurisdiction of relevant state bodies and set specific measures.

In terms of governance it must be noted that recent changes were largely triggered by relevant reforms in many authorities and institutions in the public sector such as ministries and general

⁹⁸ Law 3879/2010 'Development of Lifelong Learning and other provisions'. Available in English at: www.gsae.edu.gr/images/stories/tr_nomos_diaviou_1-23_articles.doc. (accessed 11/7/2016).

⁹⁹ Law 3879/2010 'Development of Lifelong Learning and other provisions'. Available in English at: www.gsae.edu.gr/images/stories/tr_nomos_diaviou_1-23_articles.doc. (accessed 11/7/2016).

¹⁰⁰ Available at <http://www.gsae.edu.gr/el/thesmiko-plaisio/ypourgikes-apofaseis>.

secretariats within ministries, local and regional authorities, was to adopt a horizontal model of governance¹⁰¹. This to some extent has also affected decision making processes in the field of adult education/adult skills. This is evident in the way several public authorities and decision making bodies in this field have merged into two major organizations that essentially represent the two axes on which the national lifelong learning strategy is to be fulfilled:

The first is the Youth and Lifelong Learning Foundation (INEDIVIM)¹⁰² which implements actions for Lifelong Learning (counselling, training, etc.), as well as mobility, innovation and entrepreneurship programs for the youth. It also oversees the maintenance and operation of pupil and student residences, and supports initiatives that encounter urgent social needs at local and regional levels¹⁰³.

The second is the National Organisation for the Certification of Qualifications and Vocational Guidance (EOPPEP)¹⁰⁴, an all-encompassing statutory body investing on better quality and more efficient & reliable lifelong learning services in Greece. EOPPEP develops and implements the National Accreditation & Certification System for non-formal education, including initial and continuing vocational training and adult education, and provides scientific support to vocational guidance & counselling services both at national and local/regional levels¹⁰⁵.

¹⁰¹ The "vertical" dimension refers to the linkages between higher and lower levels of government, including their institutional, financial, and informational aspects. Here, local capacity building and incentives for effectiveness of sub national levels of government are crucial issues for improving the quality and coherence of public policy. The "horizontal" dimension refers to co-operation arrangements between regions or between municipalities. These agreements are increasingly common as a means by which to improve the effectiveness of local public service delivery and implementation of development strategies.

¹⁰² This is a legal entity of the wider public sector, governed by private law, and independent in financial and operational terms. It is a non-profit, public serving institution, supervised by the Minister of Education, Research and Religious Affairs. Its name and form derives from the merging of the National Youth Foundation (founded in 1947), the Institute for Continuing Adult Education and the Institute for Youth.

¹⁰³ The Foundation responds to the needs of working and unemployed people, as well as vulnerable social groups, through a variety of programs at national level which in the years 2014-2015 alone benefited more than 300.000 people.

¹⁰⁴ Its mission is geared towards linking VET with labour market needs, upgrading people's occupational qualifications, reinforcing their employment perspectives and strengthening social cohesion.

¹⁰⁵ Also see Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (2009). *Key Competences For Lifelong Learning-Hellas National Report*, Athens: YPEPTh.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Greece has to resolve inequalities in access to adult education which are reflected in extremely low participation rates, the low participation of workers, artisans and the low skilled in comparison to the highly skilled, the greater participation of residents of urban areas compared to those in suburban and rural areas, and the greater involvement of people with a high level of education compared to those with a lower level of education. The aim of the existing national lifelong learning strategy (Law 3879/2010) is to increase the participation rate in lifelong learning and widen the range of beneficiaries. The facilitation of access to lifelong learning opportunities is sought after by strengthening the network of Centres for Lifelong Learning (KDVM) through the involvement of regional and local communities, higher education institutions, social partners and civil society organizations. In particular, the aim is to widen access to education and training through more effective and targeted actions. more specifically, these actions are expected to facilitate the participation of under-represented groups, such as low-skilled, unemployed, early school leavers, older workers, immigrants and minority groups, with emphasis on those coming from marginalized communities. Similar initiatives were foreseen in the Operational Program of Education and Initial Vocational Training (EPEAEK) 2000-2006 was approved in March 2001. Its six axes of priority focus on objectives such as: the promotion of access & equity in the job market, the promotion and improvement of education and vocational training in the frame of lifelong learning and the promotion of gender equality. A profound financial gravity however was given to the axis of the “Promotion and improvement of education and vocational training in the context of lifelong learning”¹⁰⁶. This trend continues today despite a considerable number of initiatives that advocate for equality of access for all like the programme “Education and Counselling Support of Families from Roma, Repatriate and Immigrant Background” with total duration of 50 hours offered by KDVMs Greece today however has yet to resolve inequalities in access to adult education which are reflected in the extremely low participation of those aged 55+, the minimum participation of workers, artisans and the low skilled in comparison to those with the highly skilled, twice the participation of residents of urban areas over suburban and rural areas, and in the greater

¹⁰⁶ See Zarifis (2008).

involvement of people with high level of education compared to those with lower level of education¹⁰⁷.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

According to the 2016 NRP (page 17) the intensification of the refugee crisis in 2015 has disproportionately affected Greece as a transit country, with as many as 856,723 refugees and migrants crossing into Europe via the Greek-Turkish sea borders within the year, while from January 1 to March 13, 2016 respective inflows had already surpassed 143,205 according to the United Nations Refugee Agency¹⁰⁸. This unanticipated increase in refugee and migration inflows, at a rate of 1601% in 2015 compared to 2014, and the estimated continuation or even escalation of inflows within the current year in response to the continuing geopolitical tensions in the Middle East, undoubtedly entail an additional challenge in terms of educational opportunities for this particular group¹⁰⁹.

At the level of flexibility and access one key priority relates to the low percentage of adults participating in education. *Raising participation rates* therefore is a major policy concern. Greece has one of the lowest participation rates in lifelong learning (3,3% in 2015 based on data from Eurostat) and this essentially calls for policy incentives that will both motivate and allow adults of all ages and backgrounds to participate, but at the same time requires outreach and guidance policies that will target social groups that are more vulnerable and have limited or no access to lifelong learning provision. This is more evident for adults from cultural, religious or ethnic minorities (Roma, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers) who lack basic reading and writing skills as well as for those who have limited numeracy and ICT skills. Particularly for refugees from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq who arrive in Greece either to apply for asylum or transit in order to arrive in countries like Germany, Sweden or Finland, placing *procedures that identify the level of their skills* in Greece –as the first country of their destination– is considered a major policy priority.

A coherent and updated strategy for lifelong learning on which existing policies could flourish has been implemented as a result of some serious attempts after 2000. The first serious attempt

¹⁰⁷ See Hadjivassiliou & IES (2012).

¹⁰⁸ Information available at: <http://www.unhcr.gr/genikes-plirofories/statistika.html?L=0>

¹⁰⁹ See National Reform Programme (NRP), 2016. Available at ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/csr2016/nrp2016_greece_en.pdf

was with the seminal Law 3369/2005 on 'Systematisation of Lifelong Learning and Other Regulations', through which the operation of the already operating bodies-providers of adult education and training as well as of the newly-founded bodies was systematised and integrated into the rubric of a coherent institutional framework for LLL. The later Law 3879/2010 on 'Development of Lifelong Learning and other provisions' comes to support initiatives set by the previous Law and intends to establish an integrated legal framework for more efficient coordination and systemization of the Lifelong Education and Training actions and bodies. The reformed institutional framework attempts to cover all levels of adult education in the Public Sector, while it provides social partners with the potential to create their own adult education bodies, designed to increase active participation and strengthen social effectiveness.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (GSSL) develops educational programmes for socially excluded groups. Between 2004 and 2008, 2,159 repatriates, 4,259 Roma people, 7,103 Muslims, 12,539 offenders, 23,621 immigrants and 1,876 people with special educational needs were trained. The GSSL's Adult Education Centres offer a range of courses including: three courses in Greek language for adults who have not completed basic education (75 hours); courses for parents who belong to socially vulnerable groups and combine Greek language learning, parenting skills and health education (150 hours); courses in basic skills in IT (50 hours); and a course at four levels in Greek as a second language for working immigrants, the fourth level of which allows a learner to sit a test for a Certificate of Proficiency in Greek Language, which is a prerequisite for the issue of permanent residency.

The Youth and Lifelong Learning Foundation (INEDIVIM) created in 2000 and still operates the first accommodation centre for unaccompanied minors in Anogia, Crete. Co-financed by the European Refugee Fund, in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and Social Solidarity at first and the Ministry of Labour subsequently, the Foundation also created a pilot structure of accommodation of single parent families, young women and female children - asylum seekers in the Student House of Agioi Anargyroi. Both these structures of INEDIVIM are considered to be model centres and they officially form part of the accommodation structures

of Greece, as they are capable of accommodating 90 individuals per year (unaccompanied minors, single parent families and pregnant women).

Second chance education

Although Greece has an average drop-out rate (around 10 per cent) the Ministry of Education provides for those over 18 who have not completed their compulsory education through Second Chance Schools. Second Chance Schools are for 18-40 years old who have not completed the 9-year compulsory education, are unemployed or unskilled, with part-time or seasonal employment and wish to develop their skills to help social integration. They take part in a two-year programme which updates their knowledge and skills, at the end of which they receive either a certificate equivalent to a primary school qualification (ISCED level 1) or equivalent to a high school qualification (ISCED level 2). Core objectives of the programme are the development of a positive learning attitude, the acquisition of basic knowledge and skills, vocational orientation, access to the job market and reconnection with the formal education system. Classes can be held either in Second Chance Schools or other local venues, depending on demand.

Retraining

Significant measures have been legislated in the field of adult education and VET, but their mix and implementation so far is uneven. This eventually asks for a better dissemination strategy of any policy measures in the field by stressing their benefits particularly for those adults who are most vulnerable (i.e. unemployed young adults aged 24-30, older adults 65+, low skilled and NEETs as well as migrants and refugees). It is important to monitor who participates and for what reasons in adult education in Greece and how much they actually need it. Advanced outreach strategies are imperative in this case. Considering the profile of those who already participate (women in their majority; employed with ISCED 4 or higher) relevant authorities like EOPPEP and INEDIVIM are also faced with the challenge of reassessing existing adult education and VET provision by prioritising relevant outreach projects at regional and local levels. EU structural funds should be better exploited to boost investment in adult education. Last but not least, close collaboration with research institutes and universities as well as participation in international cyclical large scale studies like PIAAC is needed. Greece ranks around the OECD average in education and skills (OECD, 2016: 14). This can

provide a basis for finally opening the discussion on human resource management, with focus on issues like increasing the relevance of VET offers and predicting anticipated future needs. Plans should be evaluated systematically, employers should be more involved, the quality of tripartite dialogue needs to be upgraded, and a system to detect current and future needs in terms of skills needs has to be created. Finally, quality in adult education in Greece is largely overlooked despite the existence of a relevant quality assurance tool. The tool that was proposed within the National Quality Assurance & Assessment Framework is called 'π³'. In addition the creation of a common registry for adult trainers that is under way needs to be reassessed. A registry for trained adult educators and trainers in continuing vocational training (CVET) was first created in 2000¹¹⁰ by EKEPIS (predecessor of EOPPEP). All trained adult education and training staff entered the registry after a short period of targeted training. At the moment there are two registries organized by EOPPEP and INEDIVIM respectively. The one created by INEDIVIM however is for adult educators in non formal adult education structures. Whereas the one organized by EOPPEP is only for trainers in CVET. The new consolidated registry will be supplemented by the trainers that work under the banner of EOPPEP so that a unified and certified registry comes to force. Social partners should also become more involved in the recognition of competences of adult learning personnel¹¹¹.

Vocational programmes

The reform of programmes of initial vocational training (IVET) needs to be pursued so as to adapt to the needs of the labour market, especially in sectors and actions that are decisive for future development. Any reform however needs to enhance the relevance between educational and training systems, the labour market and companies, as well as the improvement of lifelong counselling and guidance in all education and training levels¹¹². The implementation of national strategic policy framework to improve the quality and effectiveness of vocational education and training (VET), as it is prescribed in the law 4186/2013, includes measures to improve the relevance of VET systems with the labour market in close cooperation with stakeholders.

¹¹⁰ With the Ministerial Decision N° 115911/9-10-2000, Official Journal 1263/B/18-10-2000. For more details see EKEPIS (2003).

¹¹¹ Expert's own opinion.

¹¹² Also see Karalis & Vergidis (2004).

Another major challenge in terms of supply and take up relates to the need to certify skills acquired in the workplace¹¹³, which cannot be acknowledged in the framework of the existing education and training systems. Specifically, the need for the workplace to function as a learning place in parallel with the certification of the experience, activities and skills acquired there, is not strongly emphasised in Greek policy documents. Specific stress must also be placed on the need to implement those qualitative learning conditions that are essentially relevant to the investments of enterprises on training and support the processes of acquiring new skills by workers in their workplace.

Finally, another aspect relates to the use of IT. Almost all the relevant public documents and relevant bodies¹¹⁴ see it as a key issue of the reform in the adult education and training system within the framework of lifelong learning (curricula, methodology, links between the enterprises and education & training, training and re-training of teaching staff). A more targeted and less generic approach is required so as to create relevance to existing adult education and VET programmes and support the development of new ones.

Informal Learning

Early school leavers are the target group for second chance schools, the general population, immigrants, farmers. The LLL indicator value for 2008 was 2,9%. The main obstacles for non-participation was the time due to family and work. The cost is the next reason (Eurostat yearbook 2010). New technologies, completion of general education (Second Chance Schools), culture, literacies, language history and culture for immigrants, parents' education, new technologies, farmers training, health education, civil protection. In public institutions like second chance schools teachers from secondary education are the main staff. In the rest of institutions trainers are hired for each course according to certain criteria and qualifications. A centre for distance training of adult trainers and managers of the sector is functioning under the General Secretariat for LLL.

¹¹³ See National Reform Programme (NRP), 2016. Available at ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/csr2016/nrp2016_greece_en.pdf

¹¹⁴ See laws 3879/2010 and 4186/2013, and National Reform Programmes for 2015 and 2016.

Higher Education

No programme on vulnerable or excluded parts of the population is documented at this level. Ad hoc actions at a voluntary level among academic staff members may exist but they are not visible or documented, neither do they have institutional recognition or support.

Examples of Good Practice

Second Chance Schools (SDE)

There are 57 such schools all around the country that offer special categories of adults another opportunity to continue their schooling or enter the labour market. This institution provides formal education (leading to a compulsory schooling certificate) and is addressed to adults above 18 years old, who have not completed the nine-year compulsory education, and are therefore at risk of social exclusion and marginalisation. Curricula are particularly flexible, so that they respond to individual needs. Emphasis is given to the acquisition of basic qualifications and the development of personal and social skills.

LLL Centres (KDVM)

KDVM is the basic non-formal adult education structure since 2010 that operates at a local level (within municipalities). A large amount of basic and liberal education programmes (more than 8000 in all centres) are offered through these centres (258 in the country). KDVM were established as part of a project that has been developed by the state and supported with public and European funds and aims to provide basic and new basic skills (ICT) at a local level by creating a large network of centres in all prefectures. KDVM operate under the auspices and is monitored by INEDIVIM which is responsible for the administration, funding and dissemination of the project. KDVM programmes are addressed to all adults, unemployed and employed, regardless of age, gender, education level, country of origin, religion, place of residence, etc., subject only to their interest for knowledge and active participation in education. The development of independent learning courses for vulnerable social groups (Roma, prisoners, immigrants and refugees, citizens with mental or physical disabilities), aim to their equal integration to society. There are programmes that focus on citizenship for adults. The curricula of these programmes are designed around the following thematic subjects:

Communication and group dynamics, Voluntary action in the community, Effective communication with public administration, Dealing with the crisis in everyday life.

Prefectural Committees of Popular Education (NELE)

NELE constitute a traditional form of non-formal basic adult education delivery (literacy and numeracy) at regional level that goes back to the early 1950s. During the last decade however a reform agenda was put in place supporting this institution. NELE today offer to citizens 55 localized training programs including thematic units such as culture - arts, social economy - business development, education for citizenship, and special programmes for the physically handicapped. Programme duration is up to 75 hours. NELE promote the GSLL agenda and constitute self-governed public services under the auspices of the prefectural government. In each prefecture NELE engages -after relevant decision by the prefect- representatives proposed by the participating local institutions (local governments/authorities, working centre, union rural or agricultural cooperatives, organisation of work force employment, etc.).

Conclusion

The major policy target for the Greek Government is to ensure those mechanisms that will endorse and improve the effectiveness of the existing National Strategy for Lifelong Learning, so that the ongoing as well as the planned interventions meet the local needs, are linked to the needs of the labour market, and are targeted to the target groups' particular needs. To this end, initiatives for combating early school leaving, matching education and VET with labour market needs, resolving issues of access and raising adult participation rates in education appear as the main challenges for the system.

The most recent developments at policy level stress an ambitious and comprehensive reform effort that has been under way in the past ten years (2005 onwards). It cannot be predicted whether existing and new policies and measures to further develop the already established adult education and VET structures as well as the reform of the apprenticeship system, will have the expected impact, as this will demand closer collaboration between the state and the social partners (i.e. GSEE, GSEVEE, SETE and SEV) both in terms of developing a new pattern for social dialogue, and decision making based on evidence from documented good practices. It also requires a higher degree of acceptance of these measures by Greek society. Significant measures have been legislated, but their mix and implementation so far is uneven. This

ultimately demands a better dissemination strategy of the agreed measures in the field of adult education through stressing their benefits particularly for the most vulnerable adults (i.e. unemployed young adults aged between 24-30, older adults 65+, low skilled and NEETs as well as migrants and refugees). It is important to monitor who participates in adult education in Greece and why, and how much they actually need it. Considering the profile of those who already participate (mainly women; employed with ISCED 4 or higher) the state is also faced with the challenge of reassessing existing measures by prioritising relevant outreach projects at regional and local levels. EU structural funds should be better exploited to boost investment in adult education. Last but not least, close collaboration with research institutes and universities as well as participation in international cyclical large scale studies like PIAAC is needed. Greece ranks around the OECD average in education and skills (OECD, 2016: 14). This can provide a basis for finally opening the discussion on human resource management, with focus on issues like increasing the relevance of VET offers and predicting anticipated future needs. Plans should be evaluated systematically, employers should be more involved, and a system to detect current and future needs in terms of skills needs has to be created.

Last but not least, other key areas¹¹⁵ of policy concern (still under discussion by the current government) relate to the following:

- Creation of a reliable system for research on the needs of the labour market on the national and local levels.
- Co-ordination and linking of the relevant policies with direct reference to the needs of the local market.
- Strengthening initial professional training in vital sectors of the Greek economy like tourism, shipping, fishing and agricultural production. This essentially requires the development of tailored policies orientated towards human resource management.
- Creation of a system for validating skills that have been acquired in non-formal and informal learning environments. The validation of skills is of importance for

¹¹⁵ See Hellenic Republic, Ministry of Finance (2013). *Greek National Reforms Programme 2013*, Athens: Ministry of Finance. [available in Greek]. Also see Institute for Work and Employment/General Confederation of Greek Workers (2013). *Annual Report 2013: Economy and Employment in Greece*, Athens: INE/GSEE. (available in Greek only at: <http://www.inegsee.gr/ereynes-meletes/ekthesh/869-etisia-ekthesi-2013--i-elliniki-oikonomia-kai-i-apascholisi.html>). (accessed 13/7/2016).

all bodies that either provide adult education and training or manage actions to help increase the skills of human resources. The certification of professional skills needs to be open to all levels and for all individuals who want to certify their skills in a specific profession or job irrespectively of the way the skills have been acquired and the learning pathway/s followed.

- Emphasis on education for all in basic skills (literacy – numeracy – information technology) with fine-tuning of relevant European tools like Europass, EQF and EQAVET. This needs to be particularly emphasized considering the PIAAC results for Greece¹¹⁶ which show below OECD average performances (literacy=254, numeracy=252, problem solving in technology-rich environments=14)¹¹⁷.
- Emphasis on ICT and new basic skills for each professional specialisation, broad enough so that the learner will be able to self-train and self-educate themselves in a way that is relevant to the development of their professional terrain.
- Emphasising transversal skills (citizenship and the necessary social skills) that are needed in the modern environments of mobility and intercultural understanding.

Appendices

The Greek adult education and VET sector has been strongly affected by **very low and decreasing public spending**, due to strict fiscal consolidation. Adult participation in lifelong learning in Greece remains very low and has tended to stagnate over time. It stood at 3.0% in 2014, compared to an EU average of 10.7%. Some groups of people, such as the lower skilled (ISCED level 0-2) - with a participation rate of barely 0.4% in 2014, compared to an EU average of 4.4% - or older people and those living in isolated, remote and sparsely populated areas have less access to training. The rate of 25-64 year old adults who are low-qualified (levels 0-2) in Greece and in employment is steadily decreasing however from 53,9% in 2011 to 46,9% in 2014 with a slight increase to 48,5% in 2015. This tendency is also evident for adults in all ISCED levels (62,5% in 2011 to 56% in 2014) with a slight increase in 2015 (57,6%, of which 48,2% were women and 67,4% were men). The majority of low-qualified

¹¹⁶ Relevant report is available at www.oecd.org/skills/piaac/Skills-Matter-Greece.pdf

¹¹⁷ Information available at <http://www.oecd.org/publications/skills-matter-9789264258051-en.htm>

people in employment in 2015 were men (60,2%) in contrast to women (35,6%)¹¹⁸. Recent legislation in the adult education sector in Greece indicates the intention to revert to the educational policy from the pre-2010 period. There is still considerable room to increase efficiency and effectiveness at virtually all levels of adult education (basic, initial and continuing VET).

Education of Immigrants in the Greek Language, the Greek History and the Greek Culture

The “Education of immigrants in the Greek language, the Greek history and the Greek culture – ODYSSEUS” programme aims at providing the language skills, as well as the social and intercultural competences required for the social inclusion of the participants and their families. The Educational Programme offers the following levels: A1 (course length - 125 hours), A2 (course length - 175 hours), B1 (course length - 185 hours) and B1 in which emphasis is laid on speaking skills (course length - 195 hours). At the Level B1, the development of speaking skills, (i.e. comprehension and production of oral word) meets the daily communication needs of the target group (adult immigrants), when this group comes in contact with the native speakers of modern Greek in the host country (Greece). The learner is trained on communication activities, in order to be able to understand the main topic of radio and television shows, to spontaneously participate in a conversation on subjects which directly affect his life (family, work, hobbies, travel/transport, news) and express his experiences, views, needs, desires and goals. At this level of knowledge of the Greek language, the learner must also acquire basic knowledge of history, culture and socio-political organisation of the host country (Greece). The certification of this knowledge can be also performed through an oral exam.

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¹¹⁸ The proportional difference applies for those low-qualified men and women who were also unemployed in 2015 (24,6% for men against 29% for women), but not as wide as for those who were low-qualified and in employment.

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Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Cyprus

Introduction

The Ministry of Education and Culture declared its intention to restructure the educational systems by means of a Lifelong Learning Strategy and a National Strategic Development Plan 2007–2013. Nevertheless, researchers lack insight into crucial information on the adult education programmes currently delivered by various providers. There is significant demand for systematization in the area and for the development of a comprehensive, coherent, national framework for monitoring adult learning. Moreover, the legal framework that presently regulates the planning, organization, design and implementation of adult education activities is fragmented. A research project conducted by the Open University of Cyprus, School of Humanities and Social Sciences, in 2013 sought to monitor adult education providers, programmes and activities in the Republic of Cyprus and provide crucial information on the adult education programmes currently delivered by various public providers. The above mentioned project surveyed all public adult education providers with regards to quantitative as well as qualitative aspects. Questionnaires were sent to all public providers of adult educational programmes in Cyprus examining the type of educational institution, the type of programmes (job-related, non-job related), the total number of events (courses, seminars, lectures, etc.) per year, the total number of participants and of full-time staff, the type of funding (public grants, private grants, participation fees, etc.) as well as quality assurance processes. Selected findings are presented in this portrait. Adult education is offered at public, semi-government and private institutions which, according to the type of education or training being offered, can be grouped in three categories:

- institutions offering formal adult education,
- institutions offering non-formal adult education,
- institutions offering (continuing) vocational training.

Historical Development

The first educational programme providing continuing adult education was introduced on a voluntary basis in 1952 by a group of primary school teachers employed in the rural areas of the island. The objective of these teachers was to help combat illiteracy, which was particularly high in rural areas at that time. The programme was a success and, as a result, at independence

in 1960 the Adult Education Centres were established under the supervision of the Directorate of Primary Education. At the same time, the provision of adult education expanded to cover urban areas. Most of the other institutions involved in continuing education were established after independence in 1960, including the Cyprus Productivity Centre, the technical schools and the State Institutes of Further Education (which were then known as the State Institutes of Foreign Languages). The State Institutes of Further Education were established in 1960, whereas the first technical school was established in 1952 (Technical School of Nicosia) and the latest in 2007 (Technical School of Larnaca). It must also be mentioned that along with their everyday programmes of study, in some technical schools the apprenticeship system is in operation. It is a two-year initial vocational education and training programme, which addresses drop-outs from the formal education system, between the ages of 14 and 18. The system provides practical and theoretical training alternately in schools and industries. Finally, afternoon and evening classes are operating in technical schools which offer technical training to students and adults. The Cyprus Productivity Centre was established in 1963 to implement a special programme in co-operation with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance. Following decision number 2463 by the Council of Ministers, it became part of the Ministry in 1974. Finally, a number of other institutions provide continuing adult education in Cyprus (in both formal and informal education). These are the Pancyprrian School for Parents, the Cyprus Academy of Public Administration, the Human Resource Development Authority, the Open University of Cyprus, the Free Universities (a scheme of lectures conducted by University of Cyprus professors and other scholars aiming to promote an exchange of ideas between academics and the public), the Foundation for the Management of European Lifelong Learning Programmes and the Open Schools. Today there is a strong cultural trend among the Cypriot population in favour of general secondary education followed by higher education. Family plays a significant influence in encouraging and supporting young people to continue to higher education. A large proportion of young people that continue to higher education are enrolled in education institutions abroad. High education attainment is also driven by economic reasons, as tertiary education graduates usually receive higher salaries. The percentage of early school leavers has decreased from 18.5 per cent in 2000 to 13.2 per cent in 2008. The EU-27 average in 2007 was 14.8 per cent and the Lisbon target was 10 per cent by 2010. However, Cypriot students abroad and soldiers aged 18-20 are not included in the Labour Force Survey sample, while temporary foreign workers

usually of low educational attainment are included. If students abroad, soldiers and foreign workers are taken into account the estimated percentage drops to around 10 per cent.

Conceptions and National Approaches

In Cyprus the term Adult Education, is used to describe the education opportunities offered for adults in the form of formal, and non-formal education as well as vocational education and training. The field of Adult Education and training has been among the priorities of the government of the Republic of Cyprus ever since the early years of its establishment. At the moment there are several courses on offer which aim to suit diverse needs for continuous and lifelong learning and help Cypriot adults to acquire new skills that will help them in this difficult economic period. Adult Education and training in Cyprus is offered by the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance, the Ministry of Finance, and private providers.

From a sociological point of view, an important factor that may have prevented the society from recognizing the need for adult and continuing education is the fact that the Cypriot society is family-based and consequently child-centred. Parents traditionally bear much responsibility for assisting and supporting their children. This support mentality does not end with their adulthood, but continues until much later. The parents' support includes the covering of costs for secondary school and university studies, the acquisition of land for building a family home, the building and furnishing of the house, the assistance in raising their children and generally support both in professional and family life (see Research and Development Center Intercollege, 2004). This mentality was probably a deterrent for the average adult Cypriot from devoting time to continuing education and training after leaving school. Another factor that affected both official policy on adult education and the response of the Cypriot society to the educational system was the fact that there was almost no unemployment, at least until very recently. According to official statistics, the unemployment rate was as low as 2.6 percent in 1995, rising to not more than 3.5 percent in 2005 which, in any case, is much lower than the average rate for most other European countries.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

National adult education policies address to all adults. The Adult Education Centers of the Ministry of Education and Culture provide a wide range of subjects that meet the needs of illiterate people, prisoners, older people, people with disabilities, foreign speakers etc. The consequences of the financial and economic crisis on the provision and funding of Adult Education are diverse and difficult to estimate at present. Generally speaking, it seems that the correlation between participation in continuing education and training and initial education is even increasing in times of crisis. Taking that into consideration, people with less education “are hit threefold by an economic downturn: (1) their risk of unemployment is higher, (2) qualification requirements for employment increase, and (3) they participate less in adult education and further training than those with higher educational attainment” (GHK, 2010, p. 16). Special compensatory political measures are taken to the advantage of certain target groups, such as long-term unemployed, young people and adults with low levels of basic skills. Due to the increasing unemployment rate these groups are now defined as “priority groups” in need of special support.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

A comprehensive Lifelong Learning Strategy for Cyprus was established in 2007. The Strategy, which includes stake issues regarding Adult Learning Education, extends over a seven-year time period (2007-2013), and coincides with the time span of other important national and European planning documents. The National Committee for Lifelong Learning is the body responsible for co-ordinating and monitoring the implementation of the strategy, for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the measures taken and for the formulation of proposals concerning the reform of the strategy. There is however an ongoing process of co-operation and consultation among relevant ministries as well as various stakeholders. This includes co-operation with teachers’, parents’ and pupils’ organisations as well as with political parties, employers, employees and local authorities. The Ministry of Education and Culture is promoting all aspects of educational reform through councils where all education stakeholders participate. Lifelong learning programmes are currently being developed in Cyprus and are provided in a multitude of settings by public promoters and numerous public providers. For the

purposes of the preparation and the formulation of this strategy, a Coordination Committee was set up, comprised of representatives of the Planning Bureau, the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance, the Cyprus Productivity Centre and the Human Resource Development Authority of Cyprus. The Lifelong Learning (LLL) Strategy received the approval of the Council of Ministers, which has proceeded in the appointment of the National Committee for Lifelong Learning, the body responsible for co-ordinating and monitoring the implementation of the strategy, for evaluating the effectiveness of the measures taken and for formulating proposals concerning reform of the strategy. The LLL Strategy covers all levels and types of education and training, formal, informal and non-formal, from pre-primary education to adult and continuing education and training. All aspects of lifelong learning, including school education, technical education and training, formal and non-formal education and training that meet the needs of the various groups of people in Cypriot society are addressed in the aforementioned document.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

There has been considerable progress in developing schemes and programmes geared towards the unemployed, the economically inactive women and other groups vulnerable to exclusion from the labour market since 2002 and more specifically since Cyprus' accession in the EU. The development and implementation of such programmes is seen as a priority in various national documents. There is not an entity however for ensuring the coordination of adult literacy activities. Nevertheless, the main providers of adult literacy courses are the Adult Education Centres which operate under the Directorate of Primary Education within the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Adult literacy programmes are offered to indigenous people in Cyprus by the Adult Education Centres and the Open Schools. No data are available for Open Schools with regards to participation in literacy programmes.

The Adult Education Centres provide non-formal continuing education, aimed at improving the quality of life of both men and women involved by improving their selfimage and developing their communication skills, thereby contributing to their allround development and sense of fulfilment. This is achieved through a nationwide network of programmes aimed at all

citizens. The three hundred Adult Education Centres in Cyprus offer programmes in both urban and rural areas, usually on the premises of public schools. Participation requires no formal qualifications and courses may be attended by anyone aged 15 and above. Men and women attend Adult Education Centres, with the latter category exceeding 75 per cent of the total participation. Most of the classes operate in the afternoons and evenings, with a small number also taking place in the morning. In addition, the State Institutes of Further Education offer training programmes in urban and rural areas, both to students and adults. In some cases adults attend courses free of charge (e.g. disabled adults). Moreover, Greek-Cypriots can attend Turkish language courses for free, just as Turkish-Cypriots can attend Greek language courses without paying any fees.

A programme of Open Schools has been launched in order to achieve the overall objectives of social inclusion. Run by local authorities and voluntary organisations, in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and Culture, this programme has led to more decisive and substantive contributions being made by local authorities and the voluntary sector towards meeting the needs of the members of each community e.g. through the provision of training seminars covering various thematic areas.

The “Programme for Greek Language Teaching Applicable to Migrants and Other Foreign Language Speaking Residents” is implemented by the Adult Education Centres of the Ministry of Education and Culture, during the school periods 2010 – 2011, 2011 – 2012, 2012 – 2013, 2013 - 2014 and 2014 – 2015. The training programmes take place between November and May of each school period. Greek Language Courses are offered free of charge during 50 to 90-minute sessions which take place twice a week for each group. Each group consists of 10 to 15 persons. 15,000 participants benefited in 2015.

Second chance education

Adult learners (over 17 years old or over 15 who work) cannot register in a daily public school but they can attend lessons at Evening Gymnasias and the Evening Technical and Vocational Education Schools (see OELMEK, 2011, p. 180). Adult graduates of the Evening Technical and Vocational Education Schools after the completion of a four-year programme are awarded a leaving certificate which is equivalent to that awarded to graduates of the Technical and Vocational Education Schools. They have then the opportunity to compete for a place at a

Higher Education Institution in Cyprus and abroad. Secondary General Evening Schools operate as second chance schools in all main towns across Cyprus. They offer early school leavers the opportunity to re-enter the school system, obtain a qualification at secondary level, move on to tertiary education if they so wish and/or re-enter the labour market. There are five *Evening Gymnasias*. Each gymnasium operates in one of the major towns in the premises of a regular lyceum. There are also two *Evening Technical Schools* operating in Nicosia and in Limassol respectively. The evening gymnasias and the evening technical schools offer adults and young school leavers the opportunity to gain the secondary school leaving certificate that is equivalent to those offered by the regular secondary and technical schools (Regulations governing the operation of the Public Evening Secondary Schools P.I. 45/1990 to P.I. 337/2010).

Retraining

With unemployment rising and the need to reskilling the workforce, Adult Education is an important instrument for EU countries to fight the economic crisis. Although there is a lot to be done, efforts are in the making for lifting the country out of the crisis and improving the quality of life of its citizens. Another main task of adult education providers in Cyprus has been to extend the offer to young adults. This group was strikingly affected by the prevailing economic crisis and therefore has become a key target for educational measures, not just for vocational training but also for holistic measures.

The HRDA is promoting the following new Schemes:

- Scheme for Job Placement of Unemployed Young Tertiary Education Graduates for the acquisition of work experience in enterprises/organisations (submitted for co-financing by the ESF during the programming period 2014–2020) This programme aims at offering young graduates less than 35 years old the opportunity to gain working experience.
- Scheme for Job Placement of Young Unemployed Graduates of Lower Secondary, Upper Secondary and Post-Secondary Education of up to 2 years for the acquisition of work experience in enterprises/organisations (submitted for co-financing by the ESF during the programming period 2014–2020) This

programme aims at offering young graduates less than 25 years old the opportunity to gain working experience.

Vocational programmes

The Human Resource Development Authority (HRDA) subsidizes a variety of training programmes addressed to employees, the unemployed, young tertiary education unemployed graduates and the economically inactive women. It is noted that the self-employed are excluded from the sphere of competence of the HRDA.

In certain schemes, priority is given to groups vulnerable to exclusion from the labour market such as young unqualified people 15-24 years of age, long-term unemployed people and people with disabilities, single parent families and families with serious financial problems.

The Government as well as non-governmental organisations give special emphasis in the training of workers and citizens who did not complete formal education or who have not received trained. Young people between the age of 14 and 18 who do not wish to continue their studies within the formal upper secondary education system when they complete the lower secondary education level make up another key target group. All ministries within the government - especially the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance in co-operation with the Ministry of Education and Culture - give special emphasis to the training and education of young people. For this purpose, as mentioned before, there is an apprenticeship training scheme which is designed for persons aged 15 years and above who have completed the three years of compulsory secondary education and have a vocational outlook.

Informal learning

The local community plays a role in implementation and evaluation of programmes in adult education and adult literacy through the programme of Open Schools which has been launched in 2007 in order to achieve the overall objectives of social inclusion. Run by local authorities and voluntary organizations, in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and Culture, this programme has led to more decisive and substantive contributions being made by local authorities and the voluntary sector towards meeting the needs of the members of each community e.g. through the provision of training courses covering various thematic areas (literacy courses, ICT courses, arts courses etc.).

In Cyprus there is also a growing number of Non-Governmental Organisations who are activated in several fields (eg. family planning, parental education, youth, and citizenship) and they provide non-formal adult education through seminars, information days and participation in various European Programmes. Nevertheless, there is a difficulty to identify all of them, assess their provision and adopt a mechanism which would bring all of them together and agree on a common policy on the implementation and the promotion of Adult Learning.

Higher education

No programme on vulnerable or excluded parts of the population is documented at this level. Ad hoc actions at a voluntary level among academic staff members may exist but they are not visible or documented, neither do they have institutional recognition or support.

Examples of Good Practice

“Programme for Greek Language Teaching Applicable to Migrants and Other Foreign Language Speaking Residents”

The “Programme for Greek Language Teaching Applicable to Migrants and Other Foreign Language Speaking Residents” falls under the EU objective for the increase of the economically active and employed persons belonging to vulnerable social groups which will have as a result the expansion of the labour market. At the same time, the implementation of the abovementioned Programme aims at the prevention of social exclusion as well as at the reinforcement of social and economic cohesion. In a more general socio-economic context, language skills development is deemed necessary so that migrants and foreign language speakers who live in Cyprus acquire the ability to communicate with ease in their daily lives. Additionally, the double objective of promoting social integration and equal opportunities for their participation in active occupation policies is being served. The language and communication skills they will acquire will facilitate their contact with the local population and will enable them to have equal participation in occupation, as well as in the political, cultural and social activities in Cyprus. Residents of Cyprus over 15 years of age, who are migrants and/or foreign language speakers, are entitled to apply for participation to the programme.

State Institutes of Further Education

They first started their function in 1960 as Foreign Language Institutes and then in 1988, after a Ministerial Decision turned their name into State Institutes of Further Education. They offer courses to both students and adults at all level of education in urban and rural areas. Thus they offer the opportunity for equal opportunities of learning and contributing to life- long learning which is a basic prerequisite of the European Union. There are 41 State Institutes of Further Education all over Cyprus. They are hosted in Primary and Secondary Schools. In this way a good use is made of the infrastructure of school units.

The Adult Education Centres

They come under the Directorate of Primary Education of the Ministry of Education and Culture and operate on the premises of public primary schools in urban and rural areas. They offer afternoon and evening classes on various subjects, aiming at the social, personal or professional skills development of adults and pupils from 15 years on. There have been 395 Adult Education Centres in 2011, operating in urban and rural areas in all districts. The Adult Education Centres have been acknowledged by the citizens of the Republic of Cyprus as the most important programme of general adult education with the provision of a variety of qualitative courses aiming at the general development of each adult's personality as well as the social, financial and cultural development of citizens in general. Their aims coincide with the State's developmental policy and the wider aims of the Ministry of Education and Culture regarding the provision of lifelong learning opportunities for all citizens of the Republic of Cyprus. In addition, they aim at reducing educational inequalities so that citizens may be successfully integrated and be enabled to act efficiently in a united Europe.

Conclusion

Adult education in Cyprus becomes a matter of public interest towards the end of colonialism. In 1952 the first adult education centres were established in rural areas (see Karagiorges, 1986). Compared to the rest of Europe, this can be seen as a relatively late establishment of adult education in Cyprus. It is directly linked to the socio-political situation in the Cypriot society. First, the Cypriot society was a generally rural society with rudimentary industrial development until the mid-20s. Therefore, there was neither a working class nor a bourgeoisie to the same extent that existed in other European countries. Hence, there was almost no need for

specialization, vocational training or liberal adult education as it existed in other industrialized societies. It is fair to say that there was basically no demand for the government or other agencies to establish institutions that would provide education and training for adults. Another important factor that delayed the onset of adult education in Cyprus was the historical conditions that prevailed on the island over the preceding two centuries. During the period when Europe was experiencing the upheavals of the Enlightenment movement, Cyprus was under the Ottoman occupation which deprived the enslaved even the right to basic education. The Ottoman rule was succeeded by English colonialism, which at least focused on the development of primary education, but refused financial support for the expansion of secondary education. It was believed that the needs of the rural population were adequately served. Moreover, the British colonial policy preferred the rural population to be anchored in the lower social hierarchy (see Persianis, 1996). At present there is no systematic monitoring mechanism at national level regarding adult education provision in Cyprus that covers all fields, from general adult education to continuing vocational training. Relevant information is split up while the legal framework that presently regulates the planning, organization, design and implementation of adult education activities is fragmented and central planning and strategy is rather missing. Research lacks insight into crucial information on the adult education programmes currently delivered by various providers. At the same time, there is huge demand for systematization in the area and the development of a comprehensive, coherent, national framework. The above become an imperative given that Cyprus after its accession to the EU has increased investment in human capital and strengthened its efforts in developing an adequate Adult Education System and an effective Vocational Education and Training System, ensuring the delivery of necessary knowledge, skills and competences to the Cypriot population in order to adapt to a culture of lifelong learning.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Malta

Introduction

Adult education's first documented landmarks in Malta occurred during the period of British colonial rule and often reflected a struggle between the demands of an Anglicisation project and the struggle for resistance by the traditional local elite. The latter promoted *Italianita`* (an affinity with the culture of neighbouring Italy) and the continuation of the Italian language as the language of Maltese society's traditional established institutions such as the university, the law courts etc. The 'language question' involved the struggle for supremacy of either the English or Italian language with Maltese being regarded as the 'kitchen language'. English gradually supplanted Italian as the key language in Malta and Gozo, notably in administration, education, commerce etc. Maltese eventually established itself as one of the two most important languages. It still suffers from occupying a somewhat subordinate status in various leading institutions in the country.

Historical Development

Independence in 1964 brought with it a new sense of identity and the development of a tourist industry. A laissez-faire mercantilist policy developed in the 60s by the Nationalist Party, which traditionally derived support from the clerico-professional classes and the class of importers, among others, gave way to sixteen years of socialist policies under the Labour government of the 70s and mid-eighties. Here the shift in economic policy was from mercantilist capitalism to industrial capitalism. This was followed by twenty almost uninterrupted years of Nationalist rule. The Nationalist administration favoured EU membership and a liberalisation of the economy, tempered at first by a residue of Labour's welfare policies but which gradually led to a more neoliberal string of policies, coupled with the affirmation of traditional conservative values. Privatisation has become an important feature of the economy. Throughout the aforementioned periods, there has been a long surviving hegemonic force in Maltese society which has also been an important player in the adult education field: the Roman Catholic Church. That it makes its presence felt in most aspects of Maltese life is typical of countries characterised by a dominant belief system. Malta is a non-secular state with Roman Catholicism being recognised as the official religion of the Maltese islands in the country's Constitution. State-church relations have been controversial

throughout Malta's history, not least in the recent introduction of divorce legislation. Following Malta's EU accession, agencies and individuals began to compete for Grundtvig and Leonardo funding. Other adult education initiatives began to emerge, relying for the most part on ESF funding. The early 90s also saw the establishment of the Employment and Training Corporation (ETC), and the last decade saw the re-emergence of the Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology (MCAST) that also attaches importance to adult vocational education.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Adult Education means different things to different people in Malta. It was traditionally associated with adult literacy and basic education in the late 19th and first half of the 20th century at a time when there was no mass public education. It was linked, for the most part, with emigration and involved literacy especially in English. The main purpose was to assist emigrants in settling in former British colonies of settlement such as the USA, Canada and Australia. Vocational education, often with a strong agricultural bias, was also instrumental in this regard (these receiving countries preferred country to city dwellers). Adult education was also associated with religious instruction and with social development. Social development was initially often promoted by institutions that followed the social teachings of the Catholic Church.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

There is no national strategy for adult education in Malta. Around 2003-2004, a consultative document for a national lifelong learning strategy was produced. For some reason or other, it was not placed in the public domain. However certain changes being introduced could well have an effect on other sectors. For instance, the existence of a national qualifications framework has the potential to validate, in terms of certification, work carried out in the non-formal sector of education, including adult education.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

There is no legislation covering adult education in Malta. In fact the Education Act of 1988, recently amended, pays lip service to adult education. Adult Education is mentioned when

outlining the Directorate for Educational Services' functions. Chapter 327 stipulates that the Directorate is to "*promote, support, coordinate and ensure lifelong learning services and initiatives, including educational and cultural services within the community, e-learning and distance learning, adult education, evening classes, and other initiatives related to complementary education...*" (Government Gazette, 2006, p. A 583). A Directorate for Lifelong Learning (DLLL) was set up in June, 2009. The mission is to design a national strategy in lifelong learning; bring about coordination in this sector by making optimal use of the diverse learning providers and settings which characterises lifelong learning systems; lift the barriers for participation, so that the overall volume of participation in adult learning is increased, and to address the imbalances in participation in order to achieve a more equitable state of affairs; ensure the quality of adult learning; and encourage more adults in active citizenship. The Directorate for Lifelong Learning administers undergraduate and postgraduate scholarship schemes. A Service Manager was appointed within this Directorate in order to specifically develop the Adult Learning Unit and by late 2010 this Directorate adapted the Action Plan on Adult Learning as set out in the 2006 Communication on adult learning by the European Commission 'it is never too late to learn' into its mission statement.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Attempts were made to provide some coordination of the broad and amorphous adult education sector in 1989 and 1991 as well as in 1997. The idea was to create an adult education network for Malta and Gozo. These attempts were sporadic and not sustained throughout. The major players in this area have traditionally included the State, with respect to general education and labour market training, often through two different ministries (education and social policy) but more recently combined under one ministry, that of Education. The State provides its own adult education programmes through its Directorate for Educational Services. It has also been linked with such state-funded agencies as the ETC and the Foundation for Educational Services (FES), the latter having been incorporated into one of the directorates within the Ministry of Education. The other important player in the field is the Catholic Church through its own provision at national and parish levels as well as through its larger network of NGOs. The rest of adult education is provided by state funded academic institutions especially Higher Education institutions such as the University of Malta and MCAST, the private institutions (they constitute a private Higher Education market - see Darmanin, 2009), private (for profit)

ICT and language schools, cultural centres connected with a foreign country (e.g. Alliance Française, Circolo Cultural Hispano Maltés) and, of course, NGOs.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The degree of provision and diversification in adult education is steadily increasing in the islands of Malta and Gozo although there seems to be a greater concentration of provision on the larger island, Malta, with lack of similar and amount of provision on the other most substantially inhabited island. There remains an access divide on many grounds: class, gender (given the way women are increasingly involved in part-time work as primary employment and their assuming primary responsibility for housework thus engaging in a double work shift), race/ethnicity (now that we have a strong immigrant population with specific needs) and ability (many sites of learning, including museums, are inaccessible to the mobility impaired).

Second chance education

The issue of immigration represents a major challenge to the country as a whole and to its educational system including its adult education system. One idea that was proposed is that of transforming the present detention or open centres into Immigrant Lifelong Learning Centres, with due focus on education for resettlement, given the situation concerning immigration in micro-nation states like Malta. In this respect, Malta's representatives in various fora, including the European Parliament, should continue to lobby for help, in this regard, among other European countries. The potentially receiving country should help in the financing and provision of resources for programmes at the centres that will equip migrants with the linguistic and other skills necessary for them to relocate. The programmes should target both those who desire to relocate and those who intend to stay in Malta. Intensive short in-service programmes in anti-racist education should be provided to personnel directly dealing with immigrants, including members of the police force, the army, the entertainment industry, the teaching profession, the broadcasting media and the judicial sector.

Retraining

The system of STEPS scholarships introduced is enabling adults to pursue courses at one level above that already attained. This is boosting both the public and private sectors in the adult higher educational field and serves to generate a market for the ostensibly private sector of

university continuing education to the extent that the demarcation between private and public becomes blurred.

Vocational programmes

MCAST (Malta College of Arts, Science & Technology) was established in 2000 and certainly created possibilities, through its adult education programmes, to enhance the level of participation in formal education. This institution had existed from the 60s till the late seventies and was turned into a new university in 1978 eventually being incorporated into the established University of Malta. It was always the intention of the Labour government of the period to bring MCAST and university together since the latter provided courses which the government felt should become part of a modern university (management, engineering, education, public administration, accountancy) to prevent the university from being simply an appendage to the traditional professions. This left a void in Maltese higher education in that there was no institution providing qualifications at a level lower than that offered at university. MCAST was re-established in 2001 to fill in this void. It provides numerous evening training programmes in various skills and anyone over 16 years of age can register for these programmes. The motivations for attending evening courses are various. Evening courses provided by MCAST are taken up for participants' continuing professional development. Others follow such courses for vocational reorientation. There are those who enrol to develop the sort of skills that are an alternative to those employed in their daily work. The last type of course participants engages in a form of adult education for 'relaxation' within a technical and vocational context.

Informal learning

No programme on vulnerable or excluded parts of the population is documented at this level.

Higher education

Established institutions such as the University, MCAST and educational foundations such as those connected with the trade unions engage in little outreach work targeting communities whose members traditionally do not avail themselves of the programmes offered at the central locality. The university has not been targeting communities with low representation in its mainstream and evening courses such as the three cities around the harbour area, traditionally under-represented at university It's Centre for Labour Studies did engage in such an outreach

programme during its initial years but this approach has not been sustained, owing to an exiguous staff. The University has one outreach centre which is located in Gozo and degree, diploma and certificate courses for adults, mainly adults holding a full time job, have been provided there. Its outreach courses in this regard can benefit from the existence at the University's main campus in Malta and the Gozo centre, of teleconferencing facilities.

Examples of Good Practice

Subsidized courses leading to MQF Level 1 in the community

An example of good practice in reaching out to adult learners in the community is the current collaboration between the Directorate for Lifelong Learning and the Department for Local Government by offering subsidized courses leading to MQF Level 1 in the community. There are 28 local councils participating in this scheme meaning that there are 104 classes in various subjects; a total of 1,111 adult-learners in the community and increase of 700% on previous years where courses for adults were offered in some local councils without this inter-ministerial collaboration.

Conclusion

Although there is no clear strategy, lifelong learning and educational opportunities in Malta are considered important principles of the Maltese educational policy, as this forms an important base for an enterprising society. In line with this stance, the Directorate for Lifelong Learning offers courses for adults, to sustain a knowledge-based economy, and to encourage learning as a key to success. It also seeks to lift the barriers for participation in adult learning so that the overall participation is increased and to adopt the Action Plan on Adult Education as set out by the European Commission. The Directorate offers adult learning classes in several areas of knowledge. Some courses are also aimed at individuals who need to acquire basic literacy and numeracy skills in order to be in a better position to gain employment. A number of evening classes also include courses specifically in English and Maltese for foreigners. The Directorate is also responsible for scholarships in several priority sectors of the knowledge-based economy. Adults can also follow courses at the Malta College of Arts and Science, both on a full-time and on a part-time basis. Adults have the opportunity to study a variety of languages. The Directorate for Lifelong Learning offers courses which take place both in the morning and in

the evening, where adults can follow courses at different levels, for example basic conversation classes and also courses which lead to SEC and MATSEC certification.

