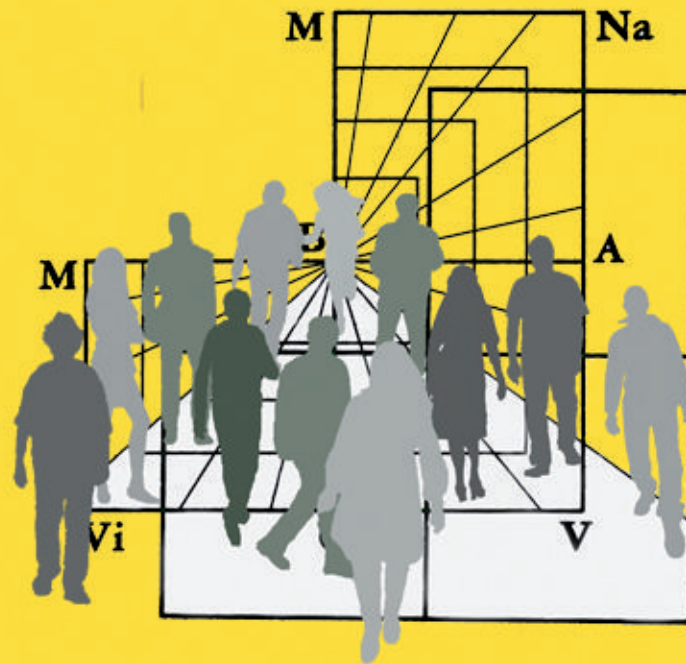# Social Effectiveness of Tertiary Education for Adults in Mid-life

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Summary

It has long been recognised that Europe is facing a number of socio-economic and demographic challenges. Increasing globalisation, rapid technological change, an ageing population, *improving the level of education*; *increasing social and labour risks* and the demands of a more knowledge- and skills-intensive European labour market, have resulted in the need to provide adults with opportunities to increase their skill levels in order to meet these challenges [European Commission (EC) 2010a]. These societal transformations in the EU have produced substantial changes in the perception of education and training and its interrelation with other socio-economic policies. The continuous participation of the citizen in education and training is seen as key to assure quality of life and work. It has become a component of active labour market policies in order to transform the European social model to a more dynamic version which avoids the incidence of social need through 'proactive social investments'. This strategy advocates a market-oriented approach, reinforcing the link between social rights and social obligations, and fostering social inclusion through active participation in the labour market.

More recently, the Transitional Labour Market approach (TLM) emerged as an alternative to these activation policies. This approach links social risk management in transitional work periods with concepts of social equity dating back to Rawls, Dworkin and Sen. TLM stresses the role of public institutions in managing situations of social risk, promoting proactive, flexible public engagement to forestall individual social risk, and reinforcing the qualitative dimension of labour market policies in contrast to a reliance on mere quantitative results. TLM thus provides a framework to identify specific social risk situations (transitions) and ways to provide appropriate measures aimed at mitigating the negative impacts of life changes.

This suggests that in involuntary transitional periods, citizens should be able to rely on different forms of institutional support, for instance direct financial support or the funding and organising of Lifelong Learning (LLL) activities. However, in this report only institutionally supported formal LLL activities with a clear labour market orientation are considered to be relevant to transitional labour markets. In particular, university programmes for adult learners have a considerable potential as institutional support to manage life and labour market transitions. The TLM approach can thus be seen as an effective 'social bridge' that prevents individuals from (transitional) social exclusion and as a means to increase the probability that, for example, non-standard jobs become 'stepping stones' to sustainable job careers [Räisänen & Schmid, 2008].

In the THEMP Project, we distinguish between social danger, social risk and individual risk. The difference between risk and danger is the degree of knowledge of the possibility that certain events may occur. Social vulnerability, on the other hand, is a measure of individual responsiveness – in short whether it is limited to acting preventatively in responsive mode, or whether there is the capacity to react in advance of the risk situation. In other words, citizens' vulnerability is assumed to grow in relation to the limits of their capacity for action. Without denying the self-responsibility of citizens, a 'bounded knowledge' of social-economic developments limits the citizens' ability to avert labour market upheavals. Further, limited action capacity restricts their possibility to avoid (or stimulate) undesired (or desired) labour situations, to act proactively and to react in advance of potential negative events.

As a strategy to measure the efficiency of Tertiary Lifelong Learning (TLLL) programmes beyond access to jobs, and to insert a more life-wide perspective, TLM suggests a link to theories of social justice. Such theories have been recently expanded and developed under the heading of the 'capability approach'. This perspective, especially in Sen's articulation, allows

the measurement of the quality of social insurance programmes beyond the rates of active participation or employment and focuses on the quality of work and life. It starts from the premise that each individual has a set of capabilities (individual agency) and objectives regarding their quality of life (functionings), which should be considered in the design of planned futures. Resources are not aims per se, but a means to achieve a (subjectively defined) better quality of life.

One main area to obtain resources is the labour market, but one's position in the labour market depends on the outcomes obtained during the course of diverse formal, informal and non-formal learning processes. TLLL aims to improve the qualifications of learners, providing them with new knowledge to support intellectual development and to facilitate new social relations. However, seen through a labour market lens, achieved learning outcomes must be converted in capital. This requires its recognition as having value in appropriate labour market segments: learning outcomes must be converted to human, cultural and social capital. This is a complex process of social bargaining in the specific labour market fields. Such TLLL-acquired capital can either open or restrict opportunities for professional development, for facing critical life transitions in an age of TLMs and for achieving new levels of well-being.

We thus use the well-known notion of 'capital' to measure the social efficiency of TLLL for learners in mid-life within the overall analytical framework provided by TLM theory. Each labour market segment is conceived as a social field determining which learning results are convertible to capital and what is the value of the capital stock of each individual, so defining their positions in the labour market and their occupational opportunities. The labour market position of citizens, and their occupational opportunities, depends upon their capital stock and its valuation in the labour market segments. There is a complex interrelation between capital accumulation, capability development, learning outcome and quality of life in a given socio-economic context.

Based on this coherent theoretical frame, the THEMP project analysed adult education programmes at universities with a high participation rate of persons older than 45 years old. THEMP focused on this specific group of persons because they are more and more exposed to social and labour market exclusion; and because their inclusion in lifelong learning programs is still an open question in the strategy of the European Union.

The project also focused on a specific level of lifelong learning – tertiary lifelong learning or tertiary adult education – believing that people holding such a certificate will be more and more relevant for the dynamics of the global economy. For instance, the new 'Europe 2020' strategy of the European Union established the aim to increase the number of people with higher education to 40% in the age group between 25 and 35 years. In other words, the EU promotes a greater generalisation of higher education. It thus seems thus realistic to hypothesise a) that the role of the universities and other higher education institutions as promoters of lifelong learning programmes will increase in the next years; and b) that the labour market relevance of university lifelong learning programmes will also increase.

THEMP proposes an analysis of lifelong learning programmes of universities with a high participation rate of persons older than 45 years. THEMP gives special attention to periods of labour transition i.e. changes of the work place in the same enterprise or between enterprises, and also to the adaptation to changes in the actual work environment and to re-entry into the labour market after a period of unemployment.

Using a multiple case study approach [see Mariani & Krüger 2013], the project analysed tertiary lifelong programmes at Universities in seven EU member states (Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain and United Kingdom). Initially, the national landscapes of tertiary lifelong learning were described (desk research) and documented in a series of discussion documents to which a transnational report in the form of an e-book was added.

The case studies were then documented in individual case study reports including recommendations presented to, and discussed with, the persons responsible for the analysed tertiary lifelong learning programmes. These case study reports were also discussed between the project members, but not presented on the project website, as they were considered to be confidential documents.

The case studies formed the basis for the development of national reports on university adult education and thematic summary reports on (i) the structural and (ii) the teaching & learning aspects that would address the social effectiveness of these programmes. The national thematic reports allowed us to compile comparative reports on both these topics.

The findings of the case studies and the comparative reports were inputs for two mutual learning seminars. Both seminars were conceived as spaces to bring together the practitioners from the studied programmes, so that they could interchange experience, and this would enable us to contrast our approach and research findings with the opinion and experience of these practitioners.

The thematic reports were published as working papers. The national reports and the draft of the thematic comparative reports were published as discussion papers. In accordance with the opinion of the practitioners, the final reports of the comparative reports on 'social inclusion' and 'teaching & learning' were elaborated and published as e-books.

Based on this rich material, a report titled 'Core Conditions' was composed. It is a resumé of the whole project, also introducing the findings of other European projects working in the same field. These projects have been identified in the course of the constant up-dating of the dissemination strategy. Representatives of some of these projects were invited to the THEMP-conference held in November 2013. The conference was not only conceived to present the results of the THEMP-project to a wider audience, but also to stimulate a wider discussion between experts and practitioners in the field of university adult education and labour market policies. With this objective, three experts in labour market policies, the social benefits of education and teaching & learning were invited as keynote speakers to the conference. Their speeches together with three presentations of project results are available at Youtube.

In general, the project has developed an intense dissemination strategy. On the one hand agreements have been made with the 'PASCAL-Observatory' and the Spanish portal for social science 'Geocrit' to publish the discussion papers and e-books. But the main task is to connect to projects and initiatives in the fields of lifelong learning, higher education and social-economic policies at regional, national and international level. The objective was to insert the project results into the on-going discussions on lifelong learning, adult learning and socio-economic policies at different levels, and to create synergy. The major articulation of this strategy has been the Final Conference of our project.

Returning to the report on Core Conditions, this tries to provide answers to the core questions of the project:

a) What is the role of the university in those lifelong learning policies which aim to achieve social effectiveness in terms of access to jobs and quality of work?
b) What are the core conditions that enable university adult education programmes to achieve social effectiveness?

The analysis of the structural and teaching and learning aspects of tertiary lifelong learning demonstrates a high level of heterogeneity amongst the case studies: This made it difficult to formulate recommendations for European policies in the field that would add to the statements expressed in numerous documents published by the Commission. The need is for a) a clear statement of whether lifelong learning is part of the education mission of the universities or not; and b) in the case of a positive response to this, a clear analysis of the opportunities for, and obstacles to, adult education at each university.

The revision of the national landscape in the previously mentioned seven EU-member states, and the results of the case studies indicates that the universities in these countries have not accepted adult education as part of their education mission, nor as a component of their third mission.

The EU purportedly conceives higher education as a crucial factor for economic and social development. Promoting higher education as a key factor of employment and economic policy would include the changes in the labour market for those people with higher education certificates that may no longer be viable. In the past, higher education institutions have provided education mainly for people who work in public administration, in the academic system including non-university public research institutions, in the health system (medicals) and in the legal system. But these environments have changed in the last decades and so must the mission of Higher Education. In other words, higher education systems are required to strengthen the vocational aspects of their curricula. The significance of education and training, including higher education, as elements of employment and economic policy implies the risk of having a more limited perspective on the social function of education and training. Yet, in the longer term, education and training is per se a crucial constituent of social, cultural and economic development. When education and training becomes an element of employment and economic strategies, the focus tends to be on short and mid-term development, disregarding its contribution to societal development. In general, such a strategy ignores the different logics of education and economic systems. Both systems, formal higher education and the labour market, operate in different cycles, making it difficult to coordinate. Under this premise, tertiary adult education seems to be an instrument for adapting higher education, especially university education, in a flexible way to labour market requirements, and for updating the respective knowledge, skills and competences of learners as well as their certification[1].

This requires intensifying the relationship with enterprises and other stakeholders. Universities must create new forms of cooperation in learning networks, with the aim a) to design appropriate programmes for adult learners with professional experience, b) to develop tools and techniques for detecting learning needs and labour market needs, c) to assess and evaluate the

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[1] This is problematic and again ignores the social justice and empowerment potential of higher education

social effectiveness of their programmes not only in terms of employability but also in terms of the quality of work and life; and d) to provide the learners and other interested parties with valuable information from which decisions on the most appropriate learning programme on the risks and benefits of social investment can be taken.

Within the labour market perspective, lifelong learning has the capacity to support the labour market transitions of learners, and the reduction of their social risks of exclusion with its accompanying loss of work and life quality. In the real world, this means helping learners to find appropriate learning opportunities in order to enhance learning trajectory decisions in accordance with their work and life objectives. This includes information on labour market opportunities and the financial and time investment they must make to take advantage of them. And it also entails the constant up-dating of the learning programmes to meet external requirements.

Complementing the concept of continuous training, lifelong learning also questions the traditional boundaries of the education systems. Higher education has always been a component of a whole life learning process, but traditionally it is framed in a specific life period as a third education and training transition stage between secondary school and the labour market. Once completed, the learner will never be required to return to the university as a learner. But the lifelong learning approach puts in question this traditional concept of higher education. It implies greater continuity in the 'traditional study programmes', and constant re-entry and updating of learners through university adult learning programmes. 'Traditional study programmes' and 'adult learning programmes' should together be considered part of the educational mission of the universities. Our case studies have shown a high heterogeneity in the ways that the universities are handling this issue. At one extreme there are universities which do not consider adult education to be part of their core mission and at the other extreme there are universities who see adult education as a major competitive factor in the higher education system.

For this reason it is impossible to establish general core conditions for the social effectiveness of university adult learning. But one result of our empirical research is that in many universities there is a lack of a coherent strategy based on social costs and benefits. For this reason, we propose a flexible model of social business planning for a) the institutional approach and b) the individual programmes within the classification scheme we have presented above.

For the balance between social cost and benefits we also propose to integrate a series of modular questionnaires into the institutional procedures which measure the social benefits using as an instrument to measure the quality of work which the learners have assigned to their participation in lifelong learning.

A more detailed project description, as well as the discussion papers, e-books and other products, can be consulted at the project web site: www.themp.eu.

Introduction

THEMP - co-funded by the European Union through the Lifelong Learning programme - focused its research on tertiary lifelong learning, and especially on the intersection between higher education and adult education for those people requiring tertiary education in mid-life. We took, as point of departure, the view that tertiary adult education will, in the future, become highly relevant for the labour market, and will have a key function in labour market policies. Such policies are an essential component of the societal measures taken to manage the social risks of this older population and/or their social vulnerability. Our project recommended that the social benefits provided by university adult education at a) societal and b) individual level should connect with broader discussions about the social-economic impact of education.

Our project focused on the social effectiveness of tertiary education for the working population older than 45 years, which is highly exposed to risks of exclusion from the labour market and lifelong learning. The integration of this age group into higher education is a major challenge for education and training systems.[2] The Europe 2020 strategy considers that higher education will make its contribution to the achievement of the accepted employment target of 75% of the population aged 20-64 years, and 40% of the population aged 30-34–year completing third level education. Under this premise, it can be forecasted that the achievement of these employment rates and the number of people with an education level equivalent to higher education will produce an increase in the demand for tertiary lifelong learning in the mid and long term perspective.

Despite the declared relevance of lifelong learning, a strong orientation of European universities towards tertiary lifelong learning is not at the forefront of their priorities. However, many European universities[3] are taking steps in this direction.[4] We are therefore focusing on the education and training mission of the universities and requesting them to expand their educational and training activities beyond traditional students to a wider range of citizens, and to develop a wider range of learning environments. In other words, we consider that universities do not only have education and training functions in modern society, but also embrace a broader social function[5].

In our view, the social function of higher education goes beyond employability and economic development, which comprise the dominant issues in the current discussions on higher education policies. However, a modest project like THEMP cannot handle such a broad perspective and must focus its research on one specific aspect, i.e. tertiary lifelong learning for

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[2] In a recent strategic document, the Commission defined one of the key issues of higher education as to "*encourage outreach to school students from underrepresented groups and to 'non-traditional' learners, including adults*". [EC 2011: 4]

[3] See the website of EU-project Allume (http://allume.eucen.eu) where several case studies on Tertiary Lifelong Learning are available.

[4] This stimulates us to think that we cannot speak about European Universities in general and that it is necessary to adapt a different view of the European university landscape. The European project U-Map, focusing on the development of distinctive profiles of higher education institutes (www.u-map.eu), worked in a similar direction.

[5] For the discussion on the social function of higher education, see for instance, Parsons & Platt (1973) who discussed the social function of higher education under the systemic perspective. And more recently Brennan & Naidoo [2008: 287] focus the attention on equity and social justice. Zajida *et al.* [2006: 13] addressed this issue under the question, how can higher education contribute to the creation of a more equitable, respectful, and just society for everyone?

the management of social risks in the transitional labour markets, giving priority to the population older than 45 years. The project maintains its main focus of the European employability strategy, which prioritises the access to the labour market, and also makes a qualitative connection to issues relating to work and life.

Tertiary Lifelong Learning (TLL) is considered to be a key element for developing more inclusive and responsive universities [Krüger & Jiménez 2008]. Opening higher education to mid-life learners, designing flexible pathways from Vocational Education and Training (VET) and professional experience to higher education, devising flexible learning arrangements that reconcile family-work life and learning and the adaptation of didactic methods in higher education are serious challenges for universities[6] when confronting the problems of aging in a knowledge society.

European education policies start from the assumption that education is a crucial factor for economic development and social cohesion, as well as for quality of life, not only in terms of incomes but also in health, social and cultural commitments. Education is recognised as an important criterion when deciding the social status of individuals [see Koucky & Bartušek & Kovařovic 2007: 3]. In the Post-World War II-period, education in Europe has been regarded as one of the major factors for achieving social equality and equity. Even at the end of the 1950's, the British sociologist T.H. Marshall [1950] underlined the importance of education. In the 1960's the German sociologist R. Dahrendorf [1965] defined Education as a civil right in his capability approach to education, A. Sen [1992 and 2009] considered it to be a precondition for freedom. The education system is considered to be one of the central pillars for the distribution of life chances and for social equity [Allmendiger & Niklas 2010].

In the 1990's this belief was boosted by the development of the 'social investment state' aimed to re-define European welfare regimes by switching from welfare regimes based on passive measures of social protection to a system based on proactive measures to empower people, thus avoiding a situation where passive social protection was needed. Education and training were conceived as a means by which social policies and labour market policies could foster economic and civic cohesion [Giddens 2000: 73]. The 'social investment state' promised better access to the labour market and better chances of higher income through education. The European Union adopted this idea, considering education and qualifications as a major element of competitivity in the globalised knowledge economy. In the last decade, education and training and lifelong learning policies have become an integrated feature in the arsenals of the EU member states. These policies generally concentrated on employability, and are often limited to access to the labour market.

Employability has been one of the guiding concepts of the Lisbon Strategy and the European Employment Strategy, focusing on three main aims: full employment, productivity and quality of work, and social cohesion through access to work. The theoretical concepts defining employability are based on four criteria: *(a) personal attributes (including adequacy of knowledge and skills); (b) how these personal attributes are presented in the labour market; (c)*

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[6] Higher education is carried out by a wide range of institutions within the EU. For reasons of operationalisation, the project will focus this study only on universities, recognising that the universities are not the only providers of tertiary lifelong learning.

the environmental and social contexts (i.e. incentives and opportunities offered to update and validate knowledge and skills); and (d) the economic context" [Cedefop 2008]. They included the individual competences (supply) and the socio-economic context (demand side), but the policy debates on labour market strategies were often focused only on the individual efforts, the supply side [Mc Quaid & Lindsey 2005: 202]. Therefore, without considering adequately the demand side, that means the socio-economic context, employability policies tended to delegate the responsibilities solely to the individual. And that tends to reduce the effects of employability and limit access to the labour market, to get a job.

The Transitional Labour Market approach (TLM) emerged in the 1990's as alternative to the 'social investment state approach' [Schmid, 1995; Schmid & Auer, 1997]. By including the socio-economic context, it introduced the concept of social risk management to support transitional work periods, combining this with theories of social equity dating back to Rawls [1999] and further developed by Sen [1999 and 2009] and Nussbaum [2007a and 2007b]. TLM stresses the role of public institutions in managing situations of social risk, the promotion of proactive flexible public actions to avoid individual social risk, and reinforcement of the qualitative dimension of labour market policies rather than a concentration on mere quantitative results. TLM thus provides both a framework to identify specific social risk situations (transitions) and a means of providing appropriate measures aimed at mitigating the negative impacts of life changes. We have adopted this approach in our theoretical elaboration [see Krüger & Duch 2012], in particular emphasising social vulnerability. We distinguish between social danger, social risks and individual risks. The difference between risk and danger is the degree of knowledge that individuals have about the possibility that certain events may occur[7]. Social vulnerability, on the other hand, is a measure of an individual responsiveness – in short, whether it is limited to acting preventatively in responsive mode, or whether there is the capacity to act in advance of the risk situation. In other words, a person's vulnerability is assumed to grow in relation to the limits of their capacity for action. Without denying the self-responsibility of citizens, bounded knowledge of social-economic developments limits a citizens' personal ability to prevent future negative labour market situations and requires the active support of public institutions.

The strategies of the EU - the Lisbon strategy and also the more recent strategy 'Europe 2020' - assume that education, and especially higher education will provide access to jobs with better work conditions, thus achieving a better quality of life. A wide range of studies confirms the relationship between education levels and the obtaining of social and economic benefits, emphasising the need for more studies into the interrelationships between education and such other socio-economic factors as social class, gender or ethnicity [see Desjardins & Schuller 2006].

But there are critical voices that doubt a linear relationship between education and socio-economic development. The contribution of education to the reduction of poverty and inequality

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[7] An example is the situation of an enterprise, which steps into a critical situation because of risky management decisions, which aren't communicated to the employees. The managers have knowledge about the possibility that these decisions could have negative impact on the economic situation of the enterprise: for them it is a risk situation. However, the workers, knowing only about the high productivity of the enterprise, do not have complete knowledge about the situation: they are exposed to a situation of social danger.

seems to be overestimated [Solga 2012]. Direct measures seem to be more effective in the success of social policies. The focus on equality of opportunity – measured for instance in years of enrolment in education - is somehow misleading. More important is the equity in learning results in terms of competences and skills [Solga 2012, also Hanushek *et al* 2008]. For stimulating social cohesion, successful modern welfare states do not abandon the principles of the classical welfare state and do not focus only on human capital development. The most successful countries develop political strategies which combine education with engaged social policies [Allmendiger & Niklas 2010] and economic strategies [Hanushek *et al* 2008].

There are also critical voices advocating a more detailed view, especially on the subject of higher education and graduate labour markets. It is argued that there is increasing global competition in the labour market for highly educated people. The literature on the off-shoring of work indicates a trend to more geographically distributed knowledge work,[8] including software development, engineering and R&D [see Manning *et al.* 2012: 3]. In consequence highly educated workers must compete with workers with similar qualifications from countries with lower salary levels [Boes & Kämpf 2011: 13], thus developing pressures which impoverish working conditions in knowledge work places [Brown *et al.* 2011].

On the other hand, studies on the mismatch between high education and skills demanded by work places argue for a more detailed view of the graduate labour market.[9] First of all, there are considerable differences in the extent of the mismatch among highly educated people between the EU-27 member states. In the EU 27, as a whole, the level in 2012 is very similar to the level of 2000. But among the countries under scrutiny in this project, there has been a growth of mismatch rate from 2000 to 2012 in the United Kingdom, Czech Republic, Hungary and the Netherlands. Only in Germany has this rate decreased. And in Spain we observe that this rate demand hasn't varied substantially despite being at the highest rate of all the countries under scrutiny. Spain is a prominent example of the mismatch, where a considerable share of highly educated people could not find a work place adequate to their qualification, and are working in places where lower skills are required [see Nieto & Ramos 2013]. This implies lower earnings compared to people with a similar qualification working in adequate work places, and higher earnings compared with people with lower qualification working in similar work places.[10]

In a nutshell, the discussion about higher education and socio-economic benefits a) puts into question the conception of a linear relation between education and socio-economic development; b) observes an increasing differentiation within the labour market for highly educated people in respect to the quality of work and c) recommends a more thorough analysis of the disparity between group highly educated people and their opportunities within the respective labour market segments. These are also indicators a) of the end of the link between higher education and better jobs for a considerable number of highly educated people and b) of an increasing social vulnerability of a significant number of highly educated people.

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[8] See Manning *et al.* [2012] and Slepnio *et al.* [2013].

[9] Nieto & Ramos [2013]; Fehse & Kerst [2007]; Liviano & Nuñez [2012]; Rukwid [2012]; Scarpetta & Sonnet [2012].

Figure 1
Activity rates by age cohorts of the EU-27

Source: Eurostat LFS
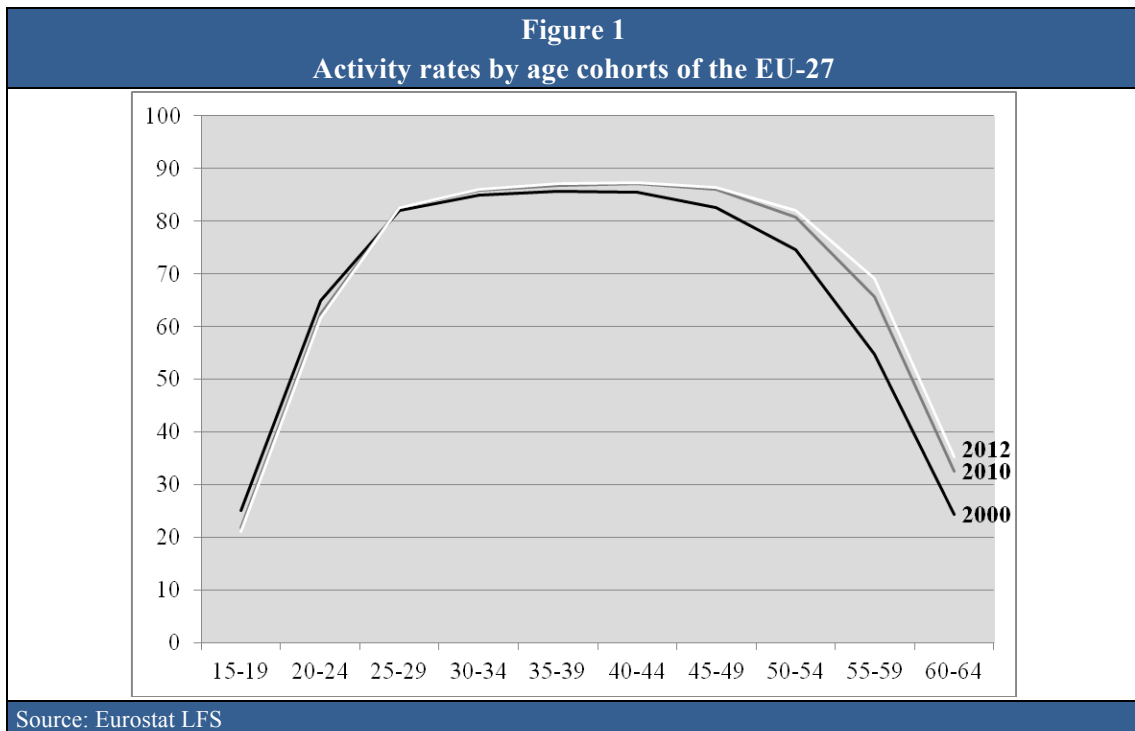
The strategies to reform the national welfare regimes followed by the governments of the EU-member states have produced substantial changes in the labour market structure with respect to people in mid-life, especially pension reforms which try to delay the age of retirement and prolong active labour life. These have increased from 2000 to 2012, and have affected the activity rate of people in mid-life, defined as people between 45 and 65 years old. Actually people between 30 and 44 years are still the core age groups in the labour market, but in 2012 the age group of people between 45 and 49 years old has also achieved similar activity rates and can now be considered as part of the core group (see Figure 1). It implies also a higher exposure of these age groups to labour market risk and the need to focus on lifelong learning strategies and/or more urgent measures for continuous vocational education and training in these age groups.

On the other hand, there has also been a considerable change in the education structure of the EU-27 population, with the increasing numbers of highly educated people. In 2000, the incidence of people with an ISCED level 5-6 among the people between 15 and 64 years old was 16,3% (see Figure 2). In 2010 this has become 22,6% and to 24,3% in 2012. This trend is especially pronounced in the age cohorts between 25 and 39 years old.

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[10] Another question is, what effect will the increasing participation of highly educated people have at work-places with lower skills requirement, in the definition of the work place and on the respective professional profile in mid- and long term?