Barriers for adult participation in adult education still exist, despite the efforts of government through the creation of a regulatory qualifications framework (the Malta Qualifications Council) and other incentives such as the provision of scholarships for those doing Master's degrees on a part-time basis, often with foreign institutions, and the introduction of the maturity clause for entry to University first degree courses.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Italy

Introduction

There are two different fields in terms of adult education and instruction (IdA) that is entrusted to the Ministry of Education and Professional Training (FP), and run by regional and provincial authorities. These are:

Formal Adult Education that is provided through Provincial Centres for Adult Education and the Regional Professional Training Bodies.

Non-Formal Adult Education that is provided through associations and non-profit organisations, training bodies and third age universities.

Historical Development

There are landmarks in Italy's adult education history, notably the attempts at radical industrial democracy during the revolutionary Turin years after the **First** World War through the factory councils. During this period, a more liberal form of adult education, provided through so-called popular universities, made its presence felt and varied from place to place. The post-war period was characterised by several initiatives in adult education. Many attempts were carried out to combat illiteracy, which was widespread throughout Italy and especially in the Southern regions. There was a shift in Italy at the time, from the popular schools established in 1947, to courses in basic education intended to enable learners attain a primary school level of education.

As a result of negotiations between the metal workers and employers in 1973, Italy witnessed the introduction of the "150 hours" (collective remunerated leave for study purposes), a radically innovative and critical experience with respect to the classist nature of instruction and society, brought about by the workers' movement as a trade union achievement guaranteeing the right to study to all and collective cultural development. The 150 hours were intended not for vocational purposes but to allow workers to attain the recognised level (titolo) of secondary education first grade. Many courses were held by women for women both at the level of higher secondary school and at university level (known as corsi monografici or monographic courses). The courses were open to young women, unemployed women and housewives and have contributed to the formation of a collective feminist consciousness.

The post war period was characterised throughout Europe and the rest of the world, by educational efforts geared towards 'social reconstruction' and de-Nazification. Aldo Capitini who was a peace and anti-fascist activist, set up a series of adult education centres called Centri di Orientamento Sociale (COS - Centre for Social Orientation) intended as sources of education for a grassroots 'bottom-up' democracy (Omnicrazia). These centres initially started in Perugia and subsequently spread beyond this city to other localities in Umbria and beyond. The drive to tackle widespread illiteracy continued in the 1960s through what was then regarded as an innovative means: the use of television which made its mark in Italy in the late 1950s. Alberto Manzi devised a programme of teaching literacy via Italy's State television channel, Rai, called 'Non e mai troppo tardi' ("it's never too late to learn"), earning a UNESCO award. Other important landmarks are the experiments in social and community activism, containing an obvious adult learning component, developed and engaged in by Danilo Dolci in Trappeto and Partinico near Palermo.

In more recent years, mainstream adult education has been developed within the context of lifelong learning as presented by the EU, and very much dependant on ESF funding made available through Regions, Provinces and Communes. More recently, we have seen the establishment of the Centri Territoriali Permanenti (CTPs or Permanent Territorial Centres), which were intended to foster a more integrated approach to adult education including various agencies in the territorio such as schools (scuole serali), universities and vocational education agencies. More recently they have been reorganised as 'provincial centres for the instruction of adults' (CPIA), in an effort to improve the nature of governance with regard to adult education in the territories. They have been granted administrative, organisational and didactic autonomy, as they are accorded a pivotal role in what is envisaged as a network of adult education providers in the provinces.

In 2009, the social partners devised activities to help training workers and fight the effects of the economic crisis, mainly through the use of inter-professional funds (Fondi paritetici interprofessionali) for continuing training. The law, no.2 of 2009 - concerning measures against the crisis – establishes that such funds should encourage workers' participation in training activities during a work suspension period. Therefore in 2009 some of these funds have financed the training activities for different categories of potential beneficiaries, such as workers on redundancy funds, on short or no working hours, on solidarity contracts, on

apprenticeship contracts or project workers. That same year, the social partners have sought to strengthen the process of bilateral organisations aiming at assigning tasks not only relating to vocational training in different sectors/branches¹, skill needs and training promotion, but also relating to the concrete organisation and management of welfare activities and/or services.

On 17 February 2010, an agreement on training guidelines (“Linee-guida per la formazione nel 2010”) was introduced so that social partners can encourage investments in training and education. This agreement by the government, regions and social partners, to pursue a more efficient synergy between public and private resources for training, provides for the definition of a shared organisational model for implementing activities and using resources. In line with this agreement, social partners intensified their efforts to promote workers' training in 2010, and ensure the relative funding through the strengthening of the means to inquire about the situation of sectors/branches (i.e. setting up new observatories and reinforcing those already in place), the establishment of new bilateral tables and the reinforcement of bilateral systems already in place, and training of shop stewards operating at company level on matters relevant for training and labour policies.

In accordance with the above mentioned Agreement and with the primary objective of harmonising and coordinating individual planning (regional and Funds-related), four regions signed agreements with the social partners and Inter-Professional Funds. Other regions have opened the required negotiations to this end, setting up specific (and permanent) discussion tables with a view to sharing strategies for training and labour policies. Activists, often connected with social movements, can also be found who provide a learning dimension within their work. Their activities revolve around such issues as solidarity with Third World countries and movements, social solidarity economy, fair trade, community theatre (e.g. Teatro Giolli) and other social justice and environmental issues. Other important institutions are the Universities of the Third Age and the age non-specific Università della Libera Età which are adult education agencies catering for people of all ages and not just older adults. Finally the Catholic Church and its organisations have a strong presence in the various territories. They make their presence felt also in adult education. The courses they provide are mainly in such areas as the preparation for marriage, becoming parents etc. There is a strong presence, especially in the North, of Catholic voluntary organisations which, with other Catholic associations, are involved in the education of immigrant foreigners, including adult education.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Adult Education (referred to in Italy as *educazione degli adulti* or EDA) has had an interesting history, mainly characterised by the *territorio* approach, meaning that there are variations in adult education provision available from region to region and locality to locality.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Women and immigrants are the key target group as, combined, they represent the majority of participants. From 2000, thanks to European stimuli, the system was reorganised as a network structure with various centres: schools, the regional professional training system, employment services, the associations, universities and cultural institutions (libraries, museums, etc.).

The implementation of EdA (for formal training) has been entrusted since 1997 to the Permanent Territorial Centres for adult education (CTP) with premises throughout the Italian national territory - mainly related to the public school system. In 2008, these centres were transformed into Provincial Adult Education Centres (CPIA).

In more recent years, one finds mainstream adult education being developed within the context of lifelong learning as presented by the EU and very much dependant on ESF funding made available through the regions, provinces and communes. Lifelong learning is the all-embracing concept characterising the school reform resulting from law no. 53 of 2003. The dominant discourse, as elsewhere, is neoliberal, which also reflects the discourse of the current centre-right government. There does not seem to be an all embracing strategy for lifelong learning in Italy at the moment. Initiatives with regard to lifelong learning are left to the various agencies within the different territories throughout Italy in what seems to be conceived of as a series of different networks of adult education providers. These networks include evening courses (*corsi serali*) to help persons over the age of 16 to complete their school leaving certificate and also attend courses intended to lead to the acquisition of higher diplomas. The CTPs and now the CPIAs are meant to be at the heart of this system of governance, based on a network conception of different adult education provision. Within the networks, one can find courses that lead to certificates representing the successful completion of the first cycle of instruction (primary and secondary first level), courses leading to the attainment of certificates representing the

successful completion of secondary education (second level), courses in functional literacy, and literacy courses for immigrants. There are authors who have criticised recent documents and working groups (such as the Minister's White Book on Welfare and the De Rita Study Commission's Report on the future of VET in Italy) for placing too much emphasis on the role of companies in catering for the education of adults rather than providing an all-embracing and systematic strategy for permanent education. An important development is the construction of Law 53/2003 which concerns the promotion of permanent education. Permanent education is one of the main principles at the basis of delegated decrees for the reform of the education and training system. For the adult segment, the government thinks it is necessary to distinguish continuing training, where technical-occupational and transferable skills are acquired in the workplace, from adult education or learning, where the basic skills necessary for active citizenship are acquired in nonworking or formal situations (Permanent Territorial Centres and evening courses in Grade II educational institutions) or non-formal ones (for example universities for senior citizens). In February 2010, the National Guidelines on Vocational Training were defined. As far as vocational adult education is concerned, article 5 of law 53 (8 March 2000) stipulates that employees in public and private employment, who have worked for five years with the firm can request suspension from work as educational leave for a total period, throughout one's working life, that does not extend beyond eleven months. Educational leave is geared towards the completion of compulsory education, the obtaining of a second grade titolo, the laurea diploma (degree) and to participate in educational activities that are different from those imposed and financed by the employer. During this period, the employee retains his place of work. The employer can deny such leave in the case of clear administrative exigencies. Article 6 of the same law states that workers, both employed and unemployed, have the right to follow vocational education courses throughout their life in order to enhance their knowledge and professional competencies. The State, regions and local entities ensure provision in this regard is in keeping with article 17 of law no. 196 enacted on 24 June 1997. Provision must be made for personalised learning pathways that are certified and credited in accordance with national and European practices. The formation can be chosen either by the employee or else provided by the firm in accordance with regional or specific plans agreed with the social partners.

A reform of university education is being proposed. The reform calls for cuts in the number of courses being offered by universities. It remains to be seen what effects this reform will have on the development of university continuing education.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

The main target groups, judging from the literature, are the unemployed women who have not completed their formal education at the primary, secondary and higher diploma levels, employees regarded as 'at risk', and immigrants. The obstacles, as intimated above, are many, not least the existence of a strong 'underground economy' that absorbs people either being classified as 'inactive' and those registering for employment who therefore find no incentive to follow courses in order to improve their situation. Other obstacles that stand in the way of participation include the existence of people who have given up on registering and who have little faith in the welfare system and its provisions (*amortizzatori sociali*), including its sporadic retraining programmes. One other obstacle is the lack of decent employment opportunities especially in the industrially underdeveloped South. The situation varies from region to region.

Another obstacle for further participation is literacy retention (*alfabetizzazione di ritorno*) regarded, in policy reports and other documents, as constituting one of the greatest challenges for adult education. Poor retention rates are often the result of a lack of a stimulating post-literacy environment for those who are judged to have attained functional literacy. The newly literate can suffer because of a lack of opportunities for continuing education or employment, both of which can create a literacy-rich environment.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

National Anti-Illiteracy Union: The UNLA has a long history. It was founded by Francesco Saverio Nitti, who was its President from 1947 to 1952. Via its Culture Centres spread mainly across the regions of southern Italy (Campania, Calabria, Basilicata, Puglia, Sicily and Sardinia) and thanks to an agreement with the Ministry of Education, it is in charge of continuing education and functional literacy www.unla.it.

Provincial Centres for Adult Education (CPIA) offer courses to obtain the elementary diploma and mid-level diploma, short and modular functional literacy courses (IT, literature, foreign languages, etc.) and courses for linguistic and social integration for foreigners. Regional Professional Training Bodies offer professional training courses for workers, courses for functional literacy (IT, foreign languages), courses for linguistic and social integration for foreigners and non-formal education courses.

Second chance education

The Second Chance programmes on offer are held in settings tailored to the participants' learning needs and are carried out in a manner that accommodates the adult learners' life and family commitments. These settings also occur either within or outside the formal education system and are meant to be conducive to the obtaining of secondary level qualifications. Qualified commentators analysing the results of the monitoring exercise state that the data indicates that despite the large amount of courses being offered with regard to information technology and foreign languages, and courses leading to diplomas and certificate, the number of *titoli* and certificates awarded is still low by comparison. The CTPs are considered a vehicle to address this issue as well as that of sustaining the most „resistant“ sector of the adult population.

Retraining

Training and refresher courses for workers (Continuing education - FC) is provided through the CPIA which has substituted the CTP as of school year 2011/12. The CPIA awards I level secondary school diplomas. The training agreement will have to be negotiated with upper secondary schools between the adult student and the schools. The agreement between the Social Parties (Unions) and companies allows continuing education (FC) to be offered to adult workers, with the aim of supplementing the skills required by companies and by the Labour Market. Continuing education should not be confused with professional training (FP). Continuing education is paid for by company funds (Equal Interprofessional Funds), 0.3% per employee.

Vocational programmes

In the framework of formal training, we are noticing the widespread nature of courses awarding the basic and mid-level diploma, short and modular courses for functional literacy (in particular IT and foreign languages) and a notable increase in courses for linguistic and social integration for foreigners. In the framework of non-formal training, the offer is extremely varied: empowerment, cultural courses, art and literature, art and crafts, etc.

The Institute for Workers' Professional Training Development (ISFOL) carries out and promotes study activity, research, assessment, information, consultancy and technical assistance for developing professional training, social policies and work (www.isfol.it); Isfol is a research Institute of the Ministry of Labour along with the National Institute for Assessing the Educational System of Instruction and Training (INVALSI). INVALSI Carries out research and assessment of the overall quality of training offered by educational institutions and professional training courses, even in the context of continuing education. In particular, it manages the National Assessment System (www.invalsi.it).

Informal learning

There have been debates in Italy regarding the recognition of competencies acquired at the workplace, but these seem to have had little effect on firms. The introduction of the Citizen's Formative Booklet (*libretto*), as a result of the legislative decree no. 276 of 2003, also had little effect. This booklet was meant to register the competencies acquired during the apprenticeship, during work periods, as a result of continuing professional development, etc. Research carried out by Isfol-INDACO, indicates that two out of every three firms that offer training to their employees do not use an evaluation scheme and it is only in certain cases that there is certification of the acquired skills. As will be indicated in the next section, the results of monitoring exercises in Italy have pointed to the fact that CTPs are, in the main, being frequented by people who do not belong to the most disadvantaged social groups and often possess a *titolo superior* (a high level qualification). The socio-economic status of CTP attendants has been interpreted in certain quarters as indicative of a need to develop a sound system for the validation and certification of competencies and recognition of credits.

Higher education

Universities and Public Technical and Professional Institutions apart from degree courses, they offer various types of adult training courses, functional literacy courses (IT, foreign languages) and courses for linguistic and social integration for foreigners.

Examples of Good Practice

Eda Firenze (www.edafirenze.it)

Eda Firenze was constituted in 2002 inside the Municipality of Florence in order to promote Lifelong Learning at local level in cooperation with local authorities, educational advisors and educational institutions. It is one of the most important institutional centres for lifelong learning. The centre manages educational and training courses for both Italian and foreign adults, particularly referring to all the people who have been have not participated in education or training for a long time. One of the most important elements is the social inclusion issue. The centre promotes lots of activities concerning the learning of Languages, ICT, Active Citizenship but also lot of non-formal contents to get social inclusion through learning for all the people. They offer educational and training courses in the area of languages, ICT, active citizenship. The methods include active learning, self-learning, seminars, workshops and group activities. But Eda Firenze also provides non-formal education in the form of study circles. The centre also plays an important role in supporting and certifying other institutions that provide training and education. Target group all adult learners.

C.T.P. Livorno - Territorial Centre for Adult Education and Training (www.borsi.livorno.org)

The C.T.P. was instituted in 1997 by ministerial decree, in order to promote Adult Education and to facilitate the diffusion of knowledge according to local policies and strategies of Lifelong Learning. The C.T.P. is seated in a school and co-ordinates and manages education and training for adults at district level. The C.T.P of Livorno is a part of a big regional network of C.T.P and is very active in the area of citizenship promotion and social inclusion. The C.T.P. carries out lots of educational activities (both formal and non-formal) addressed at adult learners of all ages, but it is also involved in educational and training projects with other local agencies and Institutions. C.T.P. Livorno provides various educational and training activities. The centre is very flexible in its course offer and provides personal coaching. It provides

courses aiming at achieving qualifications; language and cultural literacy courses for foreigners and short- term module-based courses (computing, multimedia, foreign language). They also play a part in creating study circles. Target group are all adult learners (18-70+).

Conclusion

The current adult education system in Italy does not seem interested in a genuine lifelong learning strategy. It is totally absent from the Italian national legislative context, which is centred mainly on instruction (formal education) and is managed by the Ministry of Education, Universities and Research through Permanent Territorial Centres (CTP), which are currently transforming into Provincial Adult Education Centres (CPIA). CTPs award the Primary School and I level Secondary School Diploma (these constitute what was once defined as obligatory schooling); the so-called non-formal field, (non-formal education) is run by Associations (non-profit), by Unions and by the Church, Catholic and Protestant (the latter has a minor presence in Italy).

The major feature of the reforms is to connect many of the courses provided at the centres, therefore leading to a titolo provided at the mainstream secondary level. The idea is of a difference in approach at the centre leading to a similar end: a titolo equivalent to that obtained at the end of secondary schooling. It remains to be seen whether the difference in approach to teaching developed at the centres, would have an effect on the mode of teaching inside mainstream secondary schools. One of the goals of the 150 hours experiment in the past was precisely to change the way of teaching in schools as a result of the new approaches meant to have been developed in the 150 hours project. Whether this or the opposite occurred remains a bone of contention. A certain degree of articulation between the state system of adult education and the formal schooling system is being proposed.

Main obstacles in increasing adult educational levels include a return to illiteracy through obsolescence of knowledge or skills, adults with diplomas no longer possess competitive and up-to-date abilities; Illiteracy as even adults with degrees are not able to express certain concepts such as symbolism and other abstract mental functions linked to scientific disciplines, due to a lack of practice and/or lack of basic training; and lack of practice using one's memory, that is lack of practice and inability to link phenomena and facts in past and recent history, which nevertheless make up the framework within which we can intelligently express a critical

opinion of social and civil life. This lack of practice is certainly linked to the uncontrolled and pervasive use of the media.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Spain

Introduction

The adult educational system in Spain is decentralized. It means that central Government establishes the general criteria by law, but each region develops their own adult educational system. So, actually there are several systems at the same time. The Ley Orgánica de Educación (LOE in Spanish) establishes that adult education leading to the award of one of the official certificates that this act envisages must be provided in mainstream or specific educational institutions, duly authorised by education authorities in 2006. The official document of the Catalan Department of Education (2005) is the "*Summary document Basis for Lifelong Learning Act of Catalonia*" in anticipation of the development of the Organic Law of Education. Based on Adult Education all recipients shall be people who are between 18 and 64 years in need of basic training and learning in lifelong learning. In exceptional circumstances in the society, also including young newcomers or immigrants with more than 16 years with no training in school of their countries where they came from. On the other hand, the most important changes show, individual and social issues affecting adult learning: the knowledge society as a substitute for the industrial society, globalization of the economy, the challenges of sustainable development, changes in patterns of living; the impact of new movements, the emergence of multiculturalism in different societies and extended life expectancy. In Catalonia, adult education is a type of education given continuity outside of the regular education system for the people who had passed the age of compulsory education in the society and went back to obtain the degree. On other hand, it also refers to adult learning to acquire knowledge of foreign languages and technologies. This adult formation is not only about teaching by professors but also to regulate the training of adult learning. Moreover, the concept of adult education is linked to academic and professional training throughout their lives responding to the challenge of a world that changes rapidly and profoundly due to globalization.

Historical Development

Over the course of Spanish history, adult education and training have been developed in various facets, not always well connected to each other. Of these the two most important have been the academic facet aimed at securing the skills considered basic by the educational Administration, and the labour facet that offered the working population the abilities and skills required by the

job market. Later on in the democratic era, a third, cultural facet was recovered, defined in very general terms, and whose object was the promotion of citizens' participation in the social construction of reality. This dimension, in which citizens' organisations played a leading role, reached its zenith in the democratic transition, and was to find its development and support within the public Administration in local corporations (local and county councils). The integrated relationship between the different processes that have taken place in each one of these aspects has never been fluid, and is one of the great challenges still to be met. The search for a solution and satisfactory answer continues to be influenced by Spain's particular adult education story. In the 1960s, both the Spanish educational and labour Administrations tackled adult education in terms of basic academic deficiencies or the absence of elementary work skills. In those years the sole aim of adult education was to eradicate illiteracy, and training was intended to put an end to the lack of skills of a high percentage of the adult agricultural population that had to switch over to new jobs in industry or services in urban environments. The adult education formulated to fight against illiteracy carried out through the literacy Campaign that started in 1963, must be understood from this viewpoint⁷. So was a drive against the lack of skills of the agricultural population, in order for them to work in industry. This drive started with accelerated vocational training courses followed by the Professional Worker Promotion Programme initiated in 1964. The reference framework for adult education was solely that of healing the sore of the illiteracy produced by the adult's lack of schooling at childhood age. It was thought that once this was achieved there would be little sense in educating adults. This is effectively how it was viewed in 1973, (ten years after the campaign started) by an order of July 5th in which the National Campaign for Literacy was considered to be concluded, having fully met all its objectives (BOE (Official State Gazette), 11/07/73). During this decade, work training programmes constituted a parallel strategy for attaining a series of work skills made necessary by development, and lacked by the Spanish population. Many workers were obliged to change production sector, transferring from agriculture to industry and from positions as agricultural day labourers to industrial or service industry workers. In the mid-sixties the Professional Worker Promotion Programme (PPO) was created, responsible to what was then the Social Promotion Department, with the aim of tackling the consequences of an accelerated industrialisation process. Before this, the Accelerated Vocational Training programme had been created under the patronage of the State Trade Union movement, with a small number of centres throughout the country, albeit with considerable significance. The creation of the Technical Colleges embodied a clear intention to provide

training for tackling the challenge of Spanish industrial development in the sixties. Subsequently, within the framework of the National Employment Institute (INEM) the Training for Rural Employment courses were created (BOE of 29.10.84). They were substituted in 1985 by the National Vocational Training and Entry Plan (FIP Plan, O.M. of 31.07.85), that would be revised on various occasions, and which is now regulated by the Royal Decree 631 of May 3rd 1993. At the beginning of the eighties Spain began to face a series of social, political, economic and cultural challenges that had to be supported in an educational base for the population. The newly created democracy needed education for political consolidation and the industrial crisis demanded new skills and professional profiles, less stable and more flexible, in accordance with the new information society becoming established. The intercultural relations offered by an increasingly mobile society in both real and virtual terms, require new cultural habits. The considerable drop in employment between 1981 and 1985 reached the lowest employment rate for 25 years in 1985, a year in which a little over ten and a half million people were registered as employed. All this required new reforms and rethinking in education and training, not just for the traditional school population but for everyone in general. In the democratic transition years the different social organisations grouped together around common objectives, from which certain movements that had acted previously in this field under different names were not excluded (popular schools, literacy schools, cultural circles, rural schools, 'popular universities', Radio Ecce, etc.). These social forces, very often linked to recently won political posts and the exercise of new freedoms, promoted a dynamism in the practice of adult education. All these groups grew and took shape, and the new dynamism that came from practice was absorbed by the educational Administration, first, in the so-called Green Book¹⁰ and then subsequently in the Adult Education White Book. With this initiative, the Administration not only responded to the base group's demands but also followed the 9th European Council directives indicating the need to promote other models of adult education. The White Book introduced a new reference framework for adult education of a social rather than school-type character, centred more on the needs of the public than on the education offered by the administration and more concerned about (the different types of) learning than teaching. It endeavoured to group together and integrate different teaching modes in a continuum model. But the debate that had been started contained errors which the authors themselves recognised. The educational Administration played too prominent a role, and for complex reasons, not all of them educational, it failed to integrate both the social associations (employers, trade unions, etc.) and the labour Administration that would have contributed so

much. It implanted a certain global model in adult education and training, put together from the partiality of the educational field. Besides this, it continued in a way to mimic the compensatory school model in the concept of base education. Its plans did not completely take into account the political situation of the moment, that as a consequence were to lead four years later to the LOGSE, a far-reaching law that largely did away with the adult education model established in the 1986 White Book. The LOGSE Section III, focused on adult education, corresponded to a key educational policy decision taken in 1990: not to promulgate a specific law for adults in accordance with the White Book model, and to include the regulations within the general education law. Putting into action a specific educational law for adults would have meant separating it from the ordinary education system and therefore from the Ministry of Education itself, as other administrations and social organisations were also involved in running adult education programmes. Those politically responsible at the time considered it rash to put into practice an adult education model within the framework of a principle which, in reality, transcended the educational Administration and school mentality. They did not however wish to distance themselves from a series of advanced ideas about adult education circulating throughout Europe, and adopted the solution of integrating them within section III, entirely dedicated to adult education. In this sense it can be said that the law offered previously unknown legal possibilities for putting innovative adult education processes into practice. However the law still did not take into account the extra-academic circumstance in which adults live (unemployment, immigration, the influence of the information society on personal, professional and cultural development, etc.) and was centred on adults' strictly educational or academic conditions. As a consequence the more academic aspects were developed, such as extending Primary and Compulsory Secondary Education to the adult population, but the demands for training derived from the new political, cultural and labour conditions were abandoned. They were displaced outside the education system; some of them were tackled by social organisations through Occupational Vocational Training and Continuing Training programmes, and others by citizens' organisations, very often without due social recognition. Regional Autonomies such as Andalusia, Catalonia, Galicia and, later, Valencia, which put specific adult education laws into action in this period, continued to do so within the same theoretical opening framework, but with the same practical difficulties for implementing them. In some communities, such as Andalusia, where the steps taken initially were very much in accordance with their specific law for adults' open principles, more restrictive schemes have since been reverted to. Despite all the difficulties in harmonising relations between the different

adult education and training organisations, the social dialogue about vocational training produced important results, notably the renewal and improvement content of the training offer corresponding to the Economic and Social Agreement ratified in 1984, the origin of the 1/1986 Law of January 7 in which the General Vocational Training Council was created. Significantly, 1986 was the year in which the Ministry of Education published the Adult Education White Book. From 1986 on, the social dialogue previously mentioned found its institutional framework in the General Vocational Training Council, entrusted with putting together the First National Vocational Training Programmes, running from 1993 to 1996. Vocational Training in Spain began to gain importance from 1986, not just due to Spain's joining the European Economic Community in that year, but also because the concept of vocational training as an active employment policy began to be applied in a practical and specific way. The period from 1986 to 1996 can be considered as a key period in the development of occupational training. The importance of the December 1992 agreements, ratified between the more representative employers' associations, trade union organisations and the Government, should also be highlighted. These agreements were to be renewed and complemented on three occasions up to 2000, and strengthened this new phase of Continuing Training. From these agreements on, it was understood that vocational training had to be a fundamental priority in policies intended to provide an efficient answer to labour market needs, and that it also had to be a basic instrument within the active policies for addressing unemployment problems and the need for promoting employment stability. Paradoxically, 'popular' adult education underwent a crisis right through the democratic years, and found it difficult to maintain its identity when faced with the leading role and sense of urgency acquired by both regulated adult education and work training. The institutions and organisations that kept it going provisionally renounced their direct objectives on many occasions, and joined the administrations in their task, not just in order to avoid becoming isolated from the dominant trend but also in order to survive economically. The development of the First Continuing Training Agreements during 1993-1996 had a strong driving effect on continuing training in Spain, and on the creation of a training culture that has penetrated all sectors, companies and workers' groups, even those that traditionally did not carry out training. In 1996 the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, together with the more representative employer and trade union organisations, ratified an Agreement of Bases for Vocational Training Policy and the second Tripartite Agreement on Continuing Training. In these agreements some new advances were laid down. The first meant that in principle, continuing training was constituted as an integrated subsystem in the

vocational training system, implying greater regulatory cover for continuing training as a whole. During their operational period (1996-2000), the results of the second agreements allowed close to a million and a half workers and a hundred thousand companies to take part in training activities developed to help them. The area of activity was also extended to collectives excluded up to that point: self-employed workers, special rural scheme workers, fixed contract intermittent workers, etc., making access to continuing training practically universal. For this reason, following the conclusion of the Second Agreements in December 2000, the business and trade union organisations went on to renew them. The model derived from these agreements consolidated the leading role of the employer and trade union organisations in developing and structuring the system, principally on the basis of collective sector negotiation. This therefore reinforced social dialogue as an essential instrument for the regulation and functioning of very important areas of labour relations. The model currently in force is adapted to the European Employment Strategy, born as a result of the Luxembourg European Employment Summit, which confers social interlocutors with a growing fundamental role in setting up and putting into practice lifelong training, a fundamental element in adapting companies to the new economic environment.

Conceptions and National Approaches

The education of adults comprises three major areas declared by the LOGSE as objectives. The first corresponds to general education, with special focus on basic education, not limited to minimum education but taking into account the access to different levels of the nonuniversity and university educational system. The second refers to vocational training in its different facets, aimed at initial training, training for the unemployed and training for employed workers. The third comprises all aspects related to the development of skills for participating in social, cultural, political and economic life. Although in reality distant from each other, in the majority of regulations these three distinct areas are not conceived as sealed compartments where specific agents act without each other's knowledge. The idea of *basic adult education* as the process of obtaining the skills necessary for adequate development in society and attaining what could be termed a *common cultural minimum*, has changed qualitatively and quantitatively as a consequence of the LOGSE law's application. As is known, its application means that the obligatory schooling period for children is extended by two years. For adults, it implies a new definition of the aforementioned skills and an increase in the education load

necessary to validate their education and obtain the new system certificate known as the *Secondary Education Grade*, which is progressively replacing the *School Grade* anticipated in the 1970 *General Education Law*. According to Ley Orgánica de Educación (LOE, 2006) (Organic Education Law), adult education aims to offer people over the age of eighteen (sometimes over sixteen) the opportunity to acquire, bring up-to-date, complete or expand their knowledge and aptitude of their personal and professional development. It integrates basic tuition as well as post-obligatory tuition which offer the chance to advance to official school qualifications (GCSEs/A-levels) and vocational training. Likewise, people over the age of 25 are able to enter university courses without school qualifications. They simply have to pass a specific test. In addition, adults may also benefit from other training processes outside the regulated education system, primarily through extended vocational training (this article does not include this type of training), and from initiatives that aim at aiding specific groups at risk of being excluded. In Catalonia ‘adult education’ is defined as lifelong learning. ‘Adult learning’ refers to all kinds of training activities which allow people to develop their abilities and skills. These courses also allow adults to obtain the *Secondary Education Graduate* certificate (Graduado en Educación Secundaria –GES–). Academic centres (schools for adults but also local centres, etc.) have open and flexible courses on offer. Therefore it is possible to create tailored courses in accordance with individual needs. It is also possible to obtain certificates through ‘distance learning’, with a program called ‘Graduï’s. Ara en secundària!’ (You have graduated! Now for the next stage!). Everyone over the age of 18 is able to participate in the adult education system, except people who have already completed standard education courses. It is also possible to enrol people over the age of 16, in order for them to prepare for standard exams for entry into vocational courses. An interdepartmental program in Catalonia manages Adult Education. This means that different departments from the Catalonian government are involved in Adult Education.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Adult education’ in Spain offers different kinds of activities. There are both regular and non-regular courses. Also there are courses oriented towards training adults in order to pass specific exams, in order to obtain professional or academic qualifications. Adult education is geared towards people over 16 years old. The *Organic Quality of Education Law* (Ley Orgánica de

Calidad de la Educación) regulates adult education in Spain. This law is based on a lifelong learning concept. Article III is entirely dedicated to adult education. The main objective is to provide adults with basic training in order to open up new possibilities such as promoting adults' access to other educational levels, such as access to University courses. The regulated education system offers:

1. Formal education:

- Teaching literacy
- Consolidation of knowledge
- Secondary education for adults
- Language for immigrants
- Preparation for access courses for university
- Preparation for access tests for intermediate-level training courses
- Preparation for access tests for advanced-level training courses
- Other technical courses

2. Non-Formal education: In addition, within the non-regulated education system, adults are able to access a wide variety of training courses:

- Employees (not included in the analysis of this article): Short or long-term training courses aimed at improving professional skills, primarily organised by social agencies with public funding.
- Job seekers (not included in the analysis of this article): Short or long-term training courses aimed at reintegration into employment, primarily organised by social agencies with public funding. Amount connected to certain projects, such as education centres and public universities.
- Special groups: Courses with a variety of objectives (as mentioned before, literacy, languages, physical well-being, leisure, etc.) of different duration. Organised by various agencies with public funding (usually as part of similar specific projects).

In Catalonia there are 5 main domains in adult education: introductory courses, an instrumental training level, secondary education, and teaching geared towards preparing for exams in order to access other educational levels (such as university, for example) and courses on 'information society competences'. The introductory course includes: the Catalan language, the Spanish

language, IT and foreign languages. The 'Instrumental training level' includes reading skills, writing skills, mathematics and general culture. The 'Secondary education' level also includes all these topics, but they are dealt with more in-depth. The third option, 'preparing for exams in order to access other educational levels', includes: a) access to secondary level vocational training levels (proves d'accès a cicles formatius de grau mitjà); b) access to higher vocational training levels (proves d'accès a cicles formatius de grau superior); and c) access to Universities. Lastly, courses to learn about 'information society competences' mostly include IT skills and foreign languages.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Spain has made various efforts during the last few years to improve the adult education system. Firstly, The "Organic Law on Qualifications and Vocational Training" ("Ley Orgánica de las Cualificaciones y la Formación Profesional" 5/2002) for Qualifications and Vocational Education and Training (LO 5/2002), which affects vocational education and training involves the labour, as well as educational administrations. It structures the three large branches of vocational training in Spain; for youth in their initial training period, for the unemployed, and for working people. Secondly, Act 56/2002 (December 16), on Employment (L 56/2003), deals with improving ongoing and occupational training as an active employment policy. Lastly, The Organic Act 2/2006 on Education (May 3, 2006), regulates the entire non-university education system and The Organic Act 4/2007 (April 12), which amends The Organic Act 6/2001 (December 21), on Universities (LO 6/2001), and regulates university education. Due to the decentralisation, adult education policies are completely managed by each autonomous community independently, which can decide the orientation and the development for their own future. To have a more specific overview of Spanish legislation concerning adult education, it would therefore be necessary to refer to the adult education department of every single Autonomous Community. Spanish civil society is also characterised by a wide range of NGOs and associations whose aim is the promotion of adult education. This sector of activity is gradually increasing its importance throughout the Spanish society, reflecting the growing interest in adult education and lifelong learning during the last few decades. Some associations can be mentioned here to highlight the relevant experience they provide in improving the level of adults' participation in education, although there are many more in the country working in a similar field. These are:

ACEFIR, the Catalan Association for Education, Training and Research, manages a social initiative that brings together a team of professionals from different fields with the common interest of working for education, training and research related to youth, adults and the elderly. Its aims include:

- developing and launching activities aimed at these groups in the fields of education, training and research;
- to make institutions, media and society more sensitive to the importance of lifelong training and education;
- promoting international cooperation among different cultures;
- and to offer support and advice to any other organisations working in the same field. ACEFIR is involved in the promotion of training courses and projects, and participation in projects as an organiser and/or co-organiser. It also offers courses promoted by private and public institutions and carries out research studies in the field of education and training.

Associació ESPIRAL - Entitat de Serveis, is a private non-profit NGO that since 1992 has been working for the integral development of individuals and the social cohesion of local communities. It comprises professionals from the fields of education, health and social services. Espiral supports organisations to provide a European dimension to local projects and promotes good practices. It also provides support and expertise for the implementation and monitoring of projects. Espiral co-ordinates and manages social projects financed by both local and national programmes and sponsored by the EU Commission as a tool for social integration, employment and personal development throughout life. It also promotes European mobility for different groups through work experience and language learning.

Radio ECCA Fundación Canaria is an association whose purpose is the development of adult education, with a particular focus on disadvantaged people. In particular it operates to increase the level of self-awareness of adult education, promoting the intellectual, social and professional well being through training courses. It works via a distance learning system, using radio and other technologies to break distances and/or geographical, temporal and social gaps. Radio ECCA Canary Foundation is an institution in continuous renewal which meets the new demands of the society on Canaria.

The UPDEA Foundation is a non-profit, private and independent entity, founded in Madrid in 1999, whose purpose is to contribute to the cultural, social and personal development of adults through lifelong learning. It works in various ways, including to: - contribute to the cultural and social development through lifelong learning; - increase the use of new technologies; - promote solidarity and inter-generational dialogue as a means to improve social integration; - to share experiences with national and international entities; - and to diffuse Spanish language and culture.

Other associations promote the development of adult education in several fields.

The role of **FAEA** (Federation of Adult Education Associations - Federación de Asociaciones de Educación de personas Adultas) is particularly relevant in this case. It was created in 1984 as a platform where a wide range of self-governing organisations could co-ordinate themselves with the common mission of promoting a comprehensive, open and collaborative model of lifelong learning, in which each person is the agent of their educational process, giving priority to the needs of people at risk of social exclusion. It works to create opinion through the analysis of social and educational policies and the dissemination of information and documentation about lifelong learning for adults within the context of Intercultural Education. It also aims to innovate by developing research projects; to use new didactic materials and training strategies adapted to the needs of each association and their professionals; and to provide high quality services by offering organizational counselling about professional changes to associations, about issues such as planning, management, project design, evaluation, training and technical support.

The Research Centre for Peace (CIP- Ecosocial) aims to provide a space to reflect and debate, which analyses social trends and development from a critical perspective. Created by FUHEM in 1984, it is devoted to the analysis of threats deriving from the Cold War. Later on, it also began to address issues such as globalisation, multilateral systems, human rights, ecology, migration, identity and education for peace and development. Aware of emerging issues, since 2007, the Centre for Peace Research has been focusing its attention towards an approach that links economic and social relationships with their social and natural environment. According to the three of the major challenges of modern society such as sustainability, social cohesion and quality of democracy, the Centre established its central theme: education. The

development of the personality is considered by FUHEM as an important step towards the research of identity. This is the reason why it provides both general and vocational courses.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Non-formal learning is often firstly prioritised for learning Spanish as a foreign language, mainly due to the large majority of immigrants and Roma communities. "Spanish for immigrants" are free Spanish courses carried out in the Training Centres for Adult People, in order to support the integration of immigrants living in Spain. These courses are provided by specialised teachers using specific material designed and published by the Ministry of Education. Basque, Catalan and Galician courses are also offered in the Autonomous Communities in which there is a co-official language. The accelerated entrance process for immigrants to Spain is also beginning to have an impact, at first slowly but more and more quickly, on adult education. The first priority for these individuals is learning Spanish. Initially this need was served by non-governmental organisations such as *Caritas*, the *Red Cross* and others specifically serving immigrants. Currently, demand continues to grow, and non-governmental organisations have been unable to meet all the educational needs of this group; therefore, this is now offered in the public adult education centres. Coverage is very uneven in the various regions, and the methodologies and ages of the programmes are also extremely varied. The programmes also reflect the socioeconomic characteristics of each region. Thus, the number of foreigners registered in the public adult education centres in the 1998-1999 academic year reached 13,232 people, of which approximately half came from the Regional Communities of Catalonia and Madrid, which are undeniably poles of attraction, economically speaking. But these figures must be considered as just the tip of the iceberg with regard to these programmes. There are various problems with regard to Spanish language teaching of this group of individuals. The first of these is interrupted class attendance due to a scarcity of available time, caused by the need to work, generally in non-skilled occupations and in very precarious situations from the point of view of job stability. The second is the heterogeneity of the mother tongues of the students, including the written languages of these groups. The third is the cultural diversity of the students which, although it is an asset in and of itself, sometimes poses problems during the learning process. The fourth is the differences in training existing among the students. The students range from highly qualified holders of higher-level degrees

coming, for example, from Eastern Europe, to people who are illiterate in their own mother tongue, with whom it is necessary to carry out a double process of literacy and oral comprehension of their language, as well as that of the new country. In many public adult education centres where these programmes are being run, there are initiatives of multicultural integration and instruction, as well as support from city social services.

Second chance education

The goal of second chance adult education is to provide adults with basic elements of cultural knowledge in a way that improves their opportunities for personal development and integration in various social arenas. This type of education is not designed to be one-size-fits-all, but is rather a flexible system that allows integration at any level according to the training and experience of each individual. The implementation of these programmes has been quite uneven among the various Regional Autonomies in their practical application as well as their organisation. This process, similar to the rest of the Spanish educational system, assumes that the basic qualification that was previously known as the School Graduate degree and was the responsibility of teachers, is now the Secondary School Graduate degree and is under the responsibility of the Secondary School teachers. A rise in the cost of the public supply has occurred due to the incorporation of professionals with higher qualifications. It has given rise to various policies in the Regional Autonomies that alternate between the gradual extension of the new programme to the entire adult education network - a process which has been implemented by the Community of Madrid - and the withdrawal of the same from the centre network, keeping it in the Institutions of Secondary Education, as Andalusia has done. The educational programmes are organised into fields or areas of knowledge. In most of the Regional Autonomies, the four main fields are: Communication, Society, Nature and Mathematics. In Andalusia, however, the curriculum is organised into five areas: the four previously stated, plus a fifth called "Social and Functional Development." In the Basque Country, the curriculum encompasses three areas: Communication, Social Education, and Science and Technology. To fulfil article 51 of the LOGSE, the public adult education centres employ a varied and flexible array of courses geared towards personal development, the improvement of participation skills in various areas of social, cultural, and political life, taking part in recreational activities, immersion in new information and communication technologies, or nonregulated instruction in foreign languages. These types of programmes are usually

organised according to the characteristics of the student body as well as the demands presented by it. The content is extremely varied: music, theatre, cinema, health, information technology, languages, environment or art. Their defining characteristics are their flexibility, the integrative character given to their various courses with regard to improvement of the quality of life and the personal development of the students, and the more group-oriented concept of educational activity. Its most enthusiastic audience is made up of women who do not work outside the home. This area is one of the priorities of the network of *Popular Universities*, which organise their courses and activities around programmes aimed at specific groups, such as women, young people, etc., or towards predetermined areas such as participation, cultural development, associations, etc. The private centres offer courses related to the creative use of leisure time and the deepening of knowledge of extremely varied, narrow subjects, in the distance modality as well as the in-person modality. In contrast to the public offer, those of the private centres tend to be more formalised with regard to the schedules or materials used. They are much more focused on the learning of concrete subjects and are less preoccupied with tying this learning to the personal needs of the students.

Retraining

The National Plan of Training and Professional Placement (FIP Plan, Formación en Inserción Profesional) includes vocational training for unemployed workers. Its aim is to provide them with the qualification required for the introduction into the labour market. These courses, which must include practical aspects such as training within companies, may deal with special fields, according to the training needs of each region or area. These courses are carried out in "Collaborating Training Centres" authorised by the Labour Administration. Ongoing training includes courses addressed to inactive individuals with the aim of improving their employability, as well as encouraging their professional specialisation. Since 2002 these programmes have been managed by the Tripartite Foundation for Employment Training (Fundación Tripartita para la Formación en el Empleo, FORCEM), a body composed by trade unions, entrepreneurs' associations and the Public Administration.

Vocational Programmes

Vocational education in Spain is mainly provided by public institutions. Several programmes are organised for the social inclusion of adult people. One of the most important programmes

is known as "Basic Education" and it is structured on three levels. These programmes are carried out in institutions specialised in adult training or in ordinary educational centres, and training does not exceed 12 hours per week. At Level One an initial training is provided concerning basic literacy skills. Level Two then allows for the consolidation of basic knowledge and instrumental techniques. Both Levels One and Two concern initial education. Level Three was specifically introduced for the Secondary Education Training (or Secondary Education for Adults). At the end of Level Three students obtain the Compulsory Secondary Education Certificate (Graduado en Educación Secundaria Obligatoria). Another important programme is oriented towards training to obtain official certificates and the access to higher level training through open examinations. Adults with basic training needs may participate in preparation courses for the examinations to obtain the Certificate of Graduate of Compulsory Secondary Education, which provides access to Medium-level Vocational Training Cycles (Ciclos Formativos de Grado Medio). There is also specific training to prepare for examinations to access Higher Secondary Education, Higher VET vocational training and for access to University. Specific Social Guarantee Programmes were introduced for students older than 16 and under 21 years old (in some Autonomous Communities, the maximum age may be 25) who do not have either a Compulsory Secondary Education diploma, or a Vocational Training certificate. These programmes are organised to improve their general training and to enable them to acquire skills to carry out some specific work and to facilitate professional placement. Usually, the length of the training varies between 720 and 1,800 hours, distributed between 26 and 30 hours per week; in addition, some modules are compatible with a work contract, and there is the possibility for practical training within some companies. At the different territorial levels and in collaboration with other public or no-profit organisations, the Labour Administration fosters the following free programmes (occupational workshops). These programmes are co-financed by the European Cohesion Fund. - Workshop Schools (Escuelas Taller) and Trade Schools (Casas de Oficios), for unemployed young adults between 16 and 25 years old. These programmes combine vocational training in a first period with professional practical training in a second one. Learners also receive training to make them aware of the basic knowledge necessary to find a job, such as the prevention of work risks or computer literacy. General training for those who do not have any basic official certificate is also offered. During the first stage of the programme, students receive a grant, and during the second one, a salary equivalent to 75% of the minimum inter-professional wage (salario mínimo interprofesional) based on the training contract that has been signed with the hosting

organisation. The length of these programmes varies from 1 to 2 years. - Employment Workshops (Talleres de Empleo), for unemployed people over 25 years old, especially for those individuals belonging to groups with greater difficulties in professional placement (long-term unemployed, those over 45 years old, women and individuals with disabilities) are also provided. No certificate is required, and the programmes that are carried out also combine theoretical with practical training, in addition to computer literacy. Students sign a training agreement and they receive a salary equivalent to 1.5 times the minimum inter-professional wage. Programme lengths vary between 6 months and 1 year and public works or services are carried out for the community.

Informal learning

The Instituto Paulo Freire de España is also important, because of its activity related to the non-formal learning, with a specific focus on adult education. It is a network of organisations and people involved in the promotion of adult learning but also engaged in the promotion of social inclusion and in combating racism and discrimination. It provides courses and seminars in order to promote the awareness of adult education issues in Spain and makes publications on these themes. Its main objectives consist of the promotion of lifelong learning, the promotion of activities both at an institutional and civic society level to increase the awareness about adult education, and also the creation of networks between associations and institutions at national and international levels.

Higher education

Spanish universities are gradually increasing their role in adult education. They provide different typologies of courses for adults and every single institute is free to provide courses specifically designed for adults or to continue to focus its attention on young people's education. They also provide Spanish language courses for non-native speakers. The regulatory framework of the Universities with regard to education and training allow for the development of specific training programmes for mature students who have not had the opportunity to carry out higher-level studies, and the universities offering these programmes are numerous. In the context of its self-government in educational matters, each University has a different framework for this type of course, aimed normally at persons over 40 and 50 years of age. Universities which already have a framework in place for this type of course are those of

Murcia, Alcalá de Henares, Granada, Barcelona, Seville, the Autonomous Community of Madrid, Alicante, the Balearics, Cádiz, Jaume I de Castellón, La Laguna, Oviedo, San Pablo-CEU, La Coruña, Extremadura, Miguel Hernández de Elche (Alicante), Tenerife, Pontificia de Salamanca, and Comillas. The majority of these universities are public, but there are private universities as well. As far as popular universities are concerned, it is first necessary to underline the role played by the Spanish Federation of Popular Universities (FEUP). The FEUP is currently made up of 210 Popular Universities and is the representative body of the UU.PP on a national and international level. The Spanish Federation of Popular Universities is the meeting point for the interchange of experiences, systematisation, reflection, theoretical production and collective communication between the UU.PP., the Association of Popular Universities and those comprising the technical and institutional representatives, along with the participants. The Spanish Federation of Popular Universities is a non-profit association based in Madrid. FEUP projects are subsidised by different public institutions, such as the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Social Ministry Work and the European Commission.

Examples of Good Practice

Municipal Institute for Promotion of Employment (IMPO) (www.impo.es)

IMPO is a municipal association, created in 1993 by the council of the city of Badalona, in order to promote local employment through programmes of orientation, training and integration. Its aim is to design, promote and manage the resources that could improve the employment of the local population. The main objective is to foster the working insertion of the un employed persons, mainly through: (1) advising and job orientation; (2) training of professional qualifications; and (3) supporting companies and more specifically entrepreneurs. IMPO collaborates with different administrations, like the department of work of the government of Catalonia, the delegation of Barcelona, the Social European Found and companies of Badalona. IMPO is an association for unemployed people. Specific target groups are: (1) young persons (below 24 years) with a lack of qualification; (2) women (below 45 years) with a lack of qualification; (3) Roma; (4) immigrants; (5) people with a mental disability; and (6) drug addicts. IMPO disposes of three centres where different actions of training and prootion of employment are developed. Moreover, it disposes of a “workshop-school” and a “house of jobs” and four halls equiped with ICT equipment. The content of the activities are related to current occupations (e.g. construction, gardening, domestic services,

computing, administrative management, cooking). IMPO use an active and participative methodology in the training of the students. Moreover, learning in real situation is a priority (or simulation).

Universidad Popular de Palencia

The Popular University of Palencia is a private non-profit organisation. It was created in 1985 by a group of local citizens, who were concerned about culture and adult educational development. The learning centre is part of the Spanish Popular University network formed by more than 250 Popular Universities from the whole of Spain. Popular Universities are active in the cultural development project of the town hall, whose main objective is to promote social participation, education, training and culture, in order to help individual and community development. The majority of the Popular Universities depends on the local administration and are foundations. The Popular University of Palencia is an exception because it is a private association with independent management. The Popular University target groups' are people below 25 years without qualification, people without training, Roma, unemployed prisoners, minorities, immigrants, drug addicts, people with a disability, long term unemployed etc. There is one building where most activities take place. The rest of the activities are developed in a lot of different places: town halls, institutes, schools, associations, classrooms, residences, penitentiary centres, etc. The centre provides courses in stable courses (parents education, woman's classroom, reading clubs, English, Spanish for foreigners etc.); history and traditional culture; community and health; training and professional integration and environment issues. Besides regular education, the centre organises a lot of different activities like day trips, exchanges and visits. The centre also promotes and organises exhibitions, literacy workshops, ethnographic and historical publishing, cinema, and thematic days.