Figure 2
Rate of high educated people by age cohorts of the EU-27

Source: Eurostat LFS
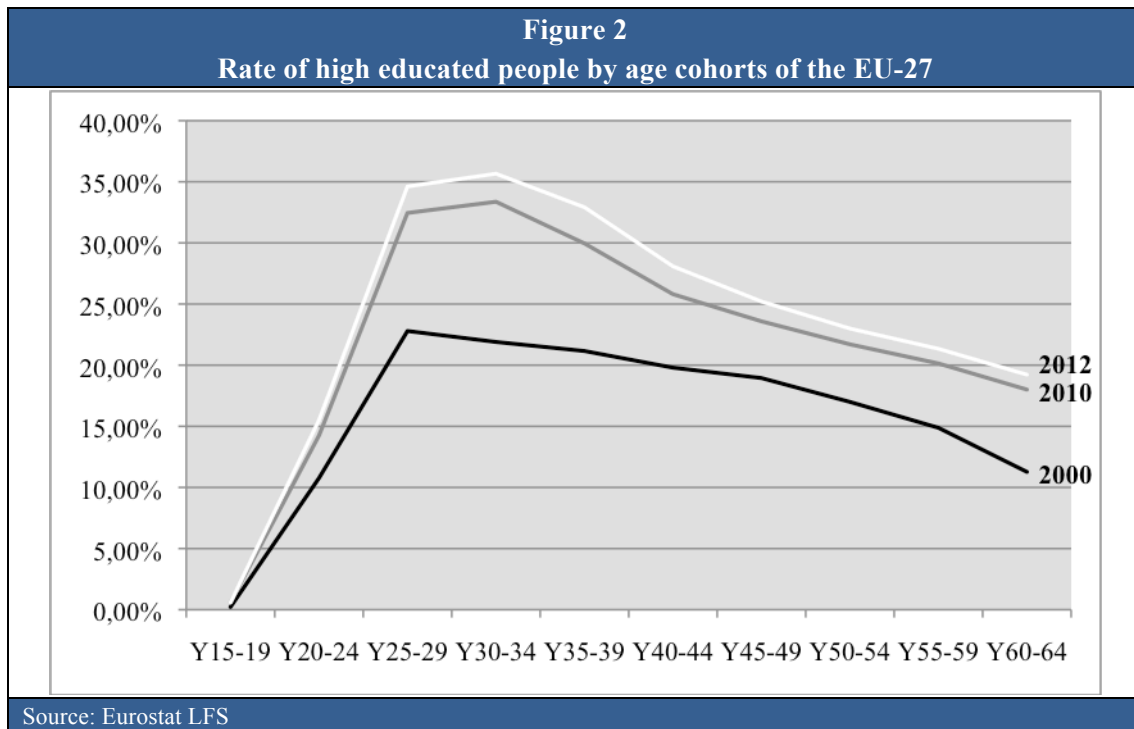
In the case that the European strategy 'Europe 2020' will, in 2020, achieve its objective to generalise higher education, one possible effect could be that the competition between graduates for good jobs would increase even more, contributing to a downgrading of the rewards of knowledge work. It is generally accepted that higher education offers more chances to obtain work, to earn a higher income compared to other education groups and to enjoy better living conditions.[11] This confirms what the population has perceived for decades. In a study of the expansion of universities from 1870 to 1985 in Germany, Italy, France, the United States and Japan, Windolf [1992] showed that the number of students enrolled in higher education has grew constantly[12]. In other words, people at large perceive socio-economic benefits from higher education. In the best case, the augmentation of higher education will be accompanied by a growing number of knowledge work places. But the growing amount of literature on off-shoring, globalisation of knowledge work and skill mismatch produces doubts that this best case will occur without developing adequate economic policies. The impact of the financial and economic crisis in the most affected EU-member states like Greece, Ireland, Portugal and Spain demonstrates that highly educated people still have a greater probability of remaining in the labour market, but also that they became more vulnerable to labour market risks. In these countries, the unemployment rate has increased significantly between 2000 and 2012, but it is still lower than in other educational groups: in Greece from 8,3% to 19,4%, in Spain from 10,0% to 15,0%, in Portugal from 2,9 to 11,8 and Ireland from 1,6 to 7.1%. In this period, the

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[11] See Eurydice [2012: 115], but also Desjardins & Schuller [2006].

[12] "*The growth of universities over the past century has proceeded along a fairly simple course: virtually each year has seen more university students than the previous year. Even when enrolment levels declined for a few years, they very soon recovered their earlier level and then continued their long-term rise*" [Windolf 1992: 3].

unemployment rate has also increased in other EU-countries, as in Hungary from 1,3% to 4,2%, in Slovenia from 2,6% to 6,3% and even in Sweden from 2,3% to 4,3%. That means, achieving high rates of highly educated workers obliges to look more closely at the internal differentiation of these groups in terms of access to employment, conditions of work and quality of life.

Regarding tertiary lifelong learning, and especially lifelong learning in universities, we are also encroaching on the important discussion of the social function of higher education and the changes [see Krüger & Jimenez 2008] which must take place in the universities to confront the transition from elite to mass and then to universal higher education. Back in the 1970's, Trow [2005a: 253] worked out the distinction between elite higher education (defined as 15% are university students in relation to the same age group), mass higher education (15 to 50%) and universal higher education (more than 50%[13]). He stated that an elite system could expand up to the 15-percentage rate of the age grade without changing much. Then it must make fundamental transformations if it is to integrate a wider range of students. If this transition has been successful, it can grow without new transformation until its conversion to universal higher education. At this point, higher education systems again must adjust.

This is not the place address this discussion, but it is important to stress that the growth of student enrolment requires internal changes in the higher education systems, and that this growth does not depend only on those changes, but on external factors, as for instance the prestige assigned to higher education or the opportunities it can been seen to open in the labour market. And it is also noteworthy that an unsuccessful transformation will not impede the constant increase in the number of students, but will deteriorate the quality of higher education, thus further increasing the pressure to change[14].

However, tertiary adult education could be one emerging form of universal higher education. The key target of the strategy "Europe 2020" pushes the EU higher education systems towards universal access. This implies a need to adapt the system in all its dimensions as the table in figure 1 suggests. It includes in the column of universal access, without mentioning it openly, many references to higher education for people who want re-entry in higher education.

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[13] "*At that point or thereabouts the system begins to change its character if the transition is made successfully. The system is then able to develop institutions that can grow without being transformed until they reach about 50% of the age grade.*" Systems, which are near to the 50% limit "*must again create new forms of higher education as it begins to move rapidly towards universal access.*" *(Trow 2005a: 253).* Trow mentioned: "*Since this model of phases and phase transitions in higher education was first developed in the early 1970s, the proportions enrolled in higher education become more and more difficult to define with any precision, for several reasons.*" (Trow 2005b: 6).

[14] Another question, which this project will not handle is, how society and economy react to the increasing number of high-educated people. It can produce social and economic innovations, or a misuse of the acquired knowledge, competences and skills.

Table 1 Trow's conceptions of elite, mass and universal higher education			
	Elite (0-15%)	Mass (16-50%)	Universal (over 50%)
i) Attitudes to access	A privilege of birth or talent or both	A right for those with certain qualifications	An obligation for the middle and upper classes
ii) Functions of higher education	Shaping mind and character of ruling class; preparation for elite roles	Transmission of skills; preparation for broader range of technical and economic elite roles	Adaptation of 'whole population' to rapid social and technological change
iii) Curriculum and forms of instruction	Highly structured in terms of academic or professional conceptions of knowledge	Modular, flexible and semi-structured sequence of courses	Boundaries and sequences break down; distinctions between learning and life break down
iv) The student 'career'	"sponsored" after secondary school; works uninterruptedly until gains degree	Increasing numbers delay entry; more drop out	Much postponement of entry, softening of boundaries between formal education and other aspects of life; term-time working
v) Institutional characteristics	- Homogenous with high and common standards - Small residential communities - Clear and impermeable boundaries	- Comprehensive with more diverse standards; - "Cities of intellect" – mixed residential/commuting - Boundaries fuzzy and permeable	- Great diversity with no common standards - Aggregates of people enrolled some of whom are rarely or never on campus - Boundaries weak or nonexistent
vi) Locus of power and decision making	The Athenaeum' – small elite group, shared values and assumptions	'Ordinary political processes of interest groups and party programs	'Mass publics' question special privileges and immunities of academe
vii) Academic standards	Broadly shared and relatively high (in meritocratic phase)	Variable; system/ institution 'become holding companies for quite different kinds of academic enterprises'	Criterion shifts from 'standards' to 'value added'
viii) Access and selection	Meritocratic achievement based on school performance	Meritocratic plus 'compensatory programs' to achieve equality of opportunity	'open', emphasis on 'equality of group achievement' [class, ethnic)
ix) Forms of academic administration	Part-time academics who are 'amateurs at administration'; elected/ appointed for limited periods	Former academics now full-time administrators plus large and growing bureaucracy	More specialist full-time professionals. Managerial techniques imported from outside academe
x) Internal governance	Senior professors	Professors and junior staff with increasing influence from students	Breakdown of consensus making institutional governance insoluble; decision-making flows into hands of political authority
Source: John Brennan [2004: 23] cited in Trow, M. [2005b].			

Before describing the results of our project, we must define one term of reference of our research subject: tertiary lifelong learning. In recent decades, lifelong learning has played an important role in EU-education policies. In the key Commission document "Making a European area of lifelong learning a reality" [EC 2001a] lifelong learning is defined as

> *"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" [Ibid 9].*

The same document welcomed the idea that lifelong learning is not restricted to a specific age or education period and neither to a specific learning mode. The definition includes all forms of learning. The OECD [2007] referring to a paper of Behringer & Cole [2003] used a similar definition with reference to the whole range of learning activities:

> *"Learning activity that is undertaken throughout life and improves knowledge, skills and competences within personal, civic, social and/or employment related perspectives. Thus the whole spectrum of learning – formal, non-formal and informal, is included, as are active citizenship, personal fulfilment, social inclusion and professional, vocational and employment related aspects" [Ibid 2003 7].*

When the focus is the learning activities of those people who have left initial education and training, lifelong learning can also be termed as adult learning, In the Communication "Adult learning: It is never too late to learn" the European Commission [2006a] stated:

> *"Definitions of adult learning vary, but for the purpose of this Communication it is defined as all forms of learning undertaken by adults after having left initial education and training, however far this process may have gone (e.g., including tertiary education)" [Ibid 2].*

And in the European Adult Learning Glossary, Level 1, Brooks & Burton [2008] define adult education as

> *"the entire range of formal, non-formal and informal learning activities which are undertaken by adults after a break since leaving initial education and training, and which results in the acquisition of new knowledge and skills" [Ibid 5].*

The authors underpinned that this is a pragmatic definition, which only

> *"includes university-level or higher education undertaken after a break excluding so the initial (higher) education" [Ibid 5].*

But such a definition must include also initial (higher) education where the students are considered to be adults. In this sense Bélanger & Valdivielso [1997] characterized adult learning as any educational activity structured in terms of content and time frame, and aimed at serving adults who are outside of the formal education system [see Bélanger & Bochynek 2000].

Tertiary education is defined as the level of education following secondary schooling – provided by universities and other higher and further education institutions. Often, tertiary education is used as a synonym for higher education. Tertiary education is not the same as university education. Universities are a core element of tertiary education, but there are other providers of tertiary education such as the universities of applied science, tertiary colleges or higher vocational schools[15]. This is reflected in the new ISCED 2011, where 8 levels are distinguished reserving the levels 5 to 8 for higher education. Similar, taking the qualification as point of departure, the European Qualification Framework established also 8 levels reserving the last 4 ones to higher education (see table 2).

Table 2		
Levels of education and eualification following ISCED and EQF		
	ISCED[1]	**EQF[2]**
Level 5	Short-Cycle Tertiary	HE short cycle
Level 6	Bachelor or Equivalent	First cycle
Level 7	Master or Equivalent	Second cycle
Level 8	Doctoral or Equivalent	Third cycle
[1] The ISCED is a frame to classify achieved education levels allowing an international comparison. On the contrary, the EQF defined the levels of qualification using three criteria: knowledge, skills and competences. But as we see, from the 5 level onwards, the congruence between both classifications is very high. The ISCED defines: "*Tertiary education builds on secondary education, providing learning activities in specialised fields of education. It aims at learning at a high level of complexity and specialisation. Tertiary education includes what is commonly understood as academic education, but is broader than that because it also includes advanced vocational or professional education*" [UNESCO 2011: 42] [2] European Qualification Framework see European Union [2008]		

Our project seeks to investigate the social impact of tertiary lifelong learning for adults older than 45 years, provided by universities. Following the aforementioned pragmatic definitions, we are studying the learning provision of the universities for adults of this age who have left initial education and training many years before. In particular, we do not propose to study the integration of adult learners into 'initial' higher education and training[16], nor into programmes leading to bachelor or master degrees. Rather we prioritise the impact on the labour market situation of the learners. This does not exclude studying also the relationship of university adult education to the 'initial' higher education curricular structure, the Bologna cycle.

The notion of 'Lifelong Learning' has different connotations in different socio-cultural contexts. In spite of the widely accepted interpretation of lifelong learning as a process which occurs during the whole life of all citizens and in different environments (formal, informal and non-formal), in many countries the expression is interpreted more as continuous education and

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[15] For instance in Spain, training for higher technicians, considered as part of higher education, is provided by vocational schools.

[16] 'Initial' higher education refers to the study programmes commonly designed for students coming directly from school.

training for people with low qualifications in order to improve their labour opportunities, for instance in the Netherlands or in Spain [see mapping reports at www.themp.eu]. For this reason and to be precise about our mission, it seems more appropriate to use the term tertiary adult education or still more precisely university adult education. That means the education and training provided by the universities for people who have finalised their initial vocational training and education cycles, are active (or want to be active) in the labour market and who need, or want, to retake formal or informal learning at universities. To underline the orientation to the learning process, we prefer to describe it generally as tertiary or university adult learning.

Based on empirical work, the project tries to develop innovative tools and instruments to measure the social equity of tertiary lifelong learning. The project deals with an issue that is not at present the main priority of policies within higher education. But recent reforms in pension systems, demographic changes, modifications to the education structures in Europe and the lack of highly-qualified workforces in the European Union are clear indicators that tertiary lifelong learning and the inclusion of mid-life learners will become more and more relevant in both education and training strategies and socio-economic policies in the future. But THEMP is exploring unknown and less developed terrain, which requires the development of a broader conceptual perspective for the analysis of the social effectiveness of tertiary lifelong learning. For this objective, we developed a theoretical framework based on the three main approaches:

- Transitional Labour Market approach (TLM) was developed by a group of social scientists in the mid 1990s as an answer to the growing instability of the labour market and as an alternative to the approach of the 'social investment state'.
- Capability approach [Sen 2009] which promotes the integration of social justice in the design of public policies.
- Capital approach bringing in main capital approaches as human capital [Becker 1975] cultural capital [Bourdieu 1983 and 2005] and social capital [Putnam 1995 and Coleman 1988].

Figure 3
Scheme of the impact of LLL on work and life quality
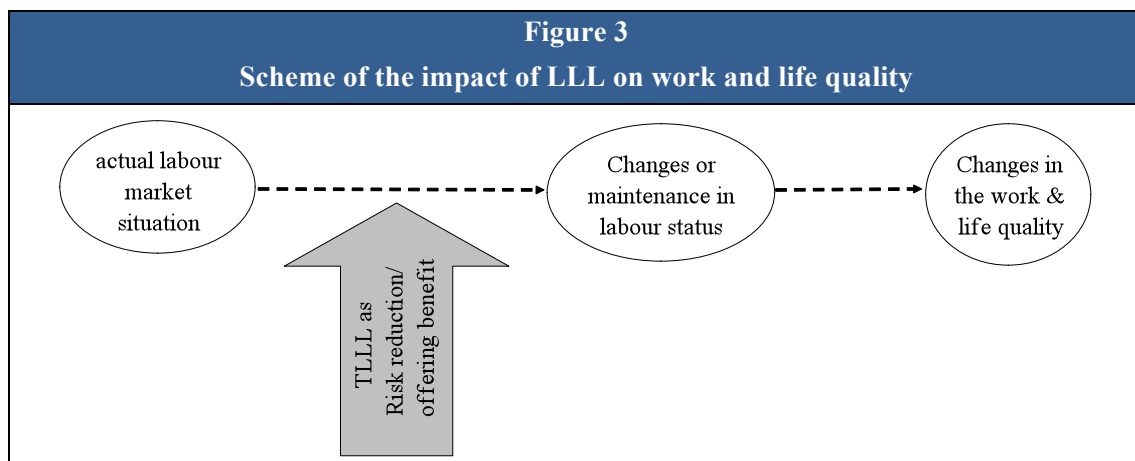
Using these three approaches allows the analysis of tertiary lifelong learning programmes in relation to their labour market impact under aspects of social justice. In concrete, the project asks:

(i) If and how tertiary lifelong learning programmes are giving support to periods of labour market transitions – from one workplace to another or from one employment to another, etc – and thus avoiding or reducing the associated social risks?, and

(ii) If and how tertiary lifelong learning programmes have an impact on the labour market situation of learners in terms of quality of work and life?

The design of tertiary lifelong learning strategies must take into account not only the specific resources of the potential learners (and the companies), but also their expectations and objectives. Within the capability perspective, the central question is how tertiary lifelong activities are contributing not only to employability in the sense of access to employment and its importance in work places, but also to the maintenance or improvement of the quality of life and work. This implies taking a triple perspective to evaluate the social quality of tertiary lifelong learning programmes:

a) The <u>individual perspective</u>: Citizens who participate in learning programmes always develop expectations for their impact on their life. The questions are: Do the programmes take these expectations into account in their design? Have the lifelong learning programmes fulfilled these expectations? And, do they shelter learners from risk situations, and allow them to respond proactively or to cope with negative eventualities?

b) The <u>institutional perspective</u>: The institutions, universities in this case, develop expectations in respect of their lifelong learning programmes. Within the perspective of social effectiveness, the main success factors are the orientation of the TLL programmes to situations of labour transition, the integration of stakeholders in programme design, the eventual empowerment of citizens and the reduction of their exposure to social risks in the labour markets.

c) The <u>societal perspective</u>: Society, and in its representation by governments, gives institutional support to tertiary lifelong learning and expects results, particularly, in our case, in the labour market. Regarding social equity, the first concern of tertiary lifelong learning policies is that it should include social aims, specifically a focus on employability measured in active participation rates, and the creation of employment, measured in unemployment rates, etc. Regarding quantitative indicators, they should also measure the impact of tertiary lifelong learning on the quality of life and work of the participating citizen.[17]

We put emphasis on both the individual and the institutional perspective, but expect that it will also have some impact at the societal level. Our conceptual work aspires to lay the groundwork for measuring the social quality of TLL.

Its point of departure uses the methodology of transitional labour markets, which is itself a tool for managing social risks associated with transitions in the labour market. This approach forms part of a series of proposals to react to socio-economic changes in European society and to transform the European social model to one which prevents cases of social need through proactive social investment. Re-distribution of the means of social protection between passive

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[17] Insofar as the capability approach is normative.

and proactive mechanisms – focused on increasing rates of active participation and employment – should ensure the future funding of social programs by maintaining or increasing state income through (labour) taxes. Other contributions to this include the reduction of costs for such programmes, thus reducing the number of beneficiaries, the number of unemployed people, the number of persons in early retirement and the extension of the retirement age.

The activation policies are oriented towards reinforcing the link between social rights and social obligations, and fostering social inclusion through active participation in the labour market. The major emphasis on employment measures has been accompanied by the implementation of social programs to enhance human capital and the support given to people at social risk to adapt themselves to labour market requirements The labour market is the centre of gravity for such strategies, developing human capital as a pre-condition for individual labour market success and for fostering citizens' autonomy. In consequence, activation strategies to stimulate lifelong learning are crucial for confronting social problems and increasing employment and active participation in the labour market.

Within this paradigm, lifelong learning has becoming a key component of educational and social policies at national and international levels [see Papadopoulos 2002: 39]. It combines the notion of individual responsibility for one's own life course with the obligation of society to offer training and education programmes. And it fits well with the debate on the relationship between the knowledge society and economy, which presupposes a constant up-dating of knowledge, skills and competences to assure employability through the whole of working life. From this perspective, lifelong learning is a new challenge for higher education systems. Conceiving education, training and learning as a continuous process during the whole life course requires higher education systems to open themselves up to an older clientele and to widen access to new groups of people. Higher education should not be limited to a specific period in life between secondary school and work, but as part of a continuous learning process. Consequently, tertiary lifelong learning becomes, together with other lifelong learning strategies, essential for modern social and employment policies. It should accept the social challenge of supporting the skills up-dating of citizens and of enterprises, and contribute to the employability of the citizens and the competitiveness of the enterprises, regions and EU-member states.

In the following pages, expounding our project results, we provide, in the first chapter, a resumé of our conceptual framework, which can be consulted in more detail in Krüger & Duch [2012], published at www.themp.eu. In the second chapter, the methodology used in the course of the project is explained. The research includes, as is usual, desk research on policies in the EU and the member-states under scrutiny, and some statistical analysis. The main methodological approach has involved multiple case studies, and this has been complemented by mutual learning seminars with the participation of practitioners of university adult education and experts external to the project. This regular contrasting of the research results with the opinion of practitioners and other experts has been very useful for the project development, linking the academic work to the reality of university adult education and creating a discussion space between theory and practice on the one hand, and among practitioners on the other.

In the third chapter, we present the results of our mapping of the European and national context of university lifelong learning. All project partners have revised their policy and structures to accommodate the demands of university lifelong learning. This allows a first insight into the

complexity and heterogeneity of European lifelong learning landscapes in general and of the European university lifelong learning landscape more specifically. The fruits of this desk research have been a comparative report which frames the findings of the national reports in the broader context of the European welfare regimes. This provides the first indications on the engagement of university lifelong learning with employment policies.

In the fourth chapter, we present the results of the 21 case studies carried out in the 7 European countries under scrutiny in the course of the project. The case studies have been based on a common methodology (interview protocols and common content index of case study reports and national comparative reports). The case studies are submitted under the heading of social inclusion; structural and teaching & learning aspects[18]. This gave place to a series of confidential case study reports (including recommendations). These results were discussed with the managers of the institutions and the programmes. Based on the case studies and the national mapping reports, each partner then elaborated them into a national comparative report, which has been discussed at various project meetings, and has also acted as input for the mutual learning seminars.

In the next stage, each partner produced two thematic reports - on the structural dimension of social inclusion and on the teaching & learning dimension. These thematic reports provided the input for two transnational reports, which are the subject of the fourth chapter.

The fifth chapter is the summary of the whole work done in the course of the project. It is based on the report of the same title taking into account the two thematic reports on social inclusion and teaching & learning, and also the results of other European projects working in the same area, as well as documents of conferences and working seminars available in the Internet. The report on core conditions of tertiary lifelong learning, and the précis of that is presented in this fifth chapter, underlines yet again the focus of our project on university adult education for people in mid-life. However, these are typically adults with extensive work experience, is their distinctive characteristic with respect to other learner groups. In this aspect, it seems more appropriate to describe them as people with extensive work experience instead of 'people in mid-life'.

The report and this chapter provide some generalised recommendations, which we present as guiding principles. Many of the issues described revolve around the different discussion and policy arenas. The novel substance of the project is the drawing out of core dimensions that allow the analysis of the social effectiveness of tertiary lifelong learning programmes and initiatives, and also the facility to design programmes and initiatives aimed at achieving social effectiveness. Social effectiveness is here defined not only as access to jobs but also as quality of work (and life). At the end of the chapter, we present questionnaires as tools for measuring social effectiveness. These have been presented to, and discussed with, the representatives of the

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[18] In the project proposal, we mention didactical aspects. But as this is, in British English, a term with a specific meaning, we use instead the terms teaching & learning. In this way we can cover both aspects of the tertiary education programmes: teaching and learning. As we see later, one of the conclusions is that, in programmes for adults with work experience, the processes tend to have even more the character of collaborative learning not only among the students but also between students and lecturers.

cooperating universities, institutions and programme managers to ensure their usefulness and practicability.

To conclude, this final report of the THEMP project is compiled by copying and pasting the reports elaborated in the course of the project. In that sense, it is a collective work with a collective authorship. Its originality lies in the assembly of the different parts and their presentation in a coherent way, thus providing an overall picture of the work done in the project.

Theoretical Approach[19]

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[19] This chapter is heavily based on the e-book of Krüger & Duch [2012].

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One approach which tries to combine societal and individual responsibilities is the transitional labour market approach as an alternative to social investment by the state. It proposes the linking of social risks management in specific transitional periods in the labour market with concepts of social equity. It asks how institutional support could reduce the risks associated with labour transitions and how to transform them into benefits. That means that the transitional labour market approach acts as social risk management in crucial moments of the labour market trajectories of citizens, considering lifelong learning as one of the primary tools in social risk reduction. Institutionally supported lifelong learning thus becomes one of the main means to create transitional labour markets.

In order to make classification transitions, we must also clarify the previous discussion on labour market sociology in internal and external labour markets. This allows us to also include internal labour market transitions, as for instance the change from one working area to another or the access to other positions within a hierarchy. But one problem regarding the analysis of (tertiary) lifelong learning programmes is that such programmes are not focused only on the transition phase, but also on the continued preservation of a work place. Learning is a way of adapting to changes both in the workplace and in the labour environment. For this reason, we also include the stages of adaptation.

Table 3 Situation of labour market transitions[1]
Internal Labour Market - Adaptation to changes at the individual workplace - Personal development - Vertical professional development: Up-wards professional career - Horizontal professional development: From one workplace to another at the same hierarchical level
External Labour Market - From unemployment to employment - From one employment to another employment - From one employment status to another
[1] This isn't a closed list; it is open to the addition of other examples of adaptation.

Not all labour market transitions are included in the transitional labour market. Following Schmid, only those transitions receiving institutional support are considered to be included within it. Similarly, not all adult training is considered to be a component of institutional support for labour market transitions. Only that training with an express orientation to the labour market can be so regarded for transitional situations, which then become 'transitional labour markets'[20]. It is an insurance tool as protection from social risks using monetary instruments as

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[20] In spite of our orientation to the broader concept of adaptation, we maintain the original term.

well as mechanisms to generate other forms of capital – human, cultural and social. This is so that an undesired event affecting individuals can be averted by anticipating its negative impact or by enabling them to cope with it after it has happened.[21] Moreover, institutional support does not only mean financial compensation-, but also includes the taking of proactive measures to avoid its occurrence or to limit its impact.

Risk is future-oriented, preventing or anticipating events with undesired outcomes and facilitating actions or decisions that lead to desired results. This strategy will achieve a positive impact on an individual's situation, and avoid, mitigate and cope with negative impacts. Risk management shouldn't be focused only on possible negative impacts, but also on positive outcomes and possible benefits.[22] Vis a vis the sociological discussion, we examine two key elements of risk:

(i)   bounded knowledge; and
(ii) the ability to take actions (or decisions) to stimulate the future or to prevent, mitigate or cope with its negative impacts.

Based on this distinction, we can analyse the responsibilities of the participants in any negative (or positive) social event. For instance, the financial crisis of the year 2008 has been, for the normal citizen, more a social danger than a social risk. Despite some prior analysis of the risk that the housing and financial bubble would implode, the majority of people could hardly do anything to prevent it. This is different from traditional economic crises, when the impoverishment of the economic situation is pre-announced by such standardised indicators as inflation and employment rates. In the case of the 2008 crisis, the responsibility for the crisis and its negative impact on the quality of life of citizens lies with the financial brokers and the politicians, who did not react adequately to the signs of the coming crisis.

In the category of social dangers, we can also include the difficulties experienced by some companies caused by management decisions which were unknown to the workers, a risky short-term financial investment for instance. Here we can also include the closing down of a production centre and the transfer of production to another region in spite of its high productivity. In this case, the workers have no knowledge of the situation and could not take anticipatory measures. In this case the responsibility lies with the managers of the company.

In some cases, the employees working in a branch or a company have some knowledge of the critical situation that is about to happen. We can take as an example, the book industry, where the traditional modes of selling and disseminating products are heavily impacted by the massive use of information and communication technology, similar to that which has occurred in the music industry. The employees have some knowledge of such changes but they have no power to alter this trend. They do however have some ability to take preventative measures. This

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[21] Hereafter we use the term 'mitigate' for the proactive measures and the term 'cope' for the reactive ones.