Conclusion

To fully understand adult education and training in Spain it is necessary to establish a series of socio-economic, historical and even conceptual co-ordinates. This condition is not a whim, as no social phenomenon is defined or explained merely in terms of itself, but gains meaning when put in the context of the place it occupies in space and time. Education and training must obey this general law, and for this reason it is necessary to describe the sociological, historical or political background. Crucial to the system of education in Spain is that educational powers

have been decentralised and transferred to the governments of the different Autonomous Communities or Regions. Their duties include the development and the application of the respective regulations with regard to adult education. Therefore, Spanish general statutes on education are composed by framework laws, establishing general principles which each Autonomous Community has to develop, according to specific local needs. After this decentralisation many other statutes came into force to provide Communities the necessary tools to enact the provisions of the central government. Spain has a special framework for adult training, according to the educational legislation. However, other programmes are also significant, such as the Programmes of Initial Vocational Training (Programas de Cualificación Profesional Inicial), oriented towards young adults who have failed their compulsory education. This then aims to enable them to gain a basic professional degree, or other qualifications within programmes developed on the framework of Occupational and Ongoing Training (Formación Ocupacional y Continua) managed by the Labour Administration. A global view of adult education and training enables one to appreciate the complexity of this social phenomenon in which so many different traditions are involved, with these arising from regulated education, vocational training and popular or citizen education. People working in education and labour departments and social agents, as representatives of the citizens' interests, are those who manage the various adult education and training processes from different viewpoints and sensitivities, generating different adult training sub-systems. If to this we add the current process of the decentralisation of responsibilities in education and training occurring in Spain from the Central Government to the Regional Autonomies, we find a new factor, the territorial one, which both enriches yet makes the organisation and administration of education more complex. The will to translate all of these elements into a flexible and modern system which takes adult training and education out of its traditional disconnection forms part of the history of Spanish regulations and legislation in this respect. However, resistance to reality and inertia in doing anything are imposing on this will in such a way that we still see the presence of several insufficiently articulated sub-systems of adult training and education. The present time is a very interesting one as the agreements between authorities and social agents seem to be aimed finally at effectively setting up an integrated yet decentralised system which can offer adult education and training that is within reach, easy to capitalise on and creditable, in very different circumstances. But it is also a delicate moment in the sense that, in order to carry out this transformation process, one has to consider different territorial, social and political issues, as well as the various professional traditions which have been

playing the leading role in adult education and training processes. Issues such as the foreseeable emergence of various types of professional training in integrated centres, collaboration between companies and the education and training system, and the recognition of knowledge and skills acquired through different means, at different times and under varying circumstances, mark a horizon which enables us to think about a more efficient and modern system, aimed at the improvement of the personal and labour conditions of Spanish adults and set in the framework of continuing learning. However, taking into account the clarity of the direction and horizon, we are still at the questioning stage. The passing of the future *Vocational Training and Qualifications Bill* should start to answer them. Other questions arise in this situation, such as what the need may be for a closer bond between basic education and vocational training; the better use and reinforcement of the networks of adult education centres whose specificity and closeness may make them particularly effective in starting up courses which would be difficult for adults in other contexts to access; the improvement of the levels of education of Spain's adult population; *computer literacy* of a good part of this population, and basic educational attention in terms of teaching languages and customs to the growing number of immigrants. Also, investment in short-term training, which prepares for immediate labour profiles is predominant over long-term investment in education, albeit with fewer immediate productive effects, yet it does favour higher returns on investment in training and productivity in the long run. Short training processes often run themselves out or, in a short-lived labour profile which does not generate in adults any more desire or need to continue their training. Along with these effects it can be seen that those adults who train the most have the broadest basic training, whereas those who train least are those who have the least training. A greater amount of continuing training of a higher quality corresponds to a broader basic training. Also, acquisition of higher basic training levels makes the successive processes of continuing training cheaper and more profitable. In the framework of training profitability, there is an urge to recognise and validate prior experience and acquired skills, irrespective of where, how and when they were acquired. This, as well as saving energy and resources that are often used in teaching what one already knows, avoids a source of demotivation created by continuing training processes which do not recognise the previously acquired human capital of the adults who are participating in the training processes. Despite efforts being made to recognise prior experience, the value of the knowledge and labour skills still depends more on the prestige of the institutions and circumstances in which they were acquired, or on the professionals who taught them, than on the effort made by those who possess them and the real awareness of the

existence of these skills. Although mechanisms of recognition and validation are being set up, in this sense there is still great disproportion between the various and different functions of teachers. Teaching continues to be the priority (as the teacher's activity) rather than learning (as the student's activity) and, in this sense, greater disproportion is observed between the functions of teaching and those of recognising and validating. Concern about evaluating and validating what has already been acquired irrespective of the circumstances in which it occurred, may produce a substantial change in the methodology of training processes with adults. Spain is at a favourable time for this change as people are increasingly more aware of the social and productive value of this learning. Along these same lines, one observes the abandonment both by social agents and the authorities of the influx of popular tradition with the excuse that this type of learning does not lead to employment. However, upon making a difference between work as an unpaid activity that produces assets and services required by society, and employment as the activity that produces these assets and services but remunerated, one notes the opening occurring in the productive system in integrating the entire activity, either remunerating it and seeking new sources of employment in traditionally unpaid jobs (the so-called "on hand" professions) or not remunerating it but formally acknowledging its productivity and interest (self-service in petrol stations, restaurants, in banks by using cards, etc.). This integration of popular skills which supports this kind of work is in contrast to the lack of care in their promotion by the training systems. It would seem of interest to strengthen a kind of cultural skills which have traditionally been neglected by the training system as they are in the productive system, when circumstances are changing. If we also consider that these skills are directly profitable in strengthening coexistence and democracy, then their greater integration in a modern system of adult training and education would be of considerable social interest.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Portugal

Introduction

The underlying policy for adult education in Portugal can be summed up by Article 73 of the 1976 Portuguese Constitution, which establishes that everyone should have free access to education. This law encouraged the establishment of various forms of education (including formal and non-formal) and aimed to contribute in overcoming economic, social and cultural inequalities, including the personal and social development of citizens. It also aimed to promote a spirit of tolerance, mutual understanding, solidarity and responsibility. Over the last decades, Portugal has made a significant effort to increase the qualification level of the general adult population. However, the current reality is still far from the situation of many European Union and OECD countries as Portugal continues to have low qualification levels, particularly in the older generations and young people.

Historical Development

In 2002, a structural governmental reform replaced the National Agency for Adult Education and Training with the Direcção-Geral de Formação Vocacional (Directorate General for Vocational Education and Training) as a central department of the Ministry of Education to carry out integrated policies and systems addressed to both adults and young people. Between 2002 and 2006, the Directorate General for Vocational Education and Training, a central department of the Ministry of Education, was responsible for managing and coordinating non higher adult learning and education (ALE) at a national level, which was shared with the Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional (Institute for Employment and Vocational Training), a public institute of the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity. In 2005 the government began the New Opportunities Initiative as a national strategy within the scope of the National Employment Plan to co-ordinate the accomplishment of the education and vocational training policies addressed to Portuguese young people and adults, as well as to ensure the development and management of the System for recognising, validating and certifying competences. The Agência Nacional para a Qualificação (National Qualifications Agency) was created in 2006 as a public institute under the joint responsibility of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity. This was a result of restructuring the Directorate General for Vocational Education and Training and the end of the

Instituto para a Qualidade na Formacao (Institute for Quality in Training). Investing in the qualification of the Portuguese population has been a common aim for various public policies, this is namely since Portugal began to benefit from structural funds aimed at supporting the adjustment path to the development of average standards in the European Union. The creation of a system to improve the qualification levels of the adult population required the mobilisation, adaptation and reinforcement of the various opportunities available. Particular importance was given to the recognition, validation and certification of lifelong and life-wide competences, which are seen as the starting point for adult training, and occupational training for adults with low schooling levels. Since 2000, Portugal has developed the National System for Recognising, Validating and Certifying Competences (RVCC), carried out in the National Network of Centres for Recognising, Validating and Certifying Competences (replaced by New Opportunities Centres) hosted in public or private local bodies which are strongly established in their own communities. With regard to the vocational education and training, usually aimed towards adults with low qualification levels, the emphasis is placed not only on rapid expansion and dissemination but also on the creation of conditions to enable working adults to attend.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Adult education in Portugal can be defined as the set of learning processes, formal or otherwise, whereby adults develop their skills, expand their knowledge and enhance their technical or professional qualifications or reorient them in such a way as to satisfy their own needs and those of society.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The directions that ALE is progressing towards in Portugal at the moment are primarily focussed on strengthening the skills base in the population. There is a particular emphasis on secondary level schooling for adults, which is now seen as the minimum level of certification. There is also a drive towards the dual certification of EFA (Education and Training for Adults) courses, and modular training courses. The course the country will take in the coming years, however, clearly depends on the current economic situation faced by many countries within Europe, and therefore is very difficult to predict.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

At national level, the research studies in the field of adult learning are mainly thesis for a higher university degree on literacy and competences, recognising, validating and certifying competences and adult education and training. Several academic researches have been developed in the adult education and training field, at higher education degree and master levels. The following adult education opportunities are available in Portugal:

Recurrent Education Courses

Decree-law no. 139/2012 of 5 July, amended by Decree-law no. 91/2013 of 10 July and by

Decree-law no. 176/2014 of 12 December

Directive no. 242/2012 of 10 August

Certified Modular Training

Decree-law no. 139/2012 of 5 July, amended by Decree-law no. 91/2013 of 10 July and by

Decree-law no. 176/2014 of 12 December

Directive no. 230/2008 of 7 March, amended and republished by Directive no. 283/2011 of

24 October

Adult Education and Training Courses

Decree-law no. 139/2012 of 5 July, amended by Decree-law no. 91/2013 of 10 July and by

Decree-law no. 176/2014 of 12 December

Directive no. 230/2008 of 7 March, re-issued by Directive no. 283/2011 of 24 October

RVCC processes

Decree-law no. 396/2007 of 31 December

Directive no. 135-A/2013 of 28 March

Pathways for the completion of secondary education

Decree-law no. 357/2007 of 29 October, rectified by Rectifying Declaration no. 117/2007 of 28 December

Order no. 6260/2008, Diário da República (Official Gazette) no. 46, series II, 5 March 2008

Basic Skills Training Programme

Directive no. 1100/2010 of 22 October

Qualifications suited to people with disabilities

Decree-law no. 290/2009 of 12 October

Resolution of the Council of Ministers no. 97/2010 of 14 December 2010

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Widening and strengthening the New Opportunities Centres Network and the Adult Education and Training Courses have contributed to improve the response ability of the education and training system structures. In 2006 and 2007, the New Opportunities Initiative has included 352 563 adults, 150 542 of whom demanding an upper secondary level qualification. To mobilize learners, a wide information Campaign was carried out via media in 2007 and also in 2008 with the objective of promoting the social valuing of the investment in lifelong learning. As a result of this campaign, a Call Centre remains in action being operated by the National Qualifications Agency.

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Adult Education and Training Courses (EFA) are aimed at adults (over 18 years of age) without basic education and vocational qualification. Preceded by a process of recognition and validation of competences both non-formally and informally acquired, the Adult Education and Training Courses are flexible, modular and tailor-made pathways to obtain either dual certification (academic and professional) or only an academic one. They are based on the Key Competences Frame of Reference for Adult Education and Training for basic education in order to obtain a school certification (4, 6 or 9 years of schooling) and, since the beginning of

2007, on the Key Competences Frame of Reference for Adult Education and Training for upper secondary education to obtain a 12 years of schooling certificate. They are also based on Vocational Training Frameworks in order to obtain a professional certification (level I, II or III professional qualification).

Second chance education

Second Chance learning is defined as an aspect of adult education. It aims to provide schooling to individuals who are no longer at the age to attend basic education (up to 15 years of age) and secondary education (up to 18 years of age). There is a second chance learning opportunity for every non-higher schooling level. The second chance learning is organised in accordance with a studies plan, which is adjusted to the targeted age group level it is aimed at and it awards certificates and diplomas equivalent to those that are granted by regular basic and secondary education: certificate of vocational initiation, (level I) and certificates of vocational qualification (level II and III).

Retraining

Access to lifelong learning in Portugal for adults already in work is made feasible through the participation of stakeholders and social partners to develop organisation and cost sharing of training. This is based on them taking into account the role lifelong learning has in the development of employment rates and competitiveness of the Portuguese labour market. Within the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity, the Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional (Institute for Employment and Vocational Training) is a major public vocational training promoter and the Direcção-Geral do Emprego e das Relações de Trabalho (Directorate General for Employment and Industrial Relations) is responsible for the accreditation and audit of the private vocational education and training providers.

Vocational programmes

The governmental strategy to improve ALE is based on two pillars: raising the academic training of the workforce, and making vocational education a real option for people. Education and training of adults is developed in specific ways including: A Lifelong Recognition System; Validation and Certification of Competencies (RVCC), through formal, informal and non-formal learning, allowing students to obtain dual academic and professional certifications;

Education and Training (EFC) for students from 15 years; Courses of Education and Training for Adults (EFA), and · Modular Training for students over 18 years.

Informal learning

No programme on vulnerable or excluded parts of the population is documented at this level.

Higher education

Portuguese universities are gradually increasing their role in adult education. They provide different typologies of courses for adults and every institution is free to provide courses specifically designed for adults or continue to focus its attention on young people. Universidade Aberta has been promoting actions related to higher and continuous training. It has also contributed to the active dissemination of the Portuguese language and culture, especially in Portuguese speaking countries and communities. The university teaching model rests on e-learning and on the intensive use of different online communication tools. Because online learning requires specific skills on the part of the student, all degree programmes include a preparation program.

Examples of Good Practice

ANOP

An important role concerning the development of adult education is also played by associations and non-governmental organisations. In particular ANOP, the Associação Nacional de Oficinas de Projectos - Desenvolvimento e Educação, which is a private non-profit association that was created in 1999 by a group of organisations concerned with local development, vocational training and job creation. It is made up of professionals with experience mainly in the areas of adult education and training. Its headquarters are in Santa Maria da Feira, in the Northern region of Portugal. ANOP aims to promote local initiatives, while providing opportunities for lifelong learning, qualification and training activities and encouraging innovation in the fields of inter-institutional partnerships. It works to promote social cohesion, active citizenship and solidarity, and devise new ways to fight poverty.

ENTRE-SERRAS

Another example of Portuguese Associations involved in the promotion of adult learning is ENTRE-SERRAS (Associação de Desenvolvimento do Concelho de Pampilhosa da Serra). As a non-profit association it seeks to promote the development of the Pampilhosa da Serra's region. This target is pursued through a holistic approach which involves work in various fields. The efforts to foster a culture of partnership in Education lead to a close co-operation between ENTRESERRAS and the local public authority for Basic Adult Education - Extensão Educativa de Pampilhosa da Serra. Since its inception, ENTRE-SERRAS launched a series of initiatives that aims to promote the development of Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning; special attention is given to nonformal and informal education.

Conclusion

From 2011 a new context, dominated by the financial crisis and the implementation of an austerity program under the auspices of the so-called troika, and also with new players within the political power and another type of political-pedagogic discourse (liberal and conservative), created a situation of great uncertainty and ambiguity in the field of adult education leading, in practice to the suspension of the previously described processes, particularly with regard to the New Opportunities initiative, now considered by the new power to be too expensive and lacking in rigour. Portugal is facing major discontinuities that traditionally characterized the policies of adult education, marked by constant advances and setbacks. At the same time, we can notice the heavy reliance that these same policies have been having regarding the political context in the strict sense, leading to the abandonment of certain projects as soon as there is a change of government, as well as the prevailing guidelines and trends, at one time or another, in the international arena which established a certain vocabulary and set certain fashions that are soon followed by the Portuguese field of adult education. Lifelong Education and Training is one of the most insistent rhetoric of the last few years. The transition from the rhetorical plan to educational reality plan is a permanent challenge that adult education is facing. Even the most innovative perspectives, among those that have arisen in the field, of which are an example the RVCC's system and the New Opportunities' programme, need to be questioned and problematized.

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Concluding Remarks

Overall, the analysis reveals that the wider perspective on lifelong and adult learning has indeed reached national policy making agendas. Common patterns emerge, such as approaches towards step up learning opportunities for individuals, to provide basic educational attainment to those who do not have it, to bring about a holistic approach focusing on potential learners and to recognize informal and non-formal learning process. However, it is a gradual process and policies responses (strategies, measures and legislation) vary among countries, according to economic and social contexts, the historical development of education systems, and political structures and systems in place. In some countries there is a wide public acceptance of lifelong and adult learning, covering not only work-related training but also personal development and active citizenship, served by developed public and/or civil society systems (like Italy and Greece). Other countries are more focused on employability or social inclusion approach (like e.g. Spain and Portugal). There are also countries which are tied into a modernization of society and economy and embraced the idea of lifelong learning more recently (like most of the newer Member States like Malta and Cyprus). However, it is a difficult exercise to classify individual countries on their progress in the development of their adult education system and lifelong learning culture and structures and to examine how far these are supportive for the development of local learning centres and learning partnerships. Most of the developments were initiated through the preparation for the European Employment Policy and for the European Social Funds (ESF). Although, the situation varies widely in different countries. The most ambitious and significant initiatives are active in the countries that were already the most advanced in terms of VET reforms such as Italy and Spain, but also in the countries that invest more in education, such Cyprus and Malta. Moreover, the situation in these countries still reflect the persistent imbalance between the formal and non-formal / informal components of the lifelong learning systems. The formal education system continues to receive priority with adult education as an important part of it, while little attention is paid to ways of acquiring job skills and informal forms of learning. In spite of this, several countries are preparing, or have planned preparation, of implementing these lifelong learning principles in different components of the education and training systems through new legislation or, most often, by appropriate amendments to existing legislation (as in Greece and Portugal). In most countries there is an imbalance between the provisions of (local) learning centres available in urban versus rural

areas. As a result of this, the efforts to enhance competition and partnership among providers generally have worked only in urban areas, where there are multiple providers, and not in rural areas where provision of adult education providers is scarce. There are several initiatives to overcome this balance, like, for example, the development of distance learning methods and learning partnerships between learning providers in rural adult education centres. In general, new target groups reached include people with lower levels of initial training, the unemployed, immigrants, and illiterate people. More specific sub groups, for whom specific activities or courses are organised, are among others, young adults that drop out of education, elderly people and women. In order to reach the target groups it appears to be important to approach key persons as first attendees. Furthermore, it is helpful to make target groups coincide with existing societal groups so that there is already some kind of cohesion and communication. A systematic approach of marketing and public relations helps to make the centre or partnership operate successfully. In addition to the accessibility issues already covered, we add here the issue of costs. Low costs for the learners enhance accessibility; a certain level of costs, however, make the commitment increase. Individuals that do have some experience as learners sometimes feel that courses, or activities for free cannot be taken serious.

Similarities

The main similarity lies on the types of adult education providers for vulnerable young adults (unemployed, drop-outs, NEETs, Roma, refugees and migrants, young offenders, drug addicts, etc.). Depending on the nature of the programmes and the educational activities they provide and the target groups to which they are addressed there are four (4) different categories of organisations active in this area in all six countries under study:

1. Public (state funded or subsidised) providers that offer basic and second chance education programmes (formal and non-formal) to young vulnerable adults.
2. Providers that consist public (state funded or subsidised), private companies, and providers that consist collective organisations and offer initial and/or continuing education and training opportunities to young long term unemployed, young low skilled and young unskilled (particularly Roma and migrants or refugees).
3. Public organisations that are established as VET structures or VET colleges and provide ad hoc initial and/or continuing education and training opportunities to vulnerable young adults.

4. Private organisations and NGOs that provide ad hoc basic education and (subsidized) training to young refugees and migrants as well as to long term young unemployed and young shelter seekers/homeless young adults.

Also, there are similarities on issues of matching policies with practice at various levels of adult education provision particularly to young adults. These include:

- Creation of a reliable system for research on the educational needs of young and vulnerable adults on the national and regional/local levels.
- Co-ordination and linking of the relevant policies with direct reference to the needs of the target group.
- Strengthening initial professional training in vital sectors of their economy like tourism, shipping, manufacturing, construction, textile production and fashion, fishing and agricultural production. This essentially requires the development of tailored policies orientated towards human resource management.
- Creation of a system for validating skills of young adults that have been acquired in non-formal and informal learning environments. The validation of skills is of importance for all bodies that either provide adult education and training or manage actions to help increase the skills of human resources. The certification of professional skills needs to be open to all levels and for all individuals who want to certify their skills in a specific profession or job irrespectively of the way the skills have been acquired and the learning pathway/s followed.
- Emphasis on education for all young adults in basic skills (literacy – numeracy – information technology) with fine-tuning of relevant European tools like Europass, EQF and EQAVET. This needs to be particularly emphasized considering the PIAAC results for which show below OECD average performances.
- Emphasis on ICT and new basic skills for each professional specialisation, broad enough so that the young adult learners will be able to self-train and self-educate themselves in a way that is relevant to the development of their professional terrains.

- Emphasising transversal skills (citizenship and the necessary social skills) that are needed in the modern environments of mobility and intercultural understanding.

Besides the above general appreciation the countries under study also face similar challenges that refer to the following issues:

- Improving the **correlation between education & training and the labour market** is a major challenge. Despite the efforts and some relevant actions at policy level the goal to increase the employment rate of those aged 20-35 cannot be realized without rebooting the economy within a strategic framework that builds a permanent link between adult education and training with the labour market.
- With regard to the **enhancement of skills and competences of the young adult population** there is still much work to be done particularly in terms of raising participation in adult education and VET, but also in terms of reforming relevant programmes and structures as well as improving the quality and attractiveness of VET, through the establishment of national approaches for the quality assurance in VET (according to the European Framework for Quality Assurance in VET) and the application of transparency instruments, such as the European Credit System for VET (ECVET).
- Moreover, all Southern European countries have to resolve **inequalities in access to adult education** which are reflected in extremely low participation rates in some of them, the minimum participation of young workers, young artisans and the young low skilled in comparison to those with the highly skilled, the greater participation of residents of urban areas over suburban and rural areas, and in the greater involvement of young people with high level of education compared to those with lower level of education. In addition the intensification of the refugee crisis in 2015 has disproportionately affected most of these countries. This unanticipated increase in refugee and migration inflows in 2015 compared to 2014, and the estimated continuation or even escalation of inflows within the current year in response to the continuing geopolitical tensions in the Middle East, undoubtedly entail an additional challenge in terms of educational opportunities for this particular group.

- PIAAC data also shows that a demand for **raising literacy levels** must be a priority in all Southern European countries. The low levels of educational attainment and qualification amongst young adults in particular reveal a deficit in building a sustainable lifelong learning approach despite the measures foreseen in the relevant laws.

Differences

The major differences lie on the way the countries under study approach certain issues in adult education for young vulnerable adults in general. They seem to set different priorities based on their current educational policy agenda but also in terms of fine tuning between existing structures in countries that have a more decentralized approach (like Spain or Italy for example) to those with a more centralized approach, funding and governance as well as on modes of access to and flexibility of the existing adult education systems.

The main priority in terms of **governance** is to provide the necessary incentives that will eventually create a space for communication and coordination between existing organizations as it seems that in many ways they share responsibilities despite the shift in focus. This is also linked with the need for a more focused and targeted *social dialogue* between relevant stakeholders and social partners in countries like Greece, Portugal and Cyprus particularly in the field of VET since cohesion between relevant policies that derive from the lifelong learning strategy and policies that are more relevant to employment and skill development is not yet evident.

At the level of **flexibility and access** one key priority relates to the low percentage of adults participating in education in countries like Greece, Portugal and Cyprus. *Raising participation rates* therefore is a major policy concern. Greece in particular has one of the lowest participation rates in lifelong learning (3,3% in 2015 based on data from Eurostat) and this essentially calls for policy incentives that will both motivate and allow adults of all ages and backgrounds to participate, but at the same time requires outreach and guidance policies at various levels that do not exist in all countries under study, that will target social groups that are more vulnerable and have limited or no access to lifelong learning provision. This is more evident for adults from cultural, religious or ethnic minorities (Roma, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers) who lack basic reading and writing skills as well as for those who have limited

numeracy and ICT skills. Particularly for refugees from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq who arrive in Greece and Italy either to apply for asylum or transit in order to arrive in countries like Germany, Sweden or Finland, placing *procedures that identify the level of their skills* in the entrance countries –as the first countries of their destination– is considered a major policy priority that is not equally addressed in all countries under study.

The next chapter will consider the developments of Adult Education in Turkey, which was included in this country group on account of both geographical proximity and a number of common challenges.

Turkey

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Adult Education/LLL – Conceptual Issues- Country/Region Specific Context:

The education system in Turkey consists of formal and non-formal education according to the Basic Law of National Education. Both types of education are supervised by the Ministry of National Education. While Funding is mainly provided by the state for non-formal education, national and international funds have also been introduced in the past decades. Non-formal education includes all regulations and activities done for meeting the continuing education needs of all individuals regardless of their age. Education provided in non-formal education institutions in Turkey is often referred to as Lifelong Learning.

Lifelong Learning (LLL), which includes adult education, is defined in national education policy documents as “any kind of learning activity the individuals are involved in during their lifespans with the aim of improving their knowledge, skills, interests and competencies with a personal, societal and employment-related approach.” In the 2009-2013 LLL Strategy Document, children, the elderly, the handicapped, internal migrants, the unemployed, low-income individuals, low-skilled labourers, and those reside in places far from learning centres are listed among disadvantaged groups and mentioned as the primary focus of LLL. The 2014-2018 Strategy Document referring to the EU standards defines eight basic qualifications for active citizenship, employability and personal development:

13. 1. Native language, 2. Foreign language, 3. Mathematical qualification, 4. Physical qualification, 5. Social qualification, 6. Entrepreneurship, 7. Cultural awareness, and 8. Learning to learn

Historical Development of Adult Education and LLL

Adult education in Turkey has a long history dating back to the establishment of the Republic in 1923. Instances of the earliest initiatives were Public Classrooms (1927), Nation Schools (1928), Evening Art and Trade Schools (1928), and Community Centres (1932), which were state education institutions around the country, where day or night classes were offered free of charge as the nation struggled to overcome the post war syndromes and adapt to the new state structure and the new alphabet introduced. Following this tradition up until the present day, the state continues to provide opportunities for those in need of education in various areas (i.e. literacy, vocational, crafts) through a number of institutions among the most prominent ones of which are Public Education Centres, Vocational Education Centres, Evening Schools, Maturity Institutes, open secondary and high schools, and regular courses provided by municipalities (i.e. Busmek, İsmek, Belmek). Alongside the public institutions, private sector and NGOs also have a considerable share particularly in the education concerning women empowerment and vocational training, as well as some focus on crafts and hobbies.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults – Overview of Current Situation

As mentioned above, the official strategy documents on the issue define children, the elderly, the handicapped, internal migrants, the unemployed, low-income individuals, low-skilled labourers, and those reside in places far from learning centres as the disadvantaged groups for education. The past few years, significantly, added the international migrants specifically including the Syrians¹¹⁹ to this list. Although in the framework of this research due attention will be paid to each vulnerable group, the main interest will be on the Syrians with a gender perspective since their quick inflow into Turkey, their wide geographical dispersion across the country, their demographic characteristics, the language problem as well as their lack of social, cultural and human capital make them extremely vulnerable in a context where the civil war continues across the borders and radical terrorist organizations compete to recruit young adults.

¹¹⁹ A vast majority of the Syrians in Turkey have been forced to move from their homes by the bloody civil war and entered Turkey in search of asylum. As such they are asylum-seekers. However, due to Turkey's geographical limitation on the Geneva Convention, they haven't been able to officially apply for asylum in Turkey, and hence, were not given the refugee status. For analytical and descriptive purposes they are still often referred to as refugees.

Refugees/Immigrants in Turkey and their access to (adult) education:

There are around 2.8 million registered Syrians under temporary protection as of November 2016 (see Table 1). A large majority of this population (around 2 million) are under the age of 30, while the number of young adults in the age group of 15 to 30 is slightly less than a million (see Table 1). With the addition of other migrant groups in Turkey including Iraqis, Afghanis and Africans most of whom remain unregistered having arrived in the country either as asylum-seekers or transit migrants trying to get to Europe, the number of immigrants who share the above described vulnerability is estimated to be over 4 million.

Table 1. Registered Syrians under Temporary Protection in Turkey

THE DISTRIBUTION OF AGE AND GENDER OF REGISTERED SYRIANS UNDER TEMPORARY PROTECTION AS OF 24.11.2016

AGE	MAN	WOMAN	TOTAL
TOTAL	1.480.125	1.298.753	2.778.878
0-4	202.530	188.740	391.270
5-9	200.962	189.780	390.742
10-14	152.639	139.299	291.938
15-18	133.094	111.800	244.894
19-24	221.710	175.358	397.068
25-29	148.587	115.433	264.020
30-34	120.965	96.593	217.558
35-39	86.631	73.815	160.446
40-44	59.570	56.223	115.793
45-49	48.165	44.292	92.457
50-54	37.530	36.230	73.760
55-59	25.327	25.399	50.726
60-64	17.620	18.056	35.676
65-69	11.352	11.714	23.066
70-74	6.160	7.125	13.285
75-79	3.781	4.524	8.305
80-84	1.984	2.536	4.520
85-89	1.077	1.251	2.328
90+	441	585	1.026

Source: Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM) Statistics,

http://www.goc.gov.tr/icerik3/temporary-protection_915_1024_4748

First Syrians arrived in Turkey in 2011 with the outbreak of the on-going civil war. As newly arrived migrants, a huge majority of the Syrian population in Turkey suffer from the language barrier. In addition, most Syrian refugees had traumatic experiences back in Syria and even after their arrival due to the nature of their forced migration. This definitely includes interruption in education and having to leave many qualifications back home.

Providing education to Syrians and similar migrant groups in the country has been a major challenge for Turkey. This has been significantly related to the fact that Turkey hasn't experienced a mass immigration flow of a comparable magnitude before. As such, the country was caught not entirely prepared, in terms of structure, legislation or mind-set, to respond to the many challenges this migration created, including in the area of education.

The first piece of legislation regulating matters of immigration and international protection in Turkey, the Law on Foreigners and International Protection¹²⁰, was passed in 2013 replacing a much thinner law, the Law on Settlement, with some relevant references from 1934. This law included rather vague provisions about education of legal aliens in the country, assigning the authority to make necessary arrangements to the MoNE (Articles 34 and 59).

Since the Syrians cannot legally apply for asylum in Turkey or be recognized as refugees due to Turkey's 'geographical limitation' on Geneva Convention, meaning that it only accepts asylum-seekers from Europe; they had lacked a legal status for a long time in Turkey also making them unable to benefit from formal education services. To put an end to this, a Temporary Protection Regulation¹²¹ was adopted in 2014, which recognized all registered Syrians as "people under temporary protection". This Temporary Protection Regulation has a whole main part on "services to be provided to persons benefiting from temporary protection", health services, education services, access to labour market services, social assistance and services, interpretation services. Article 28 refers to education services. "Education activities for foreigners under this Regulation shall be conducted inside and outside temporary accommodation centres under the control and responsibility of the Ministry of National Education [...] In that regard: language education, vocational courses, skills trainings and hobby courses addressing all age groups may be organized depending on the demand.

¹²⁰ http://www.goc.gov.tr/icerik6/11-dilde-yukk_327_328_1174_icerik

¹²¹ http://www.goc.gov.tr/files/_dokuman28.pdf

Even after the legal barriers have been removed, Syrians’ access to education in Turkey suffers from serious limitations. The aforementioned language barrier is definitely one of them. Indeed, one of the most popularly attended adult education courses for Syrians have been Turkish language courses (see Table 2). Other problems include cultural differences (much higher drop-out rates in secondary education amongst Syrians partly because in Syrian national education system secondary education is not compulsory as well as because girls are married off at a younger age, boys are required to enter into paid labour due to socio-economic problems, and so on); lack of awareness about the available opportunities and motivation to establish a permanent life in Turkey; financial difficulties and so on.

Table 2: The Number of Syrians Attending Various Adult Education Courses

YEAR	VOCATIONAL TRAINING	GENERAL EDUCATION	TURKISH LANGUAGE		TOTAL
			WOMEN	MEN	
2015	61.344	74.931	40.904	28.639	205.818
2016	15.545	85.689	35.985	26.201	163.420
Total	76.889	160.620	76.889	54.840	369.238

Source: Ministry of National Education, Directorate General of Lifelong Learning, Department of Migration and Emergencies Education, November 2016

In terms of adult education, the law on foreigners has measures under the articles regulating harmonization of immigrants. Article 96 states: The Directorate General may, to the extent that Turkey’s economic and financial capacity deems possible, plan for harmonization activities in order to facilitate mutual harmonization between foreigners, applicants and international protection beneficiaries and the society as well as to equip them with the knowledge and skills to be independently active in all areas of social life. Article 96 goes on to state that “Foreigners may attend courses where the basics of political structure, language, legal system, culture and history of Turkey as well as their rights and obligations are explained. The Directorate General shall promote the courses related to access to public and private goods and services, access to education and economic activities, social and cultural communications, and access to primary

healthcare services and, awareness and information activities through distant learning and similar means in cooperation with public institutions and agencies and non-governmental organisations.” A protocol paper was signed between LLL DG of MoNE and Migration Management DG of Ministry of Interior. The aim is to facilitate the social and vocational integration of the foreigners by preparing different courses (see Table 2 for the statistics related to adult education courses attended by the Syrians so far).

Gender in adult education

In Turkey gender equality in education is guaranteed by the constitution and related legislation. Basic Law of National Education states that “education institutions are open to everybody regardless of language, race, gender and religion. No privilege shall be granted to any individual, family, group or class” (Article 4). Equal opportunity in education is provided for men and women (Article 8). Nevertheless, the “gender gap” in literacy is quite wide according to many sources including World Economic Forum Reports. Access of women to adult education is relatively high compared to formal education, however the content and the quality of education are questionable, which does not help much with empowerment of women in active citizenship.

Table 3. Non-formal Education 2012-13

Institution	Total	Male	Female	Gender Ratio
Maturity Institutes	4.339	140	4.199	%96,7
Public Education Centres	4.534.851	1.785.970	2.748. 881	%60,61
Vocational Education Centres	246.068	199.940	46.128	%18,74
Private Institutes	1.220.435	612.343	608.092	
Special Education	6.904	4.226	2.678	
Religion Courses	908.589	43.010	865.579	%95,26

Source: Turkish Statistical Institute- Gender Statistics, p. 71

A glance at the statistics reveals that 328.731 courses were offered in 2015 merely via Public Education Centres.

Table 4. Distribution of non-formal courses

Type of course	Number of courses opened	Course Attendees - Total	Course Attendees - Male	Course Attendees- Female	Attendees received certificate- Male	Attendees received certificate- Female	Attendees received certificate- Total
Vocational and Technical	140.772	3.154.420	1.434.732	1.719.181	1.092.895	841.722	1.934.617
General	167.993	3.577.580	1.656.534	1.916.088	883.532	934.127	1.817.659
Literacy	19.966	169.483	60.129	108.695	30.810	50.607	81.417

Source: Ministry of Education, 2015

Existing Research in the Field

The existing research literature in the field of adult education in Turkey in general, and adult education with respect to vulnerable societal groups in particular, is severely limited. The academic interest in the use of adult education in the framework of macro education policies for encouraging active participatory citizenship has been very low. There are a number of studies either descriptively investigating the adult education landscape in Turkey or engaging it in a comparative perspective with other countries. For a general description and analysis of the overall education system in Turkey, including the place of adult education in it, one of the most comprehensive sources is a report published by the EURYDICE Network of the European

Commission. This 353-page report covers all levels and aspects of the education system in Turkey and devotes significant space to adult education practices¹²².

For a more detailed analysis and evaluation of the adult education system in the country in particular, the MoNE has published several reports. While some of these reports engage with the existing practices and their historical development¹²³, others discuss the strategic vision of the ministry with respect to adult education¹²⁴. Apart from these reports which are obviously not neutral academic works, there is a rather comprehensive study conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute¹²⁵. Conducted on over 35 thousands individuals in over 17 thousand households, this study explored a range of variables including participation, attitudes and demographic characteristics in relation to adult education courses in Turkey. While this study provides a rich source of information concerning why people prefer certain types of courses, what they expect to gain and what they think they gained from these courses as well as how these courses are perceived by people who never participates in them; more in-depth information requires a qualitative methodology which is lacking in the Turkish context.

As suggested, research on the adult education practices of vulnerable groups in general is largely missing. This is certainly also the case with respect to Syrian refugees in Turkey. While there are many reports produced by researchers as well as NGOs on the situation, experiences, and problems of Syrians in Turkey including those in the area of education; there isn't any specific research on Syrians' participation in adult education. The MoNE provides some statistical data on the attendance of Syrians in various types of adult education courses over the years, which were shared above, but no analysis on the experiences or qualitative studies on the dynamics exists to this date.

¹²² EURYDICE 2009, Organisation of the Education System in Turkey 2009/2010
[http://www.etf.europa.eu/webatt.nsf/0/60E61005D5CC5AD1C1257AA30025212F/\\$file/Organization%20of%20the%20education%20system%20in%20Turkey%202009.2010.pdf](http://www.etf.europa.eu/webatt.nsf/0/60E61005D5CC5AD1C1257AA30025212F/$file/Organization%20of%20the%20education%20system%20in%20Turkey%202009.2010.pdf)

¹²³ See, for instance, "Evaluation of the Turkish Adult Education System" prepared by Deniz Yayla
http://www.meb.gov.tr/earged/earged/Yetiskin_Egitimi.pdf

¹²⁴ See, for instance, "The Strategic Document for Lifelong Learning"
<http://mesbil.meb.gov.tr/genel/hayat%20boyu%20%C3%B6%C4%9Frenme%20dokuman.pdf> and the more recent "Turkey Lifelong Learning Strategy Document and Action Plan, 2014-2018"
<http://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2014/07/20140716-8-1.pdf>

¹²⁵ Turkish Statistical Institute, 2012, "Adult Education Survey"
http://www.tuik.gov.tr/Kitap.do?metod=KitapDetay&KT_ID=5&KITAP_ID=218

Policy Documents at National Level

Basic Law of National Education, no 1739, in force since 1973, law regulates the general structure, content, and objectives of education, including non-formal education, in addition collaboration and coordination among institutions.

Law of Vocational Education, no 3308: In force since 1986, this is the basic law including all levels and types (formal, non-formal, apprenticeship) of vocational education in public and private institutions¹²⁶.

Law concerning the Illiterate Citizens Left outside the Compulsory Primary Education numbered 2841: Issued in 1983, organises the issues about assisting illiterate citizen to become literate and obtain primary school diplomas¹²⁷.

Law on Vocational Competencies Institution, no 5544: Issued in 2006, aimed at establishing as well as deciding principles and procedures of the Vocational Competency Body. It also regulates issues concerning the national competency framework.

The statutory decree on the Structure and Duties of the Ministry of National Education numbered 652: In force since 2011, this statutory decree defines the departments in charge of non-formal education and their duties. It also led to the establishment of Directorate-General for Lifelong Learning, the major governing body for non-formal education, within the Turkish Ministry of Education¹²⁸.

The 10th National Five Year Development Plan (2014-2018) draws a frame for expected developments in lifelong education in Turkey until 2018. There is some focus on educational technologies, a harmony between education system and the labour market, and a desirable cultural atmosphere with the assistance of NGOs.

In accordance with the plan, the objectives related to lifelong learning in the Strategic Plan of Ministry of National Education (2015-2019) include enhancing the work and life quality of individuals by improving their personal knowledge and vocational competencies via non-formal education (objective 10), facilitating the access to e-learning environment of those who

¹²⁶ See for details: <http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/3.html>

¹²⁷ See for details: <http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/87.html>

¹²⁸ See for details: <http://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2011/09/20110914-1.htm>

are out of the education period and who want to complete their education, pursue personal development or obtain new vocational competencies via distance learning (objective 11), and extending the use of knowledge economy competencies for providing economic added-value to all levels of education (objective 12).

2014-2018 Lifelong Learning Strategy Document cited above has similar priorities with the abovementioned objectives and the education agenda of the European Council.

18.05. 2016- A specific unit Migration and Emergency Education Department was established under Lifelong Learning Directory General of MoNE.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

In the absence of literature on specific adult education programmes towards vulnerable populations, such programmes need to be identified through contacts with relevant institutions and individuals or going to the field directly.

Therefore, in the writing of this section information gathered through the 1st National Workshop in the framework of EduMAP, which was held on December 1st at ASBU campus in Ankara, was used extensively. There were more than 20 participants at this meeting representing relevant public, NGO and INGO bodies as well as prominent academicians working on the issue in Turkey. Significantly the chief advisor to the prime minister on migration matters and representatives from the Ministry of National Education were also present. A more detailed report of this workshop is being prepared and will be made available to partners shortly.

Open High-school and Open Technical High-Schools:

The Open High-school (in full the Open Education High-school or Açıköğretim Lisesi), with its technical counterpart, is an education programme designed to reach out to those individuals who may be, for some reason or another, unable to continue their compulsory secondary education. It is a central system, i.e. a single Open High-school, with over a 1.8 million students dispersed across Turkey. It was established in 1992 and since 2011 it is placed under the DG of LLL in MoNE. Although it uses the same curriculum with regular formal high-schools, it relies on long-distance teaching techniques and mediums with no face-to-face teaching. Very

importantly, the Open High-school diploma is equivalent to any formal public or private high-school diploma. Therefore, this system is designed to give the chance of resuming education to people who are either unable to attend a regular high-school or who had dropped out of education before to get a secondary education degree.

It can be argued that this system would prove particularly appealing for vulnerable groups, e.g. those living in rural settings, school drop-outs, physically-disabled, etc.; although in the absence of detailed and reliable data about the profile of the students it is difficult to substantiate such a claim. However, from an analytical point of view, it is obvious that it can function to bridge the gap in many cases through long-distance education instruments, such as the broadcasting of Open Education TV and Radio, releasing videos on the internet, distributing centrally produced education material either through mailing or from the distribution offices which are set up in every single province of the country. These instruments bring about a considerable degree of flexibility for the students as well as alleviating significant financial burden for many. It should also be added that there are certain measures specifically targeting adult students. For instance, although the system is designed to last for 4 years (8 academic terms), for adult students of 18 years of age or more, it is possible to finish the programme in 2,5 years.

As it will be mentioned below while discussing specific challenges, the Open High-school system also creates some significant risks. One such risk is that families who do not want their children to go to high-school could exploit this system by simply registering their children via internet and not allowing them to receive any education (those who fail to register for two consecutive terms are erased from the system). Also, while the system could prove very beneficial for many vulnerable children, it can potentially harm some young individuals by leaving them out of any adult supervision.

Examples of Good Practice

Since most institutions understandably have a tendency to exaggerate or overestimate the importance, benefits as well as the success of their various activities and projects, an assessment of the effectiveness and benefits of practices requires primary data collection rather than relying on their websites or activity reports. Therefore, the examples of good practices

presented here should be considered as potential programmes/projects to further look into during the fieldwork stages of WP3.

Examples of good practice by public institutions

Supporting the Syrians under Temporary Protection in Turkey through Education Project

Target Groups: 2.8 million Syrian refugees across the country (with immense implications for other immigrant and refugee populations)

Execution: Ministry of National Education (DG of Lifelong Learning-> Department of Migration and Emergencies Education)

Ministry of Interior (DG of Migration Management)

Other public and NGO stakeholders

Objectives: (i) harmonisation and social inclusion of Syrians whose presence in the country is increasingly being accepted to become long-term; (ii) preventing marginalisation of war-affected Syrian youth and emergence of 'lost generations'; (iii) development of human capital and effective inclusion of Syrian skills and human resources into Turkish economy.

As already mentioned above, the rapid influx of millions of Syrians into an unprepared Turkey has posed many critical challenges. In the search for a comprehensive and long-term system, the Turkish context has witnessed a large number of spontaneous projects, programmes, and practices that could be very interesting in the scope of this project. The recently established Department of Migration and Emergencies Education was created in April 2016 to effectively coordinate these many programmes as well as the institutions conducting them. Examples include the arrangement with which the UNHCR and UNICEF provide financial assistance for Syrian voluntary teachers paying whom wouldn't be possible under Turkish law; coordinating the actions of Presidency of Turks Abroad, the UNHCR and the Turkish Higher Education Council to create scholarship opportunities as well as Arabic-medium degree programmes for Syrians; and the immense mobilisation across the nation for increasing Syrians' access to education, particularly including adult education programmes of language, vocational, and general courses.

The Operation to Support Social Inclusion in Neighbourhoods with Predominantly Roma Residents

Target Groups: Roma people, other immigrants in the neighbourhood

Execution: Ministry of National Education (DG of Lifelong Learning + DG of Basic Education)

Ministry of Family and Social Policies (DG of Family and Society Services + DG of Social Support)

Ministry of Health

Objectives: Assess the current situation and needs of Roma people and other immigrants in terms of social inclusion in certain neighbourhoods. Develop and implement policies and programmes, particularly including adult education programmes, for these vulnerable people.

This is a 36-month-long project funded by the EU (over 11 million Euros). It is almost completed therefore a closer inspection of the results and possible next steps in the framework of EduMAP would be useful. What makes this a potential example of good practice is threefold: (i) the fact that it defines social inclusion of a vulnerable group as a primary target; (ii) the multifaceted approach to social inclusion placing cooperation amongst different ministries as a vital requirement; and most significantly for the purposes of our research, (iii) the fact that it identifies adult education as the most effective tool for social inclusion.

Make the Schools Live Project

Target Groups: Local populations across country, especially uneducated and poor segments

Execution: Ministry of National Education (DG of Lifelong Learning)

Ministry Forest and Water Management

Turkey Union of Municipalities

Objectives: (i) Make the schools available for the students' parents as well as the residents of the neighbourhood; (ii) transform the schools into centres of lifelong learning as well as social living spaces for students and adults; (iii) give municipalities and local governments the chance

to use the schools for organising vocational and skill-building education courses; and (iv) planting trees in school yards.

This 5-year-long, nation-wide project has been brought to completion in December 2016. Its objective of making school buildings open to public, particularly in cooperation with local governments to turn them into dynamic spaces of continuous adult education centres certainly make it very interesting. This idea of making schools continuous spaces of learning for individuals of all ages and social classes of a given neighbourhood could be a good way to reach out to vulnerable communities and individuals. Also, in terms of reaching out to and empowering vulnerable groups and individuals, the role of local governments is extremely vital.

Examples of good practice by local, national and international NGOs and other institutions

Turkish Red Crescent Community Centres

Target Groups: Syrian and other refugees

Execution: Turkish Red Crescent

Objectives: (i) Carry out a children programme (child-friendly zone; youth-friendly zone; language and skill courses; sport activities; artistic activities; cultural activities); (ii) carry out an adult programme (language courses; livelihood skills development courses; vocational courses; social and cultural activities); (iii) organize on-demand seminars and courses for youth and adults; (iv) guidance services and case tracking; (v) carry out activities to foster social mixing with local populations (social and cultural activities; seminars on social mixing and awareness; joint participation to courses by Syrians and local population).

The Turkish Red Crescent (Türk Kızılayı), which dates back to 1868, besides contributing to the development of social welfare has been providing, presenting and offering various and important services for social solidarity such as shelter and protection to the poor and needy, aids for nourishment and health care, blood, disaster operations, international aids, social services, health, first aid, education and youth, housing, immigration and refugee protection as well as operating mineral water facilities. The Community Centres Project was designed to respond to the challenge of Syrian refugees and the first Community Centre was opened in January 2015 in Şanlıurfa, to be followed by centres in Istanbul, Konya, Ankara, Kilis, and a

second one in Istanbul. The aim is to establish 16 Community Centres by 2018 each serving 7.000 individuals. These centres appear to function quite effectively in mixing adult education programmes with social and cultural activities aiming at social inclusion.

MALUMAT Community Information Centre Education Programmes

Target Groups: Syrian and other refugees

Execution: MALUMAT Community Information Centre

Objectives: Organising adult education courses (language, literacy, life skills, and recreational courses) and providing community services particularly to those more vulnerable immigrants who would otherwise be unable to attend courses.

MALUMAT is a community information centre established in 2015 based in Gaziantep, Turkey. 'Malumat' is a word that means 'information' in both Turkish and Arabic — a statement of the NGO's mission to provide relevant, accessible resources to the diverse communities that it serves. They apply innovative teaching methods to attract the highest number of refugees to its various courses. These include distributing tablet computers to students with pre-loaded education material free of charge. In certain courses, the participants use these tablets and study from their homes, being visited by their instructors one day a week for private tutorial and being required to go to a classroom setting only once a week for group study. Therefore, their approach is marked with flexibility and a willingness to adapt to the needs of vulnerable communities and individuals.

ASAM Education, Guidance, and Social Inclusion Programme

Target Groups: Syrian and other refugees

Execution: Association for Solidarity with Asylum-seekers and Migrants (ASAM)

Objectives: Provide adult education programmes for refugees and guide them into the education system to improve their human capital as well as to enhance social inclusion.

The Association for Solidarity with Asylum Seekers and Migrants was established in Ankara in December, 1995 as a non-profit and non-governmental organization. Through their Multi-purpose Support Centres they provide Turkish, English, and Arabic language courses. In

addition, they train Syrians to become English instructors thereby providing them with a marketable skill as well as encouraging English-learning among the Syrian community indirectly. Crucially, they also provide guidance services at 45 offices in 41 different cities which have advantages of easier access to refugees as an NGO.

The Council of National Continuing Education Centres of Universities in Turkey

Target Groups: Wider society, service providers in adult education and lifelong learning sectors

Execution: The Council of National Continuing Education Centres of Universities in Turkey

Objectives: Improve the quality standards of adult education and lifelong learning courses; coordinate the activities of various continuous education/lifelong learning centres established by public and private universities.

Although most universities have a functioning Continuing Education / Lifelong Learning Centre of their own, very few of these are able to consistently provide high-quality education courses that are accessible to wider public or students who have limited financial resources. They are even less able to reach out to vulnerable communities and individuals. The Council of National Continuing Education Centres of Universities in Turkey was established in 2010 and in 6 years reached to 107 members from both public and private universities. It appears to be a potentially remarkable action to coordinate the programmes and activities of university adult education platforms.

Specific Challenges

One major challenge in the Turkish context has been the difficulty of reaching information. The Turkish Statistical Institute releases information concerning lifelong learning and mass education programmes only once in a few years. Although such large-scale aggregate data serves as one of the main sources of information in the field, it is difficult to quantify and use in academic assessments. Other than this, the available data is narrow in scope and scattered as many different institutions such as the MoNE, Turkish Labour Agency, municipalities, ministries, and so on release information about the specific education programmes they organize including professional trainings they offer to their own staff.

Due to the failed coup attempt on July 15 and the following process which has witnessed a large-scale purge from many public institutions and the declaration of State of Emergency; the already complicated matter of accessing to information and securing cooperation of public institutions in Turkey got even more difficult. While the State of Emergency was prolonged for a second term and is still continuing, there is a sense of normalisation in the country which will hopefully continue.

Amongst other challenges, it needs to be stressed that the Syrian refugee inflow has caught Turkey unprepared and pose a major challenge for every aspect of public administration including the education system. As described in this report, the legal framework itself has been subject to significant changes, influencing the situation of Syrians at every turn. Currently, the MoNE has strategically moved to incorporate all Syrian children in the formal education system framework, who used to receive education at the ad hoc created Temporary Education Centres by Syrian teachers, using Syrian curriculum and in Arabic language. Such major changes in vision over Syrians' education obviously influence all aspects of Syrians as well as Turkish society's lives. There is a major need for effective coordination for which the Department of Migration and Emergencies Education was set up a few months ago under the DG of Lifelong Learning in MoNE. It is a major challenge for this small department to live up to the remarkable expectations from it which involve overseeing every aspect of Syrians' education at all levels.