[22] For the theoretical development of risk see Zinn [2004a, 2004b and 2006] and Taylor-Goody & Zinn [2006]. In economic risk theory, this type of risk situation is called speculative risk as opposed to pure risk, which is focused exclusively on losses. For instance, natural catastrophes are generally classified by economists as pure risk; while the roulette is frequently mentioned as an example of speculative risk. Here we can also include those businesses that deal with contract insurance, analysing possible events that could reduce the expected, though not guaranteed, benefits, such as the maritime transport of goods in the 15th century, for example.

example shows the fine line between labour market dangers and risks dependent on the degree of knowledge of the actors involved and affected.

Table 4 Decision capacity and knowledge as criteria to define danger and risk		
	Decision Capacity to avoid or stimulate situation	*No decision capacity to avoid or stimulate situation*
Knowledge	Individual risk	Social risk
Ignorance	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	Social danger

On the other hand, the individual's capacity to act in order to avoid exposure to social risk, to mitigate beforehand its negative impact or to cope with it later must be taken into account. The action capacity or the vulnerability of the citizens depends on a series of factors, for instance:

a) The invariable factors, which the citizen can hardly change and which seem to be always with us, such as gender discrimination, belonging to a minority, generational prejudice, sexual orientation, suffering a chronic disease or belonging to a social class. Women are known to be more vulnerable in the labour markets of the European Union and to find promotion more difficult. We can say the same about ethnic minorities such as Turks in Germany, Maghrebians in France and Spain and, the Romany throughout Europe. These are only some visible examples of discrimination against certain social groups.

b) The variable factors, which depend more on the decisions of citizens and which vary with time as, for instance, caring for relatives, the ability to manage personal time, the facility for taking learning opportunities, the opportunity for geographical mobility and non-chronic illness.

We introduce the distinction between the invariable and variable factors based on the capacity for action. Belonging to a gender, an ethnic minority or, a particular generation, or suffering a chronic disease, does not depend on the individual's wish. Belonging to a social class does not depend, in principle, on the ability of the citizen to take action, although there is some variability during one's lifetime to affect this. We include here also the religious affiliation of citizens as it depends to a large degree on their family environment. However, we include it also among the variable factors, as religious ties can vary over the lifetime of an individual according to the decisions they take.

Variable factors are those related in one way or another with the citizens' actions such as having a child, living with someone, choosing to spend time on career and leisure activities. Of course, these factors are interrelated with invariable factors. For example, it is obvious that social class and ethnicity strongly influence access to education and training opportunities, but these are not pre-determined.

Table 5			
Decision capacity and knowledge as criteria to define danger and risk			
Labour Market Dangers			
Financial Crisis	Economic crisis	Branch crisis	Company crisis

Labour Market Risks				
Obsolescence of a branch	Temporary branch crisis	Company crisis	Obsolete skills	Quality of work
⇕				
Invariable dimensions of vulnerability				

Gender	Ethnicity	Age	Chronic disease	Social Class	Religion
Variable dimensions of vulnerability					
Care needs	Options of time management	Learning options	Illness	Religion	Labour Mobility

This differentiated risk approach enables us to distinguish the responsibilities of individuals and groups towards a crisis by the responses to the following questions:

a) Can we assume that citizens who are affected by the crisis might have had some knowledge of the probability that it could occur?

b) Have the citizens acquired some action capacity (i) to avoid the crisis; (ii) to avoid being affected by its negative impact, or (iii) to mitigate or cope with it? These questions have two temporal dimensions: (1) anticipatory or proactive, i.e. taking measures before the event occurs and (2) reactive, i.e. taking measures after the event has occurred.

On the other hand, this approach also gives clues on how social insurance measures might influence knowledge of the possible risks and affect the empowerment of citizens so that the risks and their negative impact are limited and lead to the ability to create new opportunities:

In order to mitigate social risks in labour markets and avoid negative impacts on their own professional careers, citizens may opt for measures to reduce the chance of being exposed to the risks. The focus of transitional labour markets (TLM) aims to create a framework of institutional support for these measures, for example through vocational training programmes. TLM focuses primarily on the sequences of change in working life, asking how the risks associated with these phases can be reduced through particular public measures, especially in the case of vulnerable groups. TLM recommends social security measures to reduce the risks of transition phases.

Risk management includes, by definition, a way of dealing with undesirable events, avoiding them or mitigating or coping with their negative impact, but it always also includes a vision of opportunities and benefits. Risk management always contains a time dimension comparing a potential future situation with the current one and estimating (i) what could happen, (ii) what could be the negative and positive impacts and (iii) what measures can be taken either to prevent, mitigate or cope with any potential negative impacts or to provoke a positive impact.

And Risk Management strategies could intervene before or after the event. In the first case, the strategy is proactive and in the second case, reactive, but in both cases the focus lies on undesired events.

However, it must be stressed that social risk must always have two strategic dimensions: a) reducing risks and b) providing opportunities. Moreover, social risk management should provide a framework for developing positive action to reinforce positive trends and create new opportunities for professional careers through the empowerment of citizens.[23] In addition, the design of risk strategies and before and after measures must also consider the specific situation of each individual. This includes his knowledge of risk and his capacity for action.

The difference between social danger, social risk and individual risk allows us to contrast the dominant concepts of employability and social investment, which delegate the main portion of the responsibility for their work and life direction to the citizens. The concept of employability, which dominates widely the political discourses as for instance in the Lisbon strategy, has been criticized for its limited version and has been contrasted by a broader approach advocating for employability based on three components: a) individual factors; b) personal context factors and c) societal context factors. These factors can be related to the categories of labour market dangers, labour market risks, and the invariable and variable dimensions of social vulnerability as they are described by Krüger & Duch [2012].

- The individual factors are related to the knowledge, competences and skills of the individual. McQuaid & Lindsay [2005] distinguished between essential attributes, personal competencies, basic transferable skills, key transferable skills, qualification and educational attainment, work knowledge-base and labour market attachment. Knowledge, competences and skills are not forming part of the exposition of the concept of risk and vulnerability factors, as this is considered the variable influencing the social vulnerability of the people in situation of labour market risks and dangers.
- The personal context factors are related to household circumstances as for instance caring responsibilities, the work culture of the social environment, in which the individual is involved; the access to resources as, for instance, transport means and financial capital. In the concept of social vulnerability management, this is covered by the variable vulnerability dimension as care need, degree of self organised time management, learning options, illness, labour mobility and in certain degree religion [see Krüger & Duch 2012].
- Among the societal context factors McQuaid & Lindsay [2005] distinguished between demand factors differentiated in the labour market, macroeconomic and recruitment factors; and enabling factors such as employment policies (for instance: employment service structures but also incentives for training and employment programmes) and other enabling policy as for instance child care services. In the category we can also include such invariable vulnerability factors as gender, ethnicity, health and age [see Krüger & Duch 2012], but also labour market risks (obsolescence of a branch, temporary branch crisis, companies crisis, obsolete skills and diminishing quality of work), and dangers (financial

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[23] This outline of Social Vulnerability Management isn't limited to an institutional perspective. It is also a tool for individuals to plan their work-life-trajectories taking into account different life course situation of social vulnerability and the estimation of the occurrence of social risks situations.

crisis, economic crisis, branch crisis and company's crisis). Labour market risks and dangers are differentiated by the knowledge, which the employees could have about the coming situation so that they can take action to avoid negative impacts on their socio-economic situation or provoke positive impacts.

To achieve high social effectiveness in terms of access to work and quality of work, all these factors should be incorporated. Such a wide perspective on critical labour market situations allows us to make progress in the configuration of education and training policies as an integral part of labour market strategies, surmounting the mere quantitative dimensions measured such as being employed, and introducing the dimension of quality of work. It allows us also to refine the distribution of social responsibilities.

Without affecting the self-responsibility of citizens, the bounded knowledge of socio-economic developments limits their capacity to anticipate the future. This restricts their prospects of avoiding (or stimulating) undesired (or desired) labour situations, or of acting proactively to potential negative impacts in order to produce positive situations relative to their individual responsibility. The transitional labour market approach provides a framework for preventing risk situations and designing measures aimed at mitigating and coping with the impact of a negative labour market event. Such measures focus on the reinforcement of the knowledge and action capacity of citizens in specific situations of labour transition.

Public policies for institutional support of labour transitions require points of reference to measure their social quality and effectiveness. In several publications, various promoters of the TLM approach mention the works of Rawls [1999], Dworkin [2000] and Sen [2009] to cover the dimension of social equity. We use here the capability approach of A. Sen, which provides a more qualitative perspective for the measurement of the efficiency of lifelong learning programmes. It covers quality of work and life or, in the terminology of Sen [2009], the sets of functionings.

The capability approach allows an evolution beyond employability into the design of social and employment policies which place the different capabilities of citizens and their objectives at the centre. In emphasising individual freedom, the capability approach concentrates on the action capacity of individuals and on their empowerment, assuming that individuals are familiar with the portfolio of functionings they want to achieve and the efforts and risk they must take in order to achieve them. Similarly, institutional policies are based on previously defined objectives, in which the effectiveness of their programmes can be measured.

The transformation of capabilities into functionings depends also on external factors, the so-called conversion factors. The different conversion factors influence the process of transforming capabilities into functionings. Of course, the physical and mental condition of the citizens affects their capabilities, as well as the social and environmental factors that govern conversion – for example the level of pollution in the environment. But social conversion factors – i.e. the existence of a well-developed higher education system, a health system, the regulations for wider access to education, and the availability of an effective transport infrastructure – are decisive for the transformation of capabilities into new desired functionings. And our issue here is how tertiary lifelong learning can influence this transformation. In the end, the different conversion factors also influence the decision of the citizens on what functionings they want to

achieve – their preference structures – and what level represents their ideal.[24]. Something similar applies to the design of institutional support for citizens. The key question is: What functionings are defined as desirable by society?[25] Or in other words, what dimensions of quality of life are guiding social, education and employment policies?

It seems obvious that no government programmes can have a completely individualised orientation. Therefore, there must be a definition of the ideal functionality or quality of life by the whole of society via the political institutions that provide support. There are many different proposals for measuring the quality of life based on the capability approach. There are publications on the transformation of resources into capability [see Ruggeri 1999], but the main strategy is to focus on those functionings which measure peoples' well-being. We have taken here as reference

a) The work of Nussbaum [2007a and 2007b];
b) The 'Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress' [Stiglitz *et al.* 2009][26];
c) The proposal on 'Sustainable quality of life' of Robeyns & van der Veen [2007].

Restricting the analysis of these proposals to those influenced by the capabilities approach, we see eight common dimensions of quality of life: health, knowledge and intellectual development, physical security, time management, social relationships, living environment, personal safety, and political rights and participation. Comparing these dimensions with the proposals to measure quality of work made by the European Foundation, we observe a high degree of agreement (see following table).

According to our definition, vulnerability decreases in relation to the growth of capacity for action. The decision-making capacity of a person depends on his actual set of functionings. But taking the labour market as the main focus for converting capabilities into new functionings, the question is: which of these capabilities are the values that define the occupational status of citizens? Or in other words: Which of these capabilities are recognised as capital in the labour market?[27] The labour market or the labour market segments could be conceived as social fields in which, through complex social bargaining processes, the social standing of a person is defined – more precisely his occupational status. These social fields could also be interpreted as a web of social conversion factors.

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[24] The 'conversion factors' have a conceptual proximity to Putnam's 'social capital' and to Bourdieu´s 'social field'.

[25] That means society's defined ideal set of functionings.

[26] This commission has been created on initiative of the French government under the presidency of N. Sarkozy at the beginning of 2008.

[27] We make here reference to the notion 'capital' in a broad sense.

Table 6	
Links between well-being dimensions and quality of work	
Well-being	**Quality of Work**
Health	Labour health and well-being
Knowledge & intellectual development	Career development Learning organisation Qualification Learning
Economic security	Income Employment status
Balance of time	Working and non-working time
Social relations	Social infrastructure Social relations
Living Environment	Risks exposure Work organisation
Personal security	Personal Security
Political rights & participation	Social Protection Workers' rights

In a way, we return to the resource-based approach, assuming that capabilities are convertible into relevant labour market resources i.e. capital, which increases or restricts the citizens' opportunities for professional development[28] or for achieving new levels of functionings. Under this premise, we can ask precisely how tertiary lifelong learning, which develops new capabilities (learning outcomes), impacts on the stock of labour capital by improving or maintaining an individual's occupational position associated with his actual level of functionings, i.e. the quality of his work and life.

The term capital refers to a broader faculty to mobilise economic, social and cultural resources for the generation of well-being. Besides physical and financial capital, we quote, for our study, three capital types that occupy prominent places in on-going social science debates:

- human capital;
- cultural capital;
- social capital.

In our discussion of these different types of capital, we have not made a proper distinction in the definition of what is human or cultural capital. The differences lie in the different conceptual frameworks in which they are used, for instance by Becker [1975] and Bourdieu [1983 and 1985]. For practical reasons we propose then to use the term human capital for knowledge, skills, competences and aptitudes with an obvious labour market relevance. In this senses, human

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[28] It is important to underpin again, that not all functionings are convertible in resources, which means in capital relevant in the labour markets.

capital is here seen as functionally oriented cultural capital. Social Capital has been defined, in a restricted sense, as social relations (in the sense of network capital). Norms, values and patterns of behaviour, which e.g. Putnam [1993a and 1995] and Coleman [1988] conceive as elements of social capital, are transformed into capital by using the terms 'social field' and 'social embeddedness'.

The particular consideration of what is considered capital, and its value depends on the social fields, in our case of the labour market segments, thereby determining the potential occupational standing of every citizen. From this perspective, we questioned whether tertiary lifelong learning affects capital stock and how it might do so. The hypothesis is that a lifelong learning university produces particular learning outcomes that, at best, are recognised in the labour market segments as an increase in the stock of human, cultural and social capital. This conversion of learning outcomes into capital that is relevant to the labour market segment improves the marketability of learning citizens and offers them opportunities to maintain or improve their functionings. However, to participate in university learning programs, the learners must invest their own capital and time. Their degree of social vulnerability influences, in some degree, their ability to participate in lifelong learning and to renew their capital stock.

Under such a premise, higher education has the social function to contribute (i) to qualitative work-life progress of the citizens and (ii) to the management of social risk, providing proper tertiary lifelong learning opportunities for new groups of students. Moreover, higher education must take its place in social risk management within the short, mid and long term perspective. The challenge is how tertiary lifelong learning can contribute to the achievement of new functionings vis a vis the labour market. Without excluding the possibility that lifelong learning by itself allows the achievement of new sets of functionings, we ask here *how tertiary learning outcomes are converted into human, cultural and social capital, valued in the labour markets as opening new opportunities to achieve a better quality of work and life.*

We understand the labour market and its segments to be a social field in the sense of Bourdieu [1979 and 1988]. Social fields are complex social bargaining processes determining whether a learning outcome has a value in the labour market, both generally and in the relevant segment. The value of human, cultural and social capital held by citizens defines their labour market standing and permits them to acquire economic capital (salary in this case), to achieve healthier labour conditions, or to gain more freedom to manage their own time. Participation in university lifelong learning programmes is aimed at improving the level of functionality for students, for example providing them with new knowledge, to support their intellectual development and facilitate new social relationships. But, because our project is focused on labour transitions and the maintenance or improvement of the learners' labour market position, the tertiary lifelong learning outcomes should be recognised as valuable for labour market segments. That means that the new capabilities achieved through learning must be converted into human, cultural and social capital in labour markets, and that is a complex process of social bargaining in these specific social fields. In other words, each segment is conceived as a social field, determining which functionings are convertible to capital and the value of the capital stock of each individual, and so defining their positions and their occupational opportunities in the labour market. This will depend upon their capital stock and its valuation in the labour market

segments.[29] The comprehensive capital approach, together with the idea of labour markets as contested terrains, allows a discriminatory view of the function of lifelong learning measures in the different labour markets.

The previously described concept to measure the social effectiveness of tertiary lifelong learning puts people at the centre, asking for the institutional support they will need in situations of labour transition in order to develop their capabilities by investing in the value of their capital stock and their position and status in the labour market. But capital accumulation is not an end in itself, it is a resource for achieving functionings, quality of work and life. In other words, the question is

-   Are tertiary lifelong learning programmes effective in increasing the value of the capital stock of the individual and in reducing the social vulnerability of the risk groups?

Under this perspective, it seems clear that higher education must be integrated into a wider institutional network structure to obtain an accurate analysis of the developments in the labour markets, to provide a socially sensitive assessment for citizens. This would take into account situations of social dangers and risks and their expectations of quality of work and life (i) to design adequate lifelong learning programs, (ii) to give institutional and financial support to people in labour transition, especially those who are vulnerable to social risk and those older than 45 years, women and ethnic minorities, and (iii) to monitor the social effectiveness of tertiary lifelong learning programmes. But it also seems clear that higher education institutes must adapt their internal structures and procedures in order to meet these new challenges.

The evaluation of the social quality of a tertiary lifelong learning programme must take into account the objectives expressed at the societal level, as well as those of the tertiary education institutions and the learners, thus combining three perspectives. At all three levels, we can assume that the different individual and social participants have developed expectations regarding the learning outcomes of the programme and their impact on the learners' potential in the labour markets in the short, medium and long term. This can be called the ideal set of functionings that individuals may want to achieve. These are then the parameters on which the degree of satisfaction with the programme outcomes can be measured.

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[29] One capability, i.e. the capacity to speak Russian is considered in the labour market segment of tourism in a region with a high attraction for Russian tourists as a capital with a high value, but in a labour market of an industrial production segment in the same region the same capacity has a low value.

Figure 4
Tertiary Lifelong Learning to change the individual capital stock and quality of work & life

Capital Stock

Financial Capital

Physical Capital

Human Capital

Social Capital

Cultural Capital

Acess facilitator or restrictor

Tertiaty Lifelong Learning

CRITERIA

- systematic introduction
- comparative & con- textual framework
- broaden students' skills
- provide generec skills
- freedom of choice
- structural flexibility
- incremental develop- ment of self directed learning

Learning Achievment: New competences, skills and aptituds New social relations

Conversion into Labour Capital

New Capital Stock

Financial & Physical Capital

Human Capital

Social Capital

Cultural Capital

Conversion into Labour Capital

New Set of Functionings Quality of Work & Life

Economic Security

Knowledge & Intellectual Development

Social Relations

Political Rights & Participation

Balance of Time

Health

Living & Working environment

Personal Security

Personal Conversion Factors: physical and mental conditions

Social Field = Social Conversion Factors: individual social situation (functionings)

Infrastructures and social normas & values

Our project started from the assumption that age is a vulnerability factor in the labour markets. In the past, this vulnerability has been managed through the labour market in strong economic circumstances, and well rewarded monetarily. However, the active participation rates in the member countries of the EU-27 continue to fall significantly from the age of 45 onwards. The reforms of pension systems in the EU-27 make it increasingly unlikely that the passive mechanisms of monetary compensation, such as early retirement, will continue. This was reflected in the temporarily active participation and employment rate of people older than 45 years during the 2000s. This trend, along with the general increase in the number of people with an educational level equivalent to higher education, indicates that it will become increasingly urgent to design tertiary lifelong learning policies aimed at the integration of people over 45 years, and to facilitate human, cultural and social capital to maintain or improve their occupational standing.

We have developed a tentative research study in 21 universities from 7 European countries a) to check the reliability of our concept to manage the social quality of tertiary lifelong learning, and b) to create, together with universities, instruments and tools to manage social quality. The research comprised three phases:

a) A series of interviews with people responsible for tertiary lifelong learning programmes and participants in its planning and implementation, including teachers and students.
b) A series of interviews with students on the social quality of the programmes in which they participated.
c) Mutual learning activities involving universities and research organizations in the proposed project.

The goal is to have a full recognition of the field work by the universities in order a) to facilitate exchange of experiences among the participating universities in the field of tertiary lifelong learning and b) to develop tools and instruments for the management of social quality responding to the need for the participation of universities, and for those students and political institutions which could be integrated into the routines of university management.

Methodological Approach[30]

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[30] This chapter is heavily based on the e-book of Mariani & Krüger [2013].

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This chapter presents the methods and tools [see Mariani & Krüger 2013] used for collecting data on the measures taken by universities to expand their educational & training activities beyond traditional students to a wider range of citizens, with a focus on the >45 age cohort (mid-life learners). The data collection was instrumental in completing the two specific comparative analyses on 'social inclusion' and 'teaching and learning'. In both examples, different EU-wide University Adult Education Programmes were selected, studied and compared in order to detect the core conditions for the inclusion of mid-life learners in University Adult Education (UAE). Our methodology is heavily based on a multiple case study approach combined with desk and statistical research. Additionally mutual learning seminars were designed in order to involve project external experts and practitioners from the field of UAE in the project development from the beginning.

Figure 5
THEMP workflow

Theory

Methods

Interviews (Protocols)

Survey Tools (Questionnaires)

Mutual Learning Workshops

TLL-Context Mapping

Selection of Case Studies

1st Mutual Learning Workshop

Social Inclusion analysis

TLL Didactics analysis

UAE-providers

UAE-users in mid-life

Indicators to measure social effectiveness

2nd Mutual Learning Workshop

Core Conditions
[Report + Tools]

Case study method

The Case Study method is deemed to be particularly well suited to study contemporary phenomena within real-life contexts, where the relevant behaviours cannot be manipulated [Yin, 1994]. More specifically, we adopted a Multiple-Case Study research strategy, comparing different UAE programmes oriented to learners in mid-life across a selection of EU universities. Our study was exploratory (rather than purely descriptive or fully interpretative) in nature, answering the following research question: 'what are the conditions under which UAE programmes become viable instruments for mid-life learners to successfully pass through labour market transitions?'.

The research design outlines the sequence of steps that links the data to be collected and the conclusion to be drawn (core conditions and policy implications) with the research question (how can UAE prevent and mitigate the risk of social exclusion of >45ers during labour market transitions).

Figure 6
THEMP research design
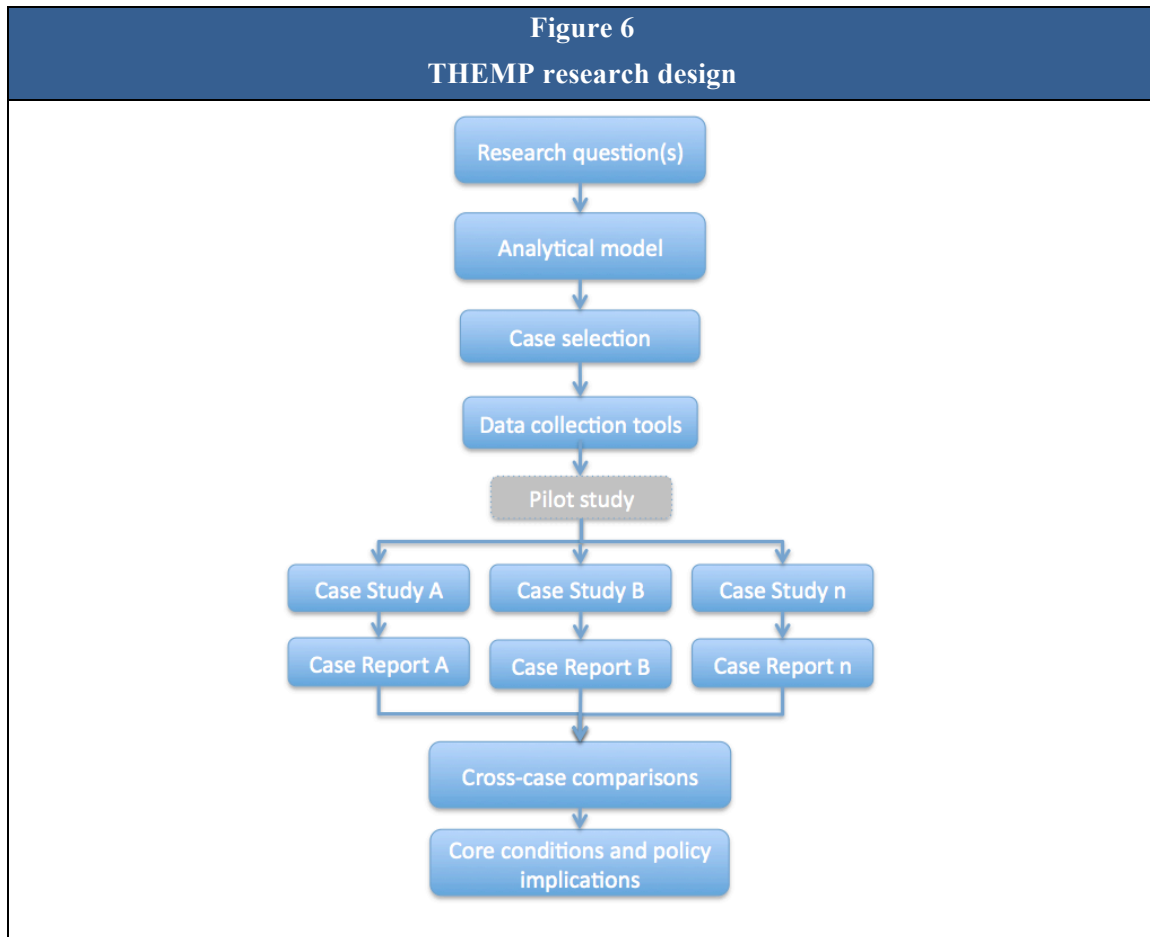
As previously stated, the main research focus for the project is to define how UAE can help prevent and/or mitigate the risk of social exclusion along labour market transitions. According to the original work plan, this leading question was further expanded into two more specific aspects:

i)   How UAE programmes are effectively contributing to the social inclusion of mid-life learners [see Öz & Hamburg 2013]?

ii)   How teaching and learning in UAE programmes differs from that in 'ordinary' University courses in order to match mid-life learners' needs [see Osborne & Houston 2013]?

The analysis of social inclusion was targeted to study the degree to which (and the conditions under which): i) the different programmes successfully open higher education systems to new age cohorts and ii) participation in such programmes facilitates the transition between labour market sequences for people in mid life.

The underlying theme was the effectiveness of UAE in increasing the value of the >45 individuals' capital stock and in reducing their vulnerability as a risk group. To evaluate the social quality of programmes, our project adopts a double perspective:

a)   The <u>individual perspective</u>: a citizen who has decided to participate in learning programmes, always develops some expectation of its impact on his or her life. The aim is to discover if the lifelong learning programme has fulfilled these expectations and is contributing to the development of the individual's set of desired functionings. For example, in the case of students, interviews will focus on:

-     the interrelation of social background, social situation, labour market position, risk situation, individual expectations, individual capacities, capital resources, and access to and retention in the programmes;

-     the social and economic impact of the participation in programmes on the life-situation of the participants.

b)   The <u>societal perspective</u>: a society providing institutional support to tertiary lifelong learning also has some expectations on its societal impact. The capability approach permits us to evaluate the orientation of the societal programmes and initiatives , i.e. whether the curriculum only takes into consideration individual's capabilities or i.e. whether it is only oriented to employability in a restricted sense (access to jobs) or to a broader concept of quality of life and work. But it also allows us to measure the impact of tertiary lifelong learning on the quality of life and work of the participating citizen, based on the previously established dimension of the quality of life.

UAE didactics analysis, which we have renamed in the course of the project learning and teaching, describes how these programmes differ from the 'ordinary' University courses in order to match mid-life learners' needs. The interviews focused on i) obtaining information on the methodological approaches used to back up the TLL syllabus and ii) how lecturers are trained to facilitate the learning processes. The core question was whether learners in mid-life are participating in pedagogically appropriate TLL programs. The construction of an analytical model is a prerequisite for specifying the data collection tools in the form of interview protocols [see Mariani & Krüger 2013].

The unit of analysis was actual University-based Lifelong learning programmes[31]. Twenty-one (three in each Country) programmes provided a cohort of case studies for comparative analysis. It is important to note that this Multiple Case Study research design adopted by the project did not require the adoption of a probabilistic[32] sampling strategy for selecting the cluster of programmes of interest.