Another significant challenge in Turkey appears to concern the 16-25 years old population. According to statistics, the rate of schooling is over 95% among the primary school-age students (the first 4+4 years in Turkey's compulsory 4+4+4 education system). However, this rate drops to 80-85% in the high-school. Of the 6-6.5 million high-school-aged individuals, approximately 800 thousand people appear to be registered in the education system as required by law, but they do not attend to any school. Among the remaining 4 million students who are registered to specific high-schools, around 1.8 million are students of the so-called "open high-schools" where they are supposed to obtain the curriculum and education material without physically attending classes¹²⁹. Therefore, it is hard to make sure these students do continue with their high-school education. In combination, these young adults who appear to be

¹²⁹ There are another 330 thousand or so students registered in "open middle schools" (the second 4 years of the 4+4+4).

registered in the education system but who do not regularly attend schools constitute another potentially vulnerable population. It is very difficult but essential to keep track of where these young adults are and how they are going to become a part of the society and the labour markets as active citizens with marketable skills. We need to add to this those hundreds of thousands of students who having graduated from high-school fail to secure a place at a university through the centrally administered national university placement exam each year.

Another challenge is related to the content and quality of adult education programmes in the context of vulnerable groups. In Turkey, three major institutions mostly provide adult education: (i) the Public Education Centres (under MoNE), (ii) the Municipal Education Courses, and (iii) universities' lifelong education centres/institutes (see above). The first two of these predominantly provide vocational and technical courses aiming to give people marketable skills and prepare them for the labour market. The adult education courses provided by universities have a much wider variety in terms of subjects and contents; however, they are much less well-suited to reach out to vulnerable communities and individuals. Those who attend the adult education courses tend to be people from the middle classes with a fairly high level of education.

Concluding Remarks

This report tried to summarize the state of the art in Turkey in relation to adult education and vulnerable groups, with a focus on Syrian refugees and women. Turkey is a country with a long tradition of adult education. While the “traditional” vulnerable groups also exist and are recognized as such in the Turkish context, including women, the disabled individuals, school drop-outs, ethnic minorities, etc.; the attention has recently been focused on the millions of Syrian refugees who arrived in Turkey in a matter of 5 years.

There are quite a few reasons in the Turkish context, which were mentioned and discussed in this report, that make Syrians a particularly vulnerable group. To reiterate, these include but are not limited to:

- The unprecedented and unexpected nature of the mass immigration,
- Turkey’s undeveloped legal and institutional structure for managing migration and diversity,
- Traumatic effects of civil war and forced migration,
- Language barrier,
- Cultural issues (prevalence of early marriages, etc.),
- Socio-economic issues,
- Lack of data concerning the Syrian population due to high mobility.

The Turkish context is also quite rich in potential examples of good practice on very different levels and with varying scopes, structures, actors, and objectives. This report lists and briefly describes seven such examples out of which those cases to be further investigated in the context of WP3 will be selected. It is hoped that the Turkish case would be relevant and beneficial for a Europe wrestling with similar challenges by offering a fresh perspective as well as testing the effectiveness of different approaches and programmes that have been recently established from scratch to face the challenges of unexpected refugee flows.

Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovenia and Hungary

Executive Summary

The investigated five countries have certain similarities but in general they can be divided into three groups on the basis on how the adult education and LLL has been considered in society and in the governance: (a) Slovenia proves the long-term strategic thinking on LLL to become a Learning Society; (b) Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia have established the basic infrastructure and policy of adult education with limited governmental commitment and success to change the social attitude towards knowledge and LLL; (c) Hungary had also developed the basic infrastructure and policy that have been deteriorated deeply in financial, administrative and priority points for a short-term thinking since 2009.

Regarding similarities it can be said that there were certain historical roots and traditions of adult education in civil society in interwar period and in socialist era supported by the state in favour of social mobility, modernisation of working class, and combating illiteracy. These traditions were revitalised in 1990s. In development of democratic changes and needs of market economy high rate of unemployment and reduced economic activity of adult population have strongly inspired this revitalisation. The EU accession and its preparatory period influenced the establishment of adult education infrastructure and policy in these countries. The principles of adult education policy and the interpretation of LLL together with education suppliers have been determined by the European integration. As member states the goals of the policy and strategic documents passed by the EU concerning adult education and LLL have been penetrated into national policy and law. It means that separate policy documents together with relevant regulation on adult education have been established providing responsibility of ministry/authorities in registration/authorisation for applicant institutions/companies and programmes, the minimal quality requirements have been determined and checked by state agencies. In parallel, certain financial transfers for institutes/companies in adult education are ensured including certain target audience from the vulnerable/disadvantaged social strata but in general the participation rate and budget allocations in adult education have remained limited. There is no clean and stable public supporting methods in adult learning (e.g. benefits in transport to accession of learning, equal accession for disabled persons to courses/institution, tax deduction for employers), while yearly plans of policy papers are changing the means of

registration, finance, statistics and cooperation. The motivation of potential target audience, despite of higher rate of early school leavers, uneducated and illiterate – including IT competences, too –, number of people who communicate foreign language, population in disadvantaged rural/devastated area, Roma, and young adults with low-skilled education, has not been upgraded. The public education system has remained content-driven and not competence/development oriented. Consequently adult education would make extra efforts to develop social, cultural and economic competences of learners and to ensure the professional knowledge of learners upon the feedback of the labour market. These countries cannot be classified on the national adult education system on the ground of Table 1 below because they create a mixture of different components from existing models. For this reason a robust progress is not probable in adult education and LLL in Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria in near future. There is more chance for progress in Croatia due to the differentiated education programmes and high number of experts in andragogy.

The diversity in adult education system means that Slovenia can prove both in medium- and long-term planning in LLL ensuring separate adult education and sectoral (social cohesion, employment, regional development) policy toolbox based on evidences and statistics. The other counties consider adult education as a top-down policy with many formalities being met. Hungary sometimes does not meet the formal requirements. For instance, the European Agenda for Adult Learning highlights the need to increase participation in adult learning of all kinds (formal, non-formal and informal learning) whether to acquire new work skills, for active citizenship, or for personal development and fulfilment.

The European Agenda is being promoted in 36 countries by a network of National Coordinators. They coordinate and steer different actions in the field of adult learning by engaging with the main stakeholders involved, disseminating and implementing European policies and exchanging good practices and knowhow with other countries and raising awareness of adult learning. The National Coordinators for the Implementation of the European Agenda on Adult Learning receive financial support from the European Commission, through the Erasmus+ programme. The list of National Coordinators for the Agenda does not indicate the Hungarian coordinator's name (Nov 2016) due to incomplete changes in public administration (the National Office of Vocational Education and Training and Adult Learning is an institution with service-type, authority-type and manager-type functions together.)

Table 1: Models of adult learning/education

Organisation	UNESCO	COUNCIL OF EUROPE	OECD	THE CLUB OF ROME	EUROPEAN UNION
Key term in policy documents	Life Long Education	Permanent Education	Recurrent Education	Innovative learning	Adult learning in LLL
Theoretical direction	Philosophy of education, Scientific humanism	Cultural policy	Economic and social policy	Postmodern, new humanism	Economic and societal policy
Value system	Humanistic and cognitive development	self-determinant cultural development of communities	determined by the economy and industry	survive of mankind, human dignity, bridging the gaps of social inequalities by learning	competitive and unified market, area of freedom, security and justice
Vision on individual	as a continuously developing and self-managed human being	as an autonomous, creative, self-developing and community building person	as a free, undertaking individual with sense to technical development (Homo faber)	as a basically good person with recently deformed behaviour	as a freely mobile individual with equal treatment, dignity and active citizenship
Spectrum of policy	world-wide responsibility, international cooperation supporting the developing countries, teaching the respect of peace and environment protection in education	party states and pan-European unity	party states and mainly their industry and trade	Global problems (demography, economic growth, employment, education, food, water, public health, environment and natural resources)	European competitiveness and growth in a globalised economy, social cohesion and knowledge based society in member states

Level of planning	Long-term policy goals	Policy planning	strategy of lifelong learning	planning of the future by the stakeholders	Common goals of the EU. annual plans and horizontal coordination on the grounds of member state/national policies/priorities
Approach to adult education	part of the education system	totality of the individual's personality shall be developed by cultural activities and community improvement development	achievement-oriented regardless free cultural actions, it fits to school education and life is divided into working/employment and learning cycles	restricted hope on permanent education due to the rigid institutional frames, thus LLL would be put into practice only in a limited extent	part of LLL in partnership of the state/public power with employers and adult learners for a quality-driven education in which acquisition of transversal key competences (language, IT literacy, social intelligence) and professional skills are provided
Vision of future society	people are in the centre of the globalised, solidarity driven postmodern, learning society	educative society based on decentralised small communities and local democracy with decentralised production and re/distribution system	growing trends shall be enhanced in production and changes in division of labour: - without other globalised issues	a new value system is required in mentality, ethics, political and cultural life, „The future is in our hands!”	adult learners' needs are in the centre of a knowledge-based, innovative and creative society

Source: Kraiciné, Szokoly, Mária and Tóth, Judit

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Romania

Introduction

The report reflects the general interpretations coming from the international documents concerning the adult education and LLL. The functional definition of LLL as determined the EU policy document (Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality, EC, 2001), was the starting point (Popescu, 2012), namely that "lifelong learning covers formal, non-formal and informal patterns of learning throughout the life cycle of an individual". It fact it is considered as a form of permanent education as is highlighted in the Plan Europe 2000¹³⁰ developed by the European Cultural Foundation from 1968 to 1978. After 2000 two documents were edited and accepted on the European institutions' level (A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, EC, 2000) defining the LLL as a process ("encompassing all purposeful learning activity, whether formal or informal, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence") in the context of personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspectives (Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality, European institution, 2001) as Popescu underlines. It means that the term of 'culture of learning' or knowledge economy considers learning as a value regardless the forms of learning (formal, non-formal, informal settings). The Eurostat (2007 Yearbook) additional clarification on LLL distinguishes between the formal education and informal and non-formal learning: ("informal learning corresponds to self-learning which is not part of either formal nor non-formal education and training, by using one of printed material, computer-based learning/training; online Internet-based web education; making use of educational broadcasting or offline computer-based; visiting facilities aimed at transmitting educational content").

With reference on European Higher Education Area documents since 2000 have supported the knowledge-based economy urging the steps to be taken to realise possibilities for LLL at higher education level in two important aspects: the recognition of prior learning and accession of learning for all citizens. The recent papers of EHEA emphasize that higher education and Life Long Learning are complementary to each other. Furthermore, the implementation of LLL policies requires strong partnership between public authorities, higher education institutions,

¹³⁰ Further information on Plan Europe, which was a wide research project can be found here: Hall, P., ed. (1977). *Europe 2000*. Columbia University Press. New York.

students, employers and employees. The European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning developed by the European University Association provides a useful input for defining such partnerships. The development of national qualifications frameworks in EHEA demands continuous coordination in LLL issues, too. Increasing the fair recognition of studies and qualifications, based on the various existing international conventions, will support a better link between higher education and the global economy. Finally, improvement of the social dimension of higher education, gender balance and widen opportunities for access and completion, including international mobility, for students from disadvantaged backgrounds are also advertised in these documents (Balina, 2014). Romania has to respect these principles.

Historical Development

Even though some scholars would state that Romania has a tradition of continuous education, and namely through the method of “social pedagogy”, it is doubtful. Romania is considered a country with tradition in continuous education. References trace back to 1920s and 1930s, period when the concept of ‘social pedagogy’ was developed and implemented in rural areas of Romania. The results of the social pedagogy in the interwar period was analysed (Carnea cites Bădina et al, 1981), and noted that “social pedagogy appeared as a reaction to the limits of the school education and as an emphasis on the necessity to prepare the young generation with the aim of their integration, active and creative, in the whole social life. At that time, social pedagogy targeted various categories of learners, including inhabitants of rural areas, disadvantaged people, women and youngsters” (Popescu, 2012: 49).

It can be said that there were some continuous studying forms introduced in Romania during the 1920's and 1930's, which were realized in the form of continuous or permanent learning and which still exist nowadays. These study forms were introduced through the institution named “scoala de arta populara/népművészeti népiskola” which we can translate as “Peoples Folk Art School”. These institutions were present in the urban and also in the rural areas countrywide and they performed teaching about arts, i.e.: music – instrumental music, canto, folk music, painting, choreography, ballet, modern dance, folk dance, sewing classes and so on. These were short term classes, accessible to all the adult population. They still exist.¹³¹

¹³¹ Here are two examples of these type of institutions: Scoala de Arte “Francisc Hubic” (Francisc Hubic Népművészeti Iskola” website: <http://scoalafrancischubic.ro/inscrierile-pentru-anul-de-curs-2016-2017/> and

However, these institutions did not use “social pedagogy” as methodology but it was one institutional opportunity for continuous learning for those interested and accessible countrywide.

After 1989 there was no governmental policy regarding continuous learning, but afterwards the government recognized that the Romanian educational system has to be changed, therefore it introduced several reforms, which all were linked to the LLL concept. The reform of the educational system in Romania aimed to incorporate the concept of lifelong learning into the educational policy, especially after country’s accession to the EU. Before 2007, disparate legislative measures were meant to shape a lifelong learning system in Romania, aiming at the development and regulation of the ‘continuous professional education’ of adults. Among these measures the most relevant are (Popescu, 2012):

Government Ordinance no. 102/1998 regarding the organisation and functioning of the permanent education in educational institutions;

Law no. 132/1999 regarding the establishment, organisation and functioning of National Adult Training Board;

Government Ordinance no. 129/2000 regarding the professional training of adults, amended by G.O. no. 76/2004;

Law no. 279/2005 regarding the apprenticeship at workplace;

Methodology for the authorisation of the suppliers of adult professional education;

Methodology for the certification of adult professional education;

Catalogue of the qualifications for which programs finalized with certificates can be organized;

Procedure for the evaluation and certification of professional competences, obtained through informal and non-formal education.

Scoala de Arta Populara “Tudor Jarda” Cluj (Koložsvári “Tudor Jarda” Népművészeti Iskola) website: <http://www.scoaladearte.ro/20160711oferta-educationala-anul-2016-2017.html>. Both of them very accessed at 12th of October 2016.

Conceptions and National Approaches

As above presented, these were the legal background in the moment of accession. On the other hand, in 2011 was introduced the new National Law on Education that emphasizes the importance of the lifelong learning extensively, making the concept one of the key elements of the law. The Law of Education no. 1/2011 (Legea Educației Naționale) was the first law to bring in line the Romanian education with the European vision regarding lifelong learning. The Law dedicates the last title (Title V) to Lifelong learning. Art. 328 notes ‘the title regulates the general and integrated framework of lifelong learning in Romania, and permanent education represents all learning activities performed by each person during lifetime in formal, non-formal and informal contexts, aiming at acquiring and developing competences from multiple perspectives: personal, civic, social and professional. The definition of LLL and its approach consistently follow the European direction set by the European Commission in Memorandum of Lifelong Learning (2000) and Making the European Lifelong Learning Area A Reality (2001).

This also means that Romania introduced the lifelong learning concept in its educational policy in conceptual harmony with the EU. As for the funding of the lifelong learning education in Romania, the law states that “several state actors are named as having attributions in the field of lifelong learning: The Ministry of Education, Research, Youth and Sports (MCTS), The Parliament, The Government, The Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Security (MMFPS), The Ministry of Culture, The Ministry of Health, and The Ministry of Interior. To those adds several governmental agencies, such as the National Authority for Qualifications established through the reorganization of the National Council for Qualifications and Adults Professional Training (CNCFPA). This can be justified by the complexity of the lifelong learning field, but it may lead to problems of co-ordination among various aspects that are found in the responsibility areas of different actors. A clear specification of the attribution of each ministry is needed for the development of an LLL system. The problem is that even if this would be the best scenario that the enlisted institutions offer funding for it, this is not compulsory for them, therefore a lifelong learning educational strategy or system in Romania cannot be built and applied. The most important training providers in Romania were the employers (39%), or a non-formal education and training institutions (36%), they represent together almost 80%, and only 13.6% was performed by formal education institutions in 2011.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

As scholars explain “in Romania, the market for educational programs for adults and the institutions authorised to provide such programs developed quite chaotically, with educational programs not entirely tailored to adults’ learning needs, nor to labours’ markets requirements” (Popescu, 2012). Because of this very few people used to be and are engaged in some informal or non-formal lifelong learning program, “regarding adults participation in lifelong education and training in Romania” in 2009 this was 1.9%”, in 2010 it was 1.4% and in 2015 it was 1.3% of the adult population.

Based on this, we can state, that “adults’ participation rate in education and training in Romania decreased. One may argue that the economic and financial crisis has put its mark on adults’ interest in continuing education and training. This could be assessed as a very surprising fact as job loss possibility or eventuality should have constrained adults to continue their education and training in Romania. As regard, the overall participation in training, only 8% of the age 25–64 population is participating in formal (1.4%) or non-formal training (6.9%). The gender rate in participation is balanced, and most (13.1%) of the participants are young (25–34 years) while the elder people (55–64 years) represent only 2.0%. Very few of them are studying at lower secondary level or under, 1.4%, and 7.0% of them are studying on upper secondary level or post-secondary level. However, many of them are in the tertiary education, 21.8% (including BA, MA or PhD students). Furthermore, an analysis by age shows that the participation of younger persons (age 25–34) in the EU-28 was nearly twice as high as that of older workers (age 55–64) in 2011. Participation in education and training among older workers was particularly low in Romania. The willingness of participation in education and training was related to the level of educational achievement: persons with a tertiary level education reported the highest participation rates (61.3% for the EU-27 in 2011), while those having completed at most lower secondary education were the least likely to participated (21.8 %).¹³²

According to the Eurostat data (2011) the non-willingness for LLL is mainly present in rural areas and the most important obstacles are the missing respect for learning: the population

¹³²Source: Eurostat website: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Lifelong_learning_statistics (Latest accession: 2016, Oct.12)

thinks that there is no need for further studying (91.3% – the EU27 average was 50%), it is too expensive for them and they can not afford (52.5%), it would be a conflict with the work-schedule (34.7%), there is no time for studying due to family (30.9%), there is lack of the employer's or public service's support (30%), or there is no studying possibility within reachable distance (28.1%).

From the upper description the disadvantaged people in accession to any adult education are as follows: inhabitant in rural area, uneducated or low educated persons and persons over 35. Roma also belong to the vulnerable groups due to many overlapping parameters as determined by the age, education level, settlement and motivation for learning.

The youth itself is a very vulnerable group, as in 2011, the poverty rate was 5.0% for the total population, 8.4% for young people aged 15–19, 7.6% for 20–24-year-olds, 6.0% for 25–29-year-olds, and 4.6% for 30–34-year-olds; in 2011, the child poverty rate was 6.1% for the age group 0–5 and 7.7% for 6–14-year-olds (source: the Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Protection and the Elderly of Romania). Romania's employment rate among the population between the age 20–64 (63.9% in 2013) is much lower than the EU average (68.5% in 2012), with a national target of 70% by 2020. The age group 30–34 registers an employment rate which is close to the European level (77.1% vs. 77.5%), while all the other age groups (15–19, 20–24, 25–29) are well below the EU-28 figures:

in the first quarter of 2014, the youth employment rate (15–24 years) was 20.6%;

the decreasing demographic trend is one of the risk factors;

between 2000 and 2012, Romania's employment rate among the working-age population (20–64 years) dropped by 5.7 percentage points, by 8.7 percentage points among people age 55–64, and by 6.9 in the case of women age 20 to 64;

the unemployment rate has reached a record high (25.7%) among young people (15–24 years);

the youth employment rate features major gaps between girls and boys in the age group 15–24; thus, the share of employed boys in this age group is 24.7%, while the share of employed girls is 16.1% (with significant differences between urban and rural areas – 14.7% and 26.9%);

just over 1 in 3 Romanian young people age 20–24 have a job, compared to almost half of the European young people;

67.5% of Romanian youth age 25–29 have a job, versus 72.1% of the European youth.

Romanian young people have delayed and restricted access to the labour market and have lower earnings. Thus, Romania has the highest level of in-work poverty among youth aged 18–24: 30.7% of them were poor in 2011 (compared to 19% in the case of total employed population) although they had a job, whereas the EU value was 11.2%. The rising income poverty of youth is a further cause for concern: in 2008, at the onset of the economic crisis, 23.1% of the employed youth were poor. The youth holding informal jobs, mainly in subsistence farming, represent one of the most vulnerable social groups. Over 40% of the people employed in the informal sector are aged 15 to 34.

These concerns are reflected in the Europe 2020 targets on education accepted by Romania. Those are as follows inserted to the National Youth Policy Strategy 2015–2020: reduce the share of early school leavers to below 10% and increase the share of young people age 30–34 having completed tertiary education to at least 40%. In Romania's case, the corresponding national 2020 targets are: 11.3% for the proportion of early school leavers and 26.7% for the tertiary educational attainment.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, informal learning, higher education

The introduction of non-university tertiary education brings added value as it provides young people with ISCED level 5 qualifications and facilitates their integration into the labour market, given the extent of over-education in Romania. Curricula tailored to labour market needs have to be developed and the National Qualifications Framework should be harmonised with the European Qualifications Framework by setting up the National Qualifications Register for all levels of training. A culture of quality should be created for youth by engaging them in the curriculum self-assessment processes. An attractive scholarship scheme could be developed to offer all young people equal and discrimination-free access to tertiary education. On-campus accommodation needs to be expanded in order to enable rural youth to access tertiary education

(for the academic year 2014/15, campuses can accommodate a total of 107,467 students whereas the number of applications for accommodation is 131,464). A broadband information infrastructure should be set up in all university campus learning and living environments. IT skills development courses should be financed for all youth in tertiary education, regardless of the curriculum they pursue.

LLL development at tertiary level provides opportunities for an easier labour market insertion, given the regional development of Romania's eight development areas. Minimum living conditions should be provided for obstacle-free youth access to tertiary education, irrespective of origin, nationality, gender, social status, religion, etc. The culture of volunteering should become part of the national education system alongside relevant monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

Major disparities are seen at regional level. Thus, the lowest employment rates for 15-24-year-olds are reported in the West (27.9%) and North-West (27.6%) Regions, while other regions like North-East (36.4%) and South-Muntenia (34.5%) perform much better.

Tertiary education funding schemes need to be provided for young people from disadvantaged rural areas, Roma youth, young persons with disabilities, young people from low-income families, youth from orphanages or placement centres, and young people with severe chronic diseases. Proper infrastructure offering young people living, sporting and leisure conditions should be developed in university centres, cultural centres, sports and leisure clubs, etc. Cultural centres should be set up for youth to socialise and develop their communication skills throughout their studies. Centres for entrepreneurship should be established in universities, enabling youth to develop their entrepreneurial skills. Start-up and spread-off programmes should be accessed for young students in order to facilitate their labour market insertion and development of professional skills. A framework enabling communication between youth and active generations within the ALUMNI organisations should be created, while solidarity between different generations and graduation classes needs to be developed.

Based on the National Youth Policy Strategy 2015–2020 in Romania, edited by the Ministry of Youth and Sports and UNICEF the Strategy tackles the situation of and policies for young people aged 14 to 35, as set out in the Youth Law no. 350 of 21 July 2006. The analysis is broken down by age groups, namely 14/15–19, 20–24, 25–29 and 30–34/35, since most of the

data that allow for benchmarking with other countries are available for these age groups – which is important because they may guide youth policies towards European convergence. Each key area of intervention also targets youth groups with specific characteristics.

For ‘Employment and entrepreneurship’: unemployed youth and the long-term unemployed; young people in subsistence self-employment; young people not in employment, education or training (NEETs); young people involuntarily hired on a temporary and part-time basis; young people hired on low and very low wages; youth in informal employment; young people who are overqualified or under-qualified for their job and youth who work in other areas than what they were trained for; young people who want to start a business but lack the necessary resources; employers. For ‘Participation and volunteering’: youth involved in the NGO sector; young volunteers and young people who attended non-formal classes and whose skills are not currently acknowledged; young people with low level of engagement in the third sector and in social and political life.

To contribute to the social inclusion of young people, apart from the four key areas of intervention, the Strategy also includes measures and lines of action that address particular target groups which can only benefit from support in a specific manner, with the participation of all decision makers in sectoral policy domains: young people who have left the placement centres; street youth; youngsters without housing access or prospects; Roma youth; young people from pockets of poverty; youth with special educational needs; young victims of exploitation; youth with HIV/AIDS; and young victims of discrimination. The Strategy target groups also include formal entities involved in youth work and policies, such as youth-led and youth-serving non-governmental organisations or those targeting young people alongside other beneficiaries, public services, youth centres/clubs, student cultural centres, student unions, ALUMNI associations, youth workers, etc.

For all that, the National Youth Policy Strategy 2015-2020 in Romania, edited by the Ministry of Youth and Sports and UNICEF, the methodology of application of the strategy is missing. As a consequence, the National Youth Policy Strategy 2015–2020 in Romania is not applied yet.

Unfortunately there is no specific programme related to higher education in Romania which would be accessible for the young disadvantaged people and which would be beneficial for them

on short, middle or long term. However, the main universities founded by the government have several tuition wavered places and housing in dormitory for Roma youngsters and citizens of the Republic of Moldova, at some of their university degree programs. But this means for them participating in formal higher education, nothing more.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

The ‘Implementation of the European Agenda for Adult Learning’ Grundtvig programme’s objective was to raise awareness of stakeholders and direct beneficiaries on adult learning opportunities within 8 regions of Romania.¹³³ As a result green telephone line was established dedicated to adults learners, where citizens can receive information related to adult learning opportunities, the legislation in force and rights and entitlements derived from their certificates or diplomas as well as recognition of non-formal and informal learning. The programme came to the conclusion that needs of adults are the following: linking the program for education/vocational education (working) of adults, prospective students; the relevance of programmes for education and training; the students expectations regarding the training; provided feedback from the instructor/trainer; recognition of prior learning (acquired in non-formal and informal contexts).

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

The National Council for Adult Vocational Training authorizes and monitors the evaluation centres for professional competences and certifies the professional competences evaluators. At the present are functioning 31 centres for the evaluation and recognition of prior learning, which are assessing 61 occupations and qualifications (www.cnfpa.ro).¹³⁴

Country Specific Conclusions

Despite of establishment of legal and administrative infrastructure including the National Law on Education and accepted definition of LLL the relevance of adult education has remained marginal since accession to the Union although all of official documents concerning adult

¹³³ http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/LLp/project_reports/documents/adult-learning/final-2014/romania-final-report.pdf

¹³⁴ www.etcsc coaching.eu/elite_new/en/library/download+document?IdDocument=21

education are based on the EU policy, term and definition of LLL, and the made measures in Romania are fitting to the European Higher Education Area and European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning. The political and academic debates on adult education are missing while the rate of persons in need of adult education is high (inhabitant in rural area, uneducated or low educated persons and persons over 35 as well as Roma belong to the vulnerable groups). Furthermore, disparities of chances are observed at regional level. The reasons of shortages are related to the poor coordination among the stakeholders, responsible ministries, absence of special programs and the limited connection to the economic modernization. There are some continuous studying forms but participation in education and training has been related to the level of educational achievement: persons with a tertiary level education reported the highest participation rates (61.3% for the EU-27 in 2011), while those having completed at most lower secondary education were the least likely to have participated (21.8 %) in adult education. The most important training providers in Romania were the employers (39%), or a non-formal education and training institutions (36%), they represent together almost 80%, and only 13.6% was performed by formal education institutions in 2011. Summing up, adults participation in lifelong education and training in Romania has been decreasing for years or established below 2 percent of the adult population from them some millions of young adults have emigrated during the same period.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Bulgaria

Introduction

Adult education in theory could play an important role in the transition period but adult education and educators were in a difficult situation in the whole Central and Easter European region. Thus sensitive assistance from abroad to these actors' difficult tasks was urged by scholars (Kulich, 1995) The result of external assistance and the internal efforts is a hybrid model of lifelong learning (Boyadijeva et al, 2011) taking into account the national context, formal and informal education marching higher employment of marginalised people and modernisation of economy and society together. However, the typology is not so sophisticated that would differentiate the participation patterns (Hefter and Markovitsch, 2010).

Historical Development

The national context includes a variety of discourses on social inequalities in post-communist Bulgaria. The focus is on academic discourse, but political and everyday interpretations are presented as well. Politicians generally avoid talking about social differences and prefer instead the dichotomy of "elite" versus "the people," whose interests the politicians vow to protect. In popular consciousness, the main division is between "the rich" (mafia, politicians, ex-nomenklatura) and "the honest poor." In sociology, three main research trajectories have emerged: from class-based to status-based stratification; from one-dimensional to multidimensional stratification; and from a Marxist class model to a social network model. Perhaps the most important characteristic of Bulgarian society is its high level of poverty, according both to income indicators and self-perception. In this context of a pervasive sense of poverty, status differences lose their significance. This in turn prevents the establishment of group or class solidarity, as everyone feels she or he is competing with all others. Starting in 2013, a new trend can be observed: of social protests organized by those who say they feel powerless and manipulated by corrupt elites. As they try to initiate new types of economic negotiations with the government, sociologists have a responsibility both to study this new movement and to push the problems it raises into public debate. (Boyadijeva and Kabakchieva, 2015)

Academics prove the overt and tacit role of the state and other stakeholders in defining objectives, concepts and approaches to citizenship education. They suggest a new approach for

understanding citizenship education based on the assumption that trans-rational dimensions of human existence – interests, institutional culture, and traditions – are not just external environment, influenced by citizenship education, but they are imbedded in its contents, character and dynamics. This approach is summed up by the metaphor of ‘battle’, since citizenship education is revealed not as a pre-given univocal entity but as a developing matter that results from social combats among different stakeholders. It is argued that there is a common tendency in different countries for the state to take over the citizenship education advocating ‘disciplinary citizenship’. Thus, although there are some positive trends in citizenship formal education in the different European post-communist and post-authoritarian countries, this education does not necessarily function as an effective instrument for building genuine citizenship ethos. Some academics claim that there is a need for substantial changes in the citizenship education practice and that its development should be based on creating institutional premises for ‘active citizenship’ (Dimitrov and Boyadijeva, 2009). The latter will help schools to overcome the alienation of students from studying. In order to get rid of its deep crisis the contemporary school needs the transformative impetus from citizenship education which in turn will get at least one mighty stakeholder in its advancement.

Despite the existing institutional network and traditions in the programming of academic content, the national education and training system is evolving through disjointed approaches to structuring, statutory support, governance, and organization. Each separate sector (general education, vocational education and training, higher education, continuing training) tends to plan the learning outcomes on its own, focusing primarily on its own scope, with less consideration for the variety of personal and professional projections arising from the learner’s course of life, including missed ones. The tools contributing to the application of the major lifelong learning instruments are yet to be elaborated.

Adoption of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is not sufficient enough to be transformed into real instruments for the development of the lifelong learning system on the ground of the European¹³⁵ structure. Further efforts are required to bring all legislation concerning the system of secondary and higher education in compliance with the NQF, a broad-ranged process of consultation is necessary to elaborate the sector-specific qualifications frameworks. Based on these steps, effective preconditions will be created for building up links,

¹³⁵ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=1999>

including more flexible learning paths, between the NQF and all other instruments (the systems for: validation, quality assurance, introduction of credits, and credits in the vocational education and training), to ensure a suitable overall environment for lifelong learning, which is in line with the real-life dynamic of changes in a person's lifecycle.

Conceptions and National Approaches

The National Strategy on Life Long Learning (NSLLL) is the general document passed by the Bulgarian Government (12 Jan. 2014)¹³⁶ describes the strategic framework of the state policy in education and training during the period 2014 – 2020. It determines the national target at achieving the European goal for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth taking into account the goals in the strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth for Europe up to 2020.¹³⁷ The strategy of LLL is expected to be perceived as a response to all emerging challenges in regards to the social inclusion and economic growth. Its main goal is to present and motivate measures to be taken in regards to the need for new skills through changes in the education and training system, which would ensure building up the mentality for lifelong learning.

The Strategy applies the definition of lifelong learning, as used in the EC Memorandum on LLL (2000), namely: “all purposeful learning activity, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence”. It covers all forms of education, training, and learning – formal, non-formal, and informal – which one undergoes throughout life, and also provides recommendations which would serve as basis in the preparation of annual plans, based on which progress in the implementation of LLL in Bulgaria would be traced.

According to the Strategy' Vision in 2020 Bulgaria “would be a country, where conditions have been created for full creative and professional success of the person and where the access to various and quality forms of lifelong learning has become a reality for all its citizens”. In order to realize this vision strategic objectives and progress indicators are defined as follow:

Increase the share of the children covered by preschool education and training from age 4 until first grade enrolment age from 87.8% in 2012 to 90% in 2020;

¹³⁶ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=5701>

¹³⁷ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=1984>

Reduce the share of early leavers from the educational system aged 18–24 from 12.5% in 2012 to less than 11% in 2020;

Decrease the share of 15-year olds with poor achievements in: reading (from 39.4% in 2012 to 30% in 2020), in mathematics (from 43.8% in 2012 to 35% in 2020), in natural sciences (from 36.9% in 2012 to 30.0% in 2020),

Increase the share of those attaining professional qualification degrees in the broad areas of Informatics, Technical Equipment, Manufacturing and Processing, and Architecture and Construction to at least 60% in 2020;

Increase the share of those completing higher education aged 30–34 from 26.9% in 2012 to 36% in 2020;

Increase the employment rates of the population aged 20–64 from 63% in 2012 to 76% in 2020;

Increase the participation of the population aged 25–64 in education and training from 1.5% in 2012 to more than 5% in 2020 (a 4-week reference period);

Reduce the share of illiterate persons: among persons aged 15–19 from 2.0% in 2011 to 1.5% in 2020; among persons aged 20–29 – from 2.3% in 2011 to 1.5% in 2020.

Moreover, the Strategy on the development of professional education and training in Bulgaria was determined to the period of 2015–2020.¹³⁸ The implementation is based on the system of annual action plan, for instance for 2016 it was defined by the Ministry of Education¹³⁹ that is monitored also yearly reporting how the LLL Strategy is applied.¹⁴⁰ It connects to the National Strategy on development of higher education in Bulgaria in the period of 2014-2020.¹⁴¹ The LLL Strategy ties on the side to the The National Qualification Framework of Bulgaria.¹⁴²

The Strategy of LLL outlines the content, forms, environment, and interactions among all players in the lifelong learning process, as follows:

¹³⁸ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=6386>

¹³⁹ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=9593>

¹⁴⁰ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=8081>

¹⁴¹ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=6523>

¹⁴² <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=1980>

learners – all persons within the country, who are engaged in learning in the area of education, the formal and non-formal training or informal learning;

training providers – the institutions carrying out training, (whether private or state kindergartens, schools, universities, training centres, culture institutions, etc.), which meets society's needs and the labour market's requirements;

the employers, trade organizations, labour unions, civil society organizations, and other partners are those, which set forth and meet the above requirements, which deal with the needs for education and training;

the regions, municipalities, and local communities have an important part to play in the process of asserting their position of „learning regions“;

government bodies – ministries and agencies – set out the national policies in the area of education and training, as well as the relevant tools and measures required to ensure the efficiency of demand and supply of LLL.

According to the “Report about the Progress of Adult Education in Bulgaria in 2014”, issued by Ministry of Education in 2015 it is said: “During the 2014/15 school year in Bulgaria there are 294 educational providers including general or vocational schools or vocational colleges and 362 centres for in-formal learning. In 2014 altogether 48,572 adult learners had attended learning opportunities offered by providers listed above.”

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

A research (6th European Framework Project) was made in 2011 on policies and practices towards underrepresented groups in Bulgaria. (Boyadijeva et al., 2012) The two main research questions are: "How developed are current practices for providing adult learners from underrepresented groups with access to education?" and "How could educational institutions develop a systemic approach to better promote the access of adults to the education system?" The research identifies and describes the main target groups for access strategies and outlines the prevailing policies of Bulgarian educational institutions regarding access to education of underrepresented groups. Special attention is paid to identifying and discussing the main

problems faced by Bulgarian formal educational institutions in promoting access of adults to lifelong learning. It is argued that an authentic change in access of underrepresented groups to education is possible only as a result of long-term strategies, which necessarily include both social policies external to the sphere of education and reforms at all levels of education, with a special emphasis on pre-school and primary education.

As regard the existing research, the only was done by the Bulgarian office of UNICEF in 2015: The “Evaluation and Analysis of the Profile of NEETs in Bulgaria” where the risk profile of NEETs in the country is well described based on a statistical data. A significant part of the study is its final conclusion where specific recommendations are done. Some of them are related to the need of the identification of potential NEETs among young people from risky groups – ethnic minorities, remote areas population, social vulnerable groups and people with special needs. Another part of the study present specific measures in order to decrease the number of early school leavers in Bulgaria. A set of measures is focused on the development of so called “second chance” for NEETs – information campaigns, introduction of positive examples and educational opportunities, special campaigns focused on the risky groups.

However the government determined a strategy on education as a part of integration policy of ethnic minority children and students in Bulgaria to the period of 2015–2020¹⁴³, and another national strategy for encouragement and improvement of literacy level to the period of 2014–2020.¹⁴⁴ The national priorities in Europe 2020 influence these planning together with the national strategy for decreasing the number and rate of early school leavers during the period of 2013–2020.¹⁴⁵ These documents outline the officially accepted vulnerable groups in the country while the issue of adult education and vulnerable young adults in Bulgaria is not a subject of specific analysis or reports. It is presented in the mentioned documents especially the Strategy of LLL and its Annual Implementation Plan.

Funding of all measures indicated in the Strategy of LLL is based on the national budget, funds from the European structural funds and the EC program Erasmus+, as well as through donations, sponsorship, and other sources. Currently, according to the Statistics Bulgaria is the last but one among all EU member states regarding the public spending on Education in

¹⁴³ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=7634>

¹⁴⁴ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=6619>

¹⁴⁵ <http://www.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=6461>

percentage of GDP – about 3.5% for 2014, 2015 and 2016. The national 2020 target of Bulgaria is to increase the public spending for education to 4.0% in 2020. It's difficult to identify the public spending on Adult Education in Bulgaria. According to EUROSTAT the highest percentage is in 2011 – 0.18% from GDP, and the lowest is in 2012 – 0.09%.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, informal learning, higher education

It must be underlined that for the development of the Adult Education in Bulgaria is planned to put funds from the EU funded Operational Program “Education and Science for the Innovative Growth 2014–2020” approved by EU in February 2015. In the Program, there is a Priority “To develop and secure equal opportunities for LLL for people from all age groups and to increase the access to formal, non-formal and informal learning”. The budget for all measures in this Priority are planned 24,393,272 EUR from ESF.¹⁴⁶ The reported data about Bulgaria indicate low LLL participation of persons aged (25–64) (1.5% in 2012). This circumstance, combined with the negative demographic trends, as well as the underdeveloped continuing training system, do not support achievement of accelerated economic growth. In their part, the businesses and the economy as a whole do not generate sufficient demands to the education and training system. The data from the last 2011 Bulgaria Census indicates that the share of illiterate persons aged over 15 has still not been brought down to the social minimum. According to the Census data illiterate persons among those aged 15–19 are 2.0%, and among those aged 20–24 and 25–29 – 2.3%.

What are the specific challenges?

The relatively high number of NEETs is the most important problem in Bulgaria. According to the official statistics by Dec. 31, 2013 751,900 persons 15–24 years old are out of educational system or employment. Their percentage is 22% of total population of the respective age group. The analysis of the NEETs shows that the majority of them belong to ethnic minorities groups, mainly Roma (Gipsy) people take 63% of all NEETs are people from the remote areas in Bulgaria. Among all NEETs there are 2 major groups – the group of unemployed persons that

¹⁴⁶ <http://sf.mon.bg/?h=downloadFile&fileId=676>

are 55% to the group of economic inactive people that mean 45%. The second group consist persons with the highest risk profile because of their lack of interest to develop their skills or knowledge to find proper education or job. The gender issue is also a part of the problem because NEETs women are 3.5 times more than the respective male group.¹⁴⁷

Other challenge for Bulgaria is to decrease the number of early school leavers aged 18–24 years. According to the National Statistics for the period 2004/5–2013/14 about 220 to 200 students were left the educational system before their graduation. Their annual percentage in 2014 is 12.9% which is much higher than the national goal to decrease their number to 11% by 2020.¹⁴⁸

Another challenge related to the adult education in Bulgaria is the significant decreasing of the number of learners – from 60,500 in 2013/14 to 48,600 in 2014/15 or more than 19%. According to analysis the main reason is the lack of interest of employers to invest in qualification of their employees. Specific problem is that people, especially young adults in Bulgaria don't consider the continuing education as a guaranty for their bright future.

A specific challenge in Bulgaria is the low participation in LLL of people of aged 55+ and especially of those with law qualification. Despite the negative statistics still there are not special programs focused on qualification opportunities for elderly people and those from remote areas.

There are some specific programs related to the adult education in Bulgaria. These measures and programs focused on the development of LLL are presented in the respective Strategy:

elaboration and expansion of the adult literacy system for the purpose of ensuring access to the labour market;

reduce the number of illiterate young people aged 15-19 from 2.0% in 2011 to 1.5% in 2020, among those aged 20-24 – from 2.3% in 2011 to 1.5%; and among those aged 25-29 - from 2.3% in 2011 to 1.5% in 2020;

¹⁴⁷ Evaluation and Analysis of the Profile of NEETs in Bulgaria”), UNICEF, 2015, p. 23

¹⁴⁸ Annual Report on the Implementation of the Strategy of LLL in Bulgaria, 2015, p. 23.

creation of tools and platforms for e-training for including new target groups into learning, in particular, those with specific needs and those residing in remote locations;

ensuring access to the LLL forms through cultural institutions (libraries, "chitalishte" community centres, museums), athletic organizations, etc. focused on new target groups, in particular, those with specific needs and those residing in remote locations.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

The introduction of a „CAREER GUIDANCE” both for students and adults project started in 2014 funded by EU. It is implemented by Ministry of Education providing to 138 798 high school students accession to career guidance. In 2014 as a part of Erasmus+ project EUROGUIDANCE 70 career consultants were trained to provide specific service to high school students. Currently in Bulgaria there are 10 career centres to the National Employment Agency where more than 10 000 adults have an access to a special career information or guidance.

Relation to active citizenship: economic dimension

In order to encourage better and effective communication and work of all stakeholders in adult education in 2014 was establish a special body, the National Coordination Group Regarding LLL including representatives of government institutions, employers' organizations, unions and NGOs. There is a special web page (<http://lll.mon.bg>) where all the materials about the activities of the Group are published as well as a statistical data about the adult education in Bulgaria. One of the tasks of the Group is the preparation of a National System for Monitoring of adult education in Bulgaria which special purpose is to analyze and observe the progress in the field.

NGOs have attempted to promote high quality education for Roma children. The Bulgarian Ministry of Education has made various changes in legislation which allows Roma children to receive mother tongue education as well as intercultural education with a focus on Romani language, culture and history. There were some projects implementing in kindergarten, primary and secondary schools, as well as adult literacy and education after the time of transition (Kyuchokov, 2007).

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

In 2014 certain amendments were passed in the Professional Education Law that focused on the approval and validation of skills and knowledge acquired during in-formal and non-formal education. Based on this regulation the Bulgarian Council of Ministries adopted provisions regarding the validation of professional skills and knowledge as well as the introduction of tools and procedures related to the lifelong learning.

Country Specific Conclusions

A hybrid model of lifelong learning has been developed in Bulgaria in which about 3.5% of the GDP were used on LLL in 2014, 2015 and 2016, the participation of persons between age 25–64 in LLL has been limited (1.5% in 2012), and significant decrease of the number of learners is observed (from 60,500 in 2013/14 to 48,600 in 2014/15 or more than 19%). According to the analysis the main reason is the lack of interest of employers to invest in qualification of their employees. Specific problem is that citizens, especially young adults in Bulgaria do not consider the continuing education as a guarantee for their future. Moreover, the participation rate in LLL in age 55+ is particularly low among the low qualified persons. Despite the negative statistics there are not special programs focused on qualification opportunities for elderly people and those from remote areas. The National Strategy on Life Long Learning sets up priority to develop and secure equal opportunities for LLL to citizens from all age groups and to increase the access to formal, non-formal and informal learning. Its main goal is to present and motivate measures to be taken in regards to the need for new skills through changes in the education and training system, which would ensure building up the mentality for lifelong learning. The tools contributing to the application of the major lifelong learning instruments have not been elaborated. Bulgaria must become a full creative and professional success of the persons in which the accession to various and quality forms of LLL would become a reality for all. In order to realize this vision strategic objectives and progress indicators are defined. The National Qualifications Framework is not sufficient enough to be transformed into real instrument for the development of the lifelong learning system on the ground of the European structure. The Strategy on the development of professional education and training in Bulgaria was determined to the period of 2015–2020. The officially accepted vulnerable groups in the country and the whole issue of adult education are not a subject of specific analysis of report. However, the rate of NEET and school leavers in 18–24 years and

the number of illiterate young people is high. This report identified and described the main problems faced by Bulgarian formal educational institutions in promoting access to lifelong learning. An authentic change in access of underrepresented groups to education is possible only as a result of long-term strategies including both social policies external to the sphere of education and reforms at all levels of education. Another part of the report discusses specific measures in order to decrease the number of early school leavers in Bulgaria. A set of measures are focused on the development of so called “second chance” for NEETs. Some good examples can be found among governmental measures (National Coordination Group, web page on LLL, career information or guidance) while NGOs have attempted to promote high quality education for Roma children and youth.

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Croatia

Introduction

The andragogy has a long tradition in Croatia. The development of education policy went hand in hand with the social and political events in the last 60 years and has experienced development and transformation accordingly. The historical development of andragogy can be divided into three periods: from 60's to 90's, to 2000 and after 2000 until today. The almost century-old tradition of institutional adult education started at local and state level after World War II and in the mid-1950s with establishment of many national and workers' universities, primary schools for adults, evening high schools and colleges. These attracted large numbers of students, together with systematic training of andragogy specialists. This education system was one of the most developed in the region of former Yugoslavia and Europe (Strategy for Adult Education, 2007).¹⁴⁹ The direct holders of these activities were the Department of Andragogy, at Workers' University M. Pijade, Andragogy Centre in Zagreb, National and Regional Bureau for Education, national and workers' universities, vocational schools, centres for education of employees in companies and other legal entities. Improvement of adult education was due to the Andragogy Association and Association of Personnel Experts. Andragogy magazines were printed, professional and didactical, methodical and docimologic literature was issued. Andragogy Centre was significantly active in the exchange of literature with other institutions from other European countries. Departments of Systematic Education of Andragogical Specialists were established at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Zagreb and the Faculty of Pedagogy in Rijeka (Petričević, 2011).

Historical Development

In 1960s, the system of adult education went through its "golden age". Most of these institutions in the 1960s and 1970s were established by local authorities, mostly implementing adult education as compensation for early education (Klapan and Lavrnja, 2003, according to Žiljak, 2013). The reform of education from 1970s as well as a large administration of jobs destroyed the concept of adult education, and the institutions and holders of that education were placed on the margins of modern education and culture.

¹⁴⁹ <https://vlada.gov.hr/UserDocsImages//Sjednice/Arhiva//52-03a.pdf>

The second phase was interfered by political, ideological and institutional break of the socialist educational system. The Croatian exit from Yugoslavia and intense armed conflict until 1995 (Žiljak, 2013) meant the termination of the socialist system and Europeanisation, re-acceptance of own traditional values setting up again the educational system of pre-school and eight years at elementary school level, high school, vocational and higher vocational schools, colleges, universities, art academies, and institutions for adult education and vocational training (Žiljak, 2013). After 1990s, key institutions for adult education were renamed from national universities to the open or public universities losing the programs from the prior era adopting programs of formal and informal education. A large part of formal adult education is performed in secondary vocational schools, and in smaller towns open universities receive educational and cultural role. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport got responsible for adult education, even though it was often marginalized (Žiljak, 2013). The Law on Open Universities in 1997 established a new framework for the regulation of activities, establishment and structure of adult education institutions. Institutions could be set up by local authorities, natural and legal persons. Universities were managed by local authorities and leaders being liable to local representatives in municipals (AOO, 2008, as cited in Žiljak 2013). Croatian Association of Public Open Universities has been the only institution that continuously organizes expert meetings, national/international conferences including the first meeting of the Croatian Andragogy Society (Žiljak, 2013).

The third phase began in 2000 during the enlargement of the EU and Europeanisation of national education policy (Žiljak, 2013). At that time, the process of construction, diffusion, institutionalization of formal and informal rules, procedures and modes of action started changing the institutional framework for adult education, in accordance with the development of educational policy based on lifelong learning and knowledge-driven society (AOO, 2008, Baketa, 2012). The Agency for Adult Education was established (2006), under the aegis of the Agency for Vocational Education/The Institute for Education. The new Agency had a task to monitor and evaluate the development and improvement of adult education (Žiljak, 2013). In 2010 it merged with the Agency for Vocational Education, becoming the Agency for Vocational and Adult Education. This entity obtained the task of conducting the analysis, development, research and advisory operations, evaluation, self-evaluation, external evaluation, the choice of the standard, technical support and other activities in the field of adult education and vocational training as the Law on the Agency for Vocational and Adult

Education determined in 2010. This unification of agencies supposed to present a rationalization and efficiency of their work, although this step would not be necessary in harmony with EU standards (Baketa, 2012).

Conceptions and National Approaches

In recent years, LLL has become a dominant principle and point of reference in the national education system. Understanding the importance of LLL it is emphasized in the strategic documents in the field of education such as the White Paper on Croatian Education, Development Plan of Education from 2005 to 2010, Strategy for Adult Education¹⁵⁰, Declaration on Knowledge HAZU (ASOO, 2015), Action Plan of Strategy for Adult Education in 2005 and Adult Education Act of 2007 (Baketa, 2012). The main national programs of change in adult education are the Strategy and Action Plan for Adult Education, the Adult Education Act and the introduction of a national qualifications framework, which are in line with European documents and educational goals (Žiljak, 2013).

This fact must be based on the professional and theoretical establishment in which the andragogy is considered as a science, and the subject of andragogy is the study of preparation, execution and evaluation of education, training and specialization of adults for work, self-management and leisure. Adult learning is a social activity that has an objective to encourage the overall development of a person, and the reasons for adult education may be economic and social, as well as an integral part of a comprehensive system of education and represents a phase of continuing education with participating adults. Why? Because “an adult is a person who has completed the process of biological growth and is more or less mentally, socially and professionally mature” (Andrilović et al., 1985). Adult education can be defined as “the entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development”(UNESCO, 1976).

¹⁵⁰ <https://vlada.gov.hr/UserDocsImages//Sjednice/Arhiva//52-03a.pdf>

The participants in adult education can be persons aged 15 years and older, by means of formal, non-formal, informal and self-directed learning. Andragogic education creates preconditions for general education that includes basic literacy, general knowledge, abilities, skills and habits and their related attitudes and beliefs in the domain of the mother tongue, mathematics, natural and social sciences and culture (Andrilović et al., 1985). Adult education creates the possibility of lifespan development and professional development training. Lifelong learning refers to “all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competencies within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective”. It includes learning at all stages of life (from early childhood to old age) and in any activity undertaken (formal, non-formal as well and informal learning settings) as the EU Com determined in 2001¹⁵¹.