> *"According to the sampling logic, a number of respondents are assumed to 'represent' a larger pool of respondents, so data from a smaller number of persons are assumed to represent the data that might have been collected from the entire pool [...] The sampling logic demands an operational enumeration of the entire universe or pool of potential respondents and then a statistical procedure for selecting the specific subset of respondents to be surveyed [...] Any application of this sampling logic to case studies will be misplaced. First, case studies should not generally be used to assess the incidence of phenomena. Second, a case study would have to cover both the phenomenon of interest and its context, yielding a large number of potentially relevant variables. In turn, this would require an impossibly large number of cases" [Yin, 1994].*

UAE Programmes[33] were thus 'conveniently'[34] selected as a function of their relevance to project aims (e.g.: presence of >45 students; TLL as an explicit goal; etc.).

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[31] Although the focus of the project is on >45 people, it will be very unlikely to find in TLL any programme that is specifically designed for this group of people. Thus, as a general guideline, it is suggested to choose any TLL Programme that has a reasonable number of >45 students, and focus on this subgroup of learners.

[32] Sampling methods might be probability or non-probability. In probability sampling (random, systematic, stratified, etc.), each member of the population has an equal probability of being selected. In non-probability sampling (convenience, judgment, quota, snowball, etc.), members are selected from the population not at random.

[33] National cases have to be preliminarily described using the template provided in Annex IV of this report.

[34] Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method (others include: judgment sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling). Convenience (opportunity) sampling involves the sample being drawn from that part of the population that is readily available and convenient. A researcher using such a sample cannot scientifically make generalizations about the total population because the sample would not be representative enough. For example, if the interviewer was to conduct such a survey at a shopping centre early in the morning on a given day, the people that she could interview would be limited to those who were there at that given time, which would not represent the views of the overall population visiting the shopping centre at different times of day and different days per week.

Figure 7

THEMP – Analytical dimensions

Institutional level: detect institutional conditions under which HE Programmes are open to **adult learners**

Policy
legislation
regulation
finance
....
....

Organisational & institutional aspects
networking
finance
marketing & communication
programme org.
guidance & quality

Teaching & Learning aspects
lecturers' training
pedagogical approach
delivery of courses
assessment & evaluation

Societal benefits
...
....
....

Transitional Labour Markets

Type I Conversion Factors

Type II Conversion Factors

Decision making

Effectiveness level I

Effectiveness level II

Quality of Life^n	Characteristics
material security - personal sec - economical sec	work & life transitions
employability	gender
social connections -civil & polit. engag.	ethnicity
health	health
living & working env.	age

Learners' decision criteria

Personal Learning aspects
metacognition
time management
learning to learn
goal setting
personal initiative

Quality of Life^{n+1}
material security - personal security - economical security
employability
social connections -civil &polit.engag.
health
living & working env.

Individual level: detect how HE Programmes are effective in improving **>45ers** capital stocks &QoL

In our project, as in many other research projects, we collect two main types of data: i) primary data and ii) secondary data. While *primary data* refers to the data collected via empirical enquiry (i.e. asking questions to various target individuals), *secondary data* refers to available statistics, research reports, literature, etc. Both types of data were collected through multiple targeted interviews and desk research using statistics, literature and documentation form the universities and their programmes.

Our case studies relied principally on the systematic interviewing of key people. The many handbooks on social research [e.g. Neuman, 2005; Bryman, 2008] categorize interviews into three main categories: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. The main difference between these three categories lies in the degree of freedom that is allowed to the interviewer.

A *structured* (or standardized) interview compromises a pre-defined series of given questions. The interviewer should strictly adhere to a predefined sequence of questions, asking each one in the same way and in the same order to each interviewee. Structured interviews are quite similar to questionnaires with open questions, their strength relying on the objectivity and uniformity of data collection.

In a *semi-structured* interview, the researcher must still have a set of pre-defined questions at hand, but he or she is free to change the order of the items and to add or skip some. Semi-structured interviews are less systematic and more qualitative in nature than structured ones, allowing the collection of a richer set of data and evidences. The drawback is that a systematic comparison among the answers provided by respondents might be difficult. Finally, researchers who carry out an *unstructured* interview do not have specific questions at their disposal but, rather, a list of topics that they are willing to investigate. The subsequent question closely depends on the previous answer provided by the interviewee. Unstructured interviews are typically used in clinical psychology and journalism.

In our project, we used semi-structured interviews [e.g. Merton et al. 1990] with a majority of open-ended questions in which respondents are interviewed for between 45 and 90 minutes and the interviewer follows a pre-determined protocol, while trying to maintain a conversational approach.

An interview protocol refers to the instructions and to the list of specific open-ended questions that were submitted to each target group of respondents. We designed a unique interview protocol useful both for analysing the variables for social inclusion and for TLL teaching and learning methods. In this way, a single interview satisfied both WP5 and WP6 needs. In addition, our research approach distinguishes between two main types of target: TLL providers and TLL users (students). TLL providers are further divided in two sub-groups: decision makers; and lecturers. Because of this, three different versions of the unique interview protocol were designed [see annexes in Mariani & Krüger 2013]

To select the interviewees, a snowball process[35] was followed:

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[35] Such a selection process is frequently used in real-word research. It is a non-probabilistic sampling method labelled as 'snowballing' or 'pyramiding'. Snowball sampling is a technique for developing a research sample where existing study subjects recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Thus the sample group appears to grow like a rolling snowball.

1. Start by interviewing one decision maker of the HE institution within our research programme (i.e. the one who makes the agreement). At the end of the interview, we asked him/her to indicate the other decision makers/ lecturers and students who can conveniently be interviewed[36];

2. Contact and interview people identified by the first interviewee and ask each one to indicate other decision makers/ lecturers and students who can conveniently be interviewed until the necessary set of information and data has been collected[37].

Before starting to implement all of the case studies (which proceed in parallel), the interview protocols were tested in one preliminary pilot study in Spain. This pilot testing provided evidence for the validity of the overall research plan ensuring that:

- The questions are clearly understood and unambiguous;
- The interview length is acceptable;
- The collected data support the research goals;
- etc.

To perform the necessary analysis on the collected data, all interviews were-recorded. As a minimal requirement three extended summaries (one for each target group) of the interview findings has been made. To maintain consistency and ensure cross-readability, the summaries maintained the same structure of the interview protocol.

Mutual Learning Seminars

Mutual learning has become prominent in the context of the Open Method of Coordination (OMC) of the EU to coordinate policy development in such key areas as employment, social policy and education & training. The OMC assumes that member states can learn from each other by exchanging best practice experiences and jointly establishing benchmark indicators. In another context, mutual learning is seen as an essential element of policy development based on public participation [see Daniels & Walker 1996]. Our project adopted this participatory idea by creating a forum not only to present our research results and discuss them with practitioners, but also to reflect upon, share, consolidate and transfer experiences on university adult education generally. This will hopefully influence the practice of adult education in European universities.

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[36] This shall be done underling to the interviewee which questions of the interview protocol are in need for more information/data,

[37] The overall number of interviews to be performed depends on the information that will be collected in each interview. Again, also in this case, we're not aiming to achieve any representative sample. On the contrary, the aim should be to reach 'saturation', that is each partner should perform enough interviews to generate sufficient data about the subject under investigation (or to answer in a satisfactory way the questions contained in the interview protocol). As a generic 'rule of thumb', it is suggested that a minimum of 8 (2 for each target group) interviews were to be performed in each case study.

In this sense, mutual learning is a dialogue between project researcher, external expert and practitioner in order to facilitate the design, implementing and evaluating of project results, and also improve the practice of adult education at universities. It originates from the interrelationship between good social science, good practice and good learning. Referring to the learning concept of Kolb [1984] the mutual learning workshops tried to combine social scientific conceptualisation, scientific observation, and active experience, thus creating space for reflective discussions around adult education at universities.

In our project, mutual learning has been interpreted as an active component of social learning. "*The process of defining the problem and generating alternatives makes for meaningful social learning as constituencies sort out their own and others' values, orientations and priorities*" [Daniels & Walker 1996: 73]. Mutual learning uses techniques that facilitate understanding of such complex matters as university adult education and its link to labour markets and employment policies. It combines the presentation of information with dialogue in order to allow participants to clarify the scope and definition of problems within the field of study. These techniques are designed to stimulate creative discussion among participants from different countries and different kinds of universities. Because of the nature of the project, our mutual learning seminars did not aspire to develop new policies or strategies on university adult education. The objective was to introduce an informed environment for the discussion of different experience on these issues, this creating ideas and inputs into the future development of strategies and policies at the universities, as well as indicators for future research in the field.

Two mutual learning workshops compromised an essential part of the overall project flow. The first workshop was intended to promote discussion on the proposed approach and methods and their viability and suitability for the analysis and design of TLL as a viable component of social and employment policies. The objective was to introduce the viewpoint of the practitioners in the field of university adult education into the approach and methodology design form the beginning. The second workshop was convened to discuss the research findings of WP4, 5, 6 and their implications for TLL development within the framework of social and employment policies. As such, both workshops can be interpreted as opportunities for validation and exchange rather than data collection. However, owing to problems in the project development, the two workshops addressed only the second aim contrasting both the research design and results with the opinion of practitioners and experts in university adult education.

Survey

One outcome of our research was the development of tools, in form of questionnaires, to measure the social effectiveness of UAE-programmes. Universities can use them to survey students on the impact of the programmes in relation to access to jobs and quality of work. The contents of the survey (the specific questions) were defined after completion of the case studies and as result of the preliminary findings. They are also linked to the category of quality of work defined in the conceptual framework (see table 6).

Since we developed our methodology design at the beginning of the project, we have only included such preliminary methodological issues as indicators for tool development.

When designing a survey, issues to be considered include: what information to request; the order in which the questions are asked; the amount of time that respondents can be expected to spend in answering the survey[38]. Survey questions fall into three broad types, based on the response options: numerical, categorical and open-ended. *Numerical* questions are those in which respondents provide a numerical value, which could also include dates and times. For *categorical* questions, respondents choose from predefined alternatives. *Open-ended* questions allow respondents answer freely, in their own words, having at their disposal a fixed space for their writing. In many questionnaires it is common to use a hybrid form in which respondents are presented with a set of predetermined responses from which to choose, one of which is "Other" which provides an option for an open-ended response. This allows common responses that were not covered by the other options to be assigned their own category code on analysis. Another relevant distinction is between factual and opinion related questions. *Factual* questions ask for objective information (such as how many years have been spent in a certain occupation). *Opinion* questions seek the respondents' views on an issue. They present respondents with a range of options so they can select the one that best describes their opinion. This type of question may take the form of a statement, the respondents being asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree (Likert-scales).

Surveys can be administered in different ways. They can be either researcher-administered, that means by the university, or self-administered. When a researcher is assisting the interviewee, questionnaires can be administered through intercept interviews or via telephone calls. When the questionnaire is self-completed, copies can be distributed via e-mail, mail, or directly compiled online.

Intercept surveys are carried out by approaching potential respondents as they pass a particular location, such as when they enter or leave classrooms. They are usually performed as an interview survey, in which the interviewer asks the questions and records the responses. Interview surveys can also be administered by selecting respondents in a particular location, such as an examination room, and using a defined sampling rule to identify whom to approach.

Self-completed surveys have the main advantage of a relatively low cost, However they imply lower response rates and a lower control on data quality. It is of major importance that self-completed surveys are self-explanatory. *Telephone surveys* allow the polling of a representative sample of a large and dispersed target population and a reasonable level of quality control using professional interviewers. *Internet surveys* cost much less than the previously mentioned methods, responses being directly entered and stored ready for analysis. The ease of use of an interactive questionnaire must be carefully designed. If using mail, email, or employer distribution of questionnaires, the low response rates associated with these methods, sometimes well below 50%, should be considered.

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[38] In general, "*it's advisable to keep the time needed to complete the survey to no more than twenty minutes. After twenty minutes, survey fatigue tends to set in*" [Cross & Nohria, 2002]. Increasing the length of the questionnaire will increase the refusal rate and the number of incomplete responses.

Table 7		
Advantages and disadvantages of different survey methods		
Survey method	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
Intercept interviews	High data quality High response rate	High costs
Mail	Low cost	Low response rate
Telephone	High data quality	High costs
Internet	Low cost Automated, instant data processing	Low response rate Requires internet access
Source: Biggs *et al.* [2009].		

To facilitate flexible response in using the tools, it was decided to develop two modules of questionnaire (both in paper and online version). It is thought that the first module would be more likely to measure the social effectiveness of UAE-programmes. For the evaluation of individual programmes, detailed questions about the socio-economic background of the participants do not seem to be relevant since the often low number of participants casts doubt on the value of the empirical evidence. On the other hand, if a university or an organisational unit of the university wishes to survey the social effectiveness in their programmes, the socio-economic background is relevant since it can provide important indicators of the characteristics of the learners and their social and labour market vulnerability, and this conditions (a) the achievement of the desired learning results and (b) their possibility to convert the achieved learning results into capital relevant to the labour market

Mapping the labour market context for highly educated people[39]

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[39] This chapter is heavily based on Krüger *et al.* [2013] and Makó *et al.* [2013].

As we presented in the previous chapters, our research was focused on university adult education for people in mid-life, and on the labour market orientation of such programmes. We are researching the social effectiveness of university adult learning programmes in terms of access to the labour market and quality of work. We have suggested that the outcomes of learning programmes do not, by themselves, assure that they would support the labour market position of the learner. The learning outcomes must be converted into labour market relevant human, cultural or social capital. This conversion process, a entailing complex social bargaining, depends in large part on the configuration of the labour markets, or on the economic effects on the labour market demand.

The relation between education and training systems, especially in higher education, and the labour market is in general very complex. The debate about the skills match is oriented, in general, on issues around the adaptation of the education curricula to labour market requirements. Teichler [2009] described the impossibility of a constant adaptation of (higher) education to the labour market requirements[40]. One of the main arguments is that neither the decision makers within the economic systems - entrepreneurs and trade unionists - are sure about the actual professional requirements. Psacharopoulos [1991] stated "*every country in the world has attempted, one time or another, to improve the fit between education and work [...] The effect of ability and related factors does not exceed 10 percent of the estimated schooling coefficient. Instrumental variable estimates of the returns to education based on family background are higher*". In system terms, the major problem resides in the different logics inherent in the two systems. Both have different time perspectives: in the economic system decisions are made within a shorter-term perspective, while the (higher) education system adopts a mid or long term timeframe[41]. This makes it highly improbable that the (higher) education system will react to the requirements of the economic stakeholders, which by nature are very diverse. The efforts to achieve a better matching of education and job skills seem to be a kind of "*search for the Holy Grail*" [Mariani 2008: 33]. To this, we must add the effect that the constant expansion of higher education systems towards more generalisation produces vis a vis changes in the labour market for highly educated people. Historically, higher education provides the work force for public administrations and public services (education, health and jurisdiction) including public science, but the expansion of higher education, together with the reduction in public finances has increased the attractiveness of the private labour market segment as a target for highly educated workers, including private research [see Krüger & Jimenez 2008]. This introduces another degree of complexity in the relationship between higher education and labour market.

Despite this complexity, the configuration and developments in the labour market are important orientations in the design of education and training policies. However, before we describe the landscapes of the labour market for highly educated people in the countries under scrutiny in

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[40] Teichler argues that the imperfections in identifying job requirements, occupational dynamics, the ambiguity in the definition of work tasks of high qualified work places, the imperfection in the prediction of labour market developments between other factors "*interfere to a close link of educational and career success there are obvious imperfections and uncertainties which make close linkages unlikely*" [2009: 7].

[41] Naturally, the differences in the systems' logic isn't limited to the time perspective, but also to communication in both systems and its codification [see Luhmann 1986].

our project, we will first present a critical view of the basic assumption of the strategy 'Europe 2020' which advocates an increase in the percentage of highly-educated people in the belief that better education will provide better jobs.

Changes in the labour markets for highly educated people

The phenomenon of over-education or overqualification[42] seems to rest its validity on the aforementioned assumption. We use the term over-education only with reference to labour market requirements. Although that Ramos & Surinach & Arties [2009] concluded that overeducated workers represent an opportunity for regions to take advantage of the generation of more qualified jobs, Nieto & Ramos [2010: 4] maintained that improvements in education do not lead directly to economic improvement. Spain is a good example of the mismatch between improvements in educational attainment and economic development. García [2011] showed that the Spanish educational system is clearly inclined towards university education among the young, causing a gap between supply and demand of jobs for highly educated people. The expectation that the improvements in education levels would create convergence with the other EU countries has failed. The high rate of overeducated workers indicates, following Moreno [2013: 4], a "*weakness of the Spanish production system to employ qualified youth, as an economy like Germany is using Spanish youth qualified for use in skilled occupations. This has a negative impact on productivity of Spanish companies, competitiveness and employment levels, as well as exemplifying an inefficient use of human capital. The investment in education in Spain has not been a greater capacity of the production system. In other countries, these percentages stood in 2007 at around 21% or less, as in Italy.*" She observe that Spanish labour productivity performed substantially lower than in other EU-15 countries between 1995 and 2009 in spite of the increase in the education level. The problem has been that a mayor part of the Spanish economic system is based in on low-qualification occupations and it has not been able to create a sufficient number of work places to match the increasing education level of the Spanish population. This again confirms that the relation between increasing education level and economic productivity isn't linear. For France, Guironnet & Jaoul-Grammare [2007: 11] stated that the phenomenon of over-education "*seems to reduce the GDP-growth*". Education is not by itself sufficient to achieve economic development and social cohesion. A strategic document of the British government emphasised:

> "*There is no automatic relationship between skills and productivity. Critically important is how businesses actually use the skills of their workforces; and how they use them in combination with the other drivers of productivity, such as investment, innovation and enterprise*" [DBIS 2009: 20]

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[42] The discussion about this phenomena used different term such as over-qualification, over-education and mismatch. We opt here for the term over-education to underpin the difference between the two social systems: education and economy (labour market). In the education system knowledge, competences and abilities, short patterns of behaviour is transmitted following education standards emitting education certificates, but what the labour market is asking for are qualifications, which are generally more diffused defined.

Over-education is a general phenomenon in EU-member states. It could test the validity of the hypothesis 'better education, better jobs'. We do not address here the methodological discussion how over-education, over-qualification or mismatch is defined and measured. What is relevant for our project is

a) that the different studies suggest that a proportion of highly educated people are working in work places which may be considered more appropriate for people with a lower educational level;

b) that this mismatch has an uneven impact in the different EU-member states.

For instance, Ghignoni & Verashchagina [2012: 26] exposed the following over-education rates using the Labour Force Survey data 2003: for Czech Republic: 16,57; Germany: 14,41; Spain: 23,56; Hungary: 22,44; Netherlands: 12,69; United Kingdom: 19,52. Budría & Moro-Egido [2009: 336] mentioned in a working paper the following rates for Germany: 14,29; Italy: 30,35; Spain: 25,01 and UK: 19,42. And Galasi [2008: 6] mentioned the following general over-education rates for the Czech Republic: 49,5 Germany: 19,5; United Kingdom: 28,2; Hungary, 31,1 Netherlands: 14,7 Spain 50,2%. And in an analysis of the mismatch between higher education and the labour market, Parellada [2013] highlights the high shortage of suitable workplaces for highly educated people. Taking the same data set for the countries under scrutiny in this project, we observe that Spain has the highest rate, but also in the United Kingdom, Czech Republic, Hungary and the Netherlands, the mismatch rate has increased between 2007 and 2012.

These data confirm the heterogeneity among EU-member countries having at one extreme Germany, with a low and diminishing over-education rate, and at the other extreme Spain with a stable, but high rate. Ramos & Surinach & Arties [2009: 4] confirmed that the evolution of this rate is different among EU-countries: The percentage of over-educated workers has increased over time in some countries - this is the case of Greece, Romania, Spain and the United Kingdom, while in Austria, France and Portugal the figure has fallen. Nevertheless, the impact of over-education on the quality of work is well-known, even for instance with regard to earning potential: the overeducated workers will earn less than their counterparts working at a job relevant to their qualification.

The previously mentioned article of Nieto & Ramos [2010 also 2013] showed that the overeducated workers often improve their incomes when they have undertaken further non-formal training and learning[43]. They do not achieve incomes consistent with their education level, but their income situation improves after such training. Formal and non-formal education and training are complementary. In effect, participation in university adult education could have positive impact at least on income. But the problem is that the training and education decisions

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[43] However, they proved such a positive wage effect from non-formal education activities only for the overeducated workers, and not for all workers (see Nieto, S. & Ramos, R. [2010] and Nieto, S. & Ramos, R. [2013])

are, in general, made without any real understanding of career opportunities, labour market developments and forecasting[44].

Figure 8

Mismatch between higher education and labour market

Porcentage of the employed people with higher education, who do not realize high qualified tasks

Source: Eurostat – Labour Force Survey consulted 01/08/2013
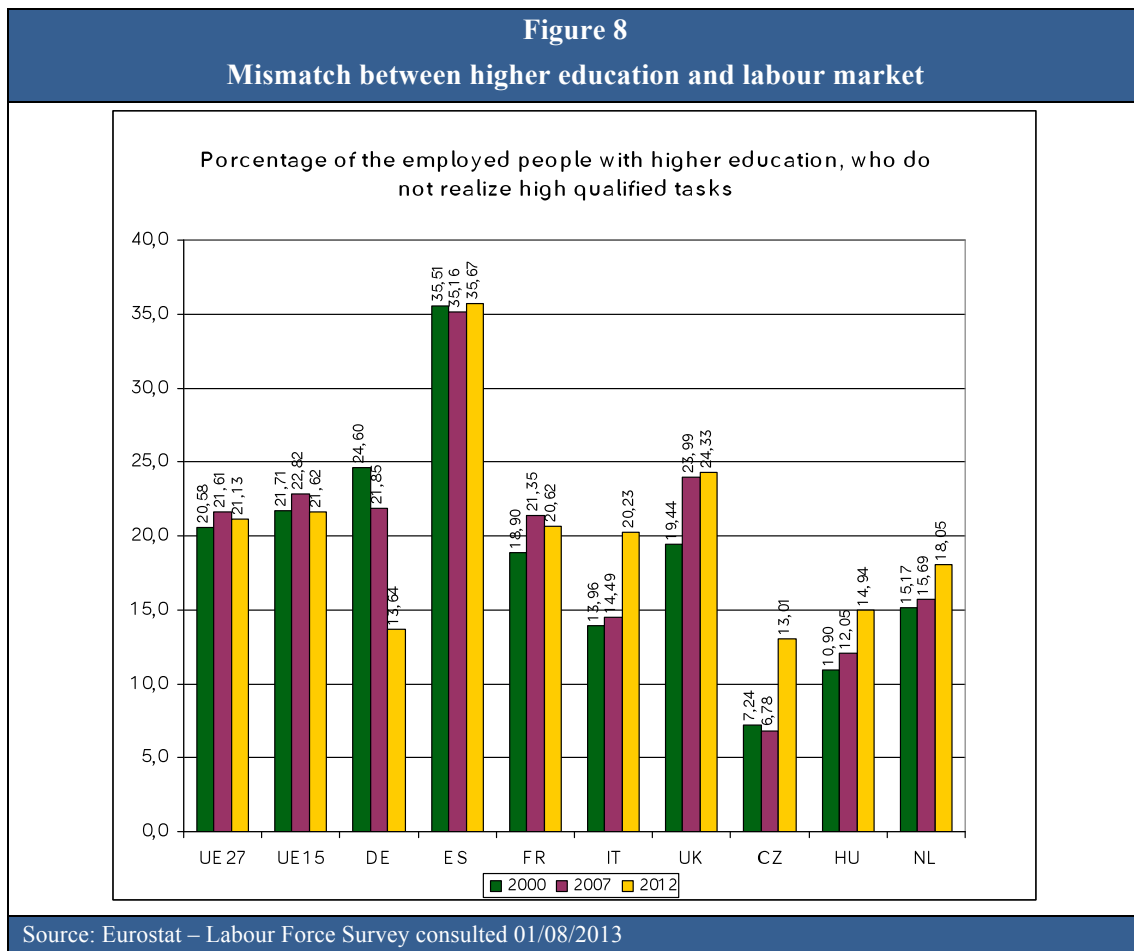
There are other critical voices of the view that progress towards a knowledge economic provides more and better jobs. Livanos & Nuñez [2012: 15] stated a "*destruction of some highly qualified jobs, such as in computer science area, may have led graduates towards less qualified jobs, pushing medium- and low-qualified workers to unemployment.*" Evidences from some EU member states suggest that positive labour market trends are more related to the creation of low paid jobs and that the highly qualified jobs aren't the main source of new employment. A study by the Trade Union Congress reported that of the nearly 600k net rise in employment since 2010, 77% had been in low paid jobs mainly in the retail and residential care sectors; that there had been no job creation in the middle paid or graduate entry level industries; and that knowledge economy jobs only accounted for 23% of the total[45]

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[44] Education and training decision are "*mostly made without understanding the real dimensions and opportunities of different careers, labour market realities and employment prospects. As result, labour markets suffer from persistent shortage in some areas, on one hand, and many people end up finding themselves in the wrong jobs, on the other*" [Hultin 2010: 87-88].

[45] see http://www.tuc.org.uk/economy/tuc-22364-f0.cfm

On the other hand, Brown *et al*. [2011] outline a scenario where high skill work places and low paid work aren't contradictory, but are actually the basis of an emerging new business model in the globalised knowledge society. The global availability of highly skilled workers who are willing to work for lower costs then their European and US-American counterparts increases the pressure on wages and working conditions. Taking as a reference transnational companies, Brown & Lauder [2012: 232] identified two main trends:

- A growing global competition for good knowledge jobs due in part to the increasing number of high-educated people not only in Europe, but also in the emerging economies. Boes & Kämpf [2011: 13] made a similar observation that highly qualified workers must compete with workers with similar qualification from countries with low salary levels.[46] Also the literature on the off-shoring of work displays trends to geographically distributed knowledge work. There is a *"growing trend of global sourcing or "offshoring" of knowledge work, including software development, analytics, engineering services, product design, and R&D"* [Manning *et al* 2012: 3; see also Slepnio *et al*. 2013].

- A taylorisation of part of the knowledge work, downgrading such work to routine tasks and resulting in the loss of a considerable proportion of the so-called knowledge work. Holmes & Ryan [2009: 17] stated that *"the increased codification of work through the standardization of processes, the increasing sophistication and scope and scale of IT systems and the availability of a cheap and well educated labour force from across the world means that much of the routine work that is now undertaken by well paid staffers will eventually be automated, outsourced, offshored or executed by less expensive personnel"*.

This negatively affects many jobs of the knowledge work, and *intensifies the competition for entry to elite universities, creating a significant mismatch between higher education and demand for 'knowledge' workers* [Brown & Lauder 2012]. They argued that this isn't only a temporary phenomenon of an excess of highly educated people with respect to the offered workplaces, but it is a structural transformation of the knowledge economy due to the global supply of expertise.[47]

Livanos & Nuñes [2012: 11] stated *"higher education, which has traditionally been seen as a safety net against unemployment and adverse employment conditions, can no longer be seen as such, mainly due to the dramatic increase in the supply of graduates over the last few decades"*. They also mention also 'crowding out' effects: Graduates are working in occupations, which are traditionally occupied by people with lower education levels, displacing those with lower qualifications. They call attention to the marked difference between EU member countries with respect to unemployment, job stability, working time and working satisfaction, to which the crowding out effect can be added. *"Regarding country variations, graduates in Mediterranean countries (i.e Spain, Italy, Portugal and Greece) seem to be more vulnerable in their labour markets than graduates in the remaining European countries (i.e. Continental, Nordic and Anglo-Saxon countries"* [Livanos & Nuñes 2012: 11].

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[46] Boes & Kämpf [2011].

[47] Brown *et al* [2011].

There are indicators that knowledge work is undergoing a process of standardisation leading to a deterioration in the working conditions of some knowledge work places, for example those related to the income from the knowledge intensive work. And there is no reason for optimism in a future which doesn't take into account sufficiently the impact of the constant increase of the number of highly educated people on working conditions over the course of time. This scenario suggests that any measurement of the socio-economic impact of higher education must not only take into consideration the internal differentiation of the work expectation of highly educated people, but also to relate the differences to the real situation in national and sectoral labour markets [see Hartmann, M. 2000a and 2000b].

In the table 9 below, Livianos & Nuñes [2012] show that the unemployment rates vary between academic fields, and demonstrate a general trend of increasing unemployment between 2007 and 2009.

Table 8		
Unemployment rate by academic field		
Academic field	**Unemployment rate 2007**	**Unemployment rate 2009**
Education Science	9,8	9,5
Humanities & Arts	15,1	14,5
Foreign Languages	10,0	11,1
Social Sciences, Business & Law	10,5	10,7
Physics, Chemistry & Biology	14,3	7,2
Mathematics & Statistics	7,0	7,87
Computer Science	7,9	11,0
Engineering	11,1	12,4
Agriculture & Veterinary	11,1	9,90
Health & Welfare	4,1	5,80
Services & Tourism	10,1	15,4
General Programmes	13,0	14,6
Source: Liviano & Nuñez based on EU Labour Force survey (Eurostat)		

These observations induce one to think about an increased uncoupling of the bionomic 'better education, better jobs' There are indicators that show a continuous process of changing employment patterns known as internal differentiation an internal differentiation in the labour market segment for highly educated people, and this calls for a differentiated analysis of such labour markets[48]. Higher education still implies better access to the labour market. Expressed in

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[48] *"... the measurement of human capital in terms of level of education ... or years in school seemed to be little relevance. The contribution of education measured in years in school to economic growth turned to be non-existent"* [Ritzen & Zimmerman 2013: 16].

the language of the human capital approach, the private benefits from education increase with the continuance in the education system. But this doesn't mean necessarily high quality work. Brown & Lauder [2012] have demonstrated that knowledge work is being submitted to processes of standardisation and globalised competition which leads to the downgrading of the work conditions for highly qualified people. Even though higher education seems to be more and more a precondition to initial access to jobs, only in a second stage does it help access to higher quality work conditions. That does not put in doubt the assumption that better education is conducive to higher labour market participation, and that higher education per se is also a means of achieving social cohesion, equality[49] and integration [Keep & Mayhew 2010: 568]. However, the differences in European countries and in knowledge fields must also be studied. The reference to the ISCED-levels, which we have used also in the study, is too general. A more detailed look into the knowledge fields and the countries – their production systems and labour markets - seems necessary.

At last, there are also critical voices questioning the underlying principles and assumptions of the role of education for the achievement of economic competitiveness, social cohesion and inclusion. An OECD document [2001] on the relationship between education and the wealth of nations argued in favour of the existence of such a link, but also mentioned the scientific dispute about it. This referred to a statement of Temple [2001], who observed the growing research questioning the societal impact of education, but even he doubted the validity of such research, pointing out that most studies seem to confirm such linkage[50].

In a recent article about the link between education and equality, Solga [2012] argued that such strategies do not properly spell out the meaning of educational equality (or inequity) which can be detected, for example, in learning opportunities and outcomes. Research and policies are mainly oriented to the equality of learning opportunities[51]. But the relationship between the two types of education inequality - learning opportunities versus learning outcomes - isn't clear [Solga 2012: 19], and nor is the function of education to fight social inequality in the labour markets. It seems that direct measures are more effective than indirect measures. But this does not mean renouncing the use of education policy as an element of social policy, rather education policy must be framed in broader social policies and forward-looking economic strategies. Education is valuable on its own merits and it provides wider social benefits in concertation with other initiatives [see Brown 2011; Desjardins & Schuller 2006]. Solga [2012] also emphasised that the analysis of the relationship between education measures and social equality

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[49] In a strategy paper, the European Commission [2009] expressed "*strengthening education is one of the most effective ways of fighting inequality and poverty.*"

[50] "*Over the last ten years, growth researchers have bounced from identifying quite dramatic effects of education, to calling into question the existence of any effect at all. More recent research is placed somewhere between these two extremes, but perhaps leaning closer to the original findings that education has a major impact. In examining the studies that have not detected an effect, we have some convincing reasons (measurement error, outliers, and incorrect specification) to doubt such results. The balance of recent evidence points to productivity effects of education which are at least as large as those identified by labour economists.*" [Temple cited in OECD 2001]

[51] ·"*Where the theme (equity/ the authors) is mentioned, equality is most often seen merely as a question of access*" [Rasmussen *et al.* 2008].

indicates that it would be better to focus on the equality of education outcomes instead of education opportunities, which in the past has been the main focus of the EU-political strategy.[52]

Similarly Hanushek & Wößmann [2007: 1] argue, in respect to schooling. Education "*has not delivered fully on its promise as the driver of economic success.*" There are doubts about a linear relation between economic development and increasing education levels.

> "*But there are four nagging uncertainties with these policies. First, developed and developing countries differ in myriad ways other than schooling levels. Second, a number of countries - both on their own and with the assistance of others - have expanded schooling opportunities without closing the gap in economic well-being. Third, poorly functioning countries may not be able to mount effective education programs. Fourth, even when schooling is a focus, many of the approaches do not seem very effective and do not produce the expected student outcomes*" [Ibid 2007: 1].

And it is not the access to education, measured in enrolment, but the quality of education – measured as cognitive skills - which is more important for individual earning and economic development. Hanushek & Wößmann [2007: 5] also stressed that education policies must be combined with economic policies to achieve the objective of economic development.

> "*The macroeconomic effect of education depends on other complementary growth-enhancing policies and institutions. But cognitive skills have a significant positive growth effect even in countries with a poor institutional environment*" [Ibid 2007: 10].

In short, there are doubts of a direct relationship at the macro-economic level between increasing education level, especially higher education, and economic growth and social cohesion. This isn't an argument against education policies – education is a value in itself – but, where education and training should achieve social effectiveness in terms of employment and quality of work and life, it must be linked to adequate social and economic policies. On the other contrary, education policies run risks to become a means of justifying social equity based on meritocracy. The human capital approach assumes that higher education results in higher productivity, thus justifying higher incomes. Such a meritocratic vision of society [see Russ 2012 and Solga 2009] considers that access to compensation without educational effort by the beneficiaries isn't justified.[53]

The idea of meritocracy is often a guiding vision of modern society. Following Becker & Hadjar [2009: 39] the original term means, that social hierarchy depends on the talents and performance capacity of individuals. The distribution of social status is based on the principle of

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[52] Rasmussen *et al.* [2009: 12] state: "*Most of the discussion about equality in education is focused on how to equalize access to and participation within two different levels of formal education for different social groups*".

[53] "*One important principle emphasized by equal opportunity theories is that differences in circumstances are not a morally acceptable source of inequality. On the contrary, inequality arising from differences in efforts does not require compensation. As a consequence, any level of inequality of outcome can be compatible with equality of opportunity*" [Lefranc *et al.* 2008: 516].

individual performance, in contrast to other possible mechanisms of assignment of social status such as for instance social origin, gender, inherited wealth or ethnicity. In other words, meritocracy means that the status is earned through competence [see Bell 1973: 65]. In modern society, we can distinguish two interlinked strands of the application of the principles of meritocracy:

- The education system: the access to the educational opportunities must be independent from the social-economic background of the pupils, and their educational success should result only from individual efforts and talents. That is meritocracy within the educational system.
- The economic system: access to jobs is based on the merits acquired in education system, and the professional success of individuals depends on their personal efforts. This meritocracy is based on provided education.

That means that by linking equal opportunities with educational opportunities, initially education, and later incomes, depend, following meritocratic principles, on individual efforts and talents and legitimises the unequal distribution of goods and social status (contested mobility). Other mechanisms (sponsored mobility) such as social origins, aristocracy or gender and ethnicity are rejected as unlegitimised [see Turner 1960]. Hoffer [2002: 255] expressed this principle as: "*Individuals are selected for educational opportunities and jobs on the basis of demonstrated performance.*" Kingston [2006:112f] proposed three meritocratic criteria to assign social position:

a) cognitive capacities (intelligence, knowledge, competences etc,)
b) symbolic capital in the sense of education certificates;
c) personal characteristics such as diligence, sense of duty, etc.

In the approach of the 'social investment state' we observe the applications of meritocratic principles in the sense that less effort will lead to less compensation. If individuals do not make efforts to develop their talents and capacities, they will not have the right to benefit from the social welfare regime. In the background echoes the argument that everyone has the same opportunities, but the social and economic success of individuals depends only on their efforts.

But, as we have explained, decisions about training and learning are risk decisions, for which individuals need public support in order to improve their knowledge base, to make decisions and to choose their options. There are other variables, such as the availability of flexible learning arrangements, an improvement in access to learning and greater control of the quality of learning results in relation to their labour market impact, so that the individual risk of social investment can be reduced. Because of this and taking into account other factors beyond training and learning, the Transitional Labour Market approach proposes an alternative way to the social investment state approach [see Krüger & Duch 2012]. In addition, this approach deals with the management issue of social vulnerability. In general, education and training needs to be framed within broader economic, labour and social policies in order to have an effective impact

on productivity and social cohesion. This means for university adult education that courses should be linked to labour market policies if they are to contribute to the social-economic well-being of the adult learner.[54]

Within the perspective of labour markets, the major issue is how university adult education could contribute to an improvement in the labour market position of the learners, and ultimately to their quality at work (and it is hoped their quality of life)? However, university adult education should also contribute to the personal development of the learners and to their social and personal well-being?

After these general comments on shifts in the labour market for highly educated people, we now proceed to briefly describe the labour markets of EU-member states. In spite of criticisms related to the use of the ISCED-level, we will here use this classification, link it to age groups, and extract some general trends indicate the increasing social vulnerability of people with tertiary education in mid-life. We will use statistical data on education structures and lifelong learning selected from EUROSTAT to show how vocational training and education and higher education must be included together within a holistic strategy in order to describe different national education pathways.

Our project is oriented to university adult learning for people older than 45 years old and tries to describe future scenarios. We take as reference for our analysis the age group from 25-49, which includes a) the age group which is actually in mid-life and b) the age groups, which in the course of the next 20 years, will join this group.

Firstly we present the educational structure within the EU member states, and then the unemployment rates within educational groupings. We do not provide a detailed analysis of the education structure of the labour market. We do however use both indicators to describe the state of the education situation in EU-member states. We take as reference for the analysis the year 2000 – the publication of the Lisbon strategy of the EU – and 2012, last year of available data, but we add also the data for 2010 – the year before the THEMP project started, and when the Lisbon Strategy was superceded by the new "Europe 2020" strategy

One of the main targets of "Europe 2020" is to increase to at last 40% the share of population aged 30-34 having completed tertiary education, and to raise the employment rate of the population aged 20-64 to at least 75%. As the table below shows, all member states of the European Union, except Lithuania, have improved the education level of the population aged 25-49. The percentage of people with higher education has increased. Similarly, in most countries the share of people with a low education level (ISCED 0-2) has decreased, except in Denmark, Estonia, Lithuania and Romania. And in 15 EU-member states (Austria, Cyprus, Czech Rep. Denmark, Estonia, France, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg Netherlands, Slovenia, Poland, and Romania) the ratio of people with a medium education level has decreased.

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[54] That the university must fulfil such function is an open debate. Also starting from this assumption doesn't imply that all universities must fulfil such a societal function.

The percentage of the population with higher education, taking as reference the data of 2000 and 2012, reveals a distinction between four country groups:

- Countries, which showed in 2000 a higher education rate of between 25% and 35% and in 2012 between 35 and 45% (Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, France, **Netherlands**, **Spain**, Sweden, Belgium, **United Kingdom** and Ireland)[55];
- Countries, which had in 2000 an equivalent rate between 15% and 25% and in 2012 between 25% and 35% (Bulgaria, **Germany**, Greece, Latvia, Slovenia);
- Countries with a rate between 5% and 15% in the year 2000 and in 2012 with a rate lower then 25%: (Austria, **Czech Republic**, **Italy**, Malta, Portugal, Romania, and Slovakia)[56];
- Finland and Lithuania, both with a rate higher then 35% in 2000 and higher then 40% in 2012. However, Lithuania is the only country, which has reduced its rate.

Two countries could not be included in these four groups:

- Poland, which has in 2000 a low rate of HE people, but has achieved in 2012 a rate higher than 30%;
- Luxembourg, which in 2000 has rate lower than 20%, but in 2012 as achieved a level above 40%.

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[55] We include France in this group in spite of the fact that it has in 2000 a rate of 24,7%.

[56] Austria showed in 2000 a rate, which was 0,4 higher then 15% and Hungary had in 2012 a rate 0,2 higher the 25%.

Table 9 Population between 25 and 49 years by highest level of education attained (In % of total same age group)									
	ED0-2			ED3_4			ED5_6		
	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012
EU (27)	29,2	22,9	21,7	47,9	48,0	46,9	20,9	28,9	31,1
Italy	46,0	38,1	36,5	42,2	45,1	45,5	10,7	16,7	18,0
Romania	19,3	20,6	20,0	71,3	63,4	61,7	9,5	16,0	18,2
Slovakia	10,9	6,1	6,0	78,1	74,4	72,7	11,0	19,4	21,3
Malta	77,7	56,0	51,5	16,1	26,2	27,0	6,2	17,9	21,4
Austria	19,1	13,9	13,5	65,5	65,6	64,9	15,4	20,5	21,5
Portugal	75,8	61,1	54,1	13,5	20,5	23,7	10,7	18,5	22,1
Czech Rep.	10,7	5,5	5,5	77,0	75,4	72,2	12,2	19,1	22,2
Hungary	22,0	15,7	14,8	63,5	62,4	60,0	14,5	21,9	25,2
Bulgaria	25,5	17,5	16,6	54,5	57,8	57,9	20,0	24,8	25,5
Germany	15,2	13,3	13,0	56,9	59,6	58,0	24,0	27,0	28,9
Greece	38,1	29,3	26,4	41,5	43,5	44,4	20,4	27,2	29,2
Slovenia	20,8	11,6	10,1	62,7	61,1	59,2	16,5	27,4	30,8
Poland	13,6	7,5	7,0	74,7	64,3	61,7	11,7	28,2	31,3
Latvia	10,5	11,3	11,3	70,8	59,5	56,4	18,7	29,1	32,3
Netherlands	29,4	22,2	21,0	44,6	42,7	42,1	25,7	34,4	35,8
Denmark	16,2	19,7	17,4	53,5	42,2	41,5	27,8	34,2	36,1
France	31,4	22,0	20,8	43,9	43,2	42,1	24,7	34,9	37,1
Spain	53,3	40,3	38,9	19,5	24,3	23,8	27,3	35,4	37,3
Estonia	9,1	10,1	10,6	61,1	53,6	51,8	29,7	36,2	37,6
Lithuania	6,6	7,2	6,9	48,9	56,3	54,9	44,5	36,4	38,2
Sweden	17,0	13,5	13,2	50,4	48,8	47,1	32,2	37,3	39,3
Belgium	34,0	22,2	21,4	34,9	38,2	38,6	31,1	39,7	40,0
United Kingdom	30,5	20,6	18,9	33,4	40,7	38,3	27,4	37,7	41,6
Finland	17,6	10,7	10,5	45,7	47,1	46,0	36,1	42,2	43,4
Luxembourg	34,4	18,5	18,1	44,2	39,0	36,7	19,2	38,6	44,1
Ireland	34,4	19,0	18,2	39,3	35,3	34,9	24,1	41,5	44,3
Cyprus	29,3	18,6	15,8	40,8	40,7	39,1	30,0	40,6	45,1
Source: Eurostat LFS consulted 20/10/2013									

Taking again as a reference point the strategic education goal of the EU that the share of people with an attained educational level of ISCED 5-6 should be at least 40%, and applying this to the

age group of 25 to 49 years, Belgium, Cyprus, Finland, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom have achieved this level in 2012. Other countries such as Denmark, Estonia, France, Lithuania, Netherlands, Spain and Sweden are near to this rate in the same age group. In the near future, these countries show a trend towards achieving a higher proportion of people with tertiary education compared to people with upper secondary education in the near future.

Figure 9

Rate of people with higher education attained 2000-2012

Own elaboration base on Eurostat - LFS
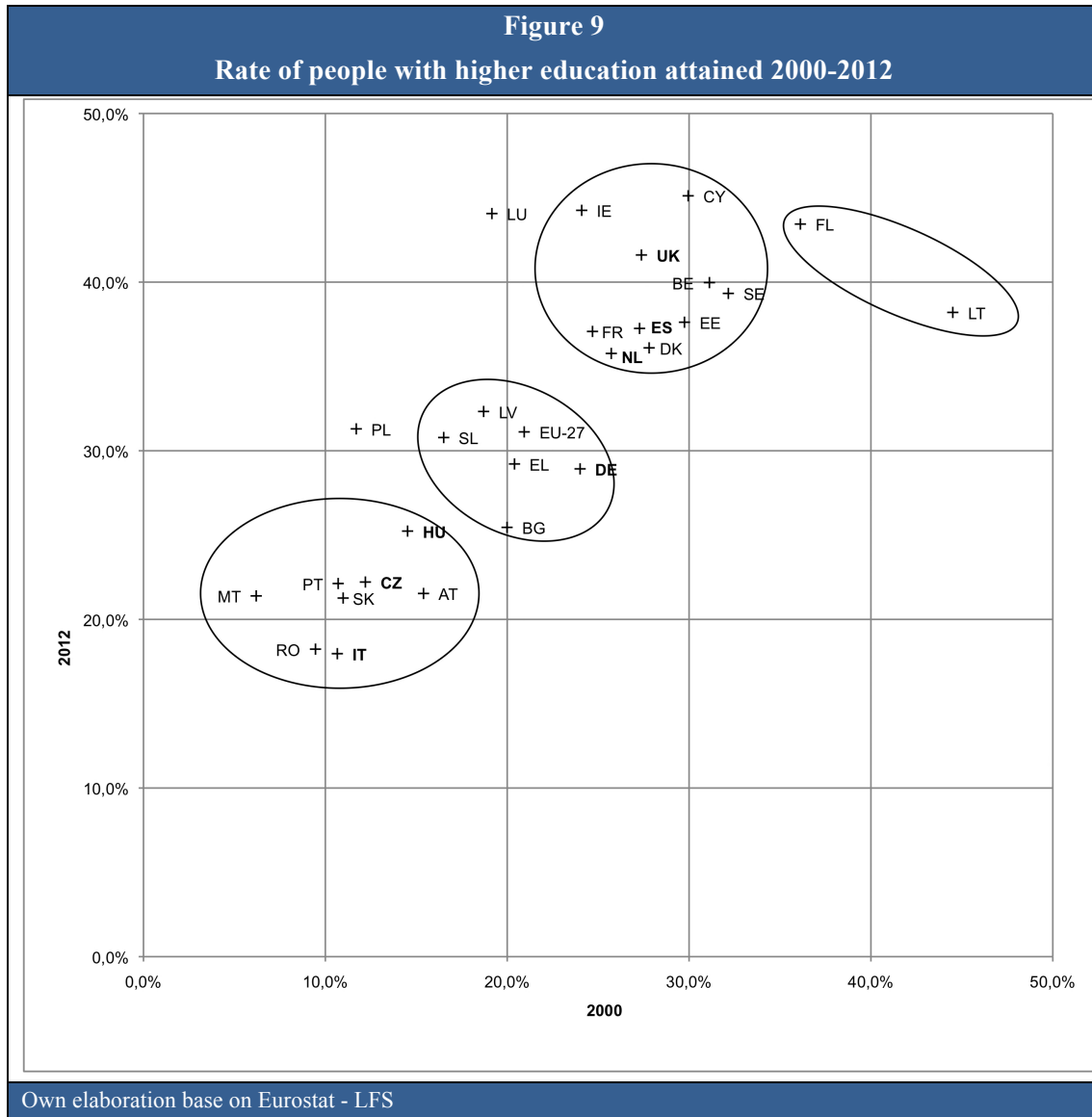
All the other countries, mainly the majority of the post-communist countries, Germany, Austria and the three other Mediterranean countries haven't yet achieved this objective, having in the majority of the cases a rate lower than 35% in the age group between 25 and 49 years. In all these countries, the number of people with upper secondary education is still substantially higher than the number with tertiary education.

Table 10											
Unemployment rate of population between 25 and 49 years by highest level of education attained in % of the same age group											
	TOTAL			ED0-2			ED3_4			ED5_6		
	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012
EU-27	8,4	8,9	9,9	12,1	16,3	19,1	8,3	8,2	8,8	4,6	5,3	6,2
Belgium	5,9	7,6	7,2	10,1	16,1	15,0	5,5	7,2	7,7	2,6	4,2	3,5
Bulgaria	14,7	9,2	11,4	26,1	23,1	29,8	14,0	8,4	10,5	6,1	4,3	5,8
Czech Rep.	8,1	6,4	6,1	22,7	28,0	30,8	7,1	6,1	5,6	2,6	2,7	2,8
Denmark	4,2	6,7	7,0	7,3	10,6	11,1	3,9	6,1	6,6	2,7	5,0	5,0
Germany	6,9	6,7	5,1	13,1	17,2	14,3	6,9	6,6	5,0	3,4	2,9	2,3
Estonia	12,7	15,4	9,5	24,3	30,5	24,1	15,6	18,6	9,6	3,9	7,2	6,0
Ireland	4,1	13,1	13,8	8,5	24,0	28,5	2,5	15,5	17,0	1,6	7,5	7,1
Greece	10,3	12,6	24,5	10,1	13,9	28,8	11,7	13,4	25,9	8,3	10,2	19,4
Spain	12,7	19,2	24,2	15,0	27,1	33,9	11,5	18,9	23,7	10,0	11,4	15,3
France	9,6	8,3	9,0	15,4	15,9	16,6	8,2	7,7	9,0	5,4	5,1	5,4
Italy	9,4	8,1	10,3	11,1	10,4	13,7	8,2	7,0	8,9	7,2	6,9	7,8
Cyprus	4,7	5,6	10,8	7,0	7,6	13,3	4,6	5,3	11,8	2,8	5,2	9,2
Latvia	14,1	17,0	13,7	23,0	27,9	22,8	14,9	18,6	17,1	7,5	10,4	5,5
Lithuania	15,4	16,9	12,5	26,2	39,0	36,9	19,6	21,8	16,0	9,6	7,0	4,8
Luxembourg	2,0	4,0	4,6	2,9	4,5	7,4	1,6	3,8	4,7	1,1	3,9	3,5
Hungary	6,1	10,7	10,2	12,3	26,5	25,3	5,8	9,9	9,9	1,3	4,8	4,2
Malta	5,1	6,0	4,9	6,2	9,4	8,3	2,8	4,1	2,9	2,5	0,9	1,4
Netherlands	2,3	3,7	4,5	3,7	6,5	7,5	1,9	3,3	4,5	1,8	2,5	2,9
Austria	4,0	4,0	3,9	8,2	9,1	9,1	3,4	3,6	3,6	2,1	2,5	2,3
Poland	14,8	8,3	8,9	27,1	18,5	20,5	14,6	9,2	9,8	4,9	4,6	5,4
Portugal	3,4	11,1	15,2	3,4	12,8	17,0	3,7	10,1	14,6	2,9	6,9	11,8
Romania	7,2	6,6	6,5	6,7	7,4	8,7	7,8	6,9	6,4	4,0	4,6	4,9
Slovenia	5,6	7,3	8,5	10,3	14,1	17,2	5,1	7,4	8,4	2,6	4,7	6,3
Slovakia	16,3	13,0	12,6	39,0	50,4	48,6	15,3	12,8	12,2	4,4	5,0	6,7
Finland	8,1	6,8	6,2	13,0	14,8	13,8	9,0	7,4	7,2	4,9	4,5	3,7
Sweden	5,0	6,7	6,1	9,5	15,7	16,8	5,3	6,0	5,1	2,3	4,8	4,3
U.Kingdom	4,5	6,3	6,2	7,4	12,3	12,2	4,0	6,6	6,6	1,9	3,5	3,7
Source: Eurostat LFS consulted 20/10/2013											

The objective of 'Europe 2020' to increase the share of people with higher education would lead in the mid- and long term to a greater generalisation in higher education. It is generally accepted that higher education offers more chances of obtaining a work place and of having a higher income compared to other education groups. The Eurydice report "*The European Higher*

Education Area in 2012: Bologna Process Implementation Report" [2012] stated that a higher education level implies on average a lower unemployment rate and a shorter period of employment search [ibid 114-115], and those highly educated people who are employed have, on average, an income 100% higher than lower-educated people, and 60% higher than the income of medium-educated people [ibid 119].

But it can be assumed that the increase in the number of people with higher education implies that this education group will be even more exposed to labour market risks than in the past, and that this group will be severely affected by processes of internal differentiation in terms of the access to employment, conditions of work and quality of life.

The impact of the financial and economic crisis in the most affected EU-member states such as Greece, Ireland, Portugal and Spain demonstrated that higher educated people are more likely to remain in the labour market, but that they are also more vulnerable to labour market risks. In these countries, the unemployment rate for this cohort has significantly increased between 2000 to 2012, but is still lower then in other educational groups: Greece from 8,3% to 19,4%; Spain from 10,0% to 15,0%; Portugal from 2,9 to 11,8 and Ireland from 1,6 to 7.1%. In other EU-countries, the unemployment rate has also increased in this period; for instance: Hungary from 1,3% to 4,2%; Slovenia from 2,6% to 6,3% and Sweden from 2,3% to 4,3%.

National Labour Market Landscapes

The various approaches briefly presented above provide a solid theoretical basis for comparison, although the different models are only ideal-types and can only be used as proxies in evaluating the institutional environment of single countries or country groups. In the comparison we rely on the typology model elaborated by Sapir, where the author makes a distinction between Continental, Nordic, Mediterranean and Anglo-Saxon social models. In doing so we try to overcome one of the greatest drawbacks of both production and employment regime theories, namely that post-socialist European countries have remained out of their scope. We particularly focus on THEMP countries: the Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain and the UK.

The United Kingdom is held to be a good example for the Anglo-Saxon social model (or for the Liberal Market Economy in the Varieties of Capitalism theory (VoC))[57]. In Sapir's typology [Sapir 2005a] Germany is the typical example for the Continental model (as well as for the Coordinated Market Economy in the VoC theory). The Netherlands typifies the Nordic model (still Coordinated Market Economy in the VoC theory), while Spain and Italy belong to the Mediterranean social model (as in the VoC).

Defining the position of the European post-socialist countries is far from being an easy task. At the end of the 1980s most of these countries showed many similarities with the Continental and Nordic social model, but the collapse of the state-socialist political and economic regimes brought radical changes. After the changes, both in the Czech Republic and Hungary, neo-

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[57] For the Varieties of Capitalism theory see Hall & Soskice [2001].

liberal reforms have been introduced, although in a different way in the two countries[58]. These reforms were based, among others, on the liberalisation of the labour market, mass privatization and the increasing role of FDI. This resulted in a radical decline of GDP thus provoking a labour market crisis (e.g. a dramatic increase of unemployment level). Radical employment decline took place in both countries but while in Hungary employment stagnated to a very low level, the Czech Republic there shown a significant improvement.

In an interview given by Andre Sapir to the Hungarian economic weekly HVG [Sapir 2005b], he evaluated the Czech Republic as a country that belongs to the Nordic model, while Hungary was typical of the Continental one. Owing to the recent changes in the Hungarian Labour Code made in 2012, the country is now moving towards a combination of the Liberal and Mediterranean model [Lima & Sanz & Weltz 2013].

In the following pages we will describe the specific labour market situation in the seven countries taking as reference this classification model, and examining more closely how these countries fit into this theory. We will focus on similarities and differences between the target countries in terms of the key institutional factors that shape the practice of TLL. The analysis includes three different fields: firstly we will describe the labour market situation of the middle-aged, then the relevant aspects of the skill formation systems, and finally the factors that influence labour market demands for mid-life learners.

Labour market

In order to obtain a detailed picture of the institutional environment of the TLL policies and practices of the countries representing the various social models, in this session we try to describe very briefly the labour market position of those in mid-life. We will draw attention to labour market participation by the investigated age group as well as to the stability or instability of their employment conditions.

Employment is at the heart of the modern welfare state. It is a means of fostering both social integration and economic growth, since it contributes to social cohesion and the integration of potentially marginalised social groups, for example disabled people, ethnic minorities, elderly people, etc. According to Sapir's theory Nordic and Anglo-Saxon countries are predicted to have high employment rates, while Continental and Mediterranean countries tend to lag behind in this respect.