“Adult education comprises the entire process of adult learning with the purpose of: exercising the right to free personality development, training for employability – the acquisition of qualifications for the first occupation, retraining, acquiring and expanding vocational knowledge, skills and abilities, and training for active citizenship. Adult education is a part of the Educational System and is based on the principles of: lifelong learning, rational use of educational opportunities, proximity and accessibility of education to all on equal terms, in accordance with their abilities, freedom and autonomy in the choice of styles, contents, forms and methods, taking into account the diversity and inclusion, professional and moral responsibilities of andragogic staff, quality assurance of education, respect for the personality and dignity of each participant” (Adult Education Act, 2007, Art. 1–2).

The notion of LLL is often replaced by the term lifelong education but the notion of education applies only to organized learning. Learning is a wider concept which includes unintentional, unorganized and spontaneous acquisition of knowledge that can be conducted throughout life. In modern age, there is an increasing focus on lifelong learning, which includes all forms of learning at all ages and under all circumstances. LLL as a policy can respond to the growing problems of economic crisis and rising unemployment (Žiljak, 2005). The concept of LLL has proven to be crucial for the transformation of the position of adult education (Žiljak, 2013). LLL is very important because of social and economic dynamics of events, and can only be based on well-educated entrepreneurs, managers and professionals (Tadin, 2007, as cited in

¹⁵¹ <http://eurex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2001:0678:FIN:EN:PDF>

Ivanković and Romić, 2013). In modern society this is the only alternative for successful participation in the labour market (Gobo, 2009, as cited in Ivanković and Romić, 2013). The basic task of LLL and education system is to enable each individual to successfully perform at all demanding professional and real life circumstances, regardless of their profession, occupation and vocation, while using their current knowledge, cognition, skills and activities (Zelinka 2007, as cited in Ivanković and Romić, 2013).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Adult education in Croatia is organized by various institutions that offer adult education programs. In addition, Agency for Education and the Agency for Vocational and Adult Education, the Council for Adult Education, Croatian Andragogy Society, Association of Adult Educational Institutions, Croatian Association of Public Open Universities, Education Development Institute have an important role in notifying and informing adults about adult education programs. All information about the programs and work of these institutions is available on their official websites.

Adult education is conducted by open public universities (public and private), primary and secondary schools, colleges, language schools, institutions for accommodation and care of people with special needs, driving schools, centres for education in economic enterprises, professional associations and organizations, employers' organizations, correctional institutions, foreign institutions and school organizations, cultural and lifelong learning centres.

Adult education programs are: adult elementary education program; programs for acquiring secondary school qualifications; programs for secondary vocational education; programs for acquiring lower qualifications; retraining programs; training programs; professional development training programs (MZOS, 2016).¹⁵² The Adult Education Act (2007)¹⁵³ states that the competencies which should be acquired through adult education programs: exercising the right for free development of personality, training for employability, the acquisition of

¹⁵² <http://public.mzos.hr/Default.aspx?sec=3734>.

¹⁵³ <http://www.zakon.hr/z/384/Zakon-o-obrazovanju-odraslih>

qualifications for the first occupation, retraining, acquiring and developing professional knowledge, skills and abilities as well as training for active citizenship.

In 2007, the Council for Adult Education was established as an expert advisory body of the Croatian Government with the task to give opinions and proposals of measures for the development of adult education (Žiljak, 2013). The Agency for Mobility and EU programs (in which the Grundtvig program is going on) was established also in 2007 (Baketa, 2012). Grundtvig program has been implemented in Croatia since 2009. Evident progress regarding the number of program users and the types of activity has been observed in last three years. From 2009 to date, 42 projects with the participation of 234 participants in 37 organizations have been applied (Baketa, 2012). Another important project is the CARDS program which seeks to improve vocational education, increase the competitiveness and employability of participants (Baketa, 2012).

The ultimate goal of these programs is to build a modern and efficient system, connect educational institutions, labour market and employers (Baketa, 2012). Unlike CARDS projects, which are mainly focused on structural and institutional changes, IPA projects included implementing organization and direct beneficiaries. In Croatia, by 2012 project activities directly involved about 13,000 persons as beneficiaries, including persons with disabilities, unemployed persons over age of 50, long-term unemployed persons, young people with no work experience, long-term unemployed highly educated persons and members of ethnic minorities (Government, 2012, as cited in Žiljak, 2013: 243). Since 2009, there has been a growing number of organizations, one of the most important being the Association of Employers in Education (2011) and the Association of Institutions for Adult Education (2009), which includes a number of organizations that generally implement adult formal education. These associations, including the Croatian Andragogy Society, regularly organize meetings with topics related to adult education.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

More than 460 institutions conduct formal education programs, and over 1700 various institutions implement programs of informal education (ASOO, 2016). They usually have a compensatory function (basic adult education and compensation of educational backlog), as well as the function of further education (training or retraining) (MZOS, 2016). According to

Eurostat (2016)¹⁵⁴, in 2015, 13.9% of people aged 15-64 participated in adult education in Croatia: 82.4% of participants were aged 15–19, and 47.8% were aged 15–29. 10.2% of persons took part in formal education, while 0.8% persons attended informal education. The share of employed persons is 3.3%, unemployed persons 3.2%, inactive persons 35.4%, active persons 3.3%, employees 3.5%, and employed persons except employees 2.1 %.

By access to information on education and training for Croatia in 2007 (access to information on learning possibilities) 20.1% of total population, used the access to information on learning possibilities: 17.7% males and 22.3 % females. 48.6 %, of them were participating in formal and non-formal education and training and 27 % were participating in informal learning. In 2007, 79.8 % persons were not looking for information on learning possibilities, 18 % persons were looking for and found information on learning possibilities, and 2.2 % persons were looking for but did not find any information on learning possibilities. The sources to look for information on learning possibilities are the Internet (74.4%,) family members, neighbours or colleagues (30.4%), and employer (11.6%), or educational or training institutions (23.3%).

According to Eurostat data (2007) 75.5% of young people aged 25-34 did not want to participate in education or training, 22.9% wanted to do but encountered difficulties out of the personal reasons. In primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2) 89% did not want to participate in education or training, and 9.8% wanted to do but encountered difficulties out of the personal reasons. In upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3 and 4) 82.1% did not want to participate in education or training, and 16.8% wanted to do but encountered difficulties out of personal reasons. Other obstacles to participation in LLL for age in 25–43 are the following: high costs for 54.9%, a work schedule conflict or training organized at an inconvenient time for 36.5%, family responsibilities for 54.1% of the respondents. The main obstacle to participation in LLL for all the respondents are: high costs for 36.2%, a work schedule conflict or training organized at an inconvenient time for 10.1%, training takes place at a location too far for 6.7%, not being comfortable with the idea of going back to school for 25.5%, health problems or inadequate age for the training for 8%, other personal reasons for 7% of the respondents.

¹⁵⁴ <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/main/home>

According to the Strategy of Education, Science and Technology (2013), the reasons for the low participation rate in LLL and adult education can be found in the following factors: lack of awareness of the need for LLL and professional development of individuals, employers and the community; the possibilities for education and learning are not sufficiently visible in the public; value system within society does not encourage individuals to acquire new knowledge and skills, because there are not any generally accepted criteria for recruitment, rewarding and career advancement; the increasing impoverishment of the population, especially the less educated, leaves little opportunity for individuals to afford personal training; lack of time for training employees, employers do grant release from everyday work obligations if an employee wants to pursue further education; small and medium-sized companies and public administrations are faced with the lack of funds for normal business activities and, consequently, are forced to do basic work, without systematic development of professional training; the measures for financial encouragement of participants and organizations in LLL and adult education are underdeveloped; the financial incentives for vocational education and training of the unemployed by the Croatian Employment Service are insufficient. Personal interest and motivation of individuals to acquire new knowledge and skills, as well as self-financing of one's further education are identified as an important assumption of adult education.

Unemployed young persons who are in the group aged 15-29, account for about 30% of the total unemployed labour force. Young persons at that age who do not participate in the educational process to the entire extent are socially excluded and their labour market prospects are low. It contributes to a strong class dimension, evident during the enrolment of schoolchildren in schools. Children coming from families of lower socio-economic status and children from rural areas usually enrol three-year and four-year high schools. To continue further education, it is necessary to pass the state graduation exam, which is more adapted to gymnasium (grammar school) programs, so students of the aforementioned schools often drop out of school. If they decide to pursue further education, they are more likely to choose professional studies (Ilišin 2014).

Second chance education

Persons who have not finished primary school and are aged 15 years and over, may apply in the state administration office in their county in order to get relevant information about

institutions providing adult education. Attendants can also be trained for performing simple tasks in a certain profession, in order to facilitate their employment. Primary education is free for all the attendants (MZOS, 2016).

The National Program for Youth (2014) offers support measures for young people at risk of social exclusion as a part of compulsory education. Programs aimed at ensuring personal and professional development of young people at risk, as well as projects aimed at preventing early school leaving and encouragement for continuing education of young people who leave school early, are developed as a part of compulsory education and cooperation with the Croatian Employment Service. When it comes to students at risk, there is a possibility of rapid career guidance in order to help them finish education. Persons with no occupation, who finish primary school as a part of the program, can enrol the training program for performing simple tasks within a profession for free, in order to help them find jobs more easily (Strategy for Education, Science and Technology, 2013).

Retraining, vocational programmes and informal learning

The implementation of adult education programs for vulnerable groups of people are performed through the development and implementation of programs of formal and non-formal education, under the authority of the National Council for Human Resources Development, local government, the Department of Employment and relevant ministries and state agencies for adult education. Such programs provide free primary education for adults and financially stimulating formal education. A higher level of qualifications or informal education, that has a special interest for society, is acquired by participating in these programs, which are organized in small communities, undeveloped and rural areas. They are funded by the relevant state agencies, ministries and the Department of Employment (Strategy for Education, Science and Technology, 2013). Furthermore, the Employment Service offers a range of activities aimed at training, additional training and retraining of hard-to-employ persons (the less educated persons, Roma and persons with disabilities), according to their interests and abilities and with respect for the needs of the local labour market and depending on the availability of training programs. One of these programs is the package of measures for special groups "Being Special is an Advantage," which is aimed at strengthening the competitiveness of the labour market

and support of active job search for young unemployed people (Croatian Employment Service, 2016)¹⁵⁵.

Specific programmes

The program of preparation of Roma persons' participation in higher education can be highlighted as a specific program. This program starts with basic education as an integral part of the National Program for Roma and the Action Plan of the Decade of Roma Inclusion, and includes pre-school, primary, secondary and higher education and adult education and literacy (MZOS, 2016). The Roma community in Croatia shows elements of economic and social exclusion – low education, high unemployment and a high rate of material deprivation. Education policy aims at promoting secondary education by giving scholarships and providing tuitions in adult education programs if it is the first profession. In addition, MZOS facilitates the enrolment of the Roma minority in further education and decides about all the specifics of the National Program for the Roma, and provides scholarships and necessary accommodation in student dormitories for all the regular high school students. The number of registered members of the Roma minority in higher education institutions depends on their willingness to identify themselves as members of the Roma minority, if they wish to exercise the right to a scholarship provided by MZOS (National Strategy for Roma Inclusion, 2012).¹⁵⁶ There is a positive program of non-segregation of Roma in the education system (2016) in primary schools in the town of Kutina. Due to a large number of Roma enrolled in the elementary school "Vladimir Vidrić" and in consultation with parents of Roma children, teachers, other primary schools and Roma associations and institutions in Kutina (Association of Roma and Roma National Council) agreed that the Roma children should be enrolled uniformly in all schools and retain the right for free transportation and meals. Along with the support given by the integration of Roma in primary schools, working with parents was implemented as well. One of the most important programs is to support children and their parents through the "Stimulating Parenthood" program which was carried out with the help of The Public Open University, "Korak po korak" (Step by Step) from Zagreb. The workshops were attended by Roma parents, as well as other parents, developing various skills through learning activities, games and acquiring additional socialization. The implementation of various programs concerning basic

¹⁵⁵ <http://www.hzz.hr/default.aspx?id=11699>

¹⁵⁶ <http://romi.hr/fokus/print/desegregacijom-do-integracije>

education of Roma, gave the support for their enrolment in high schools and, later, universities. Roma Youth Association in Brod-Posavina County has an idea for establishment of an information centre, and continues to encourage young people to finish primary education programs and actively participate in adult education programs.

The state graduation has been conducted from 2009–2010, by taking the state graduation exam, i.e. taking mandatory and optional part of the exam. The mandatory part contains of Croatian language, Mathematics and a Foreign Language exam, and it can be taken at a high (A) and basic (B) level. Optional part of the exam consists of optional subjects. The exam takes place at the same time, with the same test materials and in the same manner for all the students, which ensures comparable results, and thus the selection process for admission to institutions of higher education is fair and transparent. The exams are conducted by the National Centre for the Evaluation of Education, in collaboration with schools and other public institutions involved in the implementation of the state graduation exam (MZOS, 2016).

A Program at Algebra, Open University, which has branches in the cities of Zagreb, Split, Rijeka, Osijek, Pula, Zadar, Dubrovnik, Sisak, Poreč, Šibenik and Čakovac, prepares students for the state graduation exam and entrance exams for admission to the desired university. In this institution, students get prepared for exams, and all the attendants have free group career counselling and counselling regarding selection and enrolment at universities. The preparations involve compulsory subjects: Mathematics, Croatian, English and German (the A and B level), optional subjects like biology, chemistry, psychology, IT, politics and economy, as well as the entrance exam for medicine, law, arts and architecture. Only the students who can self-finance can participate in this program. One of the programs preparing for the state graduation exam free of charge is Youth Centre in the town of Slavonski Brod, the secondary school teachers conduct the preparations in subjects that are required for passing the state graduation exam (sbplus, 2016).¹⁵⁷

¹⁵⁷ Free preparations for the State Exam:

http://www.sbplus.hr/slavonski_brod/obrazovanje/ostalo/besplatne_pripreme_za_drzavnu_maturu.aspx#.V9pRZCiLSUk

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social and economic dimension

Educational programs for all those who wish to participate in adult education is provided by the Agency for Vocational Education and Training (2016) (for instance in agriculture, nutrition, medicine; forestry, wood processing; geology, mining, textiles and leather; graphic and audiovisual technology, engineering, computing and various services). Adult can access to the general education subjects in secondary schools/vocational schools. For instance, the Public Open University in Zagreb¹⁵⁸ organises primary school for adults, three-year programs and professions, four-year programs and professions, training, professional development training, foreign language school, special group programs and driving school. The Andragogic College Zvonimir provides free primary education through individual and group consultations and teaching high school for salesmen, commercialists, economists, technicians, protection of persons and property waiters, cooks, confectioners, business secretaries, administrative officers, security guard of persons and property as well as training and professional development training programs.¹⁵⁹

Relation to active citizenship: political dimension

The Roma young adults could participate in the projects of the decade of Roma inclusion (2005-2015) or the projects of For a Literate Croatia: The Way to a Desirable Future Decade of Literacy in Croatia (2003 -2012)¹⁶⁰. The HZZ offers free retraining programs in cooperation with unemployed persons and the current demand on the labour market¹⁶¹. The Public Open University Zagreb provides programs for cooks, waiters, confectioners, bakers, salespersons, motor vehicles' drivers, security guard of persons and property, etc¹⁶². The Office Administration in Zagreb implements programs for economists, commercialists, salespersons, cooks, waiters, bakers, administrative clerks, business secretaries, tourism and hotel technician, technician for protection of persons and property, security guard and general high school program.¹⁶³ Individual learning at a private school online, live blended learning, Skype, phone,

¹⁵⁸ <http://www.pou.hr/hr>

¹⁵⁹ <http://www.andragosko-uciliste.hr/Pocetna.aspx>

¹⁶⁰ <http://zlatnavrata.hr/podkategorija/svi-programi/>

¹⁶¹ <http://www.hzz.hr/default.aspx?id=10308> and <http://www.hzz.hr/default.aspx?id=11860>

¹⁶² <http://www.pou.hr/hr/index.php/odaberite/prekvalifikacija.html>

¹⁶³ <http://www.birotehnika.hr>

e-mail learning, where attendants can acquire a certain degree of knowledge or preparation for a specific event within a time frame, learn a foreign language, business skills or coaching.¹⁶⁴ The students self-fund their education. Roma organisations or cultural institutes are also managing adult education programmes.¹⁶⁵

Country Specific Conclusions

For six decades the adult education and andragogy has developed and transformed more times in Croatia. The LLL has become a dominant principle and point of reference in the national education system covering the Strategy and Action Plan for Adult Education, the Adult Education Act in harmony with the EU Com's definition (2001). The institutional infrastructure of adult education intends to manage training for active citizenship. Various institutions that offer adult education programs by the Agency for Education, Agency for Vocational and Adult Education, the Council for Adult Education, Croatian Andragogy Society, Association of Adult Educational Institutions, Croatian Association of Public Open Universities, Education Development Institutes. 460 institutions conduct formal education programs, and about 1,700 various institutions implement programs of informal education. In recent years these involved about 13,000 persons as beneficiaries, including persons with disabilities, unemployed persons over 50 years of age, long-term unemployed persons, young people without work experience, highly educated long-term unemployed persons and members of ethnic minorities into the adult education and LLL. However, the participation rate is limited due to lack of awareness of the need for LLL and hardly visible possibilities for education and learning together with the non-supportive value system in public. Different education programs for vulnerable groups including preparatory to tertiary education, anti-segregation programs, and free primary education for adults are available through the development and implementation of programs of formal and non-formal education by national agencies, municipals, public open universities, and NGOs.

¹⁶⁴ www.efst.hr/content.php?k=cco&p=315

¹⁶⁵ http://www.umrh.hr/Novo/Projekti_programi/zaposljavanje.htm; <http://www.rum-bpz.org> ; <http://www.gkmm.hr>

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Slovenia

Introduction

A systematic approach to organising adult education in strong symbiosis with economic and social development in Slovenia can be traced back to 1990s: the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education was established in 1991 and the White Paper on Education was published in 1995 (Svetina and Jelenc, 1993).

Historical Development

The White Paper set up the general framework for the restructuring of the educational system that was rooted in human rights and the rule of law. The government appointed the National Council of experts for adult education in 1996 tracking the newly passed Act on Adult Education. This comprehensive regulation covers on non-formal education and learning of people who have fulfilled their basic education obligation and do not hold the status of a pupil or a student. It defines the rights of “mature students” in general; programmes and service providers; and special features of financing and organisation in adult education. The act also stipulates key principles underlying adult education, such as (a) lifelong learning; (b) access to education under equal conditions; (c) freedom and autonomy to choose the path, content, forms, means and methods of education; (d) adult education is considered as a public service; (e) professional and ethical responsibility of educators shall be determined; (f) respect for the personality and dignity of every participant; and (g) achieving the same educational standards of officially recognised educational qualification as those applied to youth. Naturally, this act has become a part of the connected laws on schooling and certification system. The Strategy for LLL in Slovenia was issued in 1997. The Minister of the Education took into account the conceptual framework of the EU programme on education and training up to 2010. In addition, other national strategies have been adopted that address education for specific target groups, for instance, the Strategy for Roma education (2004) or priorities in the inclusion of migrants into the adult education (2015).

Conceptions and National Approach

Adult education in Slovenia is a wide ranging and diverse form of education and training which includes formal education to gain higher levels of qualification (general, vocational, technical,

professional, academic), formal specialised training, and non-formal education and learning of adults (Pecar, 2012). Table 2 demonstrates the diversity of this term.

Table 2: Adult education categories in relation to knowledge acquisition and recognition in Slovenia¹⁶⁶

CATEGORY ACCORDING TO THE ADULT EDUCATION MASTER PLAN 2013–2020		KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION	RECOGNITION
PRIORITY AREA	FORMAL /INFORMAL	TYPE OF PROGRAMME	CERTIFICATE/NO CERTIFICATE
1	non-formal general education	publicly recognised programmes (literacy and basic skills)	publicly recognised certificate
		other courses, seminars, lectures	(optional) unofficial certificates issued by programme providers
2	formal education to acquire basic education	basic school for adults	basic school certificate
	formal education to acquire upper secondary and tertiary qualification	Upper secondary (vocational, technical and general) education Part-time short-cycle higher vocational studies	final vocational school certificate master craftsman examination certificate vocational <i>matura</i> certificate general <i>matura</i> certificate tertiary education certificate
3	formal education for labour market needs	supplementary education, specialisation	vocational qualification master craftsman examination certificate

¹⁶⁶ https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Slovenia:Adult_Education_and_Training

	non-formal education for labour market needs	Active Labour Market Policy programmes, training, preparatory courses for exams leading to national vocational qualifications	unofficial certificates issued by programme providers
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Formal education gives adult the opportunity to raise their educational attainment or to gain publicly recognised qualifications (certified education); non-formal education and learning (for instance, study circles, Project Learning for Young Adults, literacy program, training for life efficiency) is intended for those who wish to acquire new knowledge and skills, or who wish to refresh, expand, modernise or deepen their skills (non-certified education). Provision of adult education is regulated and supported on different fields and levels, according to respective legal framework, mechanisms and instruments. Programmes financed by public sources cover on different kinds of vocational training for the unemployed, non-formal programmes aimed at improving new basic skills (foreign language, IT skills, active citizenship) and programmes for citizens with disabilities or special needs, minorities and migrants. Other programmes require from providers to meet defined standards, and publicly recognised certificates can be issued only for attaining verified programmes.

The most important legal sources on adult education have been developed for years. The Parliament passes laws concerning adult education and training, and supports the National Programme for Adult Education. Annual Plans and the scope of publicly financed adult education programmes are implemented by the Government. The educational legislation (The Adult Education Act, 1996; the Organisation and Financing of Education Act, 1996; the Elementary School Act, 2007; the Grammar School/Gimnazije Act, 2006; the Vocational Education Act, 2006; the Higher Vocational Education Act, 2004; The National Vocational Qualifications Act, 2003) is tied to the labour law that refers also to adult education (in the Employment Relationship Act, the Employment and Insurance against Unemployment Act, and in the collective agreements). Furthermore, the social law is partly overlapping with adult education (such as the Occupational Health and Safety Act, the Act on Pension and Disability Insurance, the Act on the Disabled by War and the Act on Training and Employment of the Disabled Persons that also deal with education and training of adults).

The Parliament adopted Resolution on National Program for Adult Education in Slovenia for the period 2013–2020 (Master Plan).¹⁶⁷ In Resolution, following measures are mentioned: (a) Counselling: to ensure the introduction of new models of counselling for vulnerable adults (Roma, immigrants, older adults, dropouts); for this purpose different professional approaches and expert materials will be developed; (b) Promotion of lifelong learning and information provision: the promotion and information activities in the field of adult education and lifelong learning will continue, and will focus mainly on less-educated and vulnerable groups; continuous support for informal education and trainings (workshops, courses); (c) Programs and support activities available to all residents, especially for less-skilled and vulnerable groups: a program for the acquisition of basic education; programs for the acquisition of basic skills; programs of general non-formal education; information provision and counselling on career planning; organizing procedures for identifying and validating previously acquired knowledge; promotion of lifelong learning and sustainable development.

According to this legal framework the main responsible governmental organs for the adult education, including LLL are the Ministry of Education, Sciences and Sport (Higher Vocational and Adult Education Division) and the Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities (Division for Lifelong Learning and Scholarships). These units draw up draft regulations, implement laws, inform the public about professional and legislative issues, carry out tasks relating to strategic planning, financing, international networking and cooperation. The Government has entrusted professional matters and programme development to the Council of Experts for Adult Education that monitors and evaluates the conditions and the development of adult education in the country according to the developmental needs of society, from the viewpoint of quality and international comparability. The Government appoints its members from the best experts.

There are five institutes set up and financed by the Government that play an important role in the system of adult education and lifelong learning in general: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education (SIAE), National Institute for Vocational Education and Training, The National Education Institute, National School for Leadership in Education, and National Examination Centre. The role of these institutes are three fold: researching and developing programmes, methods, approaches, instruments and knowledge in their respective fields, the training of

¹⁶⁷ http://www.uradni-list.si/files/RS_-2013-090-03262-OB~P001-0000.PDF#!/pdf

trainers, and testing, evaluating, acknowledging and certifying programmes, skills and knowledge.

The adult education providers are institutionalized as follows: (a) folk high schools provide adult education and training. The Association of Folk High Schools means a professional network represents the interests of its 28 members.¹⁶⁸ In Slovenia 32 adult ('folk') high schools are currently operating, which were founded by their respective local councils. The major part of what they offer programmes of formal education designating to meet requirements for employment, while others cover general needs and personal interests. The programmes at folk high schools include accredited educational programmes leading to certificates and/or qualifications (generally these are programmes for youth which are adapted for adults), formal supplementary programmes and non-formal programmes. The Association aims to help in realisation of development goals in the adult education. (EAEA, 2011) (b) schools and higher education institutions, primarily intended for youth education; (c) private educational organisations specialised for the delivery of adult education; (d) other institutions whose main activity is not the provision of adult education (education centres within companies, chambers of commerce, industry, trade, craft, and small business, vocational and expert associations, and others (such as NGOs, libraries, galleries, clubs). They provide non- formal programmes of adult education including the driving schools. There is a range of programmes in non- formal adult vocational education which do not lead to qualifications or degrees but are nonetheless important for enhanced performance within an occupation. Such programmes include computing programmes, offered by authorised providers; (e) the Third Age University programmes are playing also an important role for older people.¹⁶⁹

All teachers and trainers who teach in state-verified educational or vocational programmes for adults must have recognised andragogical knowledge and competences at university or in special training. These are provided and issued by the Pedagogical faculties and Faculty of Arts while Slovenian Institute for Adult Education delivers programmes of continuing education and training for teachers in adult education. Teachers are mostly required to have an appropriate tertiary degree, equivalent to a Bachelor/Master degree. The other component of quality insurance means an evaluation and monitoring system that is defined as in the general

¹⁶⁸ <http://www.zveza-lu.si/>

¹⁶⁹ <http://www.univerza3.si>

education. There are various forms of supervision and evaluation of education are in place, such as the verification of public institutions, regulatory procedures for the adoption of curricula, and obligatory Teaching Certification Examination for teaching and other professional support staff (Oresnik and Mozina, 2012). In 1999, a set of instruments for self-evaluation were introduced in elementary and upper secondary education including people's universities. Other types of evaluation include external assessment of knowledge at the end of upper secondary education in-house evaluation and external evaluation of programmes via external contracted evaluation. Furthermore, the supervision of the implementation of the curricula for adult learners belongs to the responsibility of the SIAE that reports their findings to the responsible ministers and to the CEAE. It has also developed a model of self-evaluation for adult education under the name Offering Quality Education to Adults.

The main document which determines the budget and financial distribution of adult education from public funds is the Annual Plan of Adult Education prepared by the responsible ministries, and approved by the CEAE and the Government. The invitations for tenders are open to all institutions or organisations registered for performing educational services. A part of public funds are distributed to support the networks of adult education providers, such as folk high schools, providing general education, regional guidance centres for adult education, study circles mentors' network, or the university of the Third age. Moreover, there are there are substantial financial means earmarked for different target groups of adults (e.g. for health awareness raising or special educational programmes for disadvantaged groups) from the budget of the other public institutions or ministries. The local communities, municipals also contribute to the adult education finance. In average, 1/3 of the costs are covered by participants with their contributions; 1/3 of the cost should be covered by the resources of local communities and employers; 1/3 of the costs to be covered from the state budget. However, the participant does not pay if the education is guaranteed by law (such a situation is a primary school for adults) or “annual program” (for instance, education of unemployed persons, education by program “Training for Life Success” and “Project Learning for Young People”). The yearly public spending on adult education was 48 million EUR in 2014 from the state budget and 46 million in 2015. The ratio of public spending on adult education to spending of compulsory education is 714 million EUR so one fifteenth, and the rate of ratio of the total public spending on education to total public spending means 5.3% of the GDP in 2014. The

majority of resources aimed at job related training, however, provided by employers themselves.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

SIAE is the main national institution for research and development, quality and education, guidance and validation, and promotional and informative activities in the field of adult education. Since 1991 SIAE has drafted professional bases and evaluations, and monitored the development of the adult education system, developed various non-formal and formal forms of learning, programs to improve adult literacy, accession to learning for vulnerable groups of adults.¹⁷⁰ This institute tests the accession to either to the formal or non-formal adult education through the priority setting in policy decisions (Ivancic et al, 2009).

SIAE has relevant researches on adult education and its development as follows: (a) the project intends to take study circles as a best practice of LLL setting up this cross-border model. Practice of Italy (Tuscany) and Slovenia will be studied and adapted to the opportunities and needs of the border region (e.g. Veneto, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Brda and Posočje). A group of mentors will be trained and introduced to the area on both sides of the border. SIAE roles in the project are multiple: cooperation in the coordinative group, model development, professional counselling and education of new mentors.¹⁷¹ (b) The implementation of the renewed European Agenda for Adult Learning (EAAL) in Slovenia intends to disseminate of key messages and educational policy measures at EU and at national level (Vilic, 2007). It is designed for awareness raising on the importance and omnipresence of adult education and LLL as well as on opportunities there are available for the adult population (for instance through the event of LLL Week or examples of good practice, the importance of high quality adult education staff and provision, programmes for the development of basic skills, key competences, guidance and recognition of non-formal learning, community learning, e-learning, the learners' voice, and other aspects are illustrated). The project addresses all target groups, e.g. representatives of policy, practice and profession, learners, media representatives and the widest public but special attention is being paid to the low skilled and educationally

¹⁷⁰ <http://www.acs.si/index.cgi?lang=4>

¹⁷¹ Study Circles, 2011-2014 and CBC Programme with Italy, 2007-2013

deprived ones.¹⁷² (c) The PIAAC survey of the OECD is the biggest adult education survey ever conducted. More than 155,000 adults (aged 16–65) from 24 countries took part in the first round. Slovenia joined the project in the second round. For Slovenia the PIAAC project is of national importance, with more than 6,000 adults (aged 16–65) from every region of the country due to take part in the survey. Slovenia is currently implementing the pilot phase of the project. Four kinds of key competences are measured: problem-solving in technology-rich environments, literacy, numeracy and reading components. Another new element is the assessment of competences which are needed in the workplace: reading, writing and mathematics skills, the use of information technology, communication and presentation skills and competences needed for group work.¹⁷³

The Adult Education Master Plan determines the priorities of adult education and LLL to the period of 2013-2020: (a) it includes the increase in the share of population with completed 4-year upper secondary education; encouraging adults without basic school education to enrol in educational programmes; co-funding of possibilities for re-entering and concluding education and certification of skills and knowledge acquired in a non-formal manner, too; (b) on the other side, it defined specific target groups and addressed their access to quality adult education, among them the unemployed above 50 years of age without vocational or professional education or with lower professional capacities; employed above 45 years of age with less than 4-year upper secondary education or lacking key or professional competencies; employed that are not able to continue practising their profession above a certain age due to the specific psycho-physical requirements; young school drop-outs; socially deprived, immigrants, Roma, the elderly, the handicapped and convicts; other adults with limited access to social, cultural and economic goods, such as farmers and the population of less developed regions. (c) It includes some concrete operational targets as follows: the level of participation in lifelong learning programmes among population aged from 25 to 64 will increase from 36% in 2011 to 45% in 2020, based on the internationally comparable indicator which measures participation in such programmes in the 12 months prior to the survey (which is conducted every three years). The share of adults aged 25–64 who are enrolled in general educational programmes will increase from 5% in 2011 to 8% in 2020. The share of population above 15 years of age

¹⁷² Implementation of the renewed European Agenda for Adult Learning (EAAL) 2012–2014 in Slovenia

¹⁷³ Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competences, January 2013 – June 2015, <http://www.oecd.org/site/piaac> and <http://piaac.acs.si>

with incomplete basic education will be halved by 2020 (i.e. it will decrease from 4.4% in 2011 to 2.2%). The share of adults aged 25–64 with completed upper secondary technical education will increase from 57% in 2011 to 63% in 2020. In line with Active Labour Market Policy, half of unemployed will enrol in programmes aimed at increasing their employability during the period of 2013–2020. The planned total budget allocated to adult education in the period 2013–2020 amounts to 398,787,503 EUR.

The Annual Adult Education Program in Slovenia determines to the year of 2015 special target groups:¹⁷⁴

unemployed persons formed by older than 50 years without vocational or professional education or high professional ability;

employee over 45 having completed less than four years of secondary school or worse career prospects;

employee who due to the special physical and mental demands of a certain profession can no longer perform it when they reach a certain age;

young people who leave school at different stages;

less educated people and other vulnerable groups such as early school leavers, socially disadvantaged, immigrants, Roma, older adults, migrants, people with disabilities and prisoners;

other groups of adults who have limited ability to access social, cultural and economic goods, such as farmers and the population of the less developed regions.

It can be seen that vulnerable groups in age of 16–30 only indirectly belong to the benefitted audience. However, the programs for vulnerable groups are largely dependent on funding from the European Social Fund, which does not cover all current needs of adults and stable funding of the implementing organizations, at the same time it also has an impact on the precarious work status for professionals. The program of reduction in educational deficit was concluded in 2013. Since that there is no more enrolment of unemployed people in formal programs of

¹⁷⁴ https://ec.europa.eu/epale/sites/epale/files/lpio_2015_14.4.2015.pdf

secondary education within the program Active Employment Policy. In addition, there have been noticeable improvements in last years in the field of education and also some stimulating measures by the state, however Roma students still linger behind (many do not continue their education after primary school).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

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Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Second chance education, retraining, vocational programmes, informal learning

In 2013 the total number of people over 15 enrolled in all types of adult education was 24.137 as 12.6% of the adult population (aged 25–64). Among them 21,367 were in age 16–34 (88.5%). In 6 out of 9 types/categories of education more than 90% were young 16–34, in two types/categories even 100%.¹⁸⁰ In year 2015/2016 SIAE prepared an analysis¹⁸¹ which contains data on 202 implementing institutions (educators) and 3,681 educational programs. Accordingly, the most popular topics were in the non-formal education: social, economic, administrative and legal sciences, arts and humanities (language courses included), general education outcomes, science, mathematics and computing, engineering, manufacturing and construction, health and welfare, agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary, educational sciences and teacher training. In the programs of formal education the most attended topics were the business and administration, training teachers of preschool children, hairdressing and beauty.

Programs financed by public sources are as follows: compulsory education (primary school), secondary education for vulnerable groups, different kinds of vocational training for the unemployed, non-formal programs aimed at improving new basic skills (foreign language, IT skills, active citizenship) and programs for citizens with disabilities or special needs, minorities and migrants. Other programs are regulated at the level of provision (providers are obliged to meet defined standards) and at the level of certification (publicly recognized certificates can be issued only for attaining verified programs). However, the non-formal forms of learning are essential part of all social participatory activities. These service-learning projects where young

¹⁸⁰ http://www.stat.si/doc/pub/Izobrazevanje_ANG.pdf

¹⁸¹ <http://pregled.acs.si/index.php/porocila/porocilo-2015-2016>

people are creative and accountable would a learning component since the action without know-how is not possible (Vrečer and Miharcic, 2011).

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social dimension

SIAE developed the Offering Quality Education to Adults (OQEA) as an incentive to develop quality in adult education, so advices can be given to different educational organisations regarding self-evaluation of their quality and searching for paths towards progress. After an organisation joins the project, its mission, vision and the values shall be clarified and developed. It evaluates more thoroughly the quality that has already achieved and it plans the steps to develop in a way that would satisfy the organisation itself, the adults using its educational services, the business partners, and the environment in which it works. So far, in 2001-2012 the project attracted 72 organisations (including 31 adult education centres) with support of the responsible ministries and the European Social Fund. The idea of establishing a network of quality counsellors was formed in the years when the cooperation in the training was implemented in the OQEA. The basic and complementary training for 20 counsellors and coordinators were ensured. Quality guidance defines the assessment of quality of the educators helping the clients to perform certain tasks by themselves. An organisation can obtain the green quality logo if it participates in the OQEA project, uses its precisely determined methodology to assess quality in adult education, and implements improvements based on the findings. The web Bookshelf of quality in adult education offers manuals, different national and European documents dealing with guidelines on quality assessment and development in education.

Relation to active citizenship: economic dimension

A Learning Community (Bogotaj-Pecar, 2015) was a project of development. It is people linked to each other for a relatively long time, and among whom personal contacts have led to the development of special mutual relations in which all the people influence the decisions and rules of how the community functions. Through learning, involving informal, non-formal and formal approaches (e.g. when socialising, in study circles or in school), the community finds self-fulfilment and preserves/builds upon/adapts to circumstances its common identity across generations. The community identity includes the community's past (e.g. historical memory) and its orientation to the future (common vision); and economic aspect (economy of

functioning) and non-economic orientation of future (solidarity, volunteering, community symbols). The project tested this definition in the office and in seven locations in 2013–2014. The interviews on the components of the learning community covered all generations, stakeholders and outsiders that confirmed the definition in literature: no limitation of autonomy for the individual or institution in a community, but mainly incentives and opportunities for interpersonal flow, connection and exchange of information and knowledge. In general it seems that women are more active in learning in the community. The characteristics and functioning of the community will have to be further explored in order for community learning to be offered in a way that is rational and adapted to specific local needs. 3.3. Relation to active Citizenship: political dimension

Pecar (2015) observes that adult education system of Slovenia has developed regional networks facilitating the better access to education. The government is promoting regional educational networks which are included in the annual adult education programme. These networks consist of Centres of self-directed learning, Knowledge exchanges, Information and Advisory Centres and LLL Centres.¹⁸² This diversification and decentralised institutional system may give examples for other countries.

Country Specific Conclusions

Adult education and LLL has been considered as a strategic element of the European integration, social and economic development in Slovenia, consequently its legal, administrative, financial and institutional infrastructure have been established. The concept of LLL has led to the development of education systems in accordance with the principles in the EU and the OECD becoming »Slovenia a learning country«. The national annual plan and designation of priorities are based on professional bodies, while programmes, quality requirements and social impacts are monitored by special institutions. This national approach can attract yearly about 13% of adult population to all forms of adult education in average. Special education programmes for low educated, early school-leavers, Roma, disabled persons and migrants are also implemented and good examples in education quality standardisation, network and community building would be spread from Slovenia.

¹⁸² <http://ssu.acs.si/>; <http://www.borzaznanja.si/>; <http://isio.acs.si/sredisca/>; <http://isio.acs.si/sredisca/cvzu>

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Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: Hungary

Introduction

The traditions of adult education established in turn of 19th-20th century with civic reading and education circles, workers' cultural associations, and after 1947 the evening (non-regular) courses were managed for workers at elementary schools, grammar schools, vocational training, professional education, tertiary education as well as evening preparatory courses to maturity exam and university entry exam. The oldest national association of civil initiatives on free scientific education has been operating since 1841 (TIT)¹⁸³ but after 1989 many civil organizations inside the Volkshochschule movement were re-established with 95 units¹⁸⁴ or new organisations playing an important role of LLL were formed (such as in 2006 the Hungarian LLL Foundation¹⁸⁵).

Historical Development

1998 proved to be a milestone for LLL in Hungary, as this year marked preparation of the first legislative action regarding adult education. The core values laid out in the document of the European Union were built into the system of adult education.¹⁸⁶ The National Assembly passed the first piece of legislation regarding adult education (Act CI of 2001), which designated the rules of conduct and the system of administration, documentation and finances of adult education in Hungary. This law was applicable from 2011 until September of 2013. During this period, there was two-level system of operation in adult education: (a) the level of mandatory administration for all adult education institutions and programs to be certified by county-level employment centers; (b) the voluntary level based on quality, which meant accreditation by the Adult Education Accreditation Board (Farkas, 2013a).

After accession of Hungary to the EU the cornerstones of adult education policy were constructed, based on community standards. The first adult education strategy was passed by the Government in 2005. This Strategy (Government Decree No.2212 of 2005, Oct 13) defined

¹⁸³ <http://www.titnet.hu/tortenet> Tudományos Ismeretterjesztő Társulat.

¹⁸⁴ <http://www.nepfoiskola.hu/index.php?seo=magunkrol:&content=content&id=15> Magyar Népfőiskolai Társaság.

¹⁸⁵ <http://www.lifelonglearning.hu/magunkrol.html> LifeLong Learning Magyarország Alapítvány.

¹⁸⁶ For instance, the Decision No 253/2000/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 24 January 2000 establishing the second phase of the Community action programme in the field of education Socrates.

the main instruments of implementation to the period of 2007–2013 setting up the directions of improvement as follows: (a) the strengthening of the role played by education and training in creating opportunities; (b) strengthening the link between education, training and the economy; (c) better decision making procedures in administration and in policy is required; (d) improving the effectiveness of education and training through increase finance; (e) growing quality in education and training. In accordance with these objectives, various measures and results were observed within the framework of the Human Resources Operative Program (2004–2006) and the Social Renewal Operative Program (2007–2013). Due to these programs, a modular system has been introduced in professional and adult education changing the administrative and financial structure of these areas. Furthermore, a lot of education programs were established for segregated persons in order to enhance their social and labor market integration. 2013 was yet another milestone when the new law on adult education was passed in 2013 (Act LXXLII of 2013) entered into force on 1 September 2013 bringing changes into the structure of adult education: the mandatory registration and accreditation were replaced by a new licensing process and requirements.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Hungarian educational policy regards the increasing participation in LLL and the development of human resources as a tool to enhance employment and economic competitiveness. LLL is vital for the improvement of living conditions, the decreasing of social inequalities, to enter and stay within the labour market and to face the challenges posed by the most recent economic, cultural and technological developments. The governmental sources tend to use the definition of LLL in a wider meaning covering on the period of pre-school to third age and the whole spectrum of formal, non-formal and informal learning in the focus on the learner on equal accession to learning. It fits to the European Commission's approach of LLL in the context of social inclusion and employment as defined in 2002.¹⁸⁷ However, there are two different approaches to the term "education policy". On the one hand, it may be conceptualized as the sphere of power and interest concerning education, and not the other as the totality of strategies and actions regarding education, which we might call policy (Farkas, 2013a). Hungarian LLL policy is closely connected to education policy, but also to employment, economic, social,

¹⁸⁷ The Commission Communication and the Council Resolution 163/01 (27 June 2002) on lifelong learning affirm that lifelong learning should be enhanced by actions and policies developed within the framework of Community programmes in this field.

cultural and healthcare policy determined by some special features as the European Commission's report (2011) critically stated.¹⁸⁸ Critics mentioned following topics: (a) compared to EU average, Hungary has a low rate of economic activity, the employment rate is extremely limited for disadvantaged groups (persons with low educational attainment, mothers with young children, entrants, elderly employees, and those living with some form of disability); (b) inadequate social cohesion policy; (c) high level of regional and urban fragmentation and a low level of geographical and professional mobility; (d) poverty and all attached factors – unemployment, low educational attainment, inadequate housing – is especially prevalent within the communities in underdeveloped regions and of Roma; (e) the proportion of early leavers is massively high and the integration of segregated, disadvantaged people remains to be solved.

A modern and innovative education policy needs to consider high priority to equity. The education of underprivileged individuals is becoming increasingly important, as it has proven to an important factor in social advancement. Members of society, however, do not have equal opportunity in accessing the tools for advancement (Halász, 2011; Farkas, 2013b). Education and training is not a national issue anymore, but a global challenge, and as such, it contributes to the competitiveness of EU member states. In recent years, the changes in education policy gave a quite new direction to the Hungarian education system in general, and that of professional training and adult education specifically. The aim of adult education is to enhance economic competitiveness and also to create social cohesion, provide opportunities to underprivileged groups and to ensure the equality of these opportunities. Therefore, adult education is a vital factor in combating unemployment and social exclusion, from the perspective of social as well as employment policy (Farkas, 2013b; Hangya, 2013).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Compared to other members of the European Union, Hungary has a low rate of participation on lifelong learning. According to the statistics, 7.1% of the age group 25–64 participated in LLL activities (Eurostat, 2015). This falls short of the EU average (10.7%) and the rate aimed at by the Education and training 2020 strategy (15%) However, it is a positive tendency

¹⁸⁸ See: http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/what/future/pdf/partnership/hu_position_paper.pdf.

comparing to previous years: this rate was 3% in 2010 so it is doubled within five years. It means that annually, around 600,000–800,000 participate in some form of adult education, which is roughly 10% of Hungary's economically active population. Also, the annual degrees attained by the participants are three times more likely to be issued by adult education institution than in a vocational training school (Farkas, 2013a). The age proportion of participants (16–30) was 22% in 2015 by the yearly statistical survey (OSAP).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

According to legal terminology, adult education is to be seen as professional, linguistic or other training that is undertaken outside of the public education system (Farkas, 2013b). The law defines adults as individuals who completed the training mandatory for all Hungarian citizens, that is, they are 16 years of age or older. The Act on Adult Education (Act LXXLII of 2013) contains a narrow definition, designating four categories inside the adult education: (a) programs recognized and financed by the state that provide participants with a professional degree (OKJ)¹⁸⁹ (b) programs not recognized by the state that are needed for specific job requirements, specific area of employment, or provide a specific skill set and are not provided by a state agency, (c) financed language programs (alone or combined with other topics), (d) other financed programs that are aimed at enhancing general knowledge, developed competences and skills that do not fit into any of the previous categories, or contributes to adults' personal growth, social equality and citizen skills.

The programs recognized by the authority, the authorization is valid for an indefinite period. The permit is issued by the National Office for Professional Training and Adult Education if the program meets the legal requirements approved by an adult education expert.¹⁹⁰ The institution needs to sustain a quality assurance system providing the personal and material conditions (maintenance of the customer service, office of complains, information point, as well as determination of quality goals to the forthcoming academic year, and proof of financial security). The law provides an opportunity for the profit-oriented institutions to meet the designated requirements and apply for a permit and state recognition on a voluntary basis, therefore taking advantage on tax-exemption and a higher prestige that come with this status.

¹⁸⁹ Governmental Decree No.150 of 2012, July 6.

¹⁹⁰ Government Decree No.393 of 2013, November 12 and Economic Ministerial Decree No. 58 of 2013, December 13.

Those programs that do not belong to any of the four categories described above are offered within a free market framework that can be controlled by the Act on customers' protection and reported to the Central Statistical Office (Farkas and Henczi, 2014).

The conduct of adult education in Hungary is the responsibility of the Ministry for National Economy. The institutional structure of Hungarian adult education is quite diverse. Among the institutions providing adult education programs we may find profit-oriented schemes, professional chambers responsible for master degree programs, employers providing training, and also those public institutions that provide adult education programs besides their primary activities (high schools, vocational centres, colleges, universities). Civil organizations and foundations primarily provide realigning programs for underprivileged groups. The Türr István Training and Research Institute has also been established by the government (2011) to support the vulnerable groups, and serves as a think-tank for the Ministry of Human Capacities. From February 2012, the Institute is responsible for the programs related to public employment (Farkas, 2013b). The National Office for Professional Training and Adult Education registered 1526 institutions and 18,260 education programs (Oct 2016).¹⁹¹ The majority of these programs are professional training programs recognized by the state (61%). Close to one-third of the registered programs are general programs developing competences, while only 4% of them are language programs and less than 1% can be considered other professional programs.

The funding of adult education has a key role in achieving policy initiatives. Adult education in Hungary has a multi-channel structure of funding which consists of employers, participants themselves, the EU, and the state budget including the National Employment Fund (NEF). The system of the contributions to the professional training has been in effect since 1989 from public resources and the private, market contributions and organized trainings. The Act CLV of 2011 sets strict criteria for employers if they want to use tax deduction for training their employees: they have to provide monthly practical training for at least 45 contracted participants. Therefore, only larger companies are able to officially provide training for their employees in Hungary (Bertalan, 2014). On the other hand, employers are the main financers of their employees training: in 2015, 45% of the participants were financed by their employer, while 30% of participants with the help of EU funds. 22% of participants were self-financed, and 1% by the NEF on contributory basis. The statistical proportion of invoices shows that

¹⁹¹ Data from the homepage of the Office, see www.nive.hu.

employers primarily finance professional trainings, whereas the majority of self-financed programs are vocational trainings (KSH, 2016). In brief, the main contributors to the funding of adult education in Hungary are the employers, who use their own profits to account for the professional training of their employees. Therefore, the domestic market of adult education is supply-driven, but also demand-driven. The second largest contributor is the European Union, the third is the individual, self-financing her own training. State funding and contribution bases only have a very minor role in encouraging participation.

A long-term education policy is considered to be necessary by the fundamental values and trends of EU education experts. Our thinking about education is shaped by the European Commission's "Europe 2020 – Strategy for intelligent, sustainable and inclusive growth". The Hungarian National Reform Program (2011, Széll Kálmán Plan), concerned with national development strategy for the 2020's, was constructed along these strategic aims. Regarding employment, Hungary pledged to achieve an employment rate of 75% within the age group 20–64 by 2020. In contrast with the EU's aim of 40% in the rate of participants in higher education from the age group 30–34, Hungary pledged to achieve a rate of 30.3%. Regarding early leavers, Hungary pledged to decrease the proportion of those early leavers from the age group 18–24 whose highest educational attainment is 8th grade to 10%. Hungary also wishes to decrease the proportion of those living in poverty to 23.5% by 2020. However, the reality in 2012 was 60.7% of employment rate, 28.1% in higher education, 11.2% of early leavers and the rate of poverty was 28.3% in Hungary. It means that employment rate has been far from while the rate of higher education, early school leavers and poverty level has close to the pledges.

In 2014, a new LLL Strategy was passed by the Government setting up the main priorities to the period of 2014–2020.¹⁹² The responsible state agency for executing this strategy is the Ministry of Human Capacities, and it includes the following aims: (a) Providing incentive for participation in adult education, increasing the competitiveness of employees, developing language and IT skills; (b) increasing the innovation potential of small and medium businesses, developing the professional competence of employees working in technical and IT areas, according to labour market expectations; (c) creating a structure of LLL that is able to provide

¹⁹² See the Strategy in Hungarian:

<http://www.kormany.hu/download/7/fe/20000/Eg%C3%A9sz%20%C3%A9leten%20%C3%A1t%20tart%C3%B3%20tanul%C3%A1s.pdf>

employees with training suitable for the needs of the labour market, the result of which is expected to be the expansion of employment; (d) enhancing the chances of disadvantaged and vulnerable groups (jobseekers, inactive persons, mothers with young children, Roma, elderly, young, permanently unemployed persons) in the labour market, terminating their segregation by skill-development, help services, counselling, and the support of atypical forms of employment. The LLL policy has a fundamental role in achieving the strategic aims of Economic Innovation Operative Program (EIOP) and the Human Capacities Operative Program (HCOP) that are connected to each other in the execution. The areas related to professional training and adult education is overseen by the EIOP, whereas those related to public education, realignment, and cultural policy is overseen by HCOP.

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Data are available only on participants with some form of disability in adult education. In the 2011 Census, 467,388 Hungarians identified themselves as a person with disability, which is 4.6% of the total population. According to the census data (Central Statistical Office), 20.16% of them has an educational attainment lower than 8th grade, 22.46% of them graduated from high school, 16.99% completed some form of professional training, and 11.41% of this group has attained a degree from an institution of higher education and about one-third of them have only the elementary school education. It can be said that the main contributing factor to this poor rate of education is the hard accession to the education for disabled persons. During the 2011 Census, 110,541 persons stated that their disability restricts their opportunities in education and the labor market.