In general it can be stated that the employment rate is the highest in the Netherlands, followed by Germany and the UK. Italy, Spain and Hungary are in a relatively weak position and the Czech Republic is just a little behind the leaders. These data support our expectations concerning the employment characteristics of the different social models. For our purpose it is worth, however, necessary to narrow the focus on those in mid-life. If we do so, the picture becomes somewhat more complex. In case of the age group of 40-64 the employment position is better than the national average or is around it. There are, however, particular differences

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[58] In Hungary very radical reforms took place, while in case of the Czech Republic they have been introduced in a more consolidated way.

between the THEMP countries in case of the age group of 55-64. It is a general tendency that the employment rate of this age group is significantly lower than the national average, but especially in those countries, where early retirement is dominant, the employment rate of this group is very low. Summing up the employment situation, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK can be characterised as countries with high employment rates both in general and in particular in case of the people in middle-ages, which is accompanied by a relatively late exit from labour market. Hungary, Italy and Spain share in low general employment level, but in the case of Spain, the employment rate of the 55-64 year olds is relatively higher than in the other countries that can partly be traced back to the higher exit age.

Table 11 Labour market participation, 2010							
	Employment rate			Average exit age	Employment rate with tertiary education		
	15-64 years	40-64 year	55-64 years		15-64 years	40-64 years	55-64 years
CZ	65,1	70,1	46,5	60,5	81,0	87,2	71,1
DE	71,1	74,7	57,7	62,2	86,7	86,1	73,2
HU	55,4	57,9	34,4	59,3	77,8	77,0	53,9
I	56,9	60,2	36,6	60,1	76,4	83,0	66,6
NL	74,7	72,7	53,7	63,5	86,6	83,6	68,1
ES	58,6	60,9	43,6	62,3	77,5	79,9	64,4
UK	69,5	72,3	57,1	63,0	84,0	82,3	66,1
Source: Eurostat – LFS-series							

If we have a look at the labour market position of those with a tertiary education degree, we can observe that their employment rate is above average in each THEMP-country, but the two post-socialist countries and the two Mediterranean ones are in an even more favourable position. In other words, in these countries inequalities in labour market participation between social groups with a different educational background are higher than in Germany, the Netherlands and the UK, especially for those under 25.

A more detailed picture of the social situation of people in mid-life can be obtained by examining their income. The differences in net income distribution are quite large *between* the THEMP countries, but not between the different age groups within each separate country. Another means of capturing income differences is to include risk of poverty into the analysis. In each country there is a general tendency of diminishing poverty risk in line with the increase of educational background. The extent of these differences varies, however, between the countries. A statistic which shows income inequality between the differently educated social groups will indirectly indicate the degree, or lack, of social cohesion. The largest differences can be found in the post-socialist countries, especially between people with a basic level of education and those with tertiary education. The most "egalitarian" country is the Netherlands, representing the Nordic social model.

	Median equalised net income in €		Risk of Poverty or social exclusion from 50-64		
Table 12 **Income inequalities, 2010**					
	18-64 years	50-64 years	Pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education	Upper secondary and post secondary non-tertiary education	First and second stage of tertiary education
CZ	10.365	10.429	34,8	13,5	4,6
DE	18.858	19.121	42,7	25,6	14,2
HU	6.899	7.271	47,3	27,7	12,3
I	16.290	17.736	29,9	14,3	8,3
NL	19.922	20.855	19,1	15,4	10,6
ES	14.203	14.384	30,9	21,4	12,6
UK	18.832	19.410	31,5	19,2	13,7
Source: Eurostat – Social statistics					

Flexible employment strategies, like part-time jobs, are tools for expanding and/or stabilizing employment. There are remarkable differences between the THEMP countries in terms of the prevalence of part-time jobs among those in middle-age. The rate of part-timers is the highest in the Netherlands, followed by the UK and Germany. The rate is relatively low in the two Mediterranean, and very low in the two post-socialist countries. This statistic demonstrates another aspect of employment: its temporary stability, which is captured here with the proportion of temporary employment contracts. On the other hand, temporary employment may also be interpreted as a tool that contributes to a more dynamic labour market, especially if it is supported by other active employment strategies, for example as part of a continuous training system.

With reference to employment conditions, the recent European Jobs Monitor prepared by Eurofound provides a general overview of changes in job quality in EU-countries affected by the current economic recession. [Eurofound 2013] The Eurofound researchers created a non-pecuniary job quality index (NPI) which is based on the fifth wave of the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and contains variables that measure different dimensions of intrinsic job quality, employment quality, workplace risks and working time and work-life balance. The figure below illustrates the employment changes in the NPI quintiles by countries.

Figure 10

Average annual change in employment according to non-pecuniary job quality quintiles, by country, 1995–2010 (thousands)

The white bars represent structural employment change during the expansion (1998–2007), except for 1996–2007 in the Netherlands and Slovenia; 1997–2007 in Estonia, Finland, Hungary and Sweden; 1998–2007 in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia; 1999–2007 in Cyprus. The blue bars represent structural employment change during the subsequent recession (2008–2010).

Source: Eurofound 2013: 59

It is not an easy task to present a coherent interpretation of the data, but it is clear that the crisis hit different countries in different ways. Between 1995 and 2007 there was an upgrading process in the Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Spain and the UK, e.g. a considerable increase in better quality jobs. In the Netherlands, employment growth was more general across the board, affecting each quintile. During the crisis, only Germany could maintain its position in this respect. In Spain there was a decreasing incidence of employment between 2008 and 2010 but it affected mainly the lower end of the job quality scale. In Italy the greatest job loss was registered in the highest job quality segment, while all the other countries show a diverse pattern.

Using stability of jobs as another aspect of employment quality, Spain shows the highest percentage of temporary jobs within the total working population, followed by the Netherlands, UK, Germany and Italy. The lowest rate is to be found in the Czech Republic and Hungary. The position of the employees in mid-life is somewhat different. The prevalence of temporary contracts among those employees in mid-life is significantly lower than among the total working force in all countries, but it nevertheless follows the general pattern.

The fourth indicator is the proportion of training expenditures within all labour market policy interventions (LMP). This reflects the improvement in the employability of labour. Somewhat surprisingly, the highest proportion of training expenditures within LMP is in Germany and Italy. In order to be able to interpret these data, we will amend it with the training expenditures of firms in the table.

	Table 13 Employment conditions, 2010			
	Part-time employment of 40-64	Temporary employment of the group between 15-64 in percentage of total employment	Temporary employment of the group between 40-64 in percentage of same age group	Expenditure on training in percentage of total LMP intervention
CZ	5,1	8,2	5,2	6,0
DE	27,5	14,7	5,7	13,4
HU	5,8	9,6	6,9	6,0
I	13,4	12,8	7,4	9,8
NL	45,7	18,3	8,2	4,4
ES	11,2	25,0	16,3	4,5
UK	26,0	6,0	3,9	2,5
Source: Eurostat – LFS series, own calculations				

Skill formation system: visible variations in patterns of skill demand and supply

A skill formation system plays a crucial role in both production and employment regime theories, since it provides skilled labour as a necessary element of production. Further, as distribution channel of social inequalities, skill formation plays a key role in social integration and cohesion. According to OECD statistics [OECD 2011] there are remarkable differences between the investigated countries in terms of the participation rates of different age cohorts in formal adult education. The highest participation rates are observable in the UK, the Netherlands and Spain, while Hungary shows much weaker levels of participation. The Czech Republic, Germany and Italy are somewhere in between.

Participation rates in tertiary education and training courses for those in mid-life provide us with a picture of the number and ratio of higher education (HE) institutions catering for such students. Here, the situation is somewhat different than it is for participation in education and training in general. HE institutions in the UK and in the Netherlands seem to be very active in offering training provision for the over 45 age group. Hungary and Spain are also in a relatively good position, while Germany lags far behind.

On the other hand, EUROSTAT statistics on adult education in the seven EU member states for the years 2005 and 2010 show a very uneven participation in these countries. The United Kingdom and the Netherlands have the highest participation rate of the seven countries, and this is also considerably higher than the EU-27 average. Spain has a participation rate a little higher
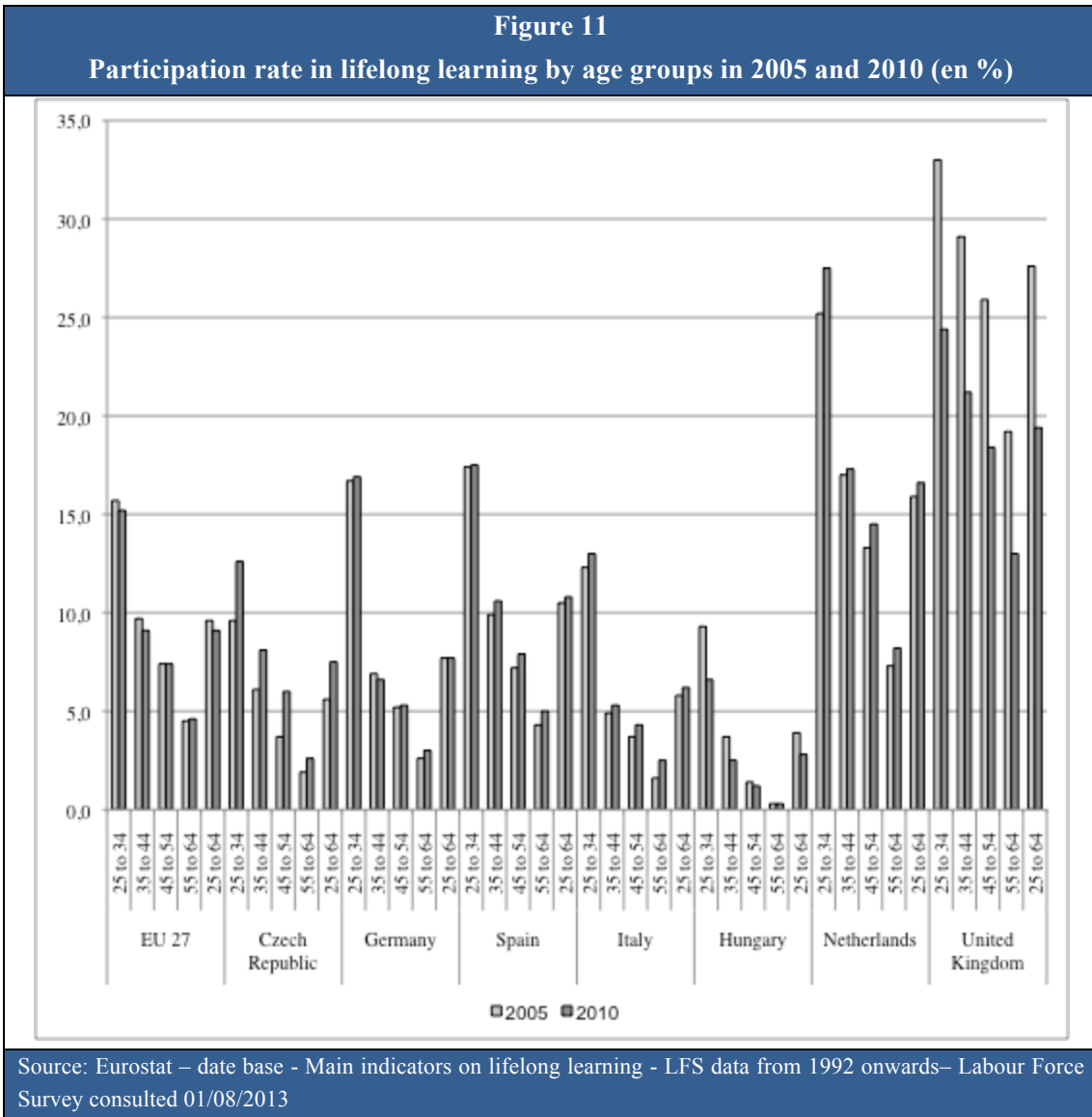
than the EU-average and all the other four countries are also above this average in regard to the population between 25 and 64 years. Hungary has, with 2,8% of the age group between 24 and 64 years, the very lowest participation rate

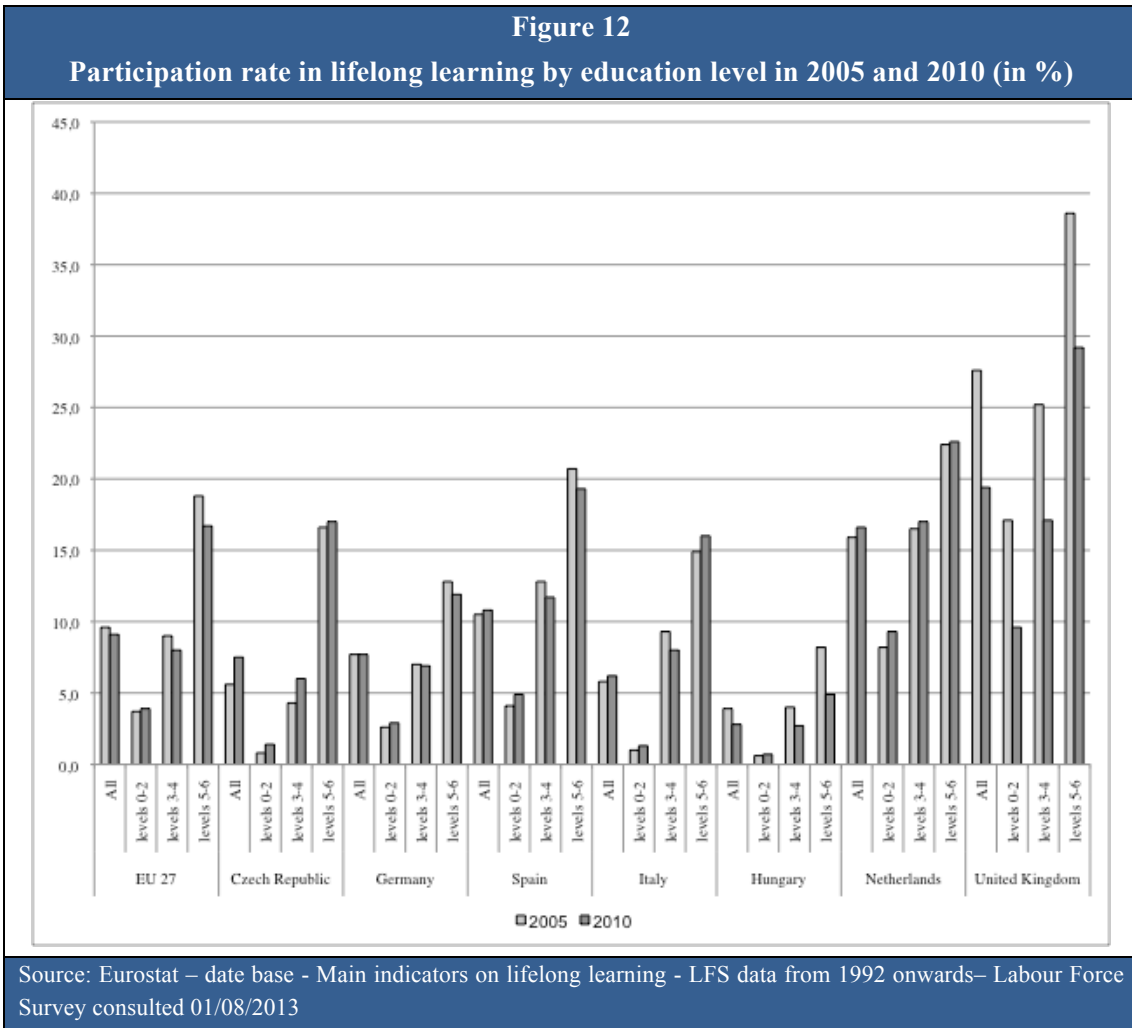|	Participation rate in education and training of			Participation rate in Higher Education in Percentage of all HE-participants of		Proportion of 45-54 year olds with tertiary education (ISCED 5/6)
Table 14						
Higher Education participation rates, 2010						
	35-44	45-54	55-64	35-39 year olds	40 year olds or over	
CZ	8,1	6,0	2,6	4,2	4,6	16,0
DE	6,6	5,3	3,0	3,2	2,7	26,0
HU	2,5	1,2	0,3	5,0	5,1	18,0
I	5,3	4,3	2,5	7,4	Nd	12,0
NL	17,2	14,4	8,2	2,4	4,7	31,0
ES	10,6	7,9	5,0	5,4	5,8	25,0
UK	21,2	18,4	13,0	6,7	5,7	31,0
Source: OECD [2011], Eurostat – Education statistics						

Between 2005 and 2010, the EU-average participation rate of the population between 25 and 64 years in lifelong learning decreased from 9,6 to 9,1 a figure also reflected in Hungary and the United Kingdom. In all other analysed countries, this rate has increased with the exception of Germany, which showed the same rate in 2010 as in 2005. It is also noteworthy that the participation rate in all countries decreased with age, meaning that it is always higher in the age group of the population between 25 and 34 years when compared to the older age groups.

The second figure records the lifelong learning participation rate of those people with a higher education level using the ISCED classification. We note that in all countries the participation rate increased according to education level. In other words, in all countries, this rate is the highest for people with an ISCED 5-6 education level. Nevertheless, in Germany, Spain, Hungary and the United Kingdom the LLL-participation rate of the highest qualified people shows a decrease.

Figure 11

Participation rate in lifelong learning by age groups in 2005 and 2010 (en %)

Source: Eurostat – date base - Main indicators on lifelong learning - LFS data from 1992 onwards– Labour Force Survey consulted 01/08/2013

There are very convincing arguments in the literature [Finegold & Wagner 1999] that restricting the investigation of skill development to the formal training providing institutions provides a misleading picture about the issue. Globalisation and accelerated changes in both technical and organisational environment have both increased a highly competitive international economy where continuing skill development, mainly provided by the firms, is of crucial importance. Related to our research topic, continuing training and skill renewal may diminish the risk of labour market marginalisation of the people in mid-life.

Figure 12

Participation rate in lifelong learning by education level in 2005 and 2010 (in %)

Source: Eurostat – date base - Main indicators on lifelong learning - LFS data from 1992 onwards– Labour Force Survey consulted 01/08/2013

The following table provides a brief overview of the training activities of companies in the THEMP countries. The table is based on two different sources; therefore it should be handled with considerable care. By scrutinising the proportion of companies providing Continuing Vocational Training (CVT) to their employees, the following broad pattern emerges. The UK, the Netherlands, Germany and the Czech Republic have relatively high level of CVT. Spain and Hungary are around the European average and Italy lags far behind. In the interpretation of these data, however, it should be noted that differences in the various initial training systems seriously influence company training practice.

A more detailed study of company CVT participation rates shows an interesting pattern. In the UK the proportion of CVT participants equals the European average (33%), albeit that 90% of the companies provide CVT courses. This indicates a high polarisation of access to CVT opportunities, e.g. company training possibilities are restricted to a limited number of employees. Spain and especially Italy represent a reverse pattern; the rate of CVT providing companies is relatively low (60%) but the share of participants is also around the average. In other words, a relatively small number of companies provide CVT opportunities with a relatively high participation rate. In the two post-socialist countries, the Czech Republic boasts a

high proportion of training provider companies accompanied by high participation rates. In the case of Hungary both indicators are far below the average.

The European Working Condition Survey illustrates the spending of companies on the training activities of their employees. On average, 27.9% of European companies contributed financially to the training of their employees. In the UK and the Netherlands this ratio was significantly higher, while in Spain, Italy and Hungary the reverse is true.

	Rate of CVT providing companies	Participation in CVT in % of all employees	Participation in IVT in % of all employees	Rate of companies paid training for their employees (both internal and external courses)
Table 15 **Company trainings, 2010**				
CZ	72,0	59,0	3,0	22,1
DE	69,0	30,0	55,0	23,4
HU	49,0	16,0	6,0	15,4
I	32,0	29,0	40,0	16,1
NL	75,0	34,0	41,0	31,4
ES	47,0	33,0	14,0	17,0
UK	90,0	33,0	51,0	37,7
Source: Eurostat – CVTS, EWCS				

Tertiary life-long learning activities of people in mid-life are determined by the knowledge and skills demands of firms. Identifying the demand side of the labour market in its complexity is far beyond our purpose and possibility, but we suggest using some proxy indicators that can help us to capture the changing skill needs of the companies in the THEMP countries. In doing so, we will rely on the results of a French-Hungarian research team [Valeyre *et al*. 2009]. This international research was based on the secondary analysis of the data stemming from the various waves of European Working Condition Survey (EWCS). The EWCS is an employee-oriented survey that aims to collect systematic information on work and working life (e.g. physical and psycho-social working conditions, wages, training issues, work organisation, working time, health and safety issues, etc.) at European level. In analysing the 5th EWCS results, 15 binary variables were used to capture the following dimensions of the labour process: cognitive dimensions of work (learning and problems solving capabilities), autonomy in work, the constraints determining the pace and rate of work, the complexity of work tasks and the role of quality in work.

As result of multi-variable statistical analysis four work organisation clusters (models) were identified. The *learning organisations* can be characterised by increased autonomy at work, task complexity, intensive learning and problem solving capability and individual responsibility for the quality of work. The *lean organisation* can be described by taking into account the important role of team work and job rotation, quality issues and the restricted autonomy of employees. This work organisation model also promotes learning possibilities and relies on

employees' contribution to problem solving. The *taylorist* work organisations represent a model with low task complexity and autonomy, and minimal learning possibilities. The fourth model is the *traditional* work organisation where labour processes are organised in an informal and non-codified way.

	Table 16 Work organisation patterns, 2010				
	Work organisation models		Cognitive factors in labour process (in % of all employees)		
	Work organisation with high learning capability (learning and lean)	Work organisation with low learning capability (taylorist and traditional)	Learning new things in work	Problem solving skills in work	Self-assessment of quality
CZ	54,7	45,4	63,0	75,3	68,1
DE	64,2	35,8	63,7	75,9	63,9
HU	56,5	43,5	56,3	79,4	47,2
I	48,7	51,3	66,2	75,3	69,9
NL	75,9	24,1	83,2	93,9	74,3
ES	45,2	54,8	58,8	79,4	63,5
UK	64,1	35,9	68,3	77,3	72,3
EU-27	*64,1*	*35,9*	*70,3*	*80,0*	*71,8*
Source: Valeyre et al 2009:29, Eurostat - EWCS					

The first two models ('learning' and 'lean') display strong learning dynamics, albeit to a different extent and in a different way. On the other hand, the latter two ('taylorist' and 'traditional') are characterised by low learning and problem solving capability. The frequency of the different work organisation models indirectly mirrors the companies´ knowledge-use patterns within the various national economies. The number of organisational models with high learning capability is above average in the Netherlands, while in the UK and Germany this proportion is around the European average. Hungary and the Czech Republic are both lagging behind the average by around 10%, whilst Italy and Spain exhibit the lowest rates.

We have also examined the incidence of several cognitive factors in the labour processes: these are learning possibilities, problem solving capabilities and the role of self-assessment in quality issues. Apropos the first variable, the Netherlands displays the most favourable position, followed by the UK, Italy, Germany and the Czech Republic. Hungary and Spain offer few opportunities for workplace learning. Under problem solving activities, the Netherlands again outperform the other THEMP countries by demonstrating a near-average pattern. The incidence of self-assessment in quality control is very low in Hungary, low in Germany and Spain and is close to the average in the rest of the examined countries.

Mapping the institutional context[59]

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[59] This chapter is heavily based on: Makó *et al.* [2013] and Krüger *et al.* [2013].

EU-Policies on University Adult Education

EU-policies on education and training, and more specifically on higher education, have been influenced by the Lisbon Strategy in the last decade. Here education and lifelong learning are seen as fundamental for the socio-economic development of the EU and for converting it into the most competitive knowledge economy[60]. The European Council advocated a modernisation of the so-called European Model through the adaptation of national welfare regimes to fit the requirements of a globalised knowledge society. Within this new model, education and more especially higher education played an important role. It was considered to be a key factor in the economic development of the EU as a provider of high value human capital, contributing to an increase in innovation capacity and social cohesion.

The Lisbon strategy considered that education and training systems must be adapted to the requirements of the knowledge society in order to increase their contribution to improved employment opportunities both quantitatively and qualitatively[61]. To achieve this aim, four priorities were designed for education and training:

a) Improving employability and reducing skills gaps;
b) Giving higher priority to lifelong learning;
c) Increasing employment in services, including personal services; and
d) Furthering equal opportunity in every aspect.

The first objective of education and training is oriented to improve the employability of people, to gain the competences to be active in the labour market rather than the full development of personal potential and the facility to address issues of social justice, empowerment and active citizenship. Improving employability, it is suggested, increases the capacity of people to work for themselves and for the whole of society. Moreover in this context and within this objective, education and training – not only initial education and training but also continuous learning – becomes even more important.[62]

The reference point of the new European Social Model, following the principles of activation, is the labour market. It is oriented to facilitate the entry, re-entry and maintenance of people in employment. The strategy is based on an interrelated triangle of economic, educational and social politics. The objective of the education system within this framework is to promote employability (through lifelong learning and the internationalisation of qualifications), proposing that the creation of employment is the best strategy to achieve social inclusion and equal opportunity. This implies a closer connection between the education system and the economy, and a stronger orientation of educational policies to the goals of equipping people to

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[60] "*… the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion*" [European Presidency 2000].

[61] They "*need to adapt both to the demands of the knowledge society and to the need for an improved level and quality of employment*" [European Council 2002].

[62] However, as noted in the introduction and discuss in the next chapter, this view is contested and it is conversely suggested that the model where more learning = more earning is no longer (if it ever was) viable.

enter, and remain active in, the labour market so that they can assume and exploit their social opportunities. The Lisbon Strategy advocated a more flexible labour market and higher mobility of European citizens, promoting at the same time better and more highly qualified jobs.[63] Ten years later the new strategy 'Europe 2020' has again stressed that highly skilled human capital, together with well-functioning innovative systems, are key factors for the future socio-economic development of the EU.

The Lisbon strategy has given rise to several strategic documents on education and training between 2000 and 2010. For instance, the Report of the European Commission "The concrete future objectives of education and training systems" [2001] identified societal challenges as (i) changes in working life; (ii) demographic changes and migration; and (iii) the achievement of equal opportunities and social inclusion. And it proposed three strategic objectives for that period:

- Increasing the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in the EU;
- Facilitating the access of all to education and training systems;
- Opening up education and training systems to the wider world.

Subsequent Council declarations from Stockholm and Barcelona, and particularly the document "*Education and Training 2010*" [2004], updated the implementation of European Education and Training strategies. "*Education and Training 2010*" linked education and training to competitiveness, sustainable growth, and employment as essential preconditions for the achievement of general social, environmental and cultural goals. The document [2004: 4] promoted synergy and complementarity between policies on education, employment, research and innovation and macroeconomics. The transformation of the EU into a knowledge-based economy depends on an efficient and effective investment in human resources.

Fundamental reforms of the education and training systems would necessary in order to achieve these goals. New demands were placed on education and training systems because of the priority of promoting 'employability' and 'mobility' as a requisite for a true European labour market. Further, this would require stronger cooperation between education and training systems and employers [European Council *2004: 8*]. At the same time; it was stressed that education and training should provide a significant response to the new needs generated by the knowledge based society "*in terms of social cohesion, active citizenship and personal fulfilment*" [ibid: 8].

In 2006, the importance of adult learning to the lifelong learning agenda was underlined in the Communication of the Commission [European Commission 2006], "*Adult Learning: It is never too late to learn*" and its associated Action Plan [2007], which encouraged Member States to increase and consolidate learning opportunities for adults, and to make learning accessible to all. It identified five types of action to enable Member Stares to address these challenges, and the form that these actions might take:

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[63] The more flexible labour market is the result of the transformation of the global economic structure as well as of the political decision to deregulate the economic structure and the labour market. Such neo-liberal deregulation has been previously noted.

- Set up more equitable adult learning programmes and increasing the participation of adults through increased targeted public investment, including wider dissemination of information on opportunities and better use of the potential of existing educational institutions;
- Ensure the quality of adult learning programmes with an emphasis on teaching methods, quality of staff, quality of providers and quality of delivery;
- Develop systems for the recognition and validation of learning outcomes based on common principles which enable learning to be measured and valued;
- Invest in education and training for older people and migrants, two categories with enormous potential, yet who often face disadvantage in the labour market; and;
- Promote research and analysis in relation to adult learning activities, and note the important role that indicators which monitor and evaluate adult learning activities can play.

In 2008; the European Council's conclusion [2008] recognised that adult learning could play a key role "*in meeting the goals of the Lisbon Strategy by fostering social cohesion, providing citizens with the skills required to find new jobs and helping Europe to better respond to the challenges of globalisation*" [ibid C 140/11]. But the document did not mentioned tertiary adult education, since it focused on low-skilled workers, early school leavers, older workers and immigrants as target groups.

At the end of the first decade of the century, the Lisbon strategy was revised and a new ten-year strategy called Europe 2020 was developed. Within this new master plan, highly skilled human capital, together with well-functioning innovation systems, are declared to be key factors for the future socio-economic development of the EU. Also, the ET 2010 strategy was revised to link it to the new Europe 2020 learning strategy. The fruit of this effort was a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training [European Council 2009]. This established as primary goals:

a) The personal, social and professional fulfilment of all citizens;
b) Sustainable, economic prosperity and employability, together with democratic values, social cohesion, active citizenship and intercultural dialogue.

To fulfil these goals, four strategic objectives for the next 10 years are defined:

a) Making lifelong learning and mobility a reality. The promotion of adult learning was included as a specific target, as well as the confirmation of some objectives of the ET 2010 and the further development of such strategies as the European Qualification Framework, the permeability between different education and training sectors, better recognition of non-formal and informal learning, better transparency and recognition of learning outcomes.

b) <u>Improving the quality and efficiency</u> of education and training, promoting the importance of high quality, efficient and equitable education and training systems..[64]

c) <u>Promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship</u> so that all citizens have, at all their life stages, the opportunity to acquire new knowledge, skills and competences which guarantee their employability, active citizenship and facility for intercultural dialogue

d) <u>Enhancing creativity and innovation</u>, including entrepreneurship, at all levels of education and training as a strategic goal, since they are crucial to enterprise development and to Europe's ability to compete internationally. The establishment of a fully functioning knowledge triangle of education-research-innovation creating broader learning communities is given special relevance.

Within this general education and training framework, the Commission staff [European Commission 2011b] produced in 2011 a working paper "Action Plan on Adult Learning: Achievements and results 2008-2010" outlining progress in adult education, and noting the range of activities which had taken place to influence positively its development in Europe.[65] The same document noted that one of the main obstacles to the modernisation of higher education systems, was funding, despite this being designated as high priority by the Commission. Accordingly, progress to increase participation in higher education, create flexible pathways and recognise prior learning, as outlined in the Bologna process, was slow.[66]

A Council resolution on a renewed European agenda for adult learning [2011], called higher education institutions to take a stronger involvement in adult education. It considered that the flexibilisation of learning pathways and the offering of diversified adult learning opportunities would present a solution to the challenge of widening access for less traditional learners, especially adults, to higher education,[67] and as one of a series of sub-priorities. [68]

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[64] "*High quality will only be achieved through efficient and sustainable use of resources ... and through the promotion of evidence-based policy and practice in education and training.*" [*Ibid* C 119/4].

[65] In relation to general progress it notes: "*Consensus building, policy learning and exchange of good practices have been the Action Plan's main contribution to adult learning in Europe so far. Hence it provides a useful reference for the definition of national strategies. Depending on national situations, it has been used so far: to compare national policy, to make strong arguments to politicians; to provide inspiration and good models of practice to policy makers; to set national goals; to influence specific policy and practice developments; to develop a national plan on adult education and to develop national legislation or lifelong learning strategy and systems*" [*Ibid*. p5].

[66] "*National reforms taking these priorities into account are moving slowly but steadily, and alternative routes, for example though validation, open university, and new pedagogical methods including e-platforms, are gradually opening up to adults*" [*Ibid*. p.21].

[67] It considered as one of the 13 challenges "*encourage higher education institutions to embrace less traditional groups of learners, such as adult learners*" [*Ibid* C 372/4].

[68] In the first of 5 Priority areas for 2012-2014, a broader access to higher education is again mentioned as one of the 21 sub-priorities: "*promoting flexible learning pathways for adults, including broader access to higher education for those lacking mainstream access qualifications and diversifying the spectrum of adult learning-opportunities offered by higher education institutions* " [*Ibid* C 372/5].

In 2012, the Council [2012] invited member states to make efforts - as the contribution of education and training to economic recovery, growth and jobs – to increase the permeability between VET and higher education systems, to make learning methods more flexible and to develop higher education with a stronger orientation towards professionalisation and vocationalisation as complementary to traditional university education.[69]

In parallel, and supporting these policy recommendations, a whole series of new Commission documents ensued. The CEDEFOP report "*Validation in Higher Education*" [Duchemin, C. & Hawley 2011] referenced the validation of prior learning as a key aspect for opening up access to higher education.[70] Although evidence of take-up at national level is limited and greater efforts are required to collect and collate data there are benefits for individuals. It can for example enhance equality of opportunity, entail lower costs than the pursuit of a formal training course to access HE, reduce time taken for degree acquisition, help to develop flexible pathways, improve employment prospects and facilitate personal development and empowerment. The benefits for institutions are seen to be an increase in diversity in the student population, the creation of links with employers and/or professional bodies and the opportunity for institutions to reflect upon, and improve, current practice. In reviewing the challenges still to be overcome, a number of specific points are made in relation to the HE sector [ibid]. These include: issues of institutional autonomy and heterogeneity in validation procedures, cultural dissonance between HEI staff and the validation of non-formal and informal learning, greater involvement of the sector at national and European levels and the provision of guidance and information.

On the other hand, the report "*Impact of ongoing reforms in education and training on the adult learning sector*" [Research voor Beleid 2010] distinguishes three types of barrier to widening adult participation in lifelong learning:

a) "*The* <u>*institutional barriers*</u> *include among others the following: lack of transparency of the sector, lack of a learning culture, strong identification of adult learning with vocational education and training and formal education (which could neglect non-vocational learning as being valuable), decrease of the number of providers, the structure of the labour market, etc. Institutional barriers concern all practices and procedures that discourage adults from participation.*

b) <u>*Situational barriers*</u> *include the inability to pay course fees, lack of time due to family responsibilities and/or employment, lack of public transport, inconvenience of locations of available courses, etc..*

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[69] - "*Promote flexible pathways between VET and higher education in the context of national qualifications frame works.*

- *Widen participation in higher education and VET, for instance by targeting measures towards under-represented groups, by introducing flexible learning modes and by developing, where not yet in place, professionally or vocationally oriented higher education as complementary to university education*" [*Ibid* C 393/02].

[70] "*The introduction of validation procedures at HE level is meant to increase the participation of adults … in line with the wider policy goal of upskilling the adult population. In many countries, HEIs have contributed to widening access to mature students by recognising their prior learning and work experience as a valid entry route, as this category of applicants might not always fulfil regular admission requirements such as formal qualifications*" [*Ibid* 4].

c) <u>*Dispositional barriers*</u> *include bad experiences of previous education, a lack of confidence in individual capabilities, feelings that one is too old to learn, a sense that learning is good but not for "our kind of people", lack of awareness of positive returns to learning, etc"* [*Ibid:* 35].

The same study observed substantial differences between the EU-countries, noting that the majority of post-communist countries (BG, HR, **CZ**, **HU**, LV, LT, PL, RO and SK) together with the Mediterranean countries except France and Portugal have erected severe barriers to widening adult participation in higher education.

Some older EU-member countries (BE, EE, FR, **DE**, and **NL**); and some later member countries (AT, IE, PT, and **UK**); and two transitional EU-member states (EE and SI) *"face medium barriers ... these are barriers that can be overcome by targeted programmes"* [*Ibid*: 40]. Only Scandinavian EU-member states and Luxembourg have minor barriers to overcome for improving the extent of adult participation in lifelong learning [see *Ibid*: 40].

The Budapest conference of the EU [European Commission 2011d] noted that barriers can be removed by improving information advice and guidance, enhancing the validation of non-formal and informal learning in HE, and developing demand-driven financial mechanisms (individual learning accounts, tax measures and publicly awarded or publicly guaranteed loans). All of these were important in the overall context of support and enhance the probability that these learners will persist and progress [see also Houston, 2006].

The Conference workshop on Opening Higher Education to Adults reiterated that globalisation and technological change and their concomitant impact on HEIs present challenges [see also CEDEFOP 2010c]. Delegates regretted the dearth of robust data in this field [see also Rauhvargers *et al*. 2009], and the lack of a definition of the characteristics of adult learners [see also Souto-Otero 2010]. A SWOT analysis was performed, one result suggesting the existence of strengths and a sound basis on which to advance adult participation in HE. Some countries have newly enrolled a considerable proportion of adults. The motivation of adults to study again varies from improving self-confidence to the improvement of employability[71].

The background documents referred to several studies on the positive impact of longer schooling, although this may be dependent upon national context. But *"the returns to those entering HE late (age 21 or older) where found to be around 7% lower than for those who undertook HE courses earlier, but still significant for males. For females late start did not seem to affect economic returns"* [European Commission 2011d: 40]. In addition, people with higher education have a higher presence in lifelong learning.

There are also weaknesses. For instance, it seems unclear whether present levels and future projections are at a satisfactory level. At an institutional level, adults are often seen as 'second-

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[71] *"Adults are already a sizeable proportion of new entrants into HE in some countries, and those can serve as examples of good practice. There seem to be a range of reasons to further stimulate adults to achieve "one step up", for instance, adults gain much from their participation in HE – from self-confidence to employability improvements"* [European Commission 2011d: 40].

best', especially when they participate within elite or prestigious institutions and programmes. But probably the most relevant indication is the belief that

> *"ten years of rhetoric about lifelong learning strategies have not produced a strong impact on adult education and adult participation in HE ... This mismatch between rhetoric and practice may cause stakeholder fatigue regarding this topic"* [European Commission 2011: 41].

On the other hand, opportunities have been identified. The OECD [2010] reports that though the demographic picture is complex, age imbalance is often cited as a positive impetus for increased participation in HE. Further

> *"... there are opportunities for HEIs to make the HE offer more flexible, increase use of modular offers, validation of non-formal and informal learning for admissions and granting exemptions, further work on guidance and counselling, deeper cooperation with industry, and a change in the view HEIs have of their role, to more fully incorporate adults as "core clients"* [European Commission 2011: 42].

From our project perspective, this precis of official documents and other supporting documents on adult learning in higher education institutions provokes the impression that a clear distinction between different types of tertiary adult learning is not being made, and that the policies proposed regard the official certifications at bachelor, master and doctorate level and their official curricula as their major concern. Without denying the relevance of such certificates for adult learners, it is arguable whether obtaining such certificates is really their main interest. The fact that "*many skilled – upper-secondary and tertiary graduates – leave the education system unprepared for the labour market*" [Scarpetta & Sonnet 2012:8] should provide a stimulus for new thinking.

A second reaction is that an orientation towards employability - measured in access to jobs - ignores the impact of education, training and learning on the quality of work. Employability and improving employability is for the individual only the first step to achieve better well-being. Both access to work and the quality of work is present in the concept of employability as well as the interrelation of individual and societal responsibility. But education policies are often only oriented towards persuading individuals to improve their knowledge, competences and skills without taking into account the demand side [see McQuaid & Lindsay 2005 also Lindsay & Serrano 2009].

The third impression is that these barriers for changes are not sufficiently researched, and that, thus, the strategies do not sufficiently consider the obstacles to progress in the desired direction.

National context

The core aim of this sub-chapter is providing a comparative analysis of the institutional environment of TLL in the countries under scrutiny in this project, focusing on both differences and similarities. As we have referred earlier, there is a global tendency that pressures the various nations in the direction of institutional convergence, but there are still remarkable institutional differences between countries or country groups. The basic purpose of this contribution is to investigate the converging and diverging institutional factors that influence TLL activities in the different countries, with special emphasis on those oriented to learners in mid-life. After having analysed the similarities and differences in the structural labour market, it behoves us to provide a brief overview on their TLL policies and practices as well. This chapter is devoted to that purpose.

Czech Republic: increasing participation rate and growing role of Higher Education[72]

Institutional environment:

In the Czech Republic several organisations are providing further training: including schools, universities, employers, public administration and self-governing bodies and their educational institutions, non-governmental non-profit organisations, and professional and commercial organisations.

Universities provide tertiary lifelong learning opportunities, mainly in the form of accredited bachelor, master and doctoral programmes. The number of such programmes is increasing, especially in private universities. Three distance learning university programmes are accredited and supported now by the National Network of Distance Education. It comprises the National Centre for Distance Learning at the Centre for Higher Education Studies in Prague and many centres at 24 other higher education institutions.

The Education Act, which is valid from 1 January 2005, declares a need to take lifelong learning into account and this importantly influences adult education. The act emphasizes the role of follow-up studies (nástavbové studium), e.g. people who have professional experiences recognised by an apprenticeship certificate (výuční list) can obtain a better qualification by taking a school-leaving examination (maturitní zkouška) at the ISCED 4A level. In this way it is possible to recognise prior learning and professional experience that provide the opportunity to acquire a certain level of education without studying at secondary and tertiary professional school.

Another act which regulates the adult education is the Act on Verification and Recognition of Further Education Outcomes (No. 179/2006). It came into force in May 2006, but was implemented in full in August 2007. It opened up new opportunities for adult learners to obtain

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[72] This part is heavily based Navreme Boheme [2012].

certification for a qualification without formal education. It paves the way for the National Qualifications Framework, which is a publicly accessible register of full and partial qualifications and their standards for qualification and evaluation. This law also provides rules for awarding and withdrawing authorisation for the verification of further education outcomes, and rules for assessing and acquiring a partial qualification.

Policies and initiatives

The Strategy of Lifelong Learning in the Czech Republic (Strategie celoživotního učení ČR) was implemented in 2007. Among others, the strategy aims at supporting alternative forms of adult education. The programme also facilitates more intensive ICT use in adult learning, and promotes and finances TLL among universities and their academic staff.

The Human Resources Development Strategy in the CR (Strategie rozvoje lidských zdrojů v ČR) was prepared in 2003. The strategy formulated the main challenges for society and education, focusing on the changes in education, the influence of ICT, education in private companies, technological development and research. Another document is the Strategy for Education for Sustainable Development of the Czech Republic for the period 2008 – 2015 (Strategie vzdělávání pro udržitelný rozvoj České republiky).

The Strategy of Lifelong Learning in the Czech Republic (Strategie celoživotního učení ČR) and the Long-term Plan for education and development of the educational system of the CR (Dlouhodobý záměr vzdělávání a rozvoje vzdělávací soustavy ČR) were both written in 2007. One of the strategic goals of these documents is adult education and support for other forms of education than fulltime.

Tertiary lifelong learning is one of the goals of the Ministry of education, youth and sports. The specific goals in the area of tertiary lifelong learning are as follows (viz III. Implementation Plan of the lifelong Learning Strategy 2008):

- To support a development of alternative forms of education (combined and distance study etc.);
- To support ICT to help tertiary lifelong learning (e-learning);
- To support the institutions providing tertiary lifelong learning (the centres for lifelong learning);
- To support academic staff at the universities for the education of adults (to support their education, specific competencies as a tutors);
- To finance the tertiary sector.

According the Adult Education Survey [2007] the number of adults in further formal education is 3,9 % (233,300 students) the share of women is higher than the share of men (3,4 % men and 4.3 % women). The figures tend to reduce for older age cohorts. Most people are in the cohort from the age of 25 to the age of 34 (9,8 %), 3.1 % people are in the cohort from the age of 35 to the age of 49, and 0.6 % in the cohort from the age of 50 to the age of 64. 80,4 % of studying adults were in tertiary education, there is a difference between men (84%) and women (77,6 %).

Adult education at secondary or tertiary professional levels is usually organised in a form other than full-time (day) study (study can take one year longer than in a day form), namely in:

- Evening courses – ranging from 10 to 18 lessons a week in the afternoon or evening;
- Distance study – self-learning supported by consultation in the range of 200-220 consultation hours in a school-year;
- Distance study mostly in the form of e-learning – self-learning mainly via information technologies, supported by individual consultation;
- Combination of study forms – education using full-time and one of the forms of education mentioned above.

A relatively growing level of participation of adults (from 25 to 64 years of age) in lifelong learning is a positive trend in the Czech Republic in comparison with EU-27.

Financial aspects

In the Czech Republic financial support of further education is based on three different sources:

1. Public sources (state or regional budgets);
2. Private sources (companies, individuals, social partners etc.);
3. Sources from EU (ESF – European Social Found).

Further education is provided mainly by large companies (54% of employees are trained), while small- and medium-sized companies provide training to 21% of their employees.

Germany: great variety of actors, marginal role of Higher Education[73]

Institutional environment

In Germany there are around 15 thousand organisations that provide further training: private organisations (commercial or non-profit), community colleges (Volkshochschulen), education institutions run by churches, unions, political foundations, vocational schools and vocational higher schools, and other providers. They are financed by the training participants' or companies' contributions, by state or federal support and by employment agencies as well. Higher Education institutions are also involved in continuing vocational training activities; they run 348 further training centres altogether. They provide various programs with different content, duration, degree and target group. Nevertheless, TLL activities are at the beginning phase in Germany universities, because of the following reasons:

1. low reputation of training activities within the academic community;
2. strong competition by the private training providers;
3. a lack of flexible and transparent programmes tailored to the fast changing demand.

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[73] This part is heavily based Öz & Hamburg [2012].

Higher education institutions, therefore, play only a minor role in the continuous training market, although in recent years the share of distance learning has been increased. In order to ensure mature students' participation in tertiary lifelong learning activities, recognition of their prior learning experiences is a central issue. Although the legislation explicitly allows the recognition of prior experiences, the proportion of adult learners in non-traditional training courses offered by German universities is still very low.

Policies and initiatives

In 2004 the Strategy for Lifelong Learning in the Federal Republic of Germany was formulated with the aim of promoting TLL activities among different age groups in Germany with a special focus on those who have low qualifications. In the strategy, financial incentives were created to support people with low incomes for participating in further education and training. In addition educational counselling and on-site learning activities at the local level were improved.

In order to achieve the strategic goals, several attempts have been made in order to open universities for people with vocational training and experience. Recognising prior learning experiences is the responsibility of the federal states, since there is no unified education system in Germany. The recognition of prior professional experiences is another important issue. Several initiatives were introduced in order to achieve this goal (ProfilPASS, ANKOM) but at the federal level, the regulation of education has led to restricted results.

Funding: generous sources and involvement of social partners

In Germany financial resources for further education are provided by several institutions, such as the Ministry of Education and Research, Ministries of Labour at national and federal state level, the National Employment Agency, the European Union, companies and unions, local authorities, chambers of commerce and individual learners. It is estimated that expenditure on continuing education amounts to 35 billion a year, and these are distributed as follows. Around half of the expenditures for vocational further training is provided by companies (47,6%), followed by individuals (39,3%). The state has a share of 11,8% and the labour agency 1,3% (BIBB 2011].

Regulation of finance is significantly influenced by the chosen legal provider. The costs for the implementation of training are covered almost exclusively by fee income. Because of this, most university level education further education courses just cover the costs and rarely make a profit that can be used for further investment.

Hungary: weak ties between Higher Education and business community[74]

<u>Institutional environment</u>

Five important tendencies have shaped the current position of TLL in Hungary. The first one is higher education expansion which is often labelled as the 'massification process'. The second important characteristic is the structural reforms of higher education within the framework of the Bologna process. The third tendency is the increasing proportion of part-time programs within higher education. The fourth is the radical change in the university management structure and the fifth is the restructuring of the relationship between HE institutions and economic sector.

As for the massification tendencies, in the last decade there has been a dramatic shift from vocational training towards general education, accompanied by a radical increase of the number of students in higher education. The distribution of the Hungarian pupils/students between the various levels of the education system in 2009 was as follows. 15,14% of students were in pre-primary educational institutions (ISCED 0), 18,45% in primary education (ISCED 1), 20,17% in lower, 24,88% in upper secondary education (ISCED 2,3), 3,07% in post-secondary education (ISCED 4) and 18,49% of them participated in tertiary education (ISCED 5,6). 90,13% of tertiary education participants were in academically-oriented programmes, while the figure of only 8,12% in occupational-oriented courses shows a relatively modest practical orientation within the tertiary education system (Eurostat – Education statistics).

Evaluating the structural reforms of the Bologna process in Hungary, we can state that the Hungarian HE system is dominated by the institutional characteristics of the centralised education model. The Bologna reform for instance was initiated by the government but its effective implementation was delegated to the different sectors of the HE system without involving other social actors (enterprises, trade unions, etc.). As a result, the creation of the programme content remained supply-driven, i.e. the number and content of the programmes reflects the existing capacities of the universities and polytechnics and does not correlate to the real labour market demands.

The third tendency influencing the position of TLL within the Hungarian HE system was the increasing share of part-time students. There was a growth in the number of part-timers between 1990 and 2005, but since then this tendency has reversed. According to the statistics the vast majority of part-time students are people under 30 attempting to acquire their first or second degree. Those in mid-life are a very small proportion of this group.

As for the changes in university management, after the collapse of the state socialism, the governance system of the Hungarian HE institutions has been changed. The most important development was the increase of autonomy at the university level, but this process took place in a rather inconsistent way. The most important characteristics of the recent governance model are the rigid decision making process at the university level, and the institutions' very poor capability to be able to respond and adapt to societal and environmental changes. In addition the

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[74] This part is heavily based Makó *et al.* [2012].

increase of autonomy in academic matters was not accompanied by economic, financial and HRM autonomy which also considerably restricts the room for manoeuvre of university management.

The relationship between HE institutions and the economic sector has changed in recent decades. Until 1989 practical training and intensive cooperation with enterprises was an integral part of the HE system. In that period large state-owned companies dominated the size structure of Hungarian firms. As a consequence, HE institutions could relatively easily build up relationships with these companies in order to organise traineeships for their students. After the collapse of the state-socialist system, the small and medium sized enterprises became the dominant form of business organisations, and relationships between the HE institutions and the business sector dramatically weakened.

Briefly summarising the tendencies presented above, we may conclude that Hungarian HE institutions are suffering from the consequences of ill-advised structural reforms and of massification, worsening financial conditions and governance problems. They are not active in providing further training courses and, not surprisingly, the adult education market is dominated by private enterprises. The skill supply provided by the HE institutions does not meet with labour market demand even within the context of the weak training needs of Hungarian enterprises.

Policies and initiatives

At the strategic level development of the employability of those in mid-life is an important goal, but mostly aimed at poorly skilled people in marginal labour market positions. In reality, however, Hungarian governments have always followed a „passive" policy in order to protect workplaces instead of increasing the employers' and employees' interest in skills development. The support of those in mid-life is restricted to special employment conditions that are designed to be applied to employees over 55, which means that the termination of their contract is allowed only in extraordinary cases.

The strategic aims of the Hungarian government concerning employment creation and stabilisation are laid down the Széchenyi Plan (central development plan of the Hungarian government). The programme dedicates a chapter to employment-related issues. The programme identifies the low employment rate as the main problem of the Hungarian labour market and as a barrier to economic development. In order to overcome these difficulties the strategy puts the emphasis on the training of low-skilled people, especially in case of those between 55-64 years. In doing so the programme lays down the necessity of supporting of low educated people in:

- Completing their primary education in order to prepare them for vocational training,
- Developing key competencies necessary for obtaining a vocational qualification in case of those who are not capable to finish primary school and
- Obtaining new vocational qualification for those whose skills became obsolete.

The strategy focuses on developing vocational skills and does not leave space for higher education. Somewhat contradictorily, however, it emphasises the high importance of the

training that is related to environmental protection, health care and the creative industries with special attention to digital skills.

The other strategic document that concerns life-long learning is the Strategy for Lifelong Learning in Hungary launched in 2006.

The strategy emphasises, among others, the following weaknesses of LLL in Hungary:

- Low participation rate of the formal education and training institutions in LLL activities, especially in case of adult education,
- Low participation rates of poorly skilled, elderly and inactive people in LLL,
- Weak cooperation between education system and the labour market,
- Relatively low participation rate of the enterprises and individual employees in financing the costs of LLL.

The document assigns the following priorities to be followed in order to overcome the barriers of LLL mentioned above:

- Equal opportunities;
- Strengthening the links between the education and training system and the labour market;
- Application of new governance methods;
- Enhancing the efficiency of the education and training system, and increasing related public and private investment;
- Improving the quality of education and training.

In order to achieve these goals the strategy tackles the necessity of the following somewhat more practical arrangements:

- Development of basic skills and key competences in public education
- Increasing the diversity of supply in vocational education, higher education and adult learning
- Extending learning opportunities
- Career guidance, counselling and monitoring
- Recognition of informal and non-formal learning
- Supporting disadvantaged groups and groups at risk on the labour market
- Establishment of a new teaching/learning culture

Unfortunately there is no systematic evaluation of the implementation of the strategy, but as was presented above concerning the institutional environment of TLL, we may say that only minor elements of the strategy came to fruition.

In the case of VET, however, a publicly founded tripartite programme started in 2008 with the aim of supporting the development of the Hungarian VET system at the regional level. The goal of the programme titled *Optimisation of the number of vocational trainees for the Regional Development and Training Committees* is to strengthen the demand orientation of the Hungarian Vocational Education and Training (VET) system. In order to achieve this goal 9 employers' associations and 5 trade unions' confederations have been involved in the programme, led by

the Hungarian Chamber of Trade and Industry (MKIK). The task of the social partners is to determine the skills needs of the workplaces at the regional level and to adjust the regional skill supply to the real economic needs. A recent development concerning the programme is the possibility of its extension to higher education.

Funding: instability of regulation

Non-formal adult education (training outside the school system) is financed from three legally defined sources:

- The state budget,
- The Labour Market Fund,
- The compulsory training contribution from companies

Since 2003 two employment groups have been supported from the state budget:

- Those who participate in an accredited training scheme to enter their first profession

- Disabled adults who participate in training

The Labour Market Fund is based on payments by both employers and employees. The Fund finances various training activities. It can be used to support further training of the unemployed or employees who are threatened with job loss. Companies are obliged to pay training contribution to the state budget on the basis of their annual wage costs. One-third of their payment can be used to support of their own training activities.

Although the employment strategy of the Hungarian government emphasises the importance of the financial supporting of TLL, the government decided to annual the opportunity for firms to finance their training activities through their Labour Market Fund contribution, which will provokes a further decrease in the training activities of Hungarian companies.

As for the financing of HE activities there are three basic models:

a) Normative financing, which provides stability for the institutions, but does not deal with the differences in the university performances.
b) Financing by agreements, which is not effective without special incentives that are harmonised with the different institutional priorities.
c) Project financing, which is only effective if there are additional resources available and it requires special control mechanisms.

In Hungary HE institutions are financed in a normative way, i.e. they are supported on the basis of the number of students. In this model the financial contribution of the state is based on the so-called base-year budget ceiling and this amount of financial resource is distributed by a quota-method. There are three main quotas:

a) The quota related to the number of the students represents the dominant source of finance.
b) Quota aimed to maintain the infrastructure (buildings, ICT, library, etc.)

c)   Quota related to the research performance of the university (number and level of degrees owned by the teaching staff, number of PhD students, research performance measured by publications, conference participation, etc.)

Due to the demographic changes the number of students has increased in recent years in Hungary which led to a decrease in public expenditures on HE via the normative financing model.

Italy: balanced national, regional and local initiatives[75]

Institutional environment:

Adult education in Italy is regulated in two different ways. Adult education is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR). Adult training courses up to ISCED 3 level are offered by the Permanent Territorial Centres (Centri Territoriali Permanenti – CTP). The CTPs were set up in 1997 with the aim that they offer adult education and training and promote the acquisition of skills and competences related to work and social inclusion. In 2007 and 2008 532 CTPs operated that provided over 20,000 courses for 482,000 participants. CTPs offer both formal and informal (e.g. literacy, IT, etc.) courses. Most of the offered courses are modular and are organised in the afternoon or in the evening. 64,4% of CPTs are located inside Technical Institutes, 30% in Professional Institutes, and the other 6% within secondary schools (*Licei*). In 2000 CTPs role was enlarged with the following tasks:

-   their function was widened towards the implementation of an integrated education offering through networks agreements between different Schools (Educational System Service Centres;
-   planning is seen as integral part of the scheduling action; CPTs have the responsibility to reach an agreement with local committees and define the Educational Offer Plan, aiming at an optimal demand-offer balance;
-   CTP staff became employed on a permanent status, being selected on the basis of professional skills in project management, personnel recruitment, professional profiling and capability to manage the relations with schools networks and other educational institutions.