The National Disability Program for 2015–2025 also approves that the educational attainment and employment rate of disabled persons is significantly lower than the national average. The European Disability Strategy 2010-2020 provides a framework for national and European-level policies for inclusion on the ground of the Europe 2020 strategy. There is a need for inclusive education and support for personalized education, and also for recognizing learners' special needs and satisfying those needs with the proper methodology. The European Union supports national schemes within the framework of Education and Training 2020, in order to terminate the life-long obstacles suffered by persons with disabilities when attempting to access educational systems. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Art.24) requires from the party states – thus from Hungary – to ensure the accession of disabled persons

to the general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others including the reasonable accommodation. The LLL Strategy (2014-2020) also regards the labor market integration of people with changed working capacities and the improvement of the sustainability of their employment through education, training and learning as a specific area of intervention. Numerous projects have been or are currently conducted – financially support by the European Union – that are aimed at enabling the successful employment of persons with disabilities or changed working capacities through, among other ways, participating in education and training (TÁMOP 5.3.8., TÁMOP 5.3.8-11/A2, TÁMOP 1.1.1., EFOP 1.1.1.). If we look at the yearly statistical surveys (OSAP, 2012-2015) it is clear that between 2012 and 2015 the number of individuals participating in trainings aimed at skill development has multiplied (2012: 2,914 persons; 2013: 5,019 persons; 2014: 36,823 persons, 2015: 8,379 persons). The same is true for those who participated in a rehabilitating training (2012: 453 persons; 2013: 827 persons; 2014: 2,869 persons; 2015: 896 persons). There has also been an increase in the number of launched trainings for the other disabled persons (2012: 175 persons; 2013: 310 persons; 2014: 1,847 persons; 2015: 599 persons), and for the rehabilitation of persons with changed working capacities. (2012: 34 persons;; 2013: 27 persons; 2014: 188 persons; 2015: 69 persons). All the schemes listed that were aimed at the permanent or at least temporary employment of persons with disabilities or changed working capacities, but these aims can only be realized if the adult education sector is able to prepare them for an altered professional environment, and also improve the competences expected on the labour market.

A research on disabled people's participation in adult education¹⁹³ is seeking the ways of rehabilitation through the adult education institutions but outside the school system. The on-going project has put a special emphasis on the unhindered access to training programs by adults with disabilities, taking into consideration the legal framework. The research is based on total sampling, with one of the samples being the National Office for Professional Training and Adult Education's database on licensed adult education institutions. According to their data, 15,299 licensed training programs were available (November 2015) in 1,278 institutions. The number of completed questionnaires (N=136) represents 11% of all institutions. The survey covers on data collection on the experiences of disable participants in adult education

¹⁹³ The research project carried out by Dóra Hangya and funded by the Future Jobs Foundation (A Jövő Munkahelyeiért Alapítvány).

and the concerns of accession comparing with the legal term of adult with disability and his/her rights in the Act on adult education (2013) and its executive decree.¹⁹⁴ Accordingly, material conditions require opportunities for disabled adults to independently participate in the program taking into account their own condition and equipment as equally functional range of state-of-the-art equipment. However, for 51% of licensed, responding institutions, it is unclear who applicable regulation regards to be an adult with disabilities. The overwhelming majority of licensed, responding institutions have difficulties with meeting these criteria, and 32.4% of them do not meet any of the designated material conditions. Only 18% of them have adequate knowledge or possession of the devices required by the decree, 60% have partial knowledge or possession, whereas 22% has none. Furthermore, only 21.3% viewed people with changed working capacities and people with disabilities as a target group for their programs. Only 16% of the 136 responding institutions had programs specifically designed for people with disabilities. 47.8% of licensed, responding institutions received people with disabilities in their programs because these institutions view as a burden, and they want to account for the further costs of creating adequate material conditions from funding provided by tenders. 90% of licensed, responding institutions agree that employees of adult education institutions would need further training, during which they would acquire helpful information and procedures to help them create equal opportunities and accessibility for people with disability within their respective institutions. 95% agree that such training would be necessary for adult education experts, as well. 93% of the responding institutions agreed that adult education outside the school system has an important role in the successful social (re)integration of people with disabilities and those with changed working capacities, with 90% claiming that they would need to take part in this process. However, they do not feel responsible for constructing the system which would be capable of providing lifelong learning and training programs for people with disabilities.

A non-barrier-free institution and learning process can cause the absence or leave of persons with disabilities, and a decrease in their motivation. The results of the research project highlight that there are greatly diverging interpretations of the operational conduct designated by the legal provisions. There is a significant gap between the offers and the actual need of persons

¹⁹⁴ Government Decree No.393 of 2013, November 12, Section 16: licenses can only be issued to the applying institution that possess the material and financial conditions that provide accession for disabled persons.

belonging to the target group. The system of adult education formally equal but in reality, it is not, and it does not encourage adult education institutions to be more open and to make their programs more accessible to adults with disabilities. There is great need for a more effective system of adult education that is in accordance with the demands of the labor market providing capacities in a more proactive and focused manner, and takes the different needs of learners into consideration. Social inclusion is not only a legal closure but a practice and recognition of needs of other(ne)s by all.

Examples of Good Practice

Relation to active citizenship: social and economic dimension

Two good examples can be mentioned that have recently contributed to the increased participation in Hungarian adult education. TÁMOP-1.1.2-11/1 project („Improving the employability of the disadvantaged persons”) was aimed at improving the employability of underprivileged unemployed persons and inactive, to enhance their integration and reintegration to the labor market and to ensure the equal opportunities. The project was jointly carried out by the Ministry for National Economy and county governmental offices (May 2011–October 2015). The target group of this complex labor market program was made up of those with low educational attainment, returnees from maternal leave or health suspension, youth under 25 or 50+ years old, welfare recipients, and those endangered by permanent unemployment. 148,292 people participated in the program, with a budget of 111,390 billion HUF. Participants were supported through personalized services and support programs, mentoring services developing their professional and personal competences through professional training, support for job-seeking, entrepreneurship, labour market services, supporting health checks, enhancing mobility, managerial activities. The youth participated a high rate, and more than 20% of the participants were living in the 33 most deprived areas of Hungary, with 15% of the jobseekers being of Roma origin. 47% participated in one of the nearly 300 training programs offered by the project. 56% of the participants received welfare benefits, 51% had low educational attainment, 50% were at the very beginning of their professional life, 49% were adults threatened by permanent unemployment, 43% were returnees from maternal leave or health suspension, and 30% were adults over 50 years of age. The program greatly contributed to the employment of vulnerable groups.

Relation to active citizenship: social and political dimension

TÁMOP-2.1.2-12/1-2012-0001 project (“Developing second language and IT skills”) intended to enhance adult willingness to study, to increase the number of participants in adult education, to help those with unsatisfactory language or IT skills to enter and remain in the labor market. The target group included adults over 18 years of age who was not a student in a state-funded education program, paid the down payment, and did not participate in any state or EU-funded IT or language programs at the time. Within the framework of the “Your knowledge is your future!” program, more than 100,000 adults (10% of them belong to the vulnerable group) could participate in IT and language programs. The budget of the program was 13 billion HUF providing 90,000 HUF to each participant with a 2–5% down payment. Besides direct funding, the project provided recruitment, e-counselling, motivation, and a mentoring program.

Country Specific Conclusion

The recent emigration wave and aging society leads to a drop in the number of potential work force. This labour shortage urges the improvement of the skills of the unemployed and inactive persons. Moreover, the mandatory school age has recently dropped to 16 years of age in Hungary. As a result, those who leave the school system will necessarily have to enter the adult education system to obtain professional degrees and improve their skills entering or/and remaining in the labour market. Due to current governmental policies, the development of basic knowledge has decreased in vocation schools. The absence of these competences, however, makes employment and participation in adult education even more difficult. The number and proportion of company trainings is likely to increase in the future. In future the rate of participation shall be upgraded in LLL changing the attitude: adult education is an investment in future. Today this acceptance is the lowest among the less/non-educated and inactive persons. The vulnerable groups would be encouraged with certain services, such as mentoring programs, professional counselling and easy accession. It would be important for decision-makers to start thinking about adult education as a unified system restructuring of the system of finance. Neither personal tax exemptions, nor voucher-based financing are able to function. It would be essential to equally encourages the state, the employer, and the employee to invest in further training, formal and informal modes of learning. The lack of cooperation between the state run education system and the labour market cannot result a demand-driven adult education sector.

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Concluding Remarks

The investigated five countries have certain similarities, but in general they can be divided into three groups on the basis on how the adult education and LLL has been considered in society and in the governance: (a) Slovenia proves the long-term strategic thinking on LLL to become a Learning Society; (b) Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia have established the basic infrastructure and policy of adult education with limited governmental commitment and success to change the social attitude towards knowledge and LLL; (c) Hungary had also developed the basic infrastructure and policy that have been deteriorated deeply in financial, administrative and priority points for a short-term thinking since 2009.

Similarities

Regarding similarities it can be said that there were certain historical roots and traditions of adult education in civil society in interwar period and in socialist era supported by the state in favour of social mobility, modernisation of working class, and combating illiteracy. These traditions were revitalised in 1990s. In development of democratic changes and needs of market economy high rate of unemployment and reduced economic activity of adult population have strongly inspired this revitalisation. The EU accession and its preparatory period influenced the establishment of adult education infrastructure and policy in these countries. The principles of adult education policy and the interpretation of LLL together with education suppliers have been determined by the European integration. As member states the goals of the policy and strategic documents passed by the EU concerning adult education and LLL have been penetrated into national policy and law. It means that separate policy documents together with relevant regulation on adult education have been established providing responsibility of ministry/authorities in registration/authorisation for applicant institutions/companies and programmes, the minimal quality requirements have been determined and checked by state agencies. In parallel, certain financial transfers for institutes/companies in adult education are ensured including certain target audience from the vulnerable/disadvantaged social strata but in general the participation rate and budget allocations in adult education have remained limited. There is no clean and stable public supporting methods in adult learning (e.g. benefits in transport to accession of learning, equal accession for disabled persons to courses/institution, tax deduction for employers), while yearly plans of policy papers are changing the means of

registration, finance, statistics and cooperation. The motivation of potential target audience, despite of higher rate of early school leavers, uneducated and illiterate – including IT competences, too –, number of people who communicate foreign language, population in disadvantaged rural/devastated area, Roma, and young adults with low-skilled education, has not been upgraded. The public education system has remained content-driven and not competence/development oriented. Consequently adult education would make extra efforts to develop social, cultural and economic competences of learners and to ensure the professional knowledge of learners upon the feedback of the labour market. For these reasons above a robust progress is not probable in adult education and LLL in Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria in near future. There is more chance for progress in Croatia due to the differentiated education programmes and high number of experts in andragogy.

Differences

The diversity in adult education system means that Slovenia can prove both in medium- and long-term planning in LLL ensuring separate adult education and sectoral (social cohesion, employment, regional development) policy toolbox based on evidences and statistics. The other countries consider adult education as a top-down policy with many formalities being met. Hungary sometimes does not meet the formal requirements. For instance, the European Agenda for Adult Learning highlights the need to increase participation in adult learning of all kinds (formal, non-formal and informal learning) whether to acquire new work skills, for active citizenship, or for personal development and fulfilment.

The European Agenda is being promoted in 36 countries by a network of National Coordinators. They coordinate and steer different actions in the field of adult learning by engaging with the main stakeholders involved, disseminating and implementing European policies and exchanging good practices and knowhow with other countries and raising awareness of adult learning. The National Coordinators for the Implementation of the European Agenda on Adult Learning receive financial support from the European Commission, through the Erasmus+ programme. The list of National Coordinators for the Agenda does not indicate the Hungarian coordinator's name (Nov 2016) due to incomplete changes in public administration (the National Office of Vocational Education and Training and Adult Learning is an institution with service-type, authority-type and manager-type functions together.)

The UK, Ireland and the ‘Benelux’ region

Nathalie Huegler and Natasha Kersh

Executive Summary

Our review of these five countries has indicated the prominent role attached to lifelong learning and adult education, in particular for engaging and motivating vulnerable young adults. In national contexts, these two concepts are often used interchangeably, and even within a single country the interpretation and perceptions of both lifelong learning and adult education could be contextually specific. Considering lifelong learning and adult education developments in the context of national conceptions as well as historical and policy developments contributes to a better understanding of the ways these two concepts have been developed and redeveloped nationally. As noted elsewhere (Holford and Mleczko, 2013, p. 27), Europe’s diversity is highly important and a model of lifelong learning across Europe is unlikely to be achieved. In this report, the consideration of five country-specific cases has demonstrated how the discourses of adult education and lifelong learning change over time. The concepts and perception of adult education as a means to engage young adults who are considered to be vulnerable have been shaped strongly by changes in the economic, political and social landscapes across European countries. Factors such as the rise in unemployment rates, influx of refugees and the increase in the number of early school leavers/dropouts have contributed significantly to the changing meanings of adult education and lifelong learning. In the UK context, as considered in the report, the changes in the perceptions of the role and purpose of adult education have been seen from the 1970s, the main feature of this change being associated with the transition from liberal forms of adult education towards a more economically driven interpretation, focusing on raising the skills of the population. The case of the Netherlands demonstrates how government involvement in adult education changed from what was considered mostly ‘residual’ in the form of some subsidies, to a strong national recognition of adult education as a means for improving the life chances of adults, including those who are considered to be most vulnerable. In Belgium, the developments are rooted in the country’s strong traditions of technical and vocational adult education dating back to the 1950s and 1960s, which further resulted in the rise of continuing adult education and the significant role of Adult Basic Education Centres (from the 1990s) in supporting adults with low skills and

education levels. Irish national concepts of adult education have been driven by its traditional community-based sector as well as through the Vocational Education Committees (VECs), which have played a critical role in the development of adult and second-chance education opportunities. In Luxembourg, the concept of adult education grew from the educational initiatives of workers' movements and Christian communities early in the 20th century, and subsequently promoted the significance of second chance and basic skills adult education – a trend that became prominent in the 1970s. The roles and importance of adult education in all five countries have been evident through both existing research in the field and national policy documents and papers. The focus on using adult education initiatives in order to support, motivate and engage (vulnerable) young people has been reflected in a range of specific programmes related to adult education that aimed to target young adults experiencing different types of disadvantages. The examples of good practice, identified through research and described in the report, illustrate the way strategies and initiatives to support vulnerable young adults are realised through specific courses and programmes. Each country case is exemplified with examples of courses and/or programmes that have been developed and implemented in order to address various kinds of disadvantage and problems faced by young people across the five countries. The types of programmes range from civic education courses to various initiatives related to raising the skills and competences of the population, including basic skills, vocational competences and social skills. The aspect of civic engagement is considered to be an important aspect of all programmes, not only in those that explicitly focus on civic/citizenship education. Developing citizenship skills is associated with the acquisition of a range of skills that are considered to be necessary to participate in the social, economic and political life of the country. These skills include both basic and personal skills and vocational skills that facilitate success in the labour market and social engagement. The concluding part of the report summarises some similarities and differences across the countries, aiming to pull out synergies in developing approaches to engage disadvantaged young people.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: United Kingdom

Introduction

There are some notable differences between the systems of Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and England. Education policy is generally a devolved matter, although social policy on central government level (for example in relation to access to welfare benefits or citizenship for people

of foreign nationality) influences the four national contexts. In England there has traditionally been a divide between state-controlled formal education and non-formal adult education from civil society agencies. As a result, as in other countries, formal adult education was for many years not allowed much ‘reasonable ground beyond ‘second-chance education’ (Hefler and Markowitsch, 2013: p.83).

Overall, adult education is provided through many different institutions, including further education colleges, local authority adult and community education centres, a wide range of voluntary organisations as well as private providers. ‘Further education and training’ is the common term for post-compulsory education, including vocational education (such as apprenticeships and traineeships), while ‘community learning’ is generally understood as an umbrella term for a range of flexible learning opportunities which are often non-formal but may be aimed specifically at enabling people to “reconnect with learning” and thus progress to formal learning opportunities (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015: p.37).

According to OECD (2016) data, 21% of adults aged 25 to 64 in the UK were educated to levels below upper secondary education in 2015. Among the 25-34 age group, 15% had attained education below upper secondary levels. The participation of low-qualified adults (i.e. those with lower secondary education at most) in lifelong learning in the UK is, at 17.0%, below the EU average of 21.8% (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015, p.36).

The Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) (OECD, 2013) highlighted the achievements of the participating UK nations (England and Northern Ireland) in the integration of highly skilled adults within the labour market. Social outcomes for this group were higher than the average of surveyed countries. The other side of the coin is that those with lower skills levels also had higher than average negative social outcomes in areas such as health or participation in civil society activities. Particular concerns exist, however, regarding social inequalities among young adults, as well as a generational imbalance in literacy and numeracy proficiency: Not only does social class (via parental educational attainment) play a more significant role in young people’s educational outcomes, but England was also the only country in the survey where adults aged 55-65 performed better than 16-24 year-olds in both literacy and numeracy (OECD, 2013). In 2013, only 5% among 16-18 year olds and 10% of 19-24 year olds in England were found to have reached PIAAC Levels 4 or 5 in Literacy while 18% of 16-24 year olds were not in education, employment or training (NEET) (Carpentieri et al., 2015).

Historical Development

Both lifelong learning (LLL) and adult education have rich traditions in the UK. In Scotland, religious roots were significant for the development of adult education, as were the self-help culture with values placed on mutual improvement and autodidactic learning (Weedon et al., 2007). During the twentieth century, the development of LLL and adult education in the UK were strongly associated with the politics, ideology and thinking of the labour movement. The Workers' Educational Association (WEA), established in 1903, positioned itself as a partnership of labour and learning (Holford and Welikala, 2013). Many prominent labour party supporters were associated with the WEA. Early members of WEA have attached great importance to a liberal education, which should permeate the whole society. In contrast, most education provided to the working classes promoted only 'absorption of facts'. As noted by Holford and Welikala (2013), a close association of the WEA with the labour movement was one of the reasons that the significance of liberal education became an important tenet of policy in England from WW1 to the 1980s. In 1918, adult education was defined as 'subjects of general as distinct from vocational education' (Holford and Welikala, 2013: p.147), and over the years the term adult education was closely associated with liberal education. Liberal education for adults was, therefore, vital not only for the individual but also for the society.

In Scotland, the Alexander Report (Scottish Education Department, 1975) was a seminal document for the organisation of further education and community education. As a result the community sector has become quite developed and diverse, involving a range of projects and organisations on local levels and beyond, as well as full-time, part-time, formal and informal learning activities (Eurydice, 2015a).

Until the 1980s, all the UK governments promoted and funded liberal adult education. The gradual change in the perceptions of the role and meaning of adult education has been seen from the 1970s. Liberal adult education and its priorities has become a subject of criticism. Keith Johnson (Secretary of State for Education 1981–86) saw education as central to the British economic plight and criticised what he referred to as 'anti-enterprise culture' (Holford and Welikala, 2013).

One of the major national policy documents around the turn of the Millennium, The Learning Age (Department for Education and Employment - DFEE, 1998), emphasised the significance

of LLL and adult education. However, as noted by some commentators (e.g. Holford and Welikala, 2013; NIACE, 1998), the traditions of community and citizenship learning, and those of liberal adult education have been substantially abandoned. Further developments of LLL and adult education in the UK have been strongly underpinned by neoliberalism. The vision of adult learning became strongly associated with global competitiveness, which was reflected in policy documents, for example in *The Leitch Review of Skills* (2006). The market-oriented character of Labour government policies on LLL was characterised by its acceptance of the general international trend rather than the development of any alternatives (Holford and Welikala, 2013: p.145).

Conceptions and National Approaches

The successive Labour party governments (from 1997 to 2010) made commitments to tackling social exclusion primarily through education, training and employment opportunities, although there has been some criticism on the measurable impact in reality of Labour's political rhetoric (Holford and Welikala, 2013). Under the subsequent Conservative (dominated) governments, there has been an increased focus on skills and employability within lifelong learning, particularly in the context of public spending cuts under austerity measures. An example of this has been the renaming of the ministerial role from 'Minister for Further Education, Skills and Lifelong Learning' to 'Minister of State for Skills' (Eurydice, 2016).

Responsibility for lifelong learning has undergone some changes over the past decades and at the time of writing is shared by a number of departments and agencies. Generally, the Department for Education is the key agency for the education of young people up to 18, while for post-19 education, the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS) steers the broad direction of post-19 learning and skills policy. Joint areas of responsibility include further education, basic skills, vocational qualifications, apprentice- and traineeships, as well as careers advice and guidance (Eurydice, 2015b).

Since the Apprenticeships, Skills, Children and Learning Act in 2009, the Skills Funding Agency has been responsible for funding and promoting adult learning (outside of higher education). This includes responsibility for supporting traineeships for young people who are not in education, employment or training; running the National Apprenticeship Service (in England) as well as the National Careers Service (Eurydice, 2015b).

Key stated policy priorities include a focus on apprenticeships and other work-based learning, an increased local influence in the skills development area, as well as an expectation of learners either having achieved or working towards key qualifications in English and Maths (GCSE's as aim). For under 19 education, the Wolf review of vocational education in England (for 14-19 year olds) proposed a focus on core skills in English language and Maths and on those training programmes with 'genuine labour market value and credibility' (Wolf, 2011: p.22).

Scotland has developed its own policy of lifelong learning through 'Skills for Scotland' papers in 2007 and 2010. These documents focus on the matching of skills with employer needs, simplifying the skills system as well as partnerships between public, private and voluntary organisations in the lifelong learning sector (Eurydice, 2015a). The Scottish Government further set out a 'Statement of Ambition' for adult learning (Education Scotland, 2014), which outlines the significance of accessible, both formal and informal learning opportunities in a range of settings (including educational establishments and communities). The statement further emphasises the personal development and societal benefits of adult learning.

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The low performance (in international and age group comparison) of young people aged 16-24 particularly in England in literacy and numeracy, in labour market participation as well as attending education or training (with a particular issue concerning 16-18 year olds) have been highlighted as problems through the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (OECD, 2013).

Within the UK context over the last two decades, the problem of engaging and facilitating life chances for vulnerable young people has received much recognition in both policy and research. In 1997, shortly after their ascent to power, the 'New' Labour government made social exclusion a key policy issue in 1997. The Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) was set up to provide a cross-departmental approach to the complex problems of specific groups, initially focusing on rough sleepers, truancy and school exclusion, teenage pregnancy and young people described as NEET. The SEU defined social exclusion as: "[...] a shorthand term for what can happen when people or areas suffer from a combination of linked problems such as unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime environments, bad health and family breakdown" (Levitas et al., 2007).

The policy agenda youth social exclusion was first laid out in the SEU's Bridging the Gap report (SEU, 1999) and in the subsequent Policy Action Team Report on Young People (SEU, 2000), and is reflected in the development of various programmes and schemes that aim to engage young people, specifically those who are disadvantaged and/or disengaged. In 2006 the then Labour government published its Reaching Out report setting out its action on social exclusion. This document highlighted some key guiding principles concerned with tackling social exclusion, including 'Better identification'; 'Earlier intervention'; 'Systematically identifying 'what works'; 'Promoting multi-agency working'; as well as 'Personalisation, rights and responsibilities'.

'Vulnerable young people' have been defined as those who experience substance misuse, emotional health concerns, teenage parenthood, low attainment, as well as those who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and those involved in crime (Barnes et al., 2011). In international comparison, young people in the UK rank below the middle on most dimensions of wellbeing (OECD, 2009). Recent statistics show that there were 843,000 young people (aged 16–24 years) in the UK who were classed as NEET between April and June 2016, a decrease of 22,000 from January to March 2016 and down 78,000 from a year earlier. The percentage of all young people in the UK who were NEET was 11.7%, down 0.3 percentage points from January to March 2016 and down 0.9 percentage points from the previous year. Just under half (46%) of all young people in the UK who were NEET were classed as unemployed (looking for work and available for work). The remainder were classified as economically inactive because they were not looking for work and/or not available for work (Office for National Statistics, 2016). According to Eurostat data, young people aged 18-24 classified as early school leavers made out 10.8% in 2015, compared to 11.0% in the EU-28 (Eurostat, 2016a).

According to Eurostat figures (2016b), youth unemployment is at 10.7% among 15-29 year olds in the UK in 2015, down from a peak of 15.8% in 2011. However, for young people educated to at most lower secondary level, the rate in 2015 was 22.6%. Among young people born outside the EU-28, the rate was 15.1% (Eurostat, 2016c). 28.5% of young people aged 16 to 29 who were born in the UK were at risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2013, while the rate for those born outside the EU-28 the risk was 37.6% (Eurostat data, 2016d).

There have been a number of programmes over the past decades aimed specifically at addressing the problem of young people not in education, employment or training. This is not least because international studies have highlighted the dangers of a widening inter-generational skills gap as well as social disparities that persist across generations. Shifting governmental positions, both within and across political divides, have meant that some initiatives have been more short-lived than initially suggested. An example of this was the central government funded 'Connexions' strategy and partnership in England which now continues on a local level in some areas, but not in others, following changes introduced through the policy document 'Youth Matters' (DfES, 2005). Overall a trend towards marketisation (for example through a focus on 'commissioning' at local levels) has persisted and increased. This has led to some critique that a consumerist approach has dominated over a citizenship approach regarding access to opportunities, including education (e.g. Smith, 2005; Davies, 2013).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Research related to adult education, social inclusion and young people's chances and choices has been recognised as an important dimension of LLL research. Research in LLL underpins the significance of facilitating young people's opportunities for learning and skills development, specifically for those who are considered to be vulnerable. Research undertaken by Atkinson and Kersley (1998) suggests that these target groups may experience the following common types of disadvantages:

- Suffering from some kind of disability or long-term illness;
- Experiencing deficiency in basic skills, and as well as lacking in life skills;
- Being economically inactive;
- Experiencing lack of self-confidence (the major factor that was significantly holding them back from getting a job);
- Experiencing lack of formal qualifications.

The Social Exclusion Unit's 'Transitions' report (2005) noted the complexity of youth as a life phase, the compounded nature of risk factors (such as poor housing, homelessness, physical and mental ill health, substance misuse, poor education and long-term unemployment). According to Feinstein and Sabates' (2006) longitudinal studies of multiple disadvantage,

analysing the 1958 and 1970 Birth Cohort Studies data, for some vulnerable young people (aged 13–14 years) the persistence of ‘risk’ through childhood leads to a very high probability of poor adult outcomes. For example, young people living in families with five or more problems were 36 times more likely to be excluded from school than children in families with no problems. They were also six times more likely to have been in care or to have had contact with the police (Barnes et al., 2011: p.12).

Levitas (2005) has distinguished three key discourses regarding social exclusion which are reflected in different policy approaches. A redistributionist discourse (RED) is mostly concerned with alleviating poverty and widening access to resources including education through the redistribution of wealth and opportunities. A social integrationist (SID) focuses primarily on the integrative aspect of the forces of the labour market, including through skills development. In this model, paid work is seen as important not just as the most effective route out of material poverty but as an integrating factor in its own right (Levitas et al., 2007). In contrast, a moral underclass discourse (MUD) emphasises individual responsibility, including for changing any values or behaviour which prevent them from participating effectively in society (Weedon and Riddell, 2013). As such, the latter is a deficit-orientated approach. Those key discourses have been relevant for the policy context regarding vulnerable young people to varying degrees. SID is certainly a key feature in lifelong learning policies in the UK context, while some of the rhetoric (if perhaps not the reality) under New Labour governments have indicated some attempts at redistribution (see also Holford and Welikala, 2013). Nevertheless, some of the documents emphasising the deficits and ‘problem behaviours’ of certain groups of young people (and the discourse concerning ‘troubled families’) both under the Labour and recent Conservative governments have been reminiscent of aspects of a MUD discourse.

As discussed below, not least in the context of the impact of economic ‘downturn’ and austerity measures over the past decade, in England in particular some programmes aimed at redistribution in the lifelong learning and informal education sectors have either been cut altogether (such as the Education Maintenance Allowance – EMA for 16-19 year olds) or become more exclusively targeted at the most ‘troublesome’ young people; including a particular focus on young people not in education, training or employment who are receiving state benefits (despite the fact that ‘NEET’ young people not receiving benefits are in the majority) (European Commission, 2016). This has gone hand in hand with funding

uncertainties for existing programme, a trend towards more and more ‘vocationalism’ within lifelong learning programmes (Boeren and Holford, 2016), as well as the marketization of the informal youth education sector (Davies, 2013).

An example of the focus on reducing ‘NEET’ young people through incentives (and disincentives) related to the benefits system is the proposed ‘Earn or Learn’ scheme (European Commission, 2016). A report by the ‘think tank’ the Institute for Public Policy Research in 2013 (Cooke, 2013) proposed a new system of transition from school to employment, including by tying eligibility for public benefits for 18-21 year olds to engagement in education, training or employment (through a different benefit called Youth Allowance). Comparing the relatively high percentage of ‘NEET’ young people aged 18-24 to lower levels in countries such as the Netherlands, it declares that ‘the goal for society should be to eliminate all but the most temporary experience of being NEET among young people’ (ibid.: p.3). The Youth Allowance scheme has at the time of writing not been introduced, but proposals have included a three week programme of support for young people to be able to find work, apprenticeship or training within six months (European Commission, 2016).

The European ‘Youth Guarantee scheme’ focuses on a commitment by all Member States to ensure that all young people under the age of 25 years receive either a good-quality offer of employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship. While many member states have published national implementation plans within the past years, this has not been published online for the UK. The European Commission’s (2016) assessment on the UK’s implementation of the scheme notes a focus on the existing ‘youth contract’ scheme which concerns the provision of apprenticeships and work experience, as part of a range of programmes for young people at risk of becoming ‘NEET’. However, concerns are also raised, despite an overall good performance within EU comparison, about potential “weaknesses in vocational and adult skills systems that are disproportionately affecting young disadvantaged people” (European Commission, 2016: p.5).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Programmes related to adult education include a wide range to engage and reengage young people. General basic skills programmes are provided by colleges of further education and

community adult education centres. Throughout England, Wales and Northern Ireland a nine-level National Qualifications Framework is in place, and further education opportunities include basic skills programmes at ‘Entry’ or subsequent levels in English, Maths and ICT (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). Basic skills programmes also include English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programmes for newcomers including asylum seekers and refugees. Basic skills and remedy programmes are also often part of vocational education programmes. Many voluntary sector and private providers also offer basic skills programmes as part of their work (see examples of good practice below).

In Scotland, adult literacy is described as a ‘social practice model’, embedding learning in everyday life experience and adapted to individual learning needs. Scotland has set out a new adult literacy strategy for 2020 (Eurydice, 2015c).

Second chance education

Second chance programmes focus particularly on gaining General Certificates of Secondary Education (GCSEs), which are the main measure of achievement at school for 16 year olds in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Adult learning opportunities in this area are funded for people aged 19 and over up to GCSE level. GCSE qualifications are awarded for single subjects, and English and maths are of particular significance for adult education. Other qualifications which lead up to GCSE level are also available for adult learners (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

Vocational programmes including retraining

Recent years have seen a drive towards expanding vocational programmes, particularly in form of trainee- and apprenticeships. Under the Youth Contract Scheme, a range of measures have been introduced for 16-24 year olds defined as ‘NEET’, in form of incentives for employers to take on young people as apprentices, trainees or employees; placements for young people; as well as advice and training opportunities (for example through so-called sector-based academies) (Mirza-Davies, 2015). Additionally, learners can study towards different vocational diplomas at further education colleges which form part of the National Qualifications Framework.

Challenges noted in the European Commission's (2016) report on the UK's implantation of the Youth Guarantee include the need to improve the quality of many of England's current apprenticeship schemes, around half of which were ranked as 'requiring improvement' or 'inadequate' in a government inspection. There were also some concerns that apprenticeships needed to be linked better to their occupational sector and its organisations and that qualifications were often pitched at a low level and concentrated only in specific sectors (with a lack of representation within the science and technology fields). It is noteworthy that Scotland has its own skills development strategy which places a particular focus on creating apprenticeships in the field of science, technology, engineering and mathematics.

Informal Learning

The informal learning sector is diverse across the UK, and particularly where programmes targeting socially excluded young people are concerned, there sometimes is an overlap with social work (especially through policy developments in recent years). An example of this is targeted youth support (TYS), introduced under the Labour government (DfES, 2007; Thomas et al., 2008). This is aimed at early identification of the needs of vulnerable teenagers and effective working-together between agencies, and includes objectives around their engagement in learning, as well as support around the transition from education to employment (among other areas).

A very diverse range of charities (national and local) also provide informal education opportunities, usually aimed at specific groups of young people (for example young carers, young people with mental health difficulties or young refugees. However, as Davies (2013) observes, the informal education potentials of youth work and youth support have been considered particularly at risk through austerity measures which have targeted this sector disproportionately in many local authorities. Furthermore, in a policy context (especially in England) which focuses more and more exclusively on 'problem' youth, there has been a shift from informal education towards a casework management model. The informal education sector for young people (as many other public service areas) has also been subject to significant marketisation, following a competitive 'commissioning' model that may award bids to multi-national corporations rather than local organisations with trained and experienced staff (Davies, 2013).

Higher education

While there are many similarities throughout the UK in the higher education system, there are also quite specific characteristics in each of its nations. A key distinction concerns funding: In England, the costs of higher education are mainly covered by tuition fees (covered by loans taken out by students), in contrast to Scotland, where first degrees are free from such fees. A recent white paper on higher education policy (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, 2016) acknowledges gaps in access to higher education for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, particularly in England. It proposes to double the proportion of people from disadvantaged backgrounds entering university in 2020 compared to 2009, and to increase the number of students from black and ethnic minority groups (BME) going to university by 20% by 2020. It also identifies the participation of white British males from the most disadvantaged backgrounds as particularly low, including in comparison to disadvantaged men from BME backgrounds (ibid.).

The Scottish Wider Access Programme (SWAP, 2016) supports access to higher education for adult learners through programmes in colleges across Scotland. They are specifically aimed at adults with no or few qualifications or who have had a longer gap in their education.

There are also some specific programmes supporting refugees entering higher education, such as the Refugee Advice and Guidance Unit (RAGU) at London Metropolitan University, which is involved in an NHS funded advice and support scheme for refugee healthcare professionals in London (London Metropolitan University, no date). The initiative 'Article 26', funded through the Helena Kennedy Foundation, works in partnership with some universities to support asylum seeking students in accessing and succeeding in Higher Education (asylum seekers are not eligible for tuition fee loans in England). The initiative provides a bursary for the students' tuition fees as well as funding for some of the additional costs associated with studying (Article 26, no date).

Examples of Good Practice

Living Independently

Target groups: young people (care leavers) of all abilities, mainly aged between 13 and 19 (as well as adults and younger learners, where appropriate).

Aim: To facilitate the inclusion and integration of young people leaving care: all young people leaving care should be better prepared and supported to live independently

Category: Basic skills and remedy

An innovative ASDAN programme will support the new cross-government strategy to transform support for young people leaving care. The ASDAN Living Independently Short Course is focused on helping looked-after children make a successful transition from school education to adulthood. Developed in collaboration with local authorities, the course supports the cross-government strategy to transform support for young people leaving care – ‘Keep on caring: supporting young people from care to independence’. The flexibility of the course means that it can be carried out in a variety of settings, over a time period to suit the individual or co-ordinating centre. It is aimed at young people of all abilities, mainly aged between 13 and 19 (as well as adults and younger learners, where appropriate). Because Short Courses are multi-level, the focus is on completing challenges and skills development according to individual ability, rather than attainment at a specific level. Students present a portfolio of evidence of their activities. This portfolio will contain:

- • completed Living Independently Short Course book and evidence of challenges completed
- • planning and reviewing documents
- • record of progress
- • summary of achievement, identifying skills development.

The Living Independently Short Course contains nine modules:

- Earning and Spending Money
- Keeping Track of your Money
- Making Financial Choices
- A Place of your Own
- Health and Wellbeing
- Cooking on a Budget
- Practical Cooking Skills
- Career Management

- Preparing for the World of Work

The Living Independently Short Course is available to all ASDAN registered centres from November 2016.

<https://www.asdan.org.uk/news/2016-07-new-asdan-course-will-help-care-leavers-live-independently>

The ASDAN Citizenship Short Course

Target groups: young people of all abilities, mainly aged between 13 and 19 (as well as adults and younger learners, where appropriate).

Aim: to equip young people with citizenship skills

Category: Basic skills and remedy

The ASDAN Citizenship Short Course accredits up to 60 hours of Citizenship activity. It has been updated to take into account changes to the National Curriculum and Programme of Study requirements for Citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4. The of the course means it can be carried out in a variety of settings, over a time period to suit the individual or co-ordinating centre. Challenge descriptions can be interpreted and adapted according to the situation. Students present a portfolio of evidence of their activities.

14. This portfolio will contain:

- completed Citizenship Short Course book and evidence of challenges completed
- planning and reviewing documents
- record of progress
- summary of achievement, identifying skills development

The Citizenship Short Course contains six modules:

- Rights and Responsibilities
- Community and Volunteering
- Government and Democracy
- Law and Order
- Finance

- Global Citizenship

<https://www.asdan.org.uk/courses/programmes/citizenship-short-course>

Preparing vulnerable young people for employment – Developing Initiatives for Support in the Community

Aim: to support disadvantaged and excluded communities and works to ensure that all its clients realise their potential. It provides specialist services for:

Category: informal learning

Developing Initiatives for Support in the Community (DISC) is an independent charity based in County Durham. It supports disadvantaged and excluded communities and works to ensure that all its clients realise their potential. The organisation is made up of eight service delivery units. Education services are located within the health young people and families (HYPF) delivery unit. This good practice example shows how DISC provides an education and training programme aimed at particularly vulnerable young learners to enable them to develop independent living skills and get ready to begin an apprenticeship, take further courses or start work.

Learners taking courses at DISC have complex histories of school refusal, low levels of educational attainment, low self-esteem or disruptive behaviour. They work in small groups with teaching and support staff who challenge and support them to review their barriers to learning and success. Alongside very well-structured teaching over 26 weeks, learners benefit greatly from counselling and guidance to prepare for adulthood and develop skills for independence and emotional resilience. A very large majority of learners make exceptional progress, achieve challenging learning goals and gain valuable qualifications; most go on to find employment, begin further training or enter higher-level education. Retention and attendance rates are very high because learners enjoy learning and find their experiences at DISC particularly stimulating and very rewarding. Through well-structured one-to-one support and guidance sessions, learners are able to talk about things that trouble them and ‘let off steam’ so that they can take part in their learning more effectively. All DISC education and training programmes include a period of work experience that young people begin when they are ready, often started with support and supervision that reduce over time as learners gain confidence

and skills, such as planning independent travel. These work experiences include placements in local cafes, administration, animal care, NHS IT support, game-keeping, childcare, adult day services and retail. DISC arranges extra support and supervision for learners with additional or high-level needs. This means that many learners develop valuable work skills that help them to extend their learning or begin an apprenticeship.

<https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/preparing-vulnerable-young-people-for-employment>

Conclusion

In the UK, the adult education and lifelong learning sector can both look back on longstanding, rich traditions as well as currently evidencing a scene of diverse and wide-ranging provision. At the same time, tackling the social exclusion of vulnerable groups, particularly of young people, has been a key area of social policy development for many years. A variety of programmes in the lifelong learning field have significantly contributed to the social inclusion of young people and new initiatives are being developed on an ongoing basis. However, as observed by frequently within the various (political, academic and other public) discourses on both lifelong learning and social policy, there is often at least some disparity between ‘rhetoric’ and ‘reality’ (e.g. Holford and Welikala, 2013). Trends such as a focus on economic participation, the marketization of lifelong learning as well as an emphasis on ‘vocationalism’ (Boeren and Holford, 2016) can be observed both in policy developments in the lifelong learning sector and in some programmes aimed at including vulnerable young people. This has led to some critique that a consumerist model sometimes prevails over a citizenship-focused approach.

In the context of austerity policies affecting public spending in the UK, the trend towards more targeted and less universal services or programmes affects both adult education more generally (with some exceptions, for example in Scotland where community education provision remains more prominent) as well as specifically programmes for young people. Informal education in particular has been affected by spending cuts, and many initiatives focus on young people who are ‘NEET’, especially if they are receiving state benefits. Another phenomenon observed repeatedly over the past decades is that changing policy agendas and priorities have made some initiatives rather short-lived, making an evaluation of their efficacy in the long-term difficult.

Overall, there is a lot of scope for policy measures and specific programmes to promote active citizenship within the UK, but there also remain a lot of challenges, especially (though not exclusively) with the new range of uncertainties introduced in the post-EU-referendum era.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Ireland

Introduction

Ireland is among the European Union countries which were majorly affected by the global economic crisis occurring over the course of the last decade. This followed previous developments of significant economic growth, when unemployment sank to record low levels and Ireland had developed from a traditional net emigration to a net immigration country (Maunsell et al., 2008). The economic crisis led to high youth unemployment (31.2% in 2012) which has fallen somewhat since (19% in 2016) (Eurydice, 2016). Addressing the long-term consequences of the crisis, as well as adapting to the changing population characteristics – particularly through immigration – are among the key challenges for contemporary Irish society, including for the adult education and lifelong learning sectors.

According to OECD (2016) data, 20.2% of adults aged 25 to 64 in Ireland were educated to levels below upper secondary education in 2015. Of these, 7% had only completed primary level education. Among the 25-34 age group, 9% had attained education below upper secondary levels. The participation of low-qualified adults (i.e. those with lower secondary education at most) in lifelong learning in Ireland is, at 10.8%, low in comparison with the EU average of 21.8% (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015, p.15). According to the Survey of Adult Skills PIAAC (Central Statistics Office, 2013), 17.9% of adults had low literacy skills and 25.6% have low numeracy skills, scoring at level 1 or below on a 5 level scale.

Maunsell and Downes (2013) emphasise the role of the community-based adult education sector in Ireland, in which women's community groups and voluntarism play important roles. The principle of lifelong learning (LLL) is underpinned by six priority areas: consciousness raising, citizenship, cohesion, competitiveness, cultural development and community building. Lifelong learning has become a central feature of Irish educational policies. One of the most influential documents on LLL, *Learning for Life* (the White Paper on Adult Education; Department of Education and Science, 2000) stressed the importance of equality, participation and outcomes for in adult education. The document also highlighted the role of inclusive society, underpinned by the necessity to target those who are most at risk.

In Ireland, a number of organisations and institutions are involved in providing further education and training (FET) as adult education is often referred to. In 2013 there was a major reform of the lifelong learning sector, with the establishment of the central level Further Education and Training Authority SOLAS as an agency of the Department of Education and Skills, while the previous national training and employment authority FÁS was dissolved. SOLAS coordinates and funds further education activities including adult literacy services, as well as a range of vocational programmes) (Eurydice, 2015a; SOLAS, 2014). The National Adult Literacy Agency (NALA), established in 1980 as an independent membership organisation, is funded by central authorities to promote adult literacy (NALA, 2013).

Historical Development

As noted above, historically, Ireland has had a strong community-based adult education sector underpinned by high levels of volunteerism. Maunsell et al. (2008) observe that the development of adult education has been influenced both by social and economic forces, with a strong emphasis on the personal development and social inclusion aspects of education as a means for empowerment.

In the development of adult and second chance education in Ireland, the vocational education sector has played an important role. McGuinness et al. (2014) note, however, that vocational development was developed late in comparison with other European countries, mainly because industrialisation took hold later and because church-based education prioritised academic education. After the foundation of the Irish state, Vocational Education Committees (VECs) were founded on local level from the 1930s onwards, providing practical (basic skills) and technical (vocational) education. In the 1950s, vocational education fell under criticism for its perceived lower quality and status compared to academic schools. From the 1970s onwards, many VECs adopted a community education model, developing more and more into coordinators of adult education provision alongside their traditional role as second-level education providers. Until their recent replacement by Education and Training Boards (ETBs) as part of the 2013 reforms mentioned above, VECs were the major providers of adult education in Ireland, having more adult learners than all the other organisations involved in adult education combined (Maunsell et al., 2008).

McGuinness et al. (2014) suggest that the Irish further education and training sector, having developed through a variety of influences often at local levels, has historically lacked central governance and planning structures, leading to a degree of fragmentation which has posed a particular problem in addressing economic and labour market issues in recent years. The 2013 reforms in this context propose a greater degree of strategic governance, while preserving the autonomy of providers to allow them to respond to needs at local levels.

In 2007, a National Skills Strategy was published which proposed a vision by 2020 of a ‘competitive, innovation driven, knowledge based participative and inclusive society’ (Eurydice, no date). At the same time, the strategy recommended the integration of basic skills including literacy into all publically funded education and training. In the context of current economic difficulties, responding to the training needs of unemployed people, particularly those with low skills levels, has become a particular challenge.

Conceptions and National Approaches

The 2000 White Paper on Adult education focused on adult literacy as well as on the development of community education as a priority, recognising the potential of this tradition in empowering participants from disadvantaged settings. As such, the “emphasis on active citizenship through personal, community and cultural development” (Maunsell et al., 2008: p.1) was not just a secondary commitment to economic motives. The developments that followed on from the White Paper included the development of the National Adult Literacy Programme, the Back to Education Initiative (BTEI) and the Adult Education Guidance Initiative. The former provides part-time (second chance) courses for learners aged 16 and over (particularly those who have left school with a qualification at secondary level), while the latter offers information, advice and support to adults in group and one-to-one settings regarding educational, career and life choices (BTEI, 2013; National Centre for Guidance in Education, no date).

As mentioned above, current developments in adult education are influenced not only by the aftermath of the country’s economic crisis, but also the reforms of the further education and training (FET) system in 2013. This has given rise to establishment of the FET authority SOLAS at central level, which among other tasks has the responsibility to provide a further education and training strategy every five years. The current (2014 – 2019) strategy has a

particular focus on young people under 25 and on unemployed adults. Key areas include skills development and active inclusion, alongside improving the quality of FET provision (Eurydice, 2015b). At local level Education and Training Boards (ETBs) have been established, which act as statutory authorities. Their responsibility includes the provision of further education and training through second-level schools, further education colleges and adult and further education centres. ETBs also have a role in supporting the provision of youth work services (McGuinness et al., 2014).

Further education and training which is funded by the Department of Education is focuses on the areas of basic skills (meeting the needs of young people who are early school-leavers), second-chance education as well as vocational training and retraining. The main programmes include Youthreach (aimed at early school leavers aged 15 to 20 years); the Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme (VTOS) for unemployed people aged 21 and over; Post Leaving Certificates (PLCs) for learners aged 16 and over; the Back to Education Initiative (BTEI); Adult Literacy (AL) which focuses on basic skills as well as English as a Second Language (ESOL); as well as the various programmes of community education which tend to be informal and aimed particularly at adult learners considered 'hard to reach' (Eurydice, 2015c).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

According to the Department for Children and Youth Affairs (DCYA) 2015 Youth Strategy report, young people between 10 and 24 years represent 18.3% of the total population. Around 12 % of young people under the age of 24 were born outside of Ireland, while in 2013, 14% of young people aged 15-24 years were considered to be living in consistent poverty (DCYA, 2015). According to the PIAAC Survey of Adult Skills (OECD, 2013), the performance of Irish young people aged 16-24 in numeracy and literacy is below the international average.

The recent literature on vulnerable young adults in Ireland, in the context of adult education and lifelong learning, focuses on the issue of transitions from education to employment as well as on the particular vulnerability of those who are unemployed, early school leavers or 'NEET'. This is influenced by the fact that the impact of the economic crisis has disproportionately affected young people in Ireland. Youth unemployment rose around threefold from the time

before the crisis to its peak (around 9% in 2007 to 33% in 2012), although in more recent years there has been a fall again (Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan - YGIP, 2013). Young people with low levels of qualification were particularly likely to be negatively affected (Kelly et al., 2013). While in 2015, the unemployment rate for those aged 15-29 across all educational levels in Ireland was 16.3%, it was more than twice as high (35.7%) for young people educated to at most lower secondary level (Eurostat, 2016b). A particular concern has also been the rise in long-term unemployment among young people. In this context, staying in or returning to education has become a strategy for some, and public policy developments (including through the Youth Guarantee scheme) have responded to the crisis by supporting education and training opportunities through existing and some new initiatives – including through the programme of reform that has taken place since 2013 (McGuinness et al, 2014). However, this focus on employability and skills may present some challenges – in times of governmental spending cuts – for maintaining the socially inclusive and citizenship-focused traditions of community education, particularly in terms of part-time, non-formal and informal programmes (EAEA, 2015).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Kelly et al. (2013) researched the impact of the Irish economic crisis on the transitions of young unemployed people to employment and found that the negative impact of low education levels and having a migrant background became more significant during this time. Some qualifications (such as those acquired through second-chance learning), which contributed to better employment chances before the crisis failed to have a positive effect during its peak. A related study focusing on the impact of the crisis on young people who are 'NEET', Kelly and McGuinness (2013) confirmed that young people with no or low qualifications (e.g. early school leavers) had become much more disadvantaged through the course of the crisis. In 2016, both the situation of youth unemployment and of young people who are NEET has improved, although both remained over the European average (European Commission, 2016).

O'Connor (2010) notes the negative impact of unemployment, particularly long-term unemployment on Irish young people at the height of the economic crisis, reporting an impact of their self-esteem and morale through experiences of repeated rejection, through to feelings of hopelessness, despair, as well as in some cases, depression and stress. Furthermore, the uncertainty faced by unemployed young people had an impact on 'milestones' aspects of their

life, such as the points when young people planned to leave home, get married or start a family. Young unemployed people with low qualifications were particularly vulnerable to the impact of long-term unemployment, placing even their future integration into the labour market during more prosperous economic times at risk.

Several recent policy documents respond to the concerns about youth unemployment and early school leaving. These include the Irish Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan (YGIP, 2013), the Youth Strategy (DCYA, 2015) as well as the Further Education and Training Strategy 2014-2019 (SOLAS, 2014). The Youth Strategy suggests a cross-sectional policy approach, for example by involving youth services in measures aimed at increasing opportunities for young people in the labour market, and by strengthening links between formal and non-formal learning providers, businesses and employment agencies (DCYA, 2015: p.31). The Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan proposes supporting unemployed young people under the age of 18 to pursue a second-chance education and training pathway, either outside of the school system (e.g. through Youthreach, see below) or by re-entering the school system. For those aged 18-24, an offer of education, training or work experience is proposed within 4 months of their becoming unemployed. In this context, existing provisions of the further education and training sector are considered to play a key role. The Further Education and Training Strategy (SOLAS, 2014) places particular emphasis on the role of FET in providing skills needed for the economy, as well as on the inclusion of people who might experience participation barriers and of unemployed people, including young people. Suggested measures include the review of current FET provision and the development of new programmes and services to meet the needs of learners and employers at local level. Another example is the proposed implementation of a new apprenticeship programme.