In Italy adult education is coordinated at three different levels: national, regional and local. At the national level the coordination is in the hand of a joint committee that comprises the representatives of several ministries, the representatives of the regions, local authorities and the social partners. The committee aims to set the strategic priorities, define general guidelines and available resources, defines the criteria of resource allocation, and the guidelines for monitoring and assessment for recognition of various certificates. Regional committees are responsible for curriculum design. Based on the strategic guidelines elaborated by the national and regional

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[75] This part is heavily based on Mariani & Sgarzi [2012].

committees, training activities are carried out by different types of provider: companies, training agencies and bodies or educational institutions.

Besides adult education there is a parallel system which offers continuous professional (vocational) training (Formazione Professionale Continua – FPC) for adult employees and is operated by the regional and local authorities, the social partners and the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Policies. This institutional network provides various training activities aimed at improving and updating employees' knowledge and competences. In recent years serious efforts have been made to promote continuing training as a core component of life-long learning policies, but the legislative framework remained somewhat incomplete and incoherent. In 2000, the new law of higher technical training (Istruzione e Formazione Tecnica Superiore – IFTS) came into force. IFTS is a post-secondary education pathway that runs parallel to university education aiming at providing high level technical and professional skills. IFTS courses are targeted for those adults who already possess a degree and want to obtain a specialization corresponding to high level qualifications and specific professional skills. The training programmes lasts from two to four semesters and offers a second qualification. The training content is planned by the regions in cooperation with social and economic partners, as previously described.

As for quality issues, at the moment there is no formal quality control in the case of adult education and training, but the providers can be accredited. In order to be accredited, providers must prove their competences and reliability in the following areas: managerial and logistics capacities; vocational skills; levels of effectiveness and efficiency in previous activities; economic stability; long-standing relations with the social and economic actors in the region. The Regions and Autonomous Provinces are responsible for the accreditation process that should be carried out on an annual basis. Last year several attempts have been made in order to ensure a unified and transparent evaluation and accreditation system, but these attempts failed mainly because of the resistance of training providers.

Also problematic is the social composition of those attending adult education courses. Men between 26 and 40 with an HE degree are overrepresented at the expense of women and people with low education and/or social status.

Policies and initiatives

In Italy there is no general lifelong learning strategy, but in the several related documents the following issues are in focus: adaptation of degrees, development of concrete LLL strategies and the establishment of Continuing Education Centres, development of cooperation between providers and economic sectors and the reform of university management structures and practices in order to achieve these goals.

Recently there are initiatives within the HE system that support TLL issues. One example is the foundation of the Italian University Network for Continuing Education (RUIAP) that aims at promoting a continuing education culture and innovative methodologies for supporting atypical student pathways within tertiary education. At the University of Genoa a centre for continuing education was established under the name of PerForm. Its purpose is the development of high-profile training, structured to meet specific business needs. Its activity focuses on lifelong learning, post-graduate training to develop specific high level competences and professional

excellence. The University of Naples was the first Italian university to create a Lifelong Learning Centre that provides TLL courses and carries out research in the field. The FormArea Campus For Employability at the University of Bologna is also relevant here, as it was established with the aim to redesign training and professional needs according to the principles of lifelong learning and the European main guidelines.

In accordance with the Lifelong Learning Programme initiated by the EU, the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) defined the priorities that should be supported in the forthcoming years:

- Adaptation of degrees, making them more relevant to the demands coming from the labour market, citizens and society;
- Development of concrete strategies for lifelong education connecting academia with certification and offering vocational education. This objective is achieved through the establishment of specific Continuing Education Centres (CAPs) inside the Universities with strong territorial and/or thematic links;
- Development of new funding strategies in cooperation with external partners from the economic environment existing around the university;
- Fine tuning of Universities' governance and managerial structures to reinforce partnerships with external organisations (local governments, firms, entrepreneurial organisations, trade unions, etc.) for the establishment of a shared local/regional strategy for adult continuing education.

The document also identifies more key areas for promoting alternative learning pathways: labour market transformation, enhancing professional skills, improving the quality of civil service and administration, increasing the number of tertiary level adult graduates and transforming 'worthless' degrees into more employable competences.

In doing so, CAPs should play a central role. According to the intention of the decision makers, they should become professional TLLL providers offering alternative learning routes for adult learners and acknowledging formal and informal prior experiences and competences, providing flexible and competence-oriented courses and strengthening the partnership between universities and other institutional actors (public and private bodies, etc.) through joint initiatives.

Funding: combination of public and private sources

In Italy adult education is financed from both public and private resources. Most of the training activities, however, are financed directly by the economic and social sectors (mainly enterprises and employees), mainly based on their private sources. The main instruments supporting continuing training currently operating in Italy are the following:

- The European Social Fund 2007-2013;
- National Law 236/93, which set up a fund for vocational training;
- National Law 53/00;
- Inter-professional Equal Funds for continuing training, managed directly by social partners.

As for the two national instruments, the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies allocates the resources among the Regions and the Autonomous Provinces and distributes the funds to them, and they in turn issue notices and invitations to tender. The source of Equal Funds mainly derives from the obligatory contribution of enterprises to the INPS (national welfare institute). These financial resources are drawn from the annual contribution of 0.30 % of businesses to the INPS as obligatory insurance against involuntary unemployment. Exemptions are represented by funds ex lege n° 144/1999 and n° 53/2003.

Currently, two main programmes are providing LLL at an individual level: i) educational vouchers (voucher formativi) and ii) Individual Learning Account (ILA). The experimentation of educational vouchers was introduced in Italy in year 1998. Vouchers are educational tickets released to single workers on the basis of individual proposals/projects. The economic value of each voucher ranges from 500 to 5.000 Euro. The main weakness of the 'educational voucher' action lies in the scarce availability of services that can provide professional support in the design of the individual learning path, for example through individual counselling and the analysis/balance of competencies.

The ILA is related to the European Learning Account Project (ELAP network) and has been recently introduced as an experimental action in three regions of Italy (Toscana, Umbria and Piemonte). The ILA is a special credit card that beneficiaries can use to attend LLL courses. Its value cannot exceed 3.000 Euros (to be spent in 24 months). An important advantage of the programme is that the ILA is specifically targeted towards those that are generally ignored by the 'standard' company-initiated education and training actions. On the other hand, the ILA suffers from the same lack of supporting counselling services.

The Netherlands: limited role of Higher Education – active firms[76]

Institutional environment:

In the Netherlands adult education comprises three different fields: general adult education, vocational adult education and socio-cultural adult education. General and vocational adult education is mainly the responsibility of secondary vocational education institutions, while socio-cultural adult education has been left to municipalities and the private sector. All three forms of adult education are aimed at lower educated people in order to increase their employability and protect them from labour market and/or social marginalisation. As a consequence, universities have little to do with lifelong learning activities.

In the Netherlands there is a distinction between higher professional education and secondary vocational education, which constitutes a separate sector in the school system. The 1996 Adult and Vocational Act defines the framework of vocational education and general adult education. The Act focuses on the establishment of regional education and training centres (Regionaal Opleidingen Centrum, ROC). The centres provide all kinds and levels of secondary vocational

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[76] This part is heavily based on Kats *et al.* [2012].

education and adult education. In doing so, they offer a broad range of initial and post-initial degree programmes. 44 ROCs and about 30 comparable institutions are currently operational, the largest one having approximately 30,000 students. Considering all institutions together, the total number of courses amounts to 11.000 and the number of students to over 500.000. The ROCs also provide guidance and offer training courses to those people in vulnerable position on the labour market and to the unemployed. Most of the ROCs also provide continuing vocational training programmes for companies and private organisations on a commercial basis. Since the ROCs are the main adult training providers, the emphasis has shifted from the general to the vocational function of adult education.

As for the role of higher education (HE) institutions in adult training, in the Netherlands a dual HE system operates with a relatively sharp distinction between academic universities and schools for higher professional education that provide higher professional training courses (Hoger Beroepsonderwijs, HBO). The latter traditionally have strong connection with their professional fields and offer several continuing training courses. In the last few years a merging process of HBOs has taken place that led to the creation of very extended institutions, referred to as 'universities for professional education' or 'universities of applied sciences'.

Another important issue must also be stressed here; namely the liberalisation and commercialization tendency which started in the 1990s. The new approach regards participation in HE more as an individual investment than a way to develop all people with the desirable capabilities which would contribute to common welfare. The 1992 Higher Education and Scientific Research Act (Wet Hoger Onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek, WHW) reflected this tendency in that it increased the autonomy of the HE institutions. The basic idea of the regulation was to give institutes more room to take initiatives themselves and to respond to the market and to new developments. Control in advance should be replaced by self-regulation and evaluation of performance afterwards. The act assigns responsibilities to the institutes and formulates performance criteria.

As a consequence, the development of the content of training programmes is the responsibility of the institutions. The government is only responsible for the assessment of the quality of education. A training programme in higher education needs to be accredited officially. The accreditation process is legally acknowledged and approved by the Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders' (NVAO). The NVAO is established by international treaty and it ensures the quality of higher education in the Netherlands and Flanders.

Decision makers, however, aim to bridge the gap between secondary vocational education and higher education; therefore profession-oriented programmes have been introduced for adults who have finished secondary vocational education. These programmes, held by higher vocational education institutions, are two years long and provide an associate degree. Despite efforts to broaden the possibilities for adults to learn, Dutch universities pay relatively little attention to adult education. There are main reasons explaining that. The first reason is the above-mentioned dual character of the Dutch HE system, which is marked by a relatively sharp distinction between university education and higher professional education. Continuing education courses are mainly offered by schools for higher professional training. Because of this division of labour, universities do not usually participate in adult professional education. The second reason is the special role of the Open University that was opened in 1984 with the aim of providing higher education programmes for anyone, regardless of their former qualifications.

The Open University plays a crucial role in providing LLL courses and adult education and has a monopolistic position on that market. Since the Open University focuses on lifelong learning, regular universities are only partially involved in LLL programmes. The case of accreditation of prior learning (APL) serves as a good example for this. Except for the Open University, Dutch universities do not have any APL procedures. It has to be mentioned here, however, that the number of Open University students radically declined between 1991 and 2011 while a gradual increase of students participating in non-regular programmes offered by 'traditional' universities is observable.

Available statistical information regarding the learning activities of adults in the Netherlands is very limited. A survey was carried out in 2005 requesting details of participation in post-initial training during the previous four weeks. The results show that 1,3 million people (about 13,5% of the employable population) took part in some kind of post-initial education. Among more highly educated people this percentage is about 19% [Herpen, 2006]. According to estimates about 1,9 million highly educated people take part in some form of lifelong learning [Hartgers & Pleijers 2010].

Taking into account that the number of adult learners who are enrolled for formal courses at universities is approximately 30.000, one may conclude that formal university programmes in the Netherlands play a very limited role in lifelong learning. Adult learning and professional development tend to be more non-formal than formal, learning processes are more self-directed than supply-driven and they regularly take place within communities of practice and learning networks [Poell & Van Woerkom, 2011].

As has been indicated, Dutch companies are very active in the further training of their employees. According to a survey, in 2005 seven out of every ten companies with more than ten employees in the private sector facilitated some kind of continuing vocational training in the form of formal courses (67%), workplace learning (OJT) (30%) or various forms of self-directed learning (41%). More than 1,3 million employees in the private sector took part in vocational courses, that is to say nearly 40% of the employees of the companies that offer some kind of education or training. In total they spent over 47 million working hours on courses. This means an average of 36 hours per employee. [Claessen & Nieuweboer, 2007]

Tripartite cooperation of the social partners also plays a crucial role in vocational training and education. A typical example of this kind of cooperation is the setting up of the Expertise Centres for Vocational Education and Business (KBB). The Centres serve the need for knowledge development and qualified personnel of specific sectors of business, covering a group of connected branches.

Policies and initiatives

In the Netherlands policies on vocational education and training are formulated and managed at three levels: national, sectoral and regional/local level. In 2004 an action plan for lifelong learning was implemented at the national level. Consequently, several efforts have been made in order to bridge the gap between the secondary vocational education and higher education system. One of the measures is the introduction of associate degrees in the programmes of higher professional education. These degrees concern profession-oriented two year programs, established mainly for adults who have successfully finished secondary vocational education.

According to the recent policies and initiatives, there are some examples of academic lifelong learning/continuing professional development programmes:

- Leiden University has established, next to the disciplinary faculties, a special faculty that is mainly geared to the education of professionals in the public sector. This faculty is based in The Hague, the centre of the Dutch Government and also the domicile of many institutes in the field of international law. The so-called Campus The Hague provides education courses and conducts research on subjects that are relevant to the organisations concerned and their employees. Although The Hague is at a distance of only twenty kilometres from Leiden, this new faculty is a border crossing initiative which is unique in the Netherlands. The initiative caused severe discussions both on the geographic and on the epistemological distance it takes from the original seat of pure science.

- The Technical University of Eindhoven has developed a so-called dual programme in chemical technology. This program is addressed to chemists who are schooled in higher professional education and who want to make one step up to university level. This is a clear but exceptional case of lifelong learning in university education in the Netherlands. The programme is completely geared to the professional practice of the participants. It is developed in close cooperation with the companies and organisations that employ them. Cooperatives of the social partners in the sector are also involved. The continued existence of this programme however is unsure.

- The ECBO (Expertisecentrum Beroepsonderwijs) is the expertise centre for the sector of vocational education and training of the national school system. Such publicly funded centres exist for all sectors of the national school system on the basis of the National Education Support Activities Act (Wet Subsidiëring Landelijke Onderwijsondersteunende Activiteiten, SLOA). The ECBO develops, disseminates and synthesises scholarly and practice-based knowledge on vocational education and training. It conducts research and plays a bridging role between the academic world and practice in vocational education. Sharing and transfer of knowledge is an important aim. ECBO organizes lectures and conferences, publishes newsletters and handbooks, offers advice and consultancy etc. In this way ECBO contributes to the continuing professional development of educational practitioners in the sector.

- The SIOO (Stichting Interacademiale Opleiding Organisatiekunde) is an inter-university centre for organisation studies and change management. The centre is connected to seven universities. It aims at a theoretical deepening in the knowledge fields of organisation studies and the management of change. SIOO offers opportunities for the development of competencies to professionals involved in the field. The centre organises masters and other training courses with open registration. It provides coaching on change processes in organisations. It supports the design of programmes for professional development. It carries out research and development activities. And it organises forum activities (symposia, workshops, conferences and publications).

- The Dutch Police Academy is the recruitment & selection, training and knowledge & research centre for the Dutch police. The police force is an organisation that offers its staff the opportunity to continuing professional development. The academy offers education and knowledge at a high level, anticipates social trends and translates these into made-to-measure training.

In 2004 the Dutch government initiated an action plan for life-long learning. Among other the document defines the following goals:

- Improving accessibility to, and enhancing participation in, education and training;
- More attention for the accreditation of prior learning;
- Increasing the amount of higher educated people;
- Increasing employment participation;
- Increasing labour productivity;
- More cooperation between education centres and companies;
- Developing combinations of learning and working;
- A better exchange of knowledge between knowledge centres and business;
- Special forms of support for vulnerable groups and prevention of drop out;
- The decrease of youth unemployment;
- The promotion of social cohesion.

Funding: deductible training costs

In the Netherlands post academic education is not financed by the state, so regular student grants are not applicable. In the case of life-long learning there are several important implications for adult students in post initial higher education:

1. A rule is being introduced for fining students who study longer than the period allowed. When they exceed this period they have to pay a fine of 3000 euro extra tuition fees.
2. Students who want attend a second course in higher education also have to pay extra money.
3. Students older than 30 years do not receive student grants.
4. On the other hand higher education institutions were, until 2010, entitled to fix the level of tuition fees for adults over 29 years of age. This age limit is however now skipped and tuition fees are harmonized for all age categories.

As a consequence, in the last few years the proportion of part-time students has intensively decreased. In 2010, 11.000 people attended a part-time course at a university. From that peak, there was this year a decrease of 30 % in the number of applications of part-time students.

The financing of vocational training and professional development is primarily the responsibility of the companies and organisations concerned. This financial responsibility however is embedded in a large set of agreements between social partners and governmental facilities. Costs of training and development generally are tax-deductible. Individual employees are permitted to deduct their costs for vocational training and development from their income tax liability. Research in seven branches of SME however showed that only 60% of the investigated companies make use of the tax deduction [Detmar & De Vries, 2006].

The social partners usually conclude Collective Labour Agreements (CAO's) that include agreements on the provision and funding of continuing vocational training and professional development activities for employees. The financial means that become available this way are deployed by the Education and Development Funds (O&O fondsen). Companies and organisations can recover part of their costs through a subsidy from the Education and

Development Fund of their particular sector or branch. However, not all branches and sectors have such a fund.

Spain: dual system of university and non-university education[77]

Institutional environment:

The post-secondary education in Spain is divided into two tracks: university and non-university education. Non-university includes advanced vocational education and other specialized studies, e.g. art, sport, etc. The VET system comprises three different stages of vocational training. The first one is a modularised initial training that is provided to low educated people without qualification. The second one is provided for those who want to train as intermediate-level technicians and the third one is higher-level professional training for those who already have a degree or an intermediate-level technical background. Higher vocational education is provided by the HE institutions.

In Spain, the Ministry of Education is responsible for the planning, administration, monitoring and control of adult education, but autonomous communities also plan, manage and finance adult education activities. The management of continuing education is based on cooperation between the central and regional administrations, but social partners and the state also play a decisive role through sectoral level bargaining.

Universities also provide continuing education courses, mainly in form of unofficial postgraduate certificates and unofficial complementary training[78]. The HE institutions enjoy autonomy in providing such courses, the two levels of administration being responsible only for creating and monitoring a minimum of legislation, providing a legal background and monitoring course quality a minimum of legislation.

Universities can follow different models when providing adult education course. In the first model, continuing education and training is carried out through departments, centres or institutes with little or no centralised support. In the second model the continuing training and education activities are supported by the central government, but still organised by the departments, centres or institutes. In the third model training activities are managed by an external unit (e.g. a foundation or an external training centre) created by the departments, centres or institutes. The fourth model of training activities is implemented by a specialized independent unit based on the expertise of particular departments, centres or institutes. In the fifth model training is provided by an organization representing several institutions of the

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[77] This part is heavily based on Alvarez *et al.* [2012].

[78] The term un-official refers to the distinction between the university degree such as bachelor and masters (Bologna cycle), or the former degrees of University diploma and licenciate (Pre-bologna cycle, which are state recognised certificate – therefore they are official certificates. Nowadays the respective higher education programmes must be evaluated and approved by the National Quality Agency. In contrast, university adult learning programmes do not earn state recognised certificates. For this reason, we are here describing unofficial degrees.

university. Public universities mainly use the centralised model, only occasionally using an external provider.

The model of the educational background of the Spanish population is quite different compared with the rest of the EU. Only 46,2% of the Spanish adult population has completed compulsory education while this rate is 26,6% on average in the EU-27. The proportion of the population that have completed non-compulsory secondary education is 22,2% in Spain and 46,6% in the EU. The share of people with an HE degree is, however, higher than the EU-average. In fact the proportion of people with an ISCED 5-6 educational level is higher than those with ISCED 3-4. It means that the educational structure of the Spanish population is highly polarised, the ratio of both low and higher educated people being above the European average while the rate of people with vocational qualifications is relatively low. The percentage of the active population with a finished ISCED 5-6 education level has increased since 2000, especially within the age group of 35–44, while the percentage with a tertiary education degree has decreased among those between 25 and 29. In accord with international experience, the educational level in Spain is increasing in line with increased activity. The difference in employment rates for the age group of 20-46 between ISCED 0-2 and ISCED 5-6 educational level was 20,8% in 2005 and 26,1% in 2012[79].

According to the results of the Adult Education Survey (AES) there is a positive connection between education level and the adult training participation rate, especially in the case of the age cohort of 25-34. The AES results show that only around 10,7% of adult learners attended courses provided by formal institutions such as universities. This indicates that universities take part in adult education activities only modestly[80].

The *Fundación Conocimiento y Desarrollo* (CYD) surveyed a representative sample of Spanish companies in 2010 under the title of "Universities and Spanish firms". The survey results confirm that the companies interviewed placed universities very low as training providers. When trying to satisfy their skill development needs by external providers, companies prefer to turn to consultancy firms, continuing professional training organizations, business schools, Chambers of Commerce, or to their suppliers. In 2008, only 19% of the interviewed companies contacted universities for training courses designed exclusively for their employees. [FCYD 2010]

Policies and initiatives:

In Spain the strategy 'University 2015' aims to modernise the Spanish university system. It is promoted by the Ministry of Education and other departments of central government, while the autonomous communities and the universities have also been involved in its coordination.

Continuing education and training within the Strategy 2015 is among the most prominent objectives. The stated objectives are:

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[79] Source: Eurostat LFS annual survey results consulted 16/04/2013

[80] Source: Eurostat AES consulted 16/04/2013

- To offer quality training and their corresponding accreditation systems.
- To fulfil social needs with respect to personal enrichment and new labour perspectives.
- To involve universities in the design strategies of continuing education and training as a basic function.
- To take advantage of ICTs to widen educational methodologies, and linking training together to labour activity and family life.
- To promote access to training for people with different skills levels and different learning backgrounds, as well as encouraging the collaboration of the universities with associations, social agents and other partners linked to the local productive system in specific training projects.
- To elaborate official guidelines to foster this type of training facilitating interuniversity agreements.
- To elaborate a normative framework that puts up the regulation (respecting the autonomy of the universities) and that facilitates the recognition of this type of training outlining the approaches and minimum requirements that the RUCT registry should keep in mind.

Regarding tertiary adult education the strategy universities are incited to acknowledge and accredit prior learning experiences in forms of new certificates and degrees. Since universities offer very diverse adult training courses in terms of their content, degree and recognition, the strategy facilitates the universities to mutually recognise the trainings they provide at the different levels (bachelor, master, postgraduate diplomas, expert or specialist certificates, etc.). In order to ensure quality, universities can register their unofficial training for an official accreditation process.

There is a relatively new initiative that also should be mentioned here. This is the more and more widespread University for Older People or Classrooms for Older People or University of Experience. These are special programmes designed for the skill needs of the age group between 50 and 55. In this respect Spanish universities are in a leading position in Europe.

Funding: employees and employers coo-financing the system

Resources to finance professional training for employment come from the companies' and employees' contribution for professional training that is collected by the Social Security System (85% approximately) along with some funds stemming from the European Social Fund and the contributions of the Public Service of State Employment. The budget for the whole system in 2010 was a little more than 2.500 million Euros. Here, the resources of the contribution for professional training refer specifically to the volume of revenues resulting from applying a tax of 0.7% on the base rate for common contingencies that firms and workers contribute to the Social Security. Of that global sum, 0.6% comes from the companies and the remaining 0.1% from the worker. Approximately 60% of the total amount collected is dedicated to workers' training of (1.545 million Euros in 2010) and 40% to training for the unemployed. The application of the funds is the responsibility of the Labour Ministry which determines how it is distributed between the different administration bodies and training initiatives. Companies that carry out tailored training are able to benefit from discounts in their contributions to the Social Security. This allowance varies according to the size of the company.

University continuing education and training courses tend to be much more demand-oriented than bachelor's degrees. Since these courses are officially unrecognised they are not publicly financed. Nevertheless, in practice, universities usually co-finance some of these courses by means of, for example, the use of infrastructure funds, or by financing the specific administrative units that manage this type of education. In contrast, the universities retain a percentage of the revenues of these courses (overhead). The availability of university-administered programs (masters, experts, specialists) has shown recently an exponential growth, from 145 programs in 1987 to more than 4,500 twenty years later. In parallel, the number of students following these courses also increased, representing today almost 10% of total students of first and second cycle and bachelor degrees. In the same way, revenues coming from these unofficial self-financed training courses grew steadily, representing today around 15% of the revenues raised through first and second cycle education.

United Kingdom: great variety of institutions and flexibility in TLL provision[81]

Institutional environment

Adult learning in the UK is provided by various institutions, such as sixth form, tertiary and further education colleges (FECs), community centres, libraries and museums, universities and other HE institutions, workplaces, trade unions, private training providers, voluntary organisations, etc. FECs provide a full range of academic, community and vocational courses for students over compulsory school leaving age in the form of full- and part-time education. Adult and community education is provided by various institutions (from community centres and libraries to community colleges) and organised at the local or regional level. The providers offer both employment-focused and non-accredited courses (these are mainly for the leisure of the learners). Universities are also involved in adult learning provision. Most of them provide non-accredited short courses and certificates as well. This form of adult education, however, is in decline because the government stopped subsidising the further tertiary training of those adults who have already received an HE qualification.

Although in the late 1990s and early 2000s there was a rise in the participation of adult learners in courses provided by HE institutions, this was followed by a decline. In addition there are significant inequalities in the system; the participation of ethnic minorities and people of lower social status is restricted. Another problematic issue is the uncertainty of individuals with regard to TLL participation. Participation of mature students is highly constrained because of emotional and financial burdens and their job responsibilities.

Policies and initiatives:

In the UK, policies related to adult education are part of a broader range of lifelong learning policies that also incorporate general education, vocational education and training and higher

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[81] This part is heavily based on Osborne [2012]

education. In policy orientation there are specified target groups, such as unemployed, low-skilled adults, offenders in custody and other groups threatened by social exclusion.

The two main issues within adult learning policies are raising the awareness and creating flexibility of provision. A wide range of initiatives in the UK is aimed at raising awareness. A good example for that is the University for Industry and its online brand, Learndirect, which promote courses to enable adults to gain the skills and qualifications they need in order to find a job or progress in their work. In addition to their short courses Learndirect centres provide online and telephone guidance to adult learners (Learndirect Career Advice).

In the UK flexibility is built into a wide range of adult education activities and structures. There is flexibility in admission procedures, in the modes of attendance and delivery, in the locations where adult education takes place, in pedagogical and methodological practices, in course duration and in recruitment practices. In spite of all these efforts, two main barriers still exist, namely disability and low socio-economic status.

In the last two decades a number of strategies have been developed to allow those with unconventional qualifications and relevant prior experience to enter higher education. Alternative routes for those with vocational rather than academic qualifications have been developed, and these are designed to successfully widen participation to non-traditional students. There are also specific courses to allow access to adults with no formal qualifications to progress to tertiary education. According to the Quality Assurance Agency [QAA 2009], there were 349 providers in England and Wales offering 1,557 Access courses in 2007-08, with a total of 35,275 learners registered on the courses. Access course are often targeted at a specific subject area or discipline e.g. Access to the Social Sciences and to Nursing. Other alternative routes which allow entry to higher education include the use of Credit Accumulation Transfer Schemes (CATS) which may allow the accreditation of prior learning (APL) or prior experiential learning (APEL) to be used to satisfy entry requirements for programmes of work based learning (WBL) and work related learning (WRL). Those already in employment are encouraged to gain entry to degree programmes through vocational routes.

Funding: transferring purchasing power into the hand of students

Much of the provision in Further Education Colleges is funded through the State according to agreed formulae. Until 2010 in England this was through the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) (England) and thereafter the function for the funding of adult learning was taken by the Skills Funding Agency (SFA). In other countries of the UK this function is taken by the Department for Employment and Learning (DEL) (Northern Ireland) and by joint funding councils crossing FE and HE (Wales and Scotland).

Under the Learning and Skills Act 2000, Adult and Continuing Learning was funded by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) for England (the SFA now has that role) and the National Council for Education and Training for Wales (National Council – ELWa). These agencies support all providers from which they secure education and training services, among which there are many private providers. All providers have to be affiliated to a Qualified Provider Framework to be eligible to tender for funds to run courses.

There are no separate adult education centres or institutes in Northern Ireland, where adult education courses (including academic, vocational and leisure courses) are provided by the 6

regional colleges which comprise the statutory further education sector. In Scotland, funding from the Scottish government is passed by the 32 local authorities to Community Learning Strategy Partnerships where local providers of adult learning have access to resources. Strategic plans indicating how the funding will be used to build capacity and a wide range of learning opportunities across all sectors are submitted by all these partnerships. As in other parts of the UK, the government places a high emphasis on literacy.

Universities are funded in various ways for activity that pertains to adult learning. Some