A report by the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA, 2015) notes concerns by Irish members that some of the changes might pose challenges, particularly as there is a strong priority to the areas of up-skilling and re-skilling for labour market and social inclusion, at the expense of other forms of education (e.g. learning which is non-formal or informal).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Programmes which focus on basic skills and / or general ‘upskilling’, especially for unemployed young people with low qualification levels, are a priority within recent Further Education and Training policies in Ireland. The programmes are delivered at local levels through the Education and Training Boards (ETBs) which replaced Vocational Education Committees (VECs) from 2013. The provision ranges from literacy and numeracy programmes, English as a Second Language (ESOL) for adult immigrations through to social and personal development, ‘learning to learn’, as well as IT skills. Target groups for basic skills programmes include unemployed people, lone parents, Travellers, as well as people who are homeless, ex-offenders or substance misusers. As mentioned above, recent strategies in the context of the economic crisis prioritise particularly people with low skill levels, people affected by long-term unemployment, young adults, as well as (for re-skilling) those who were formerly employed in sectors that are now declining (such as construction or manufacturing). An example of short term basic skills provision are Bridging Foundation courses, designed specifically for the needs of long-term unemployed people, including early school leavers (Eurydice, 2015b).

Second chance education

There are a range of different programmes related to second chance education in Ireland. Several of these focus specifically on young people, especially early school leavers or young people who are unemployed. Youthreach (see also good practice Example 1 below) provides education, training and work experience for early school leavers aged 15 to 20 without any qualification or vocational training who are unemployed. The programme has existed since the late 1980s and focuses on personal development, with a relatively small group size and a flexible, less formal approach than in secondary schools (Eurydice, 2015b; Maunsell et al., 2008).

Post Leaving Certificates (PLCs) were introduced in the mid 1980s and are a form of second chance education for learners over the age of 16 who have completed their Leaving Certificate and for adults returning to education. This provision is pitched at intermediate skills level and

focuses on qualifications in the vocational education and training area, as well as for progression to other studies.

The Back to Education Initiative (BTEI; see good practice Example 3 below) is a part-time provision for learners over the age of 16, targeting especially those without a formal school leaving qualification. Due to its flexible nature, it is particularly relevant to those combining learning with family or other responsibilities, with target groups including lone parents, unemployed people, Travellers, as well as people who are homeless, ex-offenders and have literacy problems (BTEI, 2013; Eurydice, 2015b).

Community Training Centres in Ireland also offer courses for early school leavers, especially those aged 16 to 21, leading to awards in line with the National Framework of Qualifications. There is an emphasis on initial vocational skills, employability skills, personal and social skills development, as well as integrated literacy and numeracy skills (SOLAS, 2014; Eurydice, 2015b).

Vocational programmes and Retraining

Given the current emphasis in Ireland's further education and training policy on skills development for (young) people affected by the economic crisis, there is overlap between different areas of adult education and lifelong learning (such as basic skills, second chance and vocational education). Several of the provisions mentioned above have a vocational education element, while other schemes focused on vocational training include basic skills such as literacy and numeracy. Bearing this overlap in mind, some examples of vocational programmes include work-based apprenticeships, traineeships, bridging courses, as well as the Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme (VTOS; see good practice example 2 below). The latter provides up to two years of vocational education and training, delivered through local ETBs, and is aimed at unemployed people over the age of 21 (SOLAS, 2014). Another example is the Local Training Initiative programme, which targets people who are economically, socially, geographically or educationally disadvantaged and unemployed. Most learners are under the age of 35 and have low or no qualifications. The projects have a strong community-focus, allowing learners to develop and apply vocational skills locally (Eurydice, 2015b).

A recent initiative, also aimed at unemployed people, is the Momentum scheme which provides education and training programmes linked with employers. Some of the overall 6,500 places

are targeted specifically at long-term unemployed people under 25. The scheme runs on the basis of a 'payment by results' approach (Eurydice, 2015b).

Informal learning

Ireland's tradition of community education plays a key role in relation to non-formal and informal learning and contributes to the agendas of social inclusion and active citizenship. Community education is based on local groups and local issues, with Education and Training Boards often (but not exclusively) delivering the programmes, with funding from SOLAS. This provision is aimed particularly at groups and individuals who struggle to participate in adult learning, for example due to low or no qualifications; low literacy levels; (long-term) unemployment; being lone parents; disabilities; being a member of the Traveller community; homelessness; substance misuse issues; as well as being migrants, refugees or asylum seekers (Eurydice, 2015b).

Higher education

Mansell et al. (2008) observe that there are several schemes and measures to help students from disadvantaged backgrounds to access higher education. These include alternative or lowered entry requirements. For young people under the age of 23, the Higher Education Access Route (HEAR) offers college and university places based on reduced points and with the provision of extra college support to those from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds (HEAR, 2016). The 2014-2019 Further Education and Training Strategy (SOLAS, 2014) suggests that various forms of adult education play an important role in helping learners progress to higher education and formulates aims to improve this transition for learners.

Examples of Good Practice

Youthreach programme

Target groups: Young adults who do not have qualifications (e.g. those who left school without a qualification)

Aims: the Youthreach programme aims to support those who have left school without any formal qualifications, specifically by providing them with opportunities for basic education, personal development, vocational training and work experience

Category: Second-chance education

The programme is generally full time; however, depending on individual needs and circumstances, part-time courses can be arranged. Learners can concentrate on a core training area of their choice including basic subjects such as English, maths and life skills. These three areas of study are offered for all learners. Opportunities to improve literacy and numeracy are available at all Youthreach centres (this is a nationwide programme). A typical course generally lasts from 1 to 2 years, although it can be flexible, depending on individual needs. Upon completion of the basic course, the learner is awarded a Foundation Certification from Quality and Qualifications Ireland (QQI) or the Junior Certificate. Having completed a Foundation Programme, there is an option to continue to a Progression Programme. This will give the student an opportunity to progress to the Leaving Certificate Applied course or a higher-level QQI award or the student can choose to continue other skills training, such as an apprenticeship course. The courses take place in Youthreach centres managed by Education and Training Boards (ETBs) and SOLAS Community Training Centres.

Relation to active citizenship: Having a secondary school qualification is considered to be an important step in taking a more active part in the country's political, social and economic development.

Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme (VTOS)

Target groups: Young adults without qualifications, unemployed

Category: vocational education, second chance education

Aims: To support unemployed adults into entering or reentering the labour market. To provide education and training opportunities for people in receipt of a range of social welfare payments and to prepare people to go on to employment or to other learning opportunities leading to employment

The Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme (VTOS) is a second-chance education and training programme that provides courses of up to 2 years' duration for unemployed people. To be eligible for the scheme, you must be over 21 years of age, unemployed for at least 6 months (156 days) and be in receipt of specific social welfare payments. Courses are provided free of charge and meal and travel allowances are available. Courses are full time and can last

up to 2 years, with 30 hours' attendance required per week (e.g. 6 hours per day for 5 days). The VTOS scheme is operated through Education and Training Boards (ETBs). Information on courses can be found through the local ETB or by searching for a course on Qualifax. VTOS offers a range of full-time courses designed to meet the education and training needs of unemployed people, which are offered by the 16 ETBs throughout the country. VTOS programmes offer a wide choice of subjects and learning activities. Certification is available at a range of levels, including Junior Certificate, Leaving Certificate and QQI awards at Levels 3–6 of the National Framework of Qualifications. The programmes provide the learner with the life chance to continue education and training, to develop new skills, to gain certification at a range of levels and to find good employment.

Further info:

http://www.qualifax.ie/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=591%3Avtos-faq&catid=70&Itemid=63

Cooperation between Back to Education Initiative (BTEI) and Adult Literacy Programmes: Literacy Support Programme (Dublin Adult Education Service)

Target groups: Adult early school leavers over 18 years of age

Aims: For students to improve in the generic competencies, which are transferable skills

The idea behind this cooperative programme is to provide additional literacy support to students who engage in 'back to education programmes'. Literacy support to BTEI-funded programmes is best served through the integrated approach outlined in the introduction, involving joint planning and collaboration, whereby subject tutors are aware of learners' potential literacy needs and provision includes direct literacy support where necessary. This integrated approach involves effective, flexible and timely communication and teamwork between subject teachers and literacy support tutors, to identify and respond to students' course-related literacy needs. The support programme for students is focused on Improving English for assignments and involves the following generic competencies which would transfer to other modules and programmes: Reading comprehension; Promoting Access and Progression in Adult Learning; Guidelines to Enhance Cooperation between BTEI and Adult Literacy Programmes; Improving spelling and grammar for written assignments; Vocabulary building; Research methods; Note taking; Structuring an essay or assignment; Editing and

proofreading. All students benefit from the additional support. Their core competencies improve and they are better equipped to meet the demands of their course with regard to examinations and assignments. Improvements in the areas of spelling, grammar, proofreading and editing have been particularly significant as well as the knowledge and competence to structure essays and assignments. The students who avail themselves of the support tend to be motivated. The group who benefit most are those aiming to achieve merits or distinction. They develop a good learning network and support each other throughout the programme. Students avail themselves of the support on a voluntary basis.

Further info: http://www.education.ie/en/Schools-Colleges/Services/Further-Education-and-Training/Back-to-Education-Initiative-BTEI-/btei_adult_literacy.pdf

Conclusion

Adult education and lifelong learning in Ireland, particularly the tradition of community education, have had an explicit focus on social inclusion and citizenship for many years, providing a potential model for other European countries (Maunsell and Downes, 2013). At the same time, Ireland has been one of the European countries hardest hit by the economic crisis of recent years, affecting vulnerable young people, especially those with low qualifications, more severely than the rest of the population. Recent reforms in the further education and training sector have aimed to create better links between education provision and the employment sector, as well as supporting skills development especially for disadvantaged young people affected by (long term) unemployment. There are some concerns, however, that with this focus on employability skills, and in the context of scarce financial resources, the value of non-formal and informal learning as delivered by the multitude of local community education initiatives might be overlooked or even left behind. This could threaten the breadth of the social inclusion agenda in favour of a more economically defined participation model. Balancing new strategies and initiatives with the richness of traditions appears a challenge for lifelong learning in Ireland in this context.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: the Netherlands

Introduction

In the Netherlands, lifelong learning and access to adult education opportunities for as many people as possible have been recognised as important areas of social development and thus been policy priorities over past decades. Key themes influencing the lifelong learning scene are self-reliance through personal achievement as well as a learner-centred approach. This translates into a high level of autonomy for educational institutions, as well as a localised approach (with more centralised structures for learning content). At the same time, a high emphasis is placed on employability and on basic skills and qualifications, leading to a strong link between adult education and vocational education in terms of organisational structure and provision (EAEA, 2011; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

Van Dellen (2015) describes lifelong learning in the Netherlands as being first and foremost about the needs of adults, and second about the activities taking place at micro-level, which connect with a national, European and global context. He distinguishes three main contexts for lifelong learning in the Netherlands: *formal* educational institutions; *non-formal* educational institutions; as well as private organisations providing *non-formal* and market-oriented training and development. Alongside these contexts, lifelong learning could occur in a range of everyday life and work experiences, related to different configurations of *informal* learning.

The decentralised character of lifelong learning provision also brings with it a diverse funding regime, with structural state funding reported at around 50%, and many private non-governmental organisations (such as local folkhighschools, community centres as well as some commercial providers) operating without central government funding (EAEA, 2011).

According to the European Commission's *Education and Training Monitor* (2015: p.14), the Netherlands is above the EU average in a range of indicators – such as higher education attainment rates, the reduction of numbers of early school leavers, the share of secondary level students in vocational education and training (VET), as well as adult participation in learning. The PIACC Survey of Adult Skills (OECD, 2013) also confirms this positive picture, with young adults aged 16-24 years having above average proficiency in literacy, numeracy and problem solving, performing within the top levels in international comparison.

At the other side of this relatively high level of national performance is that there have not been many initiatives for improving performance, and spending on education has decreased (European Commission, 2015). The Survey of Adult Skills also showed a significant minority of adults with very low proficiency levels in literacy and numeracy, as well as lower performance levels among foreign-language immigrants. Nevertheless, these figures were below the average of countries studied (OECD, 2013).

According to OECD (2016) data, 23.6% of adults aged 25 to 64 in the Netherlands were educated to levels below upper secondary education in 2015. Of these, 7% had only completed primary level education. Among the 25-34 age group, 14% had attained education below upper secondary levels. The participation of low-qualified adults (i.e. those with lower secondary education at most) in lifelong learning the Netherlands is, at 33%, well above the EU average of 21.8% (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015: p.27).

Historical Development

The growth of adult education and LLL in the Netherlands has been an important policy development since the 1970s. Whereas previously, government involvement was mostly ‘*residual*’ in form of some subsidies but emphasising the role of voluntary initiative, emancipatory values and ideas of social movements from the late 1960s led to a changing emphasis of adult education policy on equality of opportunity. This took the shape particularly of second chance and second-way adult education and other opportunities for low-qualified and disadvantaged groups. From the 1980s onwards, in the context of high levels of unemployment and public expenditure cuts, adult education policy became increasingly focused on economic perspectives, emphasising vocational education and training as well as basic skills development aspects. Following from this, adult general education and adult basic education were developed and eventually integrated in a common structure with vocational education and training through the 1996 Adult Education and Vocational Training Act (Cedefop, 2002). Thus, the LLL debate has not only been restricted to educational policy levels but has also been influenced by changing economic, social and demographic factors both in a national and global context.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Adult education generally caters for people aged 18 and over (with some programmes being available to 16 and 17 year olds). Key focus areas are literacy and numeracy skills as well as obtaining qualifications. The main target groups for adult education programmes are Dutch people with literacy problems; immigrants who need Dutch language support; the elderly; as well as other specific groups such as young mothers; and the long term unemployed (Eurydice, 2015a).

While main aspects of the content of adult education in the Netherlands, as well as some of the funding, are agreed at central level by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, the provision through educational institutions have traditionally been devolved to local municipalities (EAEA, 2011). Within this provision, the Regional Training Centres (ROCs) have since the 1990s been key educational institutions offering both full-and part-time adult and vocational education courses. In addition to this, Agricultural Training Centres (AOCs) provide mainly vocational but also some basic skills courses (EAEA, 2011).

Various forms of adult and vocational education were brought into a single statutory framework in 1996 through the Adult and Vocational Education Act (*Wet educatie en beroepsonderwijs*; WEB). This included the establishment of ROCs and the national qualification structures for adult and vocational education. The Act also placed a significant focus on the aim of enabling every person to obtain a minimum basic qualifications, and thus has both socio-economic and socio-cultural functions (in relation to participation and integration of disadvantaged groups) (EAEA, 2011). The Act has subsequently been amended, particularly in relation to vocational education but also introducing changes in the organisation and delivery of general adult education (Cedefop, 2016; Eurydice, 2015b). Under new arrangements, central government is able to outsource adult education provision to suitable 'contact municipalities', through which resources and supply are coordinated.

The 2010 Benchmarks (Language and Numeracy) Act (*Wet referentieniveaus Nederlandse taal en rekenen*) provides a framework for the knowledge and skills that learners are expected to have acquired in language and numeracy at different stages in their educational career. While it focuses on primary education level, it is also relevant for secondary and vocational education (UNESCO International Bureau of Education, 2012).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The term 'youth' is generally applied up to the age of 25 in the Netherlands, making up around 30% of the society. According to the Netherlands Youth institute (2012), one in five young people have a migrant background. While Dutch children fare well in international comparison as far as wellbeing indicators are concerned, around 15% are considered to have problems and need additional support, with 5% being 'structurally at risk in their development' (ibid.: p. 4). The Youth Monitor's Annual report for 2016 (Statistics Netherlands, 2016) describes a number of social indicators which describe the situation of young people across the Netherlands. These include: children and young people in youth care; young people aged 17 and under in low income families; the proportion of young people in their third year of pre-vocational education (VMBO) compared to general or pre-university education (HAVO/VWO); young people aged 15-26 with an income through employment; young people and smoking; as well as young people and crime.

In European comparison, vulnerability indicators for young people in the Netherlands such as early school leaving or unemployment, are relatively low. For 2014, the National Youth Monitor (n.d.) reports 24,500 young people under the age of 23 who dropped out of school based on figures from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, making out 2.1%. At the same time, 126,000 young people aged 18 to 24 for are reported as being early leavers from education and training. According to Eurostat data, young people aged 18-24 classified as early school leavers made out 8.2% in 2015, compared to 11.0% in the EU-28 (Eurostat, 2016a). Youth unemployment in the Netherlands is at 9.4% among 15-29 year olds in the Netherlands in 2015, down from a peak of 10.9% in 2013 (Eurostat, 2016b). The 'NEET' rate for young people aged 15 to 29 years is, at 6.7%, well below the EU-28 average of 14.8% (figures for 2015; Eurostat, 2016f).

However, young people with a migrant background seem to be more likely to experience disadvantage and be at risk of social exclusion. The Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan (YGIP, 2014) suggests that unemployment among young people with a non-western background is 2-3 times higher than that of native Dutch young people. According to Eurostat figures (2016c) youth unemployment among native-born young people aged 15-29 was 8.7%

compared to 19.3% among young people born in a country outside of the EU-28. The ‘NEET’ rate among the non-EU migrant cohort was also significantly higher, at 15.8% compared to 5.9% of native-born young people (Eurostat, 2016e). According to Eurostat data (2016d), 20% of young people aged 16 to 29 who were born in the Netherlands were at risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2013, while the rate for those born in countries outside the EU-28 was more than twice as high, at 49.4%.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

As in adult education, decentralisation has been a key theme in youth policy in the Netherlands, with more and more responsibilities being transferred from provincial to local authorities (Youth Partnership, 2012). The policy letter ‘No Child Excluded’ (*Geen kind buiten spel*) of 2011 was a key recent development in this process (Netherlands Youth Institute, 2012).

Policy measures to tackle youth unemployment and resulting social disadvantage have focused on reducing early school drop-out rates, as well as in measures to engage young adult in education, training and employment. The Regional Registration and Coordination Act (RMC, *Regionale Meld- en Coördinatiewet*) of 2001 aims to reduce young people between 18 and 23 leaving education or training without a basic qualification. 39 regions are responsible for this preventative approach, through Regional Reporting and Coordination Centres (RMC). In each region, a contact municipality coordinates the identification and registration of early school leavers and puts in place measures to refer them back to education and training programmes (Cedefop, 2016; YGIP, 2014). The measures under the Drive to Reduce Dropout Rates programme included improved transition between pre-vocational and vocational education; additional programmes in relation to career guidance, sports and cultural activities; as well as specific programmes for 18-23 year olds who drop out of school. The government aim for 2012 was to not have more than 35,000 early school leavers, which was then lowered to no more than 25,000 by 2016 (OECD, 2014).

Another initiative, the Investing in Young People Act (2009-12), placed a responsibility on municipalities to provide work or learning opportunities to young people aged 18 to 27. This included payment of an allowance to those continuing in education (OECD, 2014). While this scheme has been withdrawn, unemployed young people aged 18 to 27 now have a four week waiting period before their application for social assistance benefits will be considered. The

expectation is that young people use this time to look for work, education or training periods and that their sense of responsibility and initiative is activated through this measure. While support is provided both before and (more tailor-made) after the four week period, there is some concern about young people who do not register for any support or benefits at all and who may be involved in crime. The Dutch youth guarantee implementation plan foresees a key role for local youth work programmes in reaching this population (YGIP, 2014).

Through the Youth Unemployment Action Plan (2013), a range of measures were introduced which included financial support for employers creating training jobs. Training and job coaching programmes were also introduced in specific regions (Cedefop, 2016). Furthermore, the Netherlands appointed a national ambassador for youth unemployment (for the period from 2013-15) with the task to ensure that youth unemployment remained high on the agenda of educational organisations, government authorities at different levels and the business sector. This included special regard for particularly disadvantaged groups, such as young people without a basic qualification and young migrants (YGIP, 2014). Following from this, the youth unemployment agenda (2015-16) increased the budget for career orientation programmes and led to an increase in programmes at regional level aimed at vulnerable groups and young people living in deprived areas (such as offering placements, traineeships and internships) (Cedefop, 2016).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

The idea of self-reliance is a key principles for basic skills programmes in the Netherlands. A joint programme entitled 'County me in' ('*Tel mee met taal*' - run by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport, and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment), focuses on people with limited language skills who are at risk of becoming marginalised. The programme draws together a range of agencies at local level, including schools, libraries, community centres, as well as youth care services and social benefits offices. There are also numerous national and local organisations which provide literacy skills initiatives, including to migrants, refugees and asylum seekers (Eurydice, 2015b). Key basic skills subjects are Dutch and numeracy, as well as Dutch as a second language (NT2), taught mainly at regional training centres.

A compulsory form of language and citizenship studies for some migrants are the civic integration programmes, based on Dutch language teaching along with aspects of citizenship studies, but also on the provision of opportunities to gain professional skills and qualifications (EAEA, 2011). Since 2013, this is the responsibility of migrants directly (with several exemptions, including for longer-term residents and those from EEA countries). Certain schools provide preparation courses and migrants can apply for funding for this through DUO (Dienst Uitvoering Onderwijs, 2016).

Second chance education and retraining

Adult general secondary education (*Voortgezet algemeen volwassenenonderwijs* – VAVO) provides second chance education for adults who left school without a mainstream qualification (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). This includes general and pre-vocational qualifications. Generally, VAVO qualifications are available for adults over the age of 18 but under some circumstances, young people aged 16 and 17 can also be admitted. This includes scenarios where young people have difficulty coping with mainstream secondary education and would leave school without qualifications (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

Vocational programmes

Vocational education starts at secondary school level, through a vocational track system that can lead into upper secondary vocational education (VMBO and MBO) (Cedefop, 2016). Regional Training Centres (ROCs) are key providers of vocational education, along with specialist trade colleges and centres of expertise which focus on specific occupational fields in personal and social services, health care as well as engineering and technology (Eurydice, 2015c). Recent changes to the Adult and Vocational Education Act 1996 have included the introduction of entry level programmes in vocational education. These are targeted at early school leavers who lack prior qualifications. The policy change was a response to the increase in students lacking qualifications in vocational education colleges and the added level of support required by these young people (Cedefop, 2016).

Informal learning

Within the non-formal adult education sector, 'Folk universities' (*Volksuniversiteit*) provide programmes of general interests, arts and culture, etc. for a wide range of adult learners.

For youth work, the Dutch National Youth Council (NJR) acts as an independent umbrella organisation for national and local agencies working with young people between 12 and 30 years. Their remit includes improving youth participation at different levels (Netherlands Youth Institute, 2012). A recent development in the Netherlands is the establishment of local Youth and Family Centres at municipality level. Youth work is described as having a pedagogical purpose, namely to: promote the personal development of young people; promote social inclusion and democratic citizenship; prevent problem behaviours such as vandalism, crime or early school leaving; promote non-formal learning as well as learning in schools; foster social cohesion as well as create opportunities for recreation. The main means of this work is through trust-based guidance and support as well as group work (Netherlands Youth Institute, 2012).

Higher education

Higher education in the Netherlands focuses on governmental aims to educate people for knowledge economy. Within the national framework, The Higher Education and Research Act (WHW), there is provision for the personal development of their students and to paying attention to accessibility. Specifically, the Open University of the Netherlands (OUNL) provides second chance or second way access to higher education through distance learning to adults who have not previously had this opportunity. Courses do not have formal admission requirements and offer considerable flexibility as regards place, duration and pace of study, with the aim of making higher education accessible to a wide range of people (Eurydice, 2015d).

Examples of Good Practice

Integration course

Target groups: Newcomers to the Netherlands, adults over 18 years of age

Aim: To facilitate the inclusion and integration of ‘newcomers to the country’, including migrants and asylum seekers

Informal learning and remedy programme

This is a nationwide scheme, implemented in a number of colleges of adult education across the country, in order to address the current government agenda. The government agenda emphasises that all newcomers must participate in Dutch society, for example by working or receiving an education. A command of the language is a precondition for this. The course prepares newcomers for both the Civic Integration exam and life and work in the Netherlands. The course curriculum focuses on two elements: learning the Dutch language and learning about Dutch society with the aim to better participate in society. The programme covers three main areas: Dutch language, Dutch society and the Dutch labour market. At the beginning of the programme there is an evaluation exercise that aims to determine the prospective student’s level, and this will be taken into account when developing a training programme for the student. During the integration programme, a range of activities will aim to develop

Category: reading, writing, speaking and listening skills in the Dutch language and prepare students for the Civic Integration exam. The course gives the student an opportunity to learn at their own pace, own level and in small groups. Acquiring civic knowledge is also an important element of the course, which aims to develop civic skills. The main outcome is associated with passing the Civic Integration exam.

Relation to active citizenship: This programme relates to (1) political dimension: encouraging civic and political participation; and (2) economic dimension: employment; access to social benefits, awareness of rights

Further info: <http://www.alfa-college.nl/instellingen/educatie/paginas/inburgering.aspx>

Dutch language, Maths and Computer skills (provided by ROC Nijmegen, Adult Education Centre)

Target group: This course is for adults (18 years of age and over) who have low levels of education and Dutch language and mathematics skills to be able to learn, refresh or brush up and for those who want to work on digital literacy

Aim: To provide basic skills training for adults with low levels of education who need to develop basic skills

Category: Basic skills, second chance

The course includes both theoretical and practical activities that relate to this course. Students practice with what they have difficulty in, which may include: taking notes; reading a variety of texts; writing letters; filling in forms; calculating how much interest they will pay; calculating percentages; adding, subtracting and multiplying and dividing, sending an email; replying to an email; looking up information on the Internet. The course is particularly relevant to people who dropped out of secondary school, or did not complete mainstream secondary education. It provides adults with second-chance opportunities that contribute to enhancing their life chances and civic participation.

Further info: <https://www.roc-nijmegen.nl/>

TaskForce nationwide initiative to help vulnerable young people: Taskforce Youth Approach

Target group: vulnerable young people (between 16 and 27 years of age)

Aim: To engage vulnerable young people (between 16 and 27 years of age)

Category: Basic skills, second chance

This is a nationwide programme. The example we explore refers to the municipality of the City of Groningen, which started with this new approach to help vulnerable, demotivated young people. The target group are young people between 16 and 27 years of age who suffer from various disadvantages (e.g. school dropouts/early leavers, unemployed, immigrants). These vulnerable young people often lack confidence, which prevents them from engaging in education or employment. The Taskforce Youth Approach is used to implement various strategies to engage and support young people through targeted help. The young person receives additional support and advice on education, work and income. The underlying philosophy of the task force is to provide support through the network of all stakeholders, including collaboration of different stakeholders in the town involving the Centre for Youth and Family, and of course the young people themselves. Taskforce provides support and advice to young people, through putting them in contact with professionals from the municipal

organisation with practical knowledge about education, work, income and care. Taskforce's approach is to identify specific needs, and provide support and advice and monitor further developments. The approach aims both to prevent early school leaving, combat youth unemployment and provide youth care.

Further info: <http://www.gic.nl/wonen/taskforce-voor-3000-kwetsbare-groninger-jongeren-tussen-16-en-27>

<https:// groningen.groenlinks.nl/nieuws/zorgen-bij-groenlinks-om-onzichtbare-jongeren>

Learn2Work

Target groups: vulnerable young people between 18 and 24 years of age

Aims: Focuses on young people who have no work, no degree, are not in school, are between 18 and 24 years of age

Category: Basic skills, vocational education, informal learning

The programme, implemented in the city of Almere, provides vulnerable young people with the skills they need in order to enter education or employment. This is achieved through a specific approach that includes a combination of both practical and theoretical learning as well as engaging in sport and media activities. This approach aims to motivate young adults into getting back to school or into work. The course is specifically tailored to young people's needs and requirements. The course provides training for the following: (1) theoretical learning including Dutch, English and mathematics; and (2) training focusing on the development of personal and employment skills including an introduction to various professions (occupation-specific taster sessions), informal learning from practice, as well as CV preparation and application skills.

The course is designed as a 1-year course (4 days a week). The young people are offered the following: one-to-one advice and support, help with setting learning goals, learning to work from practice, the possibility of an internship in a work experience situation, job coaching and obtaining a qualification. Parental involvement is strongly encouraged, and the underlying philosophy is that of collaboration between tutors, parents and young people. Since 2012, some 264 young people have participated and 68% of them have started education or entered

employment. The course includes four main stages: Phase 1: orientation and learning phase (individually tailored); Phase 2: examination phase: e.g. for a qualification; Phase 3: application phase (young people make applications for either further learning or employment); Phase 4: further development and follow-up advice and support.

Relation to active citizenship: this programme relates to (1) political dimension: encouraging civic and political participation; (2) economic dimension: employment, access to social benefits, awareness of rights; and (3) social dimension: development of personal/social skills

Further info: <http://www.deschoor.nl/html/index.php?paginaID=4483>

Conclusion

The Netherlands can demonstrate high levels of performance in international comparison concerning the fields of adult learning and skills, as well as with regards to wellbeing indicators concerning young people. While autonomy (of organisations and learners) seems a core value both for the structure and organisation, as well as for the delivery and content of learning, different sectors of lifelong learning are also well integrated, for example through joint legislation covering adult education and vocational education and training. A number of schemes from the Netherlands, for example in tackling early school leaving or supporting young people who are classified as ‘NEET’ into training, education or work, have provided the basis for (planned) policy initiatives in other countries (see, for example, Cooke, 2013).

However, in the context of these high standards, some commentators note the risk that investment in lifelong learning could be stagnating. Additionally, although this is by no means a concern limited to the Netherlands, there are disparities between the educational, economic and social participation opportunities available to young migrants and those of young people born in the Netherlands.

Van Dellen (2015: p.29) suggests that the future of lifelong learning in the Netherlands will (need to) be inherently connected to its transformational character, through processes of personal mediation that will ‘increasingly concern adults changing their lives’ – rather than being mainly about the acquisition of knowledge or skills. While van Dellen remains sceptical about the extent to which this will be supported by policy, it would appear that such an approach has the potential to place the Netherlands in an (ongoing) exemplary role in terms of lifelong learning.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Belgium

Introduction

Belgium is a federal state comprising of three regions (Flanders, Wallonia and Brussels-Capital) and three main linguistic communities (Flemish, French and German). Education is mostly a community responsibility, while regions are responsible for training (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). These structures have a significant impact on the context of lifelong learning and on policies for young people at risk of social exclusion, adding layers of complexity (as aptly suggested in the sub-title of a Council of Europe youth policy review (Pudar et al., 2013)). As an example, in the Brussels region there are four layers of administration: the regional Brussels-Capital level; the French Community Commission (CocoF), the Flemish Community Commission (VGC) and the Common Community Commission (Cocom) (Pudar et al., 2013).

In terms of lifelong learning, Vermeersch and Vandenbroucke (2009) delineate a range of formal adult education programmes within Flanders, some of which have a vocational focus (while others are more generalist). Key institutions delivering formal education programmes include ‘Centres for Adult Education’ (*Centra voor volwassenenonderwijs*) and ‘Centres for adult basic education’ (*Centra voor basiseducatie*). The former deliver Continuing Education or ‘Social Advancement Education’ (*Onderwijs voor Sociale Promotie*, or OSP). OSP is broad and varied in character, focused on knowledge transfer and skills development as well as some degree of influencing learners’ attitudes. Course content ranges from professional and vocational courses through to leisure, languages and citizenship-based themes. Continuing education is taught at secondary level or higher (ISCED levels 3 or 5).

Vocational education and training (VET) in Flanders is provided mainly by the Flemish Employment and Vocational Training Agency (VDAB), as well as the entrepreneurial training agency SYNTRA.

As regards non-formal and informal adult education, Vermeersch and Vandenbroucke (2009) cite socio-cultural adult work as a form of ‘popular education’ in Flanders which might not necessarily have an explicit educational focus but include broad aims such as social cohesion, inclusion, cultural animation, as well as collective growth and emancipations. Key actors in this field are associations (*Verenigingen*), often run by volunteers; Training-plus-centres

(*Vormingplus-centra*); specialised training institutions (*Landelijke vormingsinstellingen*); as well as movements (*Bewegingen*) which often have a socio-political agenda. More recently, targeted and professionalised youth work services for young people have been developed alongside the more traditional work of youth movements (often run through volunteers) (Coussée et al., 2009).

In the French-speaking community in Belgium, which comprises of the region of Wallonia as well as parts of the bilingual area of the Brussels-Capital region, the provision of adult basic education is much more heterogeneous, with around 500 organisations involved, but overall coordination being provided by the Permanent Committee for Adult Literacy (*Comité de pilotage permanent sur l'alphabétisation des adultes*). Similar to Flanders, programmes include 'social advancement' courses (*enseignement de promotion sociale*) as well as second-chance education as part of this (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). The equivalents of the VDAB in Wallonia and the Brussels region (*Forem* and *Bruxelles Formation*) provide vocational education, including basic skills training. A Council of Europe report (Pudar et al., 2013) on youth policy in the French community of Belgium suggests that here, too, informal education for young people draws on a rich tradition of socio-cultural work, but also indicates a highly diverse, complex and localised picture of subsidiarity where municipalities have a great deal of freedom regarding provision and youth associations may be quite autonomous.

For the German-speaking community in Belgium, adult education is provided through evening schools (affiliated with secondary schools) and through a number of recognised adult education organisations (Eurydice, 2015a).

According to OECD (2016) data, 25.3% of adults aged 25 to 64 in Belgium were educated to levels below upper secondary education in 2015. Of these, 9% had completed a lower level of education. Among the 25-34 age group, 17% had attained education below upper secondary levels. The participation of low-qualified adults (i.e. those with lower secondary education at most) in lifelong learning is, at 15.2%, below the EU average of 21.8% (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015: p.8). The Survey of Adult Skills (OECD, 2013) shows above-average proficiency in literacy and numeracy among adults and among young people aged 16-24 in international comparison, for Flanders only. However, the literacy proficiency

among foreign-language immigrants in Flanders was among the lowest across all countries participating in the international survey.

Historical Development

In the Flemish community of Belgium, the establishment of technical and vocational adult education dates back to the 1950s and 60s, through the ‘Education for Social Promotion’ or Social Advancement programmes. Other forms of continuing adult education were introduced from the 1970 and 1980s onwards. Following from this, Adult Basic Education Centres were established from the 1990s, aimed at adults with low skill and education levels. Also from the 1990s onwards, ‘second chance education’ was developed as part of Social Advancement education at the Adult Education Centres. The adult education scene over the 1990s is described within the Eurydice country information resource as ‘broad but very scattered’, lacking a systematic structure and organisation. This was remedied to some extent through legislation at the end of the 1990s, which brought about modularisation and new learning approaches (Eurydice, 2015b). Complexity and heterogeneity in responsibilities and provision have been a characteristic feature of the development of the adult education and lifelong learning scene in Belgium’s French Community, with various initiatives and policies aimed at establishing cooperation, coordination and oversight (for example an adult literacy steering organisation) over recent years. In the German Community, early roots of adult education date back to the 1840s when Sunday schools and other adult education establishments provided access to primary education (prior to compulsory school attendance). Different organisations of adult education became established over the years through a range of civil society organisations and church groups, leading to currently 13 recognised and subsidised adult education institutions, alongside other training and education providers (Eurydice, 2015c).

Conceptions and National Approaches

As previously mentioned, Belgium’s specific administrative structure involving three language communities and three regions (which only overlap in the case of Flanders – excluding Brussels), presents a complex picture for all policy areas, and adult education is no exception.

In Flanders, a broad distinction is made between adult education, comprising programmes of basic education, second chance education, as well as vocational education, and the broader concept of adult training. The latter encompasses all forms of learning, whether formal, non-

formal or informal, provided by a range of educational organisations and public services (e.g. VDAB and Syntra, see above), socio-cultural organisations, employers, as well as private institutions (Eurydice, 2015d). In recent years, modularisation and blended learning have developed into key principles of adult education, allowing a personalised structure including some distance learning.

Key policy documents for lifelong learning in Flanders include Policy Notes on Employment and on Education respectively, as well as an agreement between the government and social partners on professional careers, aimed at improving the transition of (young) people from education to the labour market, including by reducing school drop-out rates. There is also a Strategic Plan to raise literacy, including among the adult population (*Strategisch Plan Geletterdheid Verhogen 2012-2016*) (Eurydice, 2015b; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

In the French community, where there is a more heterogeneous system of administration, recent policy developments have included agreements to harmonise aspects of the organisation of vocational education and to improve cooperation between the various administrations of Wallonia, Brussels-Capital and the French community (Eurydice, 2015e).

In the German community, a new decree on the promotion of adult education institutions was adopted in November 2008. This focused on skills acquisition and development as a citizen right. As part of the decree, the concept of lifelong learning has been defined as “all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social or employment-related perspective” (Eurydice 2014).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

The definition of ‘youth’ in Belgium generally includes young people up to 30 years of age, with some variations depending on initiatives and programmes. Around 34% of the Flemish population and around 37% of the French speaking community are estimated to come under this age category (Pudar et al., 2013).

Among the groups of vulnerable young people in Belgium are early school leavers, those with low levels of qualifications, as well as young people from migrant backgrounds. Young people with low qualification levels are particularly vulnerable to unemployment. While in 2015, the unemployment rate for those aged 15-29 across all educational levels in Belgium was 15.6% it was more than twice as high (33.4%) for young people educated to at most lower secondary level (Eurostat, 2016b).

There are significant differences between the different regions of Belgium: for example, the Brussels-Capital region has a younger population compared to the other regions, with young children and young adults (especially in the 25-34 age group) overrepresented in comparison to other age groups (Federation Wallonie-Bruxelles, 2016). There are also higher proportions of low qualified young people in Brussels and in Wallonia in comparison to Flanders. At the same time, in Brussels especially the job market is more competitive than in other Belgian regions (Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan, YGIP, 2014). These differences have some structural contexts: for example, Wallonia has become the socio-economically less well-off part of Belgium over the course of the post-industrial period, while in Brussels a gap between the educational and employment systems affecting young people and increasing urban segregation have been observed (Pudar et al., 2013). Youth unemployment (as well as underemployment) are disproportionately high among low qualified young people aged 15-24 in Brussels, at 51%, and in Wallonia (49%) compared with only 29% among the same age and attainment level group in Flanders. Even for young people with medium qualification levels in Brussels, the unemployment rate was still 36% (28% in Wallonia and only 13% in Flanders) (Statistics Belgium, 2016). Similar differences exist with regards to early school leaver rates (aged 18-24, figures for 2013), with 17.7% for young people in the Brussels region, compared to 7.5% in Flanders, 14.7% in Wallonia and 11% in Belgium as a whole (Note conjointe OBE d'Actiris, SES de Bruxelles Formation, Service études VDAB Brussel, 2015).

In addition to Belgium's existing linguistic and administrative diversity, there are some suggestions that 'traditional' divides between language communities are becoming overlain by new diversities, particularly through immigration, affecting especially the young population in Belgium. In Brussels, around a third of inhabitants had a migrant background in 2008, while the city also has a much higher proportion of young people than across the rest of the country (Pudar et al., 2013). At the same time, Belgium is a country where the levels of non-EU citizens

reporting material poverty are about five times higher than nationals (European Commission, 2013). Young people with a migrant background are disproportionately affected by unemployment, being classified as 'NEET' and being at risk of poverty and social exclusion. In 2015, the youth unemployment rate for 15 to 29 year olds born in Belgium was 14.7%, but 27.3% for those born outside EU-28 countries (Eurostat 2016c). NEET rates for native-born 15-29 year olds in the same year were 12.8% compared to 29.2% for young people from non-EU countries (Eurostat, 2016d). The risk of poverty and social exclusion figures show the highest discrepancy, however, with 16.8% among native-born young people aged 15-29 (2013) compared to 65.7% among young people born outside the EU-28 countries (Eurostat, 2016e).

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

Youth unemployment and underemployment are disproportionately high among low qualified young people in Brussels (in comparison with Flanders and Wallonia), who are also faced with a more competitive employment sector (more demand for higher skilled labour due to sectoral dominance within the capital; higher requirements for language abilities (both French and Flemish) in the capital which are not matched with unemployed young people's abilities (YGIP, 2014). The unemployment rate among young immigrants in Brussels is even higher, placing this population at a significant risk of social exclusion (Pudar et al., 2013).

The policy frameworks both for adult education and lifelong learning, as well as for young people specifically, are a matter for the different communities and regions. As such, policy frameworks are diverse and complex, although there are some similar structures in the organisation of formal adult education and vocational education and training and some similarities regarding key themes in the youth policy field (see Pudar et al., 2013). A detailed review of the different frameworks is beyond the scope of this report.

Like other European countries, Belgium has presented a plan for the implementation of the Youth Guarantee. This document (Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan – YGIP, 2014) reflects the country's federal structure (across regions / linguistic communities) by presenting four separate plans that reflect the respective systems and traditions, with a co-ordinating agency on federal level. The plans include a number of training initiatives particularly in the areas of basic skills and vocational learning.

As regards support for young people at risk of social exclusion in formal education, an example from the Flemish community / region is the creation of different pathways in part-time pre-vocational education. Young people aged 16-18 in Flanders have to attend at least part-time education and the ideal for these students is that they also engage in part-time work. For young people at risk of social exclusion, who are not able for various reasons to engage with work-based learning within the labour market, specific programmes have been developed (Vermauth and de Rick, 2009) as part of pre-vocational paths. These include: bridging projects, 'pre-paths' and personal development projects. The first category targets young people who are unable to find or keep part-time employment alongside their vocational education and provides them with guidance and support to prepare them for the labour market. The second category, 'pre-paths', provides more intensive support, including basic skills and help with a range of problems. The third category, 'personal development projects', target young people with multiple problems who are not capable of following the former two options. The aim here is to help young people move on to one of the first two options. Under a decree in 2008, the Flemish community introduced a new framework which extended the access to support for young people through a personal coach regarding their educational, training and work trajectories. A further programme available to young people in both part-time and full-time education are 'time-out projects', allowing young people to engage in alternative programmes of education to prevent early drop-outs. A number of centres for out-of-school education play a key role in these projects (Vermauth and de Rick, 2009).

Regarding informal education and youth work in Flanders, Coussée et al (2009) note that from around the 1990s, existing traditional youth work (often delivered through volunteers) failed to engage vulnerable young people, leading to a new level of interventions from professional youth work for vulnerable groups. As a result, a split has developed between the domains of more affluent and integrated youth and youth work on the one hand, and the more vulnerable, low-income and excluded groups and the services targeting them. Policy responses to this dilemma included the introduction of more targeted, short-term programmes, focusing on specific measurable targets such as the acquisition of specific skills, often linked to employability. Coussée et al (2009) suggest that associated with this comes a risk that some informal education programmes focus on the individual monitoring of the 'deviant' rather than on promoting inclusivity or socialising young people towards autonomous decision-making. The authors propose that a social pedagogical approach which focuses both on the socialisation

of young people within a political context (*'politische Bildung'*) is more supportive of an active citizenship agenda than a more narrow focus on employability (and for society at large, on economic competitiveness).

A similar concern about the increase in and impact of targeted provision is raised in the French community members' report to the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA, 2015). Here, the conditional link between education and access to welfare provision (for the unemployed) or legal status (for migrants) as part of current education and welfare policies is problematized. This leads to a concern that measures can be counter-productive (e.g. by reducing the ability of some unemployed people affected by financial benefit sanctions to participate in adult education) but also that they threaten universal access to education as part of a popular education model (ibid.).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

Key providers of basic skills education in Flanders are the Centres for adult basic education, run by private non-profit organisations with funding from the Flemish government. Basic skills here include Dutch language, numeracy, ICT and social orientation (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). According to Vermeersch and Vandenbroucke (2009), a large proportion of adults accessing these courses are immigrants with low levels of education and language skills. Courses of Dutch as a second language (NT2) also form part of the basic education repertoire, in cooperation with the Dutch Language Houses (Huis van het Nederlands, no date). This may be as part of a Civic integration programme for immigrants in Flanders and Brussels, organised through Welcome Offices (Inburgering, no date). Other forms of adult education, such as vocational education (see below), also often include basic skills education.

In the French community, provision of adult literacy education is diverse and localised, with a mixture of private (majority) and public providers. The provision includes additional support (including psychosocial support) for so-called at-risk groups (Eurydice, 2015f).

In Brussels, due to its particularly multilingual environment, an internet learning platform offering courses in French, Flemish, German and English is available for jobseekers, including young people (Belgian Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan (YGIP), 2014).

Second chance education

Second chance education (Tweedekansonderwijs, or TKO) in Flanders is delivered through Centres for Adult Education as part of their ‘Social Advancement Education’ programmes. Social Advancement Education is also provided in the French community of Belgium, where it is noted to attract, among others, people with no or low qualifications, refugees, as well as young people who choose adult education instead of initial training (for example because courses are shorter) (Eurydice, 2015g). The policy framework for further or continuing education in the French community includes some specific references to the aim of achieving ‘a critical analysis of society, the stimulation of democratic and collective initiatives, the development of active citizenship, and the exercise of cultural, social, environmental, and economic rights with a view to individual and collective emancipation by privileging the active participation of the target public and cultural expression’ (decree of 17 July 2003, cited in Eurydice, 2015).

Vocational programmes and retraining

The Flemish Employment and Vocational Training Agency (VDAB) is the main provider of vocational education and training for adults, which include basic skills courses. These courses are particularly aimed at unemployed people (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). Apprenticeships are organised through a network of centres of the entrepreneurial training agency SYNTRA, which includes specific programmes for vulnerable groups such as immigrants and people with disabilities (Eurydice, 2015h). VDAB and SYNTRA operate a framework agreement allowing mutual use of their resources and learning environments (reflecting the fact that the former are mainly day-time and the latter predominantly evening courses) (Eurydice, 2015h).

Under the Belgian Youth Guarantee Scheme, Bruxelles Formation committed to the creating of 3,000 training places, 2,000 placements and 1,000 further courses per year for young registered jobseekers in the Brussels region as part of their ‘Be Youth; programme (YGIP, 2014). Under the socio-occupational integration schemes and through on-the-job training

enterprises in Wallonia and the Brussels-Capital region, unemployed, low-skilled job seekers over the age of 18 can take part in training and retraining courses. These schemes are particularly aimed at the long-term unemployed, offenders, those in receipt of social benefits, as well as migrants. (Eurydice, 2015g).

Informal learning

As mentioned above, Flanders has a strong history of socio-cultural youth and adult work, particularly through its associations and other youth movements (Coussée et al, 2009; Pudar et al., 2013). In more recent decades, more professionalised forms of youth work have been developed, often targeted at disadvantaged and vulnerable young people (including, for example, young migrants or young people in deprived areas). As mentioned above, there are some concerns about divisions that exist between these two forms of informal education. The concern is that this leads to segmentation and segregation, continuing a trend which already exists at school level.

Within the French community, the principle of subsidiarity leads to a diverse and complex picture of often small-scale projects involving informal learning processes. Some of the projects have a specific focus on socially excluded young people, utilising both socio-cultural group work and support for the individual, for example an initiative to combat school drop-out (Pudar et al., 2013).

Higher education

As with other areas of education, the organisation of higher education in Belgium is complex by account of its specific administrative structures. For example, in the Flemish community, students can benefit from programmes of the Dutch Open University through distance learning, resulting in a degree from the Netherlands (Eurydice, 2012). Examples of programmes for (young) people at risk of social exclusion at or attached to higher education institutions include the following:

- the Catholic University of Louvain in the French community provides Massive Open Online courses (MOOC) in partnership with the Red Cross. Students between the ages of 21 and 35 from Afghanistan, Syria and Palestine are among the main participants. Their objective is often to have their existing qualifications

recognised (; main objective to have their qualifications recognised. (*Université catholique de Louvain*, 2016; Alter Echos, 2016)

- Vermeersch and Vandenbroucke (2009) describe the example of the *Sociale School Heverlee* – Centre for adult education, which is embedded in the college for higher education Heverlee in Leuven (*Sociale School Heverlee – Katholieke Hogeschool Leuven*). The education programmes at the Centre for adult education are specifically aimed at people from poorer and / or migrant communities. Although this provision mainly takes place within the framework of ‘social advancement education’ (below higher education), the college of higher education provides follow-on routes.

Examples of Good Practice

Civic Integration programme

Target groups: Newcomers to Belgium, adults over 18 years of age

Aim: To facilitate inclusion and integration of ‘newcomers to the country’, including migrants and asylum seekers

Category: Basic skills, inclusion

The Civic Integration programme is intended for foreigners aged 18 years and over who come to Belgium to reside there for a long period. The target group of the civic policy also targets refugees, migrants and asylum seekers aiming to help them to integrate into society. The programme consists of primary and secondary courses. The primary Civic Integration programme encompasses: (1) a social orientation course, which consists of an introduction to Flemish and Belgian society; (2) basic Dutch as a second language course; (3) career orientation, which involves coaching in the search of employment or studies, and towards provision in terms of culture and leisure activities; and (4) programme counselling, which involves individual counselling of the person being integrated. A person who signs a Civic Integration contract commits to follow the training programme on a regular basis. This means that the learner must attend at least 80% of all courses for each component of the training programme. Upon completion of the Civic Integration programme, the learner is awarded a Civic Integration certificate. Persons integrating into Belgian society who hold a Civic

Integration certificate can directly join the secondary Civic Integration programme. The secondary Civic Integration programme provides opportunities for more individualised training, where the learner can be provided with support to start working or to take up further education. Learners who have gone through the integration programme may follow vocational training or entrepreneurship training or take the qualification for ‘Dutch as a second language’ follow-up courses and continue their studies.

<http://www.inburgering.be/en/napo-tells-you-about-inburgering>

Open School – Centre for adult basic education, Leuven, Hageland

Target groups: Adults with deficiency in basic skills, low-literate adults with Dutch as their first language as well as those with Dutch as their second language

Category: Basic skills, second chance

Open School is aimed at adults in need of essential basic skills. Open School, as a whole, welcomes some 3,000 adult learners a year. About 50% of them are immigrants that sign up for an ABE (Adult Basic Education) course to learn Dutch as a second language (L2 learners). The school offers the following courses: Dutch as mother tongue, Dutch as a second language, Literacy skills for Dutch as a second language, Social studies, Arithmetic and mathematics, Information and communication technology, preparatory courses in French or English. The courses are tailor-made and are often organised in collaboration with other organisations. The school’s approach is to motivate and engage adults/young adults, and to equip them with skills that are considered to be necessary for participating in the country’s social, political and economic life. This is achieved (1) through offering training courses that aim to provide the learners with a range of basic and life skills and competencies in general; and (2) through identifying and motivating ‘hard to reach adults’ to get involved in adult basic education. This specific approach involves demonstrating to the participants their learning potential (through screening and assessment). Collaboration with a range of stakeholders (e.g. employers) provides opportunities for work placement and taster programmes. Within the school’s strategies, a specific approach is a ‘A step forward’, which specifically targets unemployed adults, aiming to provide them with the necessary skills and qualifications to get back to work.

Relation to active citizenship: This programme relates to (1) political dimension: encouraging civic and political participation; and (2) economic dimension: employment; access to social benefits, awareness of rights

Further info: <http://www.cbeleuven.be/Centrumreglement%20september%202008.doc>
<http://www.oecd.org/belgium/40046635.pdf>

Second Chance Education: CVO Leerstad and PCVO Scheldeland

Target groups: Adults over 18 years of age lacking formal secondary education qualifications (early school leavers, immigrants)

Category: second chance education

Second Chance Education centres aim to engage and reengage adults by providing them with opportunities to obtain a high school diploma or a qualification. The initial assessment will aim to set learning goals taking into account learners' individual requirements. At the initial consultation, prospective learners are provided with full information about the length of the programme, types of certificate, possible pathways, learning potential and individual requirements. The course includes two parts: (1) training in additional general education (AAV), resulting in a certificate of additional general education; and (2) a diploma-oriented programme (with a certificate at the end), which offers a range of vocationally related training, e.g. as an accountant, technician, barber, beautician, etc.

The two certificates are converted together to a full high school diploma. Extra options include: high school diploma + graduate training in a graduate degree programme. Providing adults with the chance to undertake education and receive a high school diploma, this programme aims to equip them with the skills they need in order to participate fully in the social and economic life of the country.

Further info: <https://www.leerstad.be/index.php/cursusaanbod/tweedekansonderwijs>

Conclusion

In Belgium, the particularities of administration among the Flemish, Walloon, and Brussels-Capital regions, as well as among the Flemish, French and German communities have a

significant impact on both the adult education / lifelong learning fields and on the situation of young people, especially those at risk of social exclusion. When comparing the regions, Flanders tends to score better for key indicators such as youth unemployment or the percentage of young people who are considered 'NEET'. In Wallonia and the Brussels region, on the other hand, young people seem to be affected by more structural challenges: in the former case this concerns, among other factors, the impact of the region's post-industrial development, while in the latter, the transition from education to employment appears particularly difficult for those young people whose language and other skills do not match the high requirements of the job market. As in other countries, young migrants appear to be a particularly vulnerable group in this context.

European initiatives such as the Youth Guarantee scheme or funding available as part of the European Social Fund appear to present opportunities for new initiatives on the ground (e.g., EAEA, 2015). At the same time, a concern shared among some within the lifelong learning sector across the administrative divides in Belgium (and echoed elsewhere) seems to be the dilemma between the universal provision of education, both formal and informal, and the conditionality created when programmes are more and more offered in form of targeted intervention.

Adult education and Lifelong Learning: Luxembourg

Introduction

Luxembourg is a country with a small (just under 550,000) but growing population and a high percentage of foreign nationals (over 45%) (Cedefop, 2015). Not least through its size and location, the country has a longstanding multilingual history. Official languages are Luxembourgish, French and German. According to OECD (2016) data, 25.4% of adults aged 25 to 64 in Luxembourg were educated to levels below upper secondary education in 2015. Of these, 10% had only completed primary level education. Among the 25-34 age group, 16% had attained education below upper secondary levels. The participation of low-qualified adults (i.e. those with lower secondary education at most) in lifelong learning in Luxembourg is, at 55%, high in comparison with the EU average of 21.8% (STATEC, 2013; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015: p.24).

Examples of (formal) adult education provision include adult basic education (*instruction de base des adultes*), programmes of second chance education (*2^e voie de qualification*), vocational education and training, general interest courses, as well as programmes for the integration of newcomers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). Basic skills education, which includes numeracy, ICT and literacy skills (in French and German) is coordinated by the Department of Adult Learning of the Ministry of Education, Childhood and Youth (MENJE), with delivery through local providers. Given its multilingual context, language courses (provided for example by the National Language Institute) are of particular significance. Other examples of adult education provision in Luxembourg are Family education programmes and Integration, language and citizenship courses for new residents (MENJE, 2014).

Historical Development

Adult education in Luxembourg grew from educational initiatives of workers' movements and Christian communities at the beginning of the 20th century. Adult training started to be organised after the Second World War through different professional chambers (related to business areas). From the 1960s onwards, evening courses for second chance education (*deuxième voie de qualification*) were established and by the late 1970s, national centres for continuing vocational education were offering training for job seekers. The 1990s saw the

creation of sectoral training institutions, the establishment of adult basic education under the auspices of the MENJE, as well as the initiation of the Luxembourg Language Centre. In 2008, key reforms took place in the vocational training sector (Eurydice, 2015; GHK/ Research voor Beleid, 2011). In recent years, initiatives based on European frameworks and funding have been significant for the expansion of the lifelong learning scene in Luxembourg.

Conceptions and National Approaches

Lifelong learning is described as not only having a personal development aspect but also contributing to ‘economic development, social cohesion and the construction of an intercultural society’ (MENJE, 2014). At the end of 2012, a white paper regarding a strategy for lifelong learning was agreed at governmental level (*strategie nationale en matiere de lifelong learning*, S3L). This includes a range of principles and measures aimed at placing the learner at the centre of the learning process and creating a favourable environment for learning processes and the professional and personal development of each learner. Themes such as the transferability of learning units, encouraging participation, taking account of the country’s diversity, as well as developing the quality of LLL are addressed in the strategy (Eurydice, 2014; S3L, no date).

Overall, the lifelong learning provision is particularly targeted at people with low qualifications in need of basic skills training (including those requiring language training); those wanting to engage in adult secondary education; job seekers who want to improve their chances on the labour market; those wanting to enrich their knowledge and skills for a variety of reasons (personal, professional or for integration reasons); as well as those wanting to engage in continuous vocational or professional learning and development (GHK/ Research voor Beleid, 2011).

The National Reform Programme “Luxembourg 2020” provides measures contributing to the country’s lifelong learning strategy. Based on the European Agenda for Adult Learning, measures include the further development of basic skills education; developing new flexible and individual forms of learning through the project L4S (‘Learn for success’); as well as promoting the quality and visibility of adult learning. One particular area of basic skills training concerns language training, important both for economic development and community cohesion (Eurydice, 2016).

A regional specificity, relevant in the context of Luxembourg's high proportion of people involved in cross-border work or learning, is the 'Framework agreement on cross-border vocational education and training in the Greater Region', signed by Luxembourg in 2014. This initiative includes Luxembourg, the German federal states of Saarland and Rhineland-Palatinate, the French Lorraine region, as well as the Belgian region of Wallonia along with its French- and German-speaking communities. Under the Framework, common objectives are set out (among other measures) for vocational education and labour mobility with the aim of removing regulatory barriers and improving training opportunities for jobseekers and people with low levels of qualification, including young people (Eurydice, 2016).

Adult Education and Vulnerable Young Adults

Introduction

Luxembourg has been a relatively rich country with low level unemployment but recent years have seen changes through globalisation – including an increase of social inequality and social exclusion among young people. For example, the poverty risk of young people under the age of 25 is more than three times higher than for people over the age of 65. Young parents and single parent families are particularly at risk (Haas and Heinen, 2015). Luxembourg is also a country with a high percentage of residents who are not nationals: over 45 % of 12-19 year olds do not hold Luxembourgian nationality (Residori et al., 2015). Among 15 to 34 year olds, this figure was 47.4% in 2011 (Haas and Heinen, 2015), consisting mostly of non-nationals from other EU countries (Portugal in particular). When taking into account second generation migration backgrounds, only 35% of young people aged 15 to 34 were born in Luxembourg and had parents who were also born there. However, the migrant population in Luxembourg is very heterogeneous, ranging from highly qualified people to those with low qualifications. The proportion of migrants from non-EU countries is also growing (ibid.).

While Luxembourg has low unemployment figures in European comparison (around 6% in 2014), unemployment among 15-24 year olds is high in comparison to overall unemployment (17.3% in 2015, down from a peak of 22% in 2014) (Eurostat, 2016b; Schumacher et al., 2015). For the 15-29 age group, unemployment figures are much lower, at 11.9% in 2015. There are also differences concerning the definitions of youth unemployment. According to the Luxembourg Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan (YGIP, 2014), if the number of young

people staying on in education and training and those who are not actively looking for work for other reasons (e.g. young parents) are taken into account, the actual figure of unemployed young people in the 15-24 group is much lower. Nevertheless, among this cohort of young people, almost half have only attended basic levels of compulsory schooling, and around half do not have the Luxembourgish nationality. The specific characteristics of Luxembourg's labour market, aimed particularly at people with high skill levels, as well as its position in a region with high cross-border labour activity, also mean that young people with low qualifications find it especially difficult to find work (Schumacher et al., 2015). As regards young people aged 15 to 29 not in education, employment or training ('NEET'), Luxembourg is, at 7.6% well below the EU-28 average (14.8%; figures for 2015; Eurostat, 2016f). However, within the Luxembourg Youth Report, Schumacher et al. (2015) point out that, similar to unemployment figures, a significant proportion of young people classified as 'NEET' may in fact be caring for young children: according to the 2011 Census, 8% among young people aged 15-24 classified as 'NEET' were 'working within their own home', while this figure was 33% among those aged 25 to 34. Young people aged 18-24 classified as early school leavers made out 9.3% in 2015, compared to 11.0% in the EU-28 (Eurostat, 2016a).

The Luxembourg education system is characterised by differentiation, with students (and their families) choosing different paths (academic or vocational) early on. One side effect of this early selection and segmentation is that the socio-economic background of a student's family has a significant bearing on their educational paths, with young people from disadvantaged backgrounds seven times more likely to participate in the 'preparatory' segment for students with learning difficulties (Schumacher et al., 2015). These differences, along with language competencies as well as a migration background within the family, significantly influence the prospects of young adults in Luxembourg, with relatively little upward social mobility observed, despite the variety of educational paths (ibid.: p. 69). Among young people with a migration background, Schumacher et al. (2015) find higher levels of language competence in French, with more difficulties reported in Luxembourgish or German. According to Eurostat figures (2016c) youth unemployment among native-born young people aged 15-29 was 11.4% compared to 15.6% among young people born in a country outside of the EU-28 (although low reliability is noted for the latter figure). The 'NEET' rate among the non-EU migrant cohort was also significantly higher, at 15% compared to 6.2% of native-born young people (Eurostat, 2016e). According to Eurostat data (2016d), 18.4% of young people aged 16 to 29 who were

born in Luxembourg were at risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2013, while the rate for those born in countries outside the EU-28 was 37.7%.

Existing Research in the Field and Policy Documents at National Level

According to the Youth Law of 2008, youth in Luxembourg are defined as between 12 and 30 years. In 2012, the government published a Youth Pact (*Pacte pour la Jeunesse*; Le Gouvernement du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg, 2012), which set out cross-sectoral policy plans concerning some of the central socio-political challenges facing young people, including the social and occupational integration through education, training and employment, alongside appropriate housing, mobility and self-determination (Residori et al., 2015). The Youth Pact is structured along five thematic areas: a successful transition from school to work; a successful start to adult life; the well-being of youth; young people as actors; and the scientific accompaniment of youth policy. The second national youth report, published in 2015 (first in 2010), focused on transitions between youth and adulthood, centred around three areas: transitions from education to work; private transitions (e.g. moving out or starting a family); as well as taking on the role of an active, socially and politically involved citizen (Willems et al., 2015).

Along with other European Union countries, Luxembourg has presented its plan for the implementation of the Youth Guarantee (Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan – YGP, 2014). This sets out a range of measures, involving various organisations and agencies, such as ‘Adem’, the Public Employment Service agency, which cooperates with different public and private training centres that provide training and support to unemployed young people, particularly those who are considered vulnerable. The focus is on improved collaboration and cooperation among already existing structures and agencies, rather than on the creation of new organisations. Under the coordination of the MENJE, there are various programmes which aim to encourage and support young people to return to education. These include (among others) transition classes for young people wanting to return to education throughout the academic year, opportunities through the ‘*École de la deuxième chance*’ (E2C, see good practice examples below), as well as courses through the adult education services in Luxembourg (YGIP, 2014).

Specific Programmes Related to Adult Education

Basic skill and remedy programmes

As described above, adult basic education (*instruction de base des adultes*) is coordinated by the Ministry of Education, Childhood and Youth (MENJE) and delivered through local providers. As a quality requirement, providers must offer learners a personal statement of learning outcomes (*bilan descriptif*). Apart from numeracy and literacy education (in French and German), the programme for ICT skills includes an ‘Internet driving license’ (*Internetführerschäin*), aimed particularly at people with low qualifications or older people (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

Luxembourg has also created specific programmes and courses aimed at improving both basic skills and the access to the labour market of adult learners, through the use of European funding. An example of this is the EU project ‘Learn for Success’ (L4S) which provides a personalised learning programme in languages (French, German and English), numeracy, skills for office working as well as general and civic knowledge.

As mentioned above, the Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan provides a range of initiatives for creating basic skills education opportunities for young people, particularly those who are considered vulnerable – involving services such as the Public Employment Service (Adem) as well as the adult education services coordinated by the MENJE (YGIP, 2014).

Second chance education

The second-chance education framework in Luxembourg (*2e voie de qualification*) was established from 1979 and mainly aims at the completion of upper secondary education, as well as some programmes at lower secondary education. The target groups for the latter are people who no longer have to complete full-time compulsory education but have not obtained relevant qualifications. (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). The ‘second chance school’ (*E2C - École de la deuxième chance*) provides educational opportunities for young people aged 16-30 who have either left school without a recognised qualifications or have been unable to find an apprenticeship and want to engage in school-based vocational education (E2C, no date).

Vocational programmes and Retraining

Vocational education in Luxembourg is based on a dual system, combining school-based education and work-based learning. Through recent reforms, the links between the educational sector and the labour market have been strengthened, including through a focus on competence-based and modular qualifications (Cedefop, 2015). In Luxembourg, there is a distinction between initial vocational education (for example, apprenticeships) and training and continuing vocational education and training. Some of the vocational education and training takes place in a trans-national context (e.g. with the work-based component within, and the education-based component outside Luxembourg) (Cedefop, 2015). There are specific programmes for young people with learning difficulties, providing them with practical and social skills to progress to further vocational qualifications or employment as semi-skilled workers (vocational capacity certificate (*certificat de capacité professionnelle*, CCP).

Young adults under 30 who engage in the latter receive subsidies for their training costs (GHK/ Research voor Beleid, 2011). Continuing vocational education and training is provided by a range of organisations and actors, including the state, the professional chambers and other sectoral organisations, as well as a range of non-profit and private organisations. For job seekers, the Agency for the Development of Employment (ADEM) organises vocational training in cooperation with MENJE, including for young people with no or low skills (Cedefop, 2015).

One example mentioned in Luxembourg's Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan (YGIP, 2014) is the 'Socio-Professional Orientation Centre' (*Centre d'Orientation Socio-Professionnelle* - COSP), a centre specialising in supporting vulnerable young people who experience social or psychological difficulties. The support focuses on preparing young people for a structured working life rhythm by attending workshops based on social and manual labour competencies, over a two-month period. Alongside the workshops, young people have one-to-one interviews with staff. The programme can lead on to employment, including, for those requiring further support, in non-profit organisations offering 'social initiatives' (YGIP, 2014).

Informal learning

As a form of work-related social or youth work, vocational youth support (*Jugendberufshilfe*) sits in between informal education, counselling, and vocational education, training and re-

training. Vocational youth support is concerned with re-integrating young people between 16 and 25 into education, training or employment (Schneider, 2009). This involves both advice and support for young people transitioning from education to employment, as well as preparation for future employment through key personal, social and professional competences in a ‘close to real life’ context. The advice and support element includes counselling and ‘professional orientation’. Since 2007, the Volunteering Orientation Service (*Service Volontaire d’Orientation*) offers placements for 16 to 30 year olds as volunteers in the fields of ecology, social, cultural and public services. Participants receive a small allowance to live on and the scheme has been popular. The Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan highlights the activation element of the scheme, supporting young people ‘to reflect on their current situation and to define objectives for their future’ (YGIP, 2014: p.26).

Higher education

Luxembourg has formulated a policy to increase participation in higher education, aiming for a share of two-thirds of 30-34 year olds having completed higher education. In terms of access to higher education provision, the Luxembourg Lifelong Learning Centre offers courses in partnership with the Université de Lorraine towards the ‘*diplôme d’accès aux études universitaires*’ (Cedefop, 2015). These do not seem to be particularly targeted at vulnerable young people.

Examples of Good Practice

Second Chance School (Ecole de la 2e chance or E2C)

Target groups: Any young person or adult between the ages of 16 and 30 years who, as a result of failure or of bad orientation choices, has dropped out of school or has been unable to find a place as an apprentice

Category: second chance education

Aim: To offer adults a new opportunity to succeed in the school system

The Second Chance School (*École de la deuxième chance* or E2C) is an integral part of the State school system. It is open to any young person or adult between the ages of 16 and 30 years who, as a result of failure or of bad orientation choices, has dropped out of school or has

been unable to find a place as an apprentice. E2C teaches these learners in a specific way, giving priority to supervision and personal tutoring. E2C meets learners' needs in terms of initiation, catching up, qualification, retraining and personal fulfilment. E2C is able to offer the following courses: Secondary education; Secondary technical education; and Adult training (secondary education and secondary technical education for adults; sandwich training course for educators leading to educator's diploma and to Technical Secondary School Leaving Diploma; preparatory modules providing access to higher studies). On the basis of the learner's personal project, and according to his or her needs and learning rhythm, the educational team draws up a training plan. General education is provided in languages (French); mathematics and logical reasoning; natural and technical sciences; human and social sciences. Practical teaching takes the form of internships in companies and in workshops at the E2C. It is available in the agricultural sector, in trades, and in the commercial, hotel and tourism, industrial, paramedical and social sectors. Learners may supplement their personal and vocational project by working in a training kitchen, a horticultural greenhouse, or in the various workshops at the E2C.

<http://www.e2c.lu/>

Caritas Luxembourg: 'Gateways' classes

Aim: To contribute to the integration of young migrants: 'Gateways' classes for young refugees offer prospects.

Category: informal learning, basic skills

Target groups: Young people aged 16–23 years

Caritas Luxembourg is a charitable foundation that currently hosts two classes called 'Gateways' for young people aged 16–23 years, mostly of foreign origin. Some of them have a very low level of education and speak very little, if any, of Luxembourg's official languages. Consequently, they fail to integrate into courses and training standards. The following courses are offered: Luxembourgish and French, civic and cultural education, Maths. In addition, young people may obtain skills that are tailored to their individual requirements. There is also an opportunity to engage in professional workshops such as welding, cooking, gardening, sewing and artistic expression. Initially two classes were set up in 2015; however, a third class

was launched in the context of the substantial influx of refugees. To date, some 32 students, aged 17–22 years, have been welcomed as part of this class. Young people mostly come from Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan. The main purpose of this additional class is to teach them French as the main working language of the country to enable them to have access to further training or the job market in Luxembourg. The classes present opportunities for young people to become more socially engaged and motivated. The reception of refugee youth in the context of this kind of class is very important for their integration into society.

Conclusion

The lifelong learning scene as well as policies concerning vulnerable young people in Luxembourg are influenced by its specific position as a relatively small, multi-lingual, and internationally-orientated and – for the most part – fairly prosperous country. Luxembourg has a differentiated education system with well-established vocational routes. Despite, or perhaps even because of its relative prosperity and other characteristics, however, young people with low qualifications, lacking language skills, as well as other social difficulties are placed at a disadvantage when competing for jobs in an environment expecting high skill levels. Responding to this context, Luxembourg has developed a wide range of initiatives within the adult education and lifelong learning fields over recent years, including many which are specifically aimed at vulnerable young people. Measures range from formal to informal education activities, and while many are specifically framed within a European funding or initiatives (such as the Youth Guarantee), they utilise existing (or recently developed) national structures and agencies.

Concluding Remarks

In the countries reviewed in the report adult education has been increasingly recognised as a means to engage vulnerable young people. Adult education and lifelong learning, as concepts, have been closely related to the countries' historical developments and contemporary challenges. Global trends and problems, such as economic challenges, the rise in unemployment, migration and refugee crises have presupposed the significance of lifelong learning and engaging those who are in need to develop skills and competences that will enable them to participate in society, thus improving both their life chances and their level of social engagement. Engaging and supporting disadvantaged young people has been considered to be one of the priorities in the countries in question. Various initiatives considered in this report have been, in many ways, a response to global and European challenges. This resulted in both similarities and differences in relation to lifelong learning strategies, adult education approaches and the engagement of young adults adopted in a single country.

Similarities

The role of adult education has largely been associated with providing opportunities for young adults to acquire the range of skills required in order to participate in social, economic and political life. This resulted in establishing courses, in the first place, in civic education and basic skills programmes across the countries considered in this report. Knowledge of a country's national languages and culture was regarded as an essential requirement for effective citizenship in its various configurations, such as economic, social and political dimensions. The programmes offered in the countries aimed to address some (if not all) of these dimensions, specifically through offering relevant courses and programmes (please see examples of good practice for all countries in question).

The research has generally suggested a similarity in the ways the countries use programmes such as Basics Skills, Remedy and Retraining, in order to support and engage vulnerable young people. Basic Skills and Remedial programmes, specifically, have been recognised as crucial in terms of providing migrants and refugees with both civic education skills and national language and culture skills (e.g. civic education programmes in Belgium and the Netherlands, ESOL courses in the UK). Another observation that indicates some common approaches in tackling issues of social exclusion and enhancing individual life chances is that the remedial,

retraining and basic skills courses aim to provide learners with skills as well as a formal qualification/certificate (e.g. ESOL in the UK, Dutch as a second language NT2). Informal learning across the countries has been regarded as an important mechanism for providing support for young adults. It has been manifested through a range of approaches and initiatives such as Youth and Family Centres at the municipality level in the Netherlands or a Targeted Youth Support (TYS) programme in the UK. In Belgium, within the French community, many informal initiatives have been implemented through small-scale projects involving informal learning processes, some of them having a specific focus on socially excluded young people. The review has suggested that informal learning does not, as a rule, provide opportunities to obtain a formal qualification, but focuses on improving confidence, social skills and life chances. Vocational education and training (VET), educational training that provides practical experience in a particular occupational field, is regarded as an important element of engagement through the world of work and occupational training; however, the specific programmes and relevance to vulnerable young people varied from country to country.

Overall, a focus on socio-economic participation and on employability skills, as well as on reaching specific target groups (such as early school leavers or young people who are considered 'NEET') is noticeable as a trend in several of the countries observed. European initiatives, such as the Youth Guarantee, play a role in this context by introducing some new education and training opportunities particularly for young people aged 18-24, as well as supporting existing (targeted) programmes. At the same time, the literature review indicates some concerns among those engaged in the field of adult education and lifelong learning in various countries that such more targeted approaches might neglect the value of informal and universally orientated education provision.

Differences

Different historical traditions and approaches to adult education and lifelong learning have resulted in some differences, such as particular strategies and national concepts of adult education and lifelong learning. In some countries included in this review, such as Belgium and the UK, there are also significant intra-country differences. The developments across European countries have been characterised by different interpretations of the concepts of lifelong learning and adult education over time. Concepts such as 'liberal education' (UK) or 'community-based education and training' (Ireland) have become dominant over time in these

specific countries, shaping the approaches towards lifelong learning and adult education. In the Netherlands, of particular concern was the proportionately much higher level of youth unemployment among young migrants, which resulted in the rise of initiatives to support newcomers to the country, and specifically to equip them with civic education, languages and cultural knowledge. In the UK, the concerns and strategies were driven by the agenda to address the needs of the NEET (not in education, employment or training) population, which resulted in the setting of a variety of courses focusing on the economic dimension of active citizenship, that is – supporting young adults into employment or further training to facilitate their chances in the labour market. Comparatively poor results regarding skill levels of young people in England, as well as challenges regarding social mobility, are significant contextual factors in these developments. In Ireland, on the other hand, the wake of the economic crisis has influenced a restructuring of the further education sector; while the situation of young migrants as suffering particular risks of social exclusion is reported as an important contextual factor to developments in adult education for young people in Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg.

This section has attempted to examine the different types of programmes that exist across Europe for adults who wish to improve their basic skills or those who left their initial education system with low-level or no qualifications. Commonly used terms such as ‘literacy’, ‘basic skills’, ‘adult basic education’ and ‘second chance education’, have shown that these terms do not have a single universal meaning or interpretation. Instead, they belong to a wider conceptual field, which covers various overlapping or closely related topics, such as second chance or basic skills or remedial educational programmes.

The review has indicated that the specific programmes need to be considered as contextually specific concepts. There are some country-specific variations in relation to engaging young vulnerable people through a range of programmes, such as basic skills, retraining, vocational and remedial programmes. Approaches to supporting young people through VET schemes, have indicated some difference in strategies. In the Netherlands, for example, the introduction of entry-level programmes in vocational education specifically provides low-achieving young people a chance to enter VET training. In the UK, the approaches aim to facilitate young people’s chances through enhancing employers’ involvement, e.g. through apprenticeship (Youth Contract Scheme) programmes. In Luxembourg, engaging vulnerable young people

with VET is tackled through the Agency for the Development of Employment (ADEM), which organises vocational training in cooperation with MENJE, including for young people with no or low skills.

The programmes identified in this study, while aiming to engage vulnerable young people, have some notable differences in the ways the programmes are related to strengthening active citizenship skills. In the majority of programmes (apart from specific civic education programmes) the aspect of teaching citizenships skills is delivered tacitly rather than explicitly, through embedding learning about citizenship, including cultural knowledge, in courses such as basic skills, retraining, VET courses and/or informal courses. Learning about active citizenship has been broadly related here in three dimensions: (1) political dimension, which encourages civic and political participation; (2) economic dimension, including employment, access to social benefits, awareness of rights; and (3) social dimension, i.e. the development of personal/social skills.

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PART III: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The report aimed to provide a state of the art overview of adult education and lifelong learning in Europe. The approach employed in this study involved (1) considering broad theoretical issues related to AE and LLL; (2) reviewing European legislation concerning the target group of the EduMAP, and (3) providing country cases, grouped into several region-specific categories. Qualitative analysis of existing research and policy reports as well as comparative qualitative content analysis of themes and sub-themes enabled the researchers to consider relevant trends in country/region-specific contexts and reflect on both convergences and divergences in the developments of adult education and lifelong learning across Europe and in Turkey. The next section will first present regional summaries. The following sections will provide conclusions and recommendations, as well as emerging criteria that will be used for the identification of good practice across selected countries in the next work package, (WP3). The criteria developed in the course of this study are based on both theoretical considerations and county-specific cases and examples of good practice.

Regional Summaries

Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania

Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania have largely adopted the European concepts of AE and LLL. Despite of historical and regional closeness these Baltic countries have undergone different AE developments after regaining their independence. In the national acts and agendas of the Baltic countries the national language space protection is highlighted, but also means for bilingual AE opportunities combined with the social and cultural cohesion agendas and ecological sustainability means are used.

In Estonia, the market and job-related goal of AE and LLL prevail and the AE focuses on continuing education and on the job training models. Other trends are flexible transfer between study levels, bringing NEET to education and work, and social cohesion programs. There is lack of attention to informal education; the self-directed educational development is underestimated compared with job-related development. Estonia has developed digital service provision that enables discovering the sets of constraints and requirements for supportive

allowances, but it is not yet possible to filter the prerequisites of AE services for vulnerable young groups.

In Latvia and Lithuania, the steps have been made to move from “adult education” to “education for adults” concept, which also sees the self-development in civil society as part of AE goals. Latvia has introduced opportunities for young vulnerable adults, but active changes are obviously taking place age-independently in on-the-job training, second chance education, and validation of non-formally obtained competences. Lithuania has enacted laws and programs targeting informal learning to approve obtained competences, and informal education is seen as the tool for aiding vulnerable groups in the state agenda. These are not necessarily age-specific so as to reach young citizens.

Denmark, Finland and Sweden

Denmark, Finland and Sweden are Nordic welfare states that historically have put a high value on education as a means to increase equality in the society and providing support for those in need and for special groups and minorities. The Grundtvigian folk high school movement in the early history of liberal/popular AE targeted young adults, and this institute still prevails in non-formal education assuming new societal tasks, such as the integration education for migrants and asylum seekers. The adult educational ethos is today increasingly facing the dominance of the liberal market economies. Generally in all Nordic countries, budget cuts have affected particularly non-formal AE while resources have increased on formal AE of guidance and counselling, transition from basic to upper secondary education and training, one-step-up activities for the low-skilled, continuing training for the work force, and preparing courses for immigrants ranging from elementary to higher education.

The countries aim to fulfil the EU Youth Guarantee through various initiatives. For Denmark, education is a special focus of the Danish policy concerning unemployed people below 30 years. Finland has launched one-stop guidance centres for youth, which aim to strengthen and simplify services for young people and to eliminate the duplication of activities. Sweden is introducing a 90-day guarantee of education or employment, to address the challenges relating to unemployment of low-skilled young people.

Germany, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, Czech Republic and France

The traditions of Adult Education (AE) in these six countries have their roots in the Age of Enlightenment. The reports have indicated that due to different historical and contemporary traditions, the interpretation of AE and Lifelong Learning (LLL) varies from country to country. However, EU policies and developments have strongly influenced national developments in AE in these countries, specifically by promoting a common legal and policy framework in the field of AE, and introducing the concept of LLL. In these six countries, national AE initiatives and programmes are often addressed to the vulnerable groups of society, with the aim to bolster social inclusion, but different types of vulnerability are not always associated with a specific age group. Traditionally, the distinction made between formal and informal AE has been on the basis of types of institution [e.g. formal schools/institutions [Vocational Educational Training/Higher Education centres (VET/HS) vs. outside institutions] or purposes of programmes (e.g. qualification purpose or life-oriented, general AE). Research has shown that the common trends of contemporary developments and policies of AE have included tendencies towards strong market orientation (and less needs-driven education) and orientation towards employability. Increasing non-formal and informal learning offers, specifically for vulnerable young adults, has also been a prominent feature of the current movements in education in these six countries. What further unities the developments in Germany, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, Czech Republic and France is the need to address the problem of refugee and migrant inclusion. Research has indicated that informal (non-institutional) offers often relate to self-organised, volunteering actions that play an increasingly important role in civic education. Specifically in Germany, Austria and France, this has resulted in a high number of courses for migrants and refugees. The two former Socialist bloc countries, Poland and Slovakia, have been noted as experiencing some difficulties and problems associated with the development of civic education, and research has indicated that there are almost no civic education and intercultural learning offers in these two countries. In general, the higher number of learning offers and opportunities for vulnerable groups have been provided in the VET sector and in a wide range of informal learning offers across the countries.

Greece, Cyprus, Malta, Portugal, Spain, Italy and Turkey

Adult education (AE) developments in the Southern European and Mediterranean countries have been affected by a number of challenges stemming from the current economic, political

and social situation in the region. Overcoming the economic crisis has been described in this report as one of the major challenges for AE in these six EU countries. What is more, due to their geographic location, the Southern European states have been experiencing the consequences of the current migration and refugee crisis, which has also resulted in demographic changes across the countries. Because of this situation, migrants and refugees have become a key target group for educational initiatives that focus on inclusion and integration, and this creates some additional challenges. The country reports have suggested that the needs of these groups differ from the needs of the 'traditional' key groups, which causes providers to make a great effort in re-structuring measures of programmes and organisations. In addition, as a result of the economic crisis in many Southern European countries, youth unemployment rates are extremely high, as well as the number of school dropouts or NEETs. In addressing these problems, as shown in the reports, vocational educational training (VET) is playing an increasingly significant role in (re-)integration and re-engagement of young adults and improving their life chances: all Southern European countries have been noted to be developing and implementing methods and programmes that are tailor-made for young unemployed adults. However, it was noted that there is a need to improve the correlation between education and training and the labour market. An emphasis on second-chance education as well as on recognition and validation of non-formal learning is another trend that has been noticeable in the context of developing opportunities for motivating and engaging vulnerable young adults. The programmes to include young adults across these countries have exemplified an indirect rather than direct relevance to active citizenship. The developments of AE in Turkey, which was included in this country group on account of both geographical proximity and a number of common challenges, have been strongly affected by the influx of Syrian refugees as well as by the unstable political and social situation. The Turkey country report has demonstrated that Syrian refugee inflow posed a major challenge for every aspect of public administration as well as the education system. While the 'traditional' vulnerable groups are recognised as such in the Turkish context (e.g. women, disabled individuals, school dropouts, ethnic minorities), the past five years have seen an increasing focus on the millions of Syrian refugees. In addition, in both Southern Europe EU countries and Turkey, gender inequities have been noted as one of the challenges that need to be tackled throughout AE programmes.

Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovenia and Hungary

All five countries belong to the former Socialist bloc countries, which presupposes some common trends and developments. However, unique country-specific features result in different approaches both in adult education (AE) and lifelong learning (LLL). The Socialist period was largely characterised by industrialisation, modernisation of the working class and combating illiteracy. After the collapse of the former Soviet Union, the former Socialist countries experienced a high degree of uncertainty and unstable social, political and economic situations. In these five countries, as in many other former Socialist countries, this has resulted in rising numbers of early school leavers, adults with deficiency in basic skills as well as minorities, experiencing difficulties in communication and integration, such as, for example, the Roma. These groups, together with other types of vulnerable adults have been affected by social exclusion and marginalisation. Addressing their needs was regarded as an important trend, following the stage of revitalisation of AE in the 1990s and the later EU accession. Meeting both the democratic changes and needs of a market economy has been a notable development that was strongly related to overcoming unemployment and the reduced economic activity of the adult population. In recent years, the principles of AE policy and the interpretation of LLL have been largely determined by European integration. However, local challenges and priorities have also played a significant role in the development of AE and LLL. Romania, Bulgaria and Croatia have established the basic infrastructure and policy of AE with limited governmental commitment and success to change social attitudes towards knowledge and LLL. In Hungary the developments have been hindered by problems, such as the wave of emigration as well as the ageing society, largely resulting in a drop in the size of the potential work force. This labour shortage provides a focus on the training and retraining of unemployed and inactive persons. Similarly, the reports have emphasised that in the other countries in this group, the economic dimension, dealing with the inclusion of young adults through providing them with economic and market-related skills, was also observed as a notable development in AE.

UK, Ireland, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg

The consideration of these five countries – the UK, Ireland, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg – has suggested the increasing role attached to Adult Education (AE) and lifelong

learning, specifically for facilitating the inclusion and engagement of vulnerable young adults. Overall, these five countries have exemplified the fairly well developed systems and structures of AE. Comparison of these countries allowed us to identify some common trends in the development of approaches towards the inclusion, engagement and motivation of young adults. In spite of existing diversities in both historical and contemporary policies as well as conceptions regarding AE across the UK, Ireland and the Benelux region, there are some shared developments in relation to policies and practices for the social inclusion of vulnerable young adults, influenced by both the economic and the social challenges currently faced by European countries. These five countries have illustrated noticeable trends towards the focus on socio-economic participation, developing employability skills and tackling early school leaving. The problems of the young people grouped as 'NEET' (not in education, employment or training), and engaging this group through developing relevant labour market skills, has been specifically emphasised by the UK and Ireland contexts. The situation of young migrants provides specific challenges in the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg, which has resulted in these countries developing a range programmes for inclusion. While some programmes are specifically focused on citizenship across all five countries (e.g. programmes for migrants and refugees), often the concept of 'citizenship' is not used explicitly but may be embedded in a wide range of other programmes (e.g. ESOL in the UK, Dutch as a second language NT2). European initiatives (e.g. Youth Guarantee) have also influenced country-specific implementation, with a particular focus on some new and existing education and training opportunities for young adults. Common approaches in tackling issues of social exclusion and enhancing individual life chances are represented by remedial, retraining and basic skills courses aimed to provide learners with skills as well as a formal qualification/certificate. Informal learning has been recognised as a means of facilitating inclusion; however, there were concerns that non-formal / informal education provision (e.g. community education) and universal education services are being neglected over more 'targeted' formal programmes. The consideration and comparison of these five countries have suggested that the specific programmes need to be considered as contextually specific strategies. Widely used terms such as 'informal learning', formal learning and AE could be subject to country-specific vs. global interpretations. Strategies and approaches towards the inclusion of vulnerable young adults across these five countries have been influenced to some extent by global developments; however, the implementation of special programmes has been strongly related to national, local and regional challenges, problems and concerns.

Key Conclusions

This report has emphasised both the significance and the problems associated with lifelong learning and adult education, specifically in relation to facilitating the social inclusion of vulnerable young adults. Societal inclusion, as discussed in this report, is strongly related to three dimensions of participation: social dimension, economic dimension and political dimension, which together have been defined as essential elements of active citizenship. This broad understanding of active citizenship has informed the selection of the good practices to be empirically investigated in the EduMAP project.

Comparing country-specific cases and relating the findings to the broad research on adult education and European policies enabled the researchers to consider both convergences and divergences in the development of adult education and lifelong learning across Europe. Both historical developments and national approaches and conceptions towards AE and LLL indicated a range of country- and region-specific variations and divergent historical trends and priorities in LLL and AE. Countries with long-established traditions in Adult Education, such as, the German-speaking countries as well as France and Poland, can trace the origins of AE to the Age of Enlightenment and Industrialisation. In Nordic EU-countries, Denmark, Finland and Sweden, some significant societal actors of liberal AE were born already towards the end of the 19th century in connection with national movements. Education in folkhighschools of this early phase was targeted at countryside young people who lacked access to academic schooling. Some other countries of the Southern region, for example, Greece and Cyprus, have a relatively short history in terms of developing education for adults. The historical developments of LLL and AE in the three Baltic States has been influenced heavily by their Soviet heritage facing the issues associated with the period of transition from centralised economy to market economy, after regaining their independence in the early 1990s.

As the country reports have shown, adult education systems differ regarding the recognition and identification of vulnerability of young people. In other words, in some countries it is pointed out that vulnerability is age-independent, whereas in other countries sophisticated educational offering and programmes to young adults have been developed for years. Examples of the former can be found in the reports of Austria, Germany and Greece, and examples of the latter case are Denmark, Finland, Sweden, UK, and Ireland. The interpretation of the concept of vulnerable young adults has also been strongly influenced by both historical and

contemporary developments as well as national conceptions. The notion of vulnerability in relation to young adults has been the subject of interpretations across the countries considered in this report. The research undertaken in this report largely suggests that vulnerable/disadvantaged young adults have been regarded as those who lack some essential capacities and/or are in need of being engaged or re-engaged in relation to social, political and economic involvement. Such young adults often require specific approaches in education and training. Specific target groups in each country/region are often suggested by local or regional developments. In the UK and Ireland, for example, a high number of young people who are classed as NEET have been defined as a group with particular needs of being integrated into the world of work or education. In Turkey, political unrest and military conflict in neighbouring countries has resulted in a high number of refugees and migrants, with the number of immigrants estimated to be over 4 million. The influx of refugees has characterised, to a greater or lesser extent, a range of other EU countries, and thus ‘refugees and migrants’ have been considered as a group of vulnerable people whose specific requirements need to be addressed in order to facilitate their social engagement, integration and inclusion. In the Baltic States, the historical development of being incorporated in the former Soviet Union left a legacy of a segregated society, with the current challenges related to the integration of ethnic Russians into society in all three countries.

The divergences influencing the perceptions and policies related to the development of effective adult education structures for vulnerable young adults have been attributed to the difference in their historical trajectories and contemporary local challenges. The convergences and common trends in the provision of adult education for vulnerable young people have been influenced in many ways by common global challenges, EU policies and research in the area of adult education and lifelong learning. The key conclusions from this report take into account factors of both convergence and divergence, and include the following:

1. The concept of active citizenship is used across the EU28 and Turkey with different aims, purposes and interpretations. Policy agendas and country-specific priorities define overall objectives and the meaning of active citizenship and the role of education and its promotion.
2. This lack of clarity and definitions of AC in the adult education and lifelong learning literature make the understanding, interpretation and role of citizenship/active citizenship somewhat fragmented and patchy, and the concept varies from context to context both

nationally and internationally. The controversies and broad interpretation of AC that emerged from the literature suggest that there is a need for in-depth empirical research to explore the complexity of relationships between adult education, active citizenship and social inclusion.

3. Equally, within research and policy analysis, the concept of adult education and lifelong learning remains poorly defined and open to various interpretations and, often, with no explicit link to AC.
4. The role of adult education in promoting active citizenship for vulnerable groups is not clearly defined across the EU28 countries' adult education systems. Engaging vulnerable young people through adult education has been related to addressing specific problems (e.g. poor literacy level or unemployment), defined by current national political, social or economic agendas.
5. With the exception of programmes for newly arrived migrants and/or refugees, the majority of adult education courses do not demonstrate an explicit focus on citizenship education/skills.
6. However, different dimensions of active citizenship, such as economic, social and political dimensions, have characterised (often implicitly) AE programmes and initiatives across all countries considered in this report. While some programmes are specifically focused on citizenship (e.g. programmes for migrants), often 'citizenship' is not used explicitly and/or may be embedded. AE programmes and initiatives across all countries are seen as related to social, political or economic dimensions of AC. In particular, the:
 - a. Social dimension focuses on the development of social competences, social capital;
 - b. Political dimension encourages civic and political participation, running for boards, neighbourhood activities; and
 - c. Economic dimension relates to employment (e.g. developing employability skills), access to social benefits.
7. These dimensions of active citizenship, such as economic, social and political dimensions in AE programmes, are often driven by current national policy developments and agendas, rather than by the specific needs of disadvantaged groups.
8. Specifically, in the most recent decade, developments and policies related to adult education and AC have been strongly influenced by both the economic crisis and the influx of migrants across the EU28 and Turkey. These trends have resulted in the prevalence of

market-oriented approaches and strategies to integrate refugees and migrants across adult education programmes.

9. Different types of AE have become important tools for engagement and (re)-integration of young adults into society. The role of AE has largely been associated with providing opportunities for young adults to acquire the range of skills required in order to participate in social, economic and political life. All country-specific reports have emphasised the significance of the following types of programmes:
 - a. Basic skills and remedy programmes
 - b. Second-chance education
 - c. Retraining
 - d. Vocational programmes
 - e. Informal learning and non-formal learning
 - f. Selected higher education programmes
10. Across AE context, the term ‘vulnerable young adults’ remains open to various interpretations (different perceptions among stakeholders: practitioners, policy-makers and young people themselves).
11. . Gender differences need to be taken into account. Gender is not generally perceived to be a vulnerability, and there are few gender-specific programmes that focus on the promotion of AC. However, research has indicated that in some contexts young adults need some specific extra support on account of their gender (e.g. reports from Turkey and the Mediterranean region).
12. The review of European Legislation indicates, that the promotion of the active participatory citizenship of young people is an area where many EU programmes overlap. The issue relates to the agendas of entrepreneurship, young people in a NEET situation, young people with a migrant background, youth work and youth organisations.

Key Recommendations for policy and practice

Collaboration, organisation and management

- Collaboration among a range of stakeholders is essential.
- Sustainability of programmes needs to be taken into consideration as an important aspect of AE developments.

- Recognition of the significance of formal and informal education and learning need to be considered.
- Cooperation, partnerships and mutual learning between the different sectors and on different levels (European, national, regional) need to be facilitated.

In addition, it is crucial to:

- Provide long-term planning for education and training objectives as well as a mixture of short-term and long-term instruments.
- Reinforce learning and teaching, especially in teacher training.
- Create more links between policy, practice and research.
- Develop a more focused approach to vulnerability and vulnerable youth (who is really vulnerable?)
- Define specific target groups of vulnerable youth based on social as well as ethnic and cultural features (how are they defined? why are we interested?)
- Find relevance between existing research and policy measures (how relevant and why?)
- Highlight those policy measures and/or programmes that mostly echo the need for active citizenship in vulnerable youth
- Explain what aspects of adult education theory and practice may be beneficial for the development of relevant programmes (what principles? what practices? who can have access?)

Awareness: responding to individual requirements

- Programmes need to address the specific requirements of vulnerable young people. Awareness-raising for age, gender and cultural diversity is needed in future planning.
- A more contextualised understanding is needed of how individual and mutual responsibilities are played out and expressed in actions in the social world, particularly in relation to work and learning. This draws our attention to the spaces and scope for people to express their aspirations and rise above social constraints through their own efforts.

Developing dialogue and more active involvement through learning

- Young people should not be passive; they have a role to play in the creation of meaningful spaces in the context of AE that would encourage active participation.
- Dialogue is a multifaceted dimension: it should involve dialogue between all stakeholders, including young adults, practitioners and policy-makers.

Empowerment and confidence

- Empowerment is critical in the development of agency. Confidence is a major issue and concern. There should be a strong focus on empowerment and confidence through young adults' personal development and within different forms of education.
- Development of transferrable skills.
- It is important to equip young adults with skills that would enable them to navigate a range of spaces and environments, including work-related, personal and community spaces.

Mobility and career progression

- Facilitating a more encompassing conception of personal and career development (for young people) is essential in order to broaden their learning, including tacit learning. There is insufficient robust strategy planning. Future career and learning progression is just as important as other areas of development, not largely reflected by management. More needs to be done to sustain motivation and engagement.

Improving employability

- The points above relate to improving employability. Equipping young people with employability skills does not mean that they need to acquire skills for specific professions. Employability skills need to include a range of both professional and personal skills, including those of confidence, motivation and problem-solving.

Improving active citizenship

- Active citizenship needs to be considered in a broader context. Citizenship is often associated with civic education. Considering active citizenship as a wider concept, provide opportunities for young adults to engage in economic and social developments of their skills.

The Next Steps: recommendations for the further work in the EduMAP-project

The aim of this report is twofold: to provide a broad state of the art overview of research on adult education and lifelong learning and to develop criteria for undertaking fieldwork to assess the effectiveness of adult education provision for vulnerable young people. In the process of identifying examples of good practice, we aim to select successful programmes. For consistency across the consortium, some criteria that will help to consider the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful have been identified through desk research. It is noted, though, that we recognise that programmes may not cover all of the criteria below, and, on the contrary, some successful programmes may exemplify additional criteria, that will be identified in the course of our fieldwork. The criteria developed in the course of this study are based on both theoretical considerations and county-specific cases and examples of good practice.. The contextual analysis is considered to be an important step in in the course of our fieldwork. The significance and richness of individual contexts is recognized within our project, and therefore, it was regarded of crucial importance to provide opportunities for the partners to undertake context analyses in their country/ regional settings in order to identify and select cases empirical fieldwork. During the contextual analysis, in considering the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful, the following types of evidence have been considered: desk research (including statistics, policy papers, internal programme documents) as well as practitioners' and policy-makers' views. The following criteria are recommended for initial screening and identifying of successful programmes during the first stage of empirical field work (context analysis).

Criteria and Recommendations for next work packages

The criteria will be employed to select examples of good practice of effective initiatives in the area of adult education and lifelong learning, specifically in relation to vulnerable young adults. The table below indicates a range of criteria that need to be addressed when selecting cases of

good practice for empirical fieldwork. The following are the recommendations on the criteria for selecting good practices to be taken into account in WP3 and WP4. The overall findings of desk research and empirical research will contribute to the development of the IDSS (Intelligent Decision Support System) to be used by practitioners and policy-makers.

1 Relation to the project target groups: age and vulnerability

The cases of good practice that will be selected for empirical work for WP3 and WP4 will aim to identify policies and practices that facilitate the social inclusion of vulnerable young adults aged 16–30. The programmes selected as examples of good practice will aim to cover different elements of vulnerability (e.g. NEET, unemployed, refugees, young adults lacking basic skills, etc.). The concept of vulnerability is subject to interpretation from context to context, including both country-specific and international contexts. Both the desk research and the empirical work will contribute to developing a shared understanding of the concept of vulnerability within the project. Gender will be employed as a cross-cutting theme, underpinning the concept of vulnerability across different contexts of AE.

2 Relation to the types of programme

The desk research of WP2 indicated that AE programmes that aim to facilitate engagement and inclusion of vulnerable young adults include the following types of programmes: Basic skills and remedy programmes; Second-chance education; Retraining; Vocational programmes, Informal learning and selected Higher education programmes, for example, those that aim to address specifically the needs of vulnerable groups (e.g. summer schools). In order to ensure a fair representation across different types of programmes, examples of good practice from each country group will aim to cover at least two different types.

3 Relation to active citizenship (both implicit and explicit)

Active citizenship is one of the core concepts of the project. Within WP3 and WP4 we will aim to identify examples of good practice that relate to the promotion of active citizenship (either implicitly or explicitly) for vulnerable young adults. As defined in the EduMAP project proposal, active citizenship is considered through the following dimensions: economic (e.g. getting adults into employment); social (development of social skills and competences, social capital) and political (facilitating civic and political participation, running for boards,

neighbourhood activities). Examples of good practice selected for empirical work for WP3 and WP4 will address one or more of these dimensions.

4 Criteria related to defining successful programmes (contextual analysis)

In the process of identifying examples of good practice, we aim to select successful programmes. For consistency across the consortium, some criteria that will help to consider the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful have been identified through desk research. It is noted, though, that we recognise that programmes may not cover all of the criteria below, and, on the contrary, some successful programmes may exemplify additional criteria, that will be identified in the course of our fieldwork. The contextual analysis is considered to be an important step in in the course of our fieldwork. The significance and richness of individual contexts is recognized within our project, and therefore, it was regarded of crucial importance to provide opportunities for the partners to undertake context analyses in their country/ regional settings in order to identify and select cases empirical fieldwork. During the contextual analysis, in considering the extent to which the programmes could be regarded as successful, the following types of evidence have been considered: desk research (including statistics, policy papers, internal programme documents) as well as practitioners' and policy-makers' views. The following criteria are recommended for initial screening and identifying of successful programmes during the first stage of empirical field work (context analysis).

1. Participation. Are the programmes successful in ensuring the participation and retention of vulnerable young adults? (e.g. completion rates) ?]
2. Accessibility. To what extent are the selected programmes accessible for vulnerable young people? For example, terms of ensuring funding; reaching out those who are hard to reach; other elements of accessibility (e.g. disabled access, childcare provision).
3. Outcomes, both formal and informal. Does the programme ensure meaningful outcomes for vulnerable young people, either formal or informal (e.g. certificates or qualification, development of social skills)?
4. Contribution to active citizenship. To what extent does the programme aim to promote AC (including economic, political or social dimensions)?
5. Sustainability. Is the programme sustainable?
6. Scope of the programme (national, local). Although we do not consider the scope as the measure of success, for fair representation of the programmes with different degrees of

scopes, the country groups will aim to include at least one national initiative within each country.

Both the conceptual framework and the country-specific reports underpin a range of issues that relate to AC and adult education, and provide a context for the project work packages (WPs that follow the broad research). Theoretical and conceptual considerations have contributed to a framework for the presentation of country-specific cases. The developments of adult education at the level of EU policies and practices have been considered in order to provide a background for the role of adult education and lifelong learning at the EU level (seePart I). The country cases have been presented within region-specific groups, thus offering reflections of particular regional challenges and problems. This report, which was written as part of WP2, provides an important background and the recommendations on the criteria for selecting good practices to be taken into account in WP3 and WP4, specifically through identifying the types of adult education programmes that relate to the engagement of vulnerable groups and the promotion of active citizenship, either implicitly or explicitly. A supplementary document, an Active Citizenship Concept Note, was developed to facilitate a shared conceptual understanding of the notion of AC among the consortium members. The Concept Note paper was developed to bridge the transition between WP2 and WP3/4. The work on WP2 emphasises the need for a shared conceptual understanding as well as for further empirical research in relation to AC. This is considered to be of significance for empirical work concerning both adult education initiatives and communicative ecologies. WP5 provides scope for feeding in the findings from these three work packages into the IDSS (Intelligent Decision Support System) to be used by practitioners and policy-makers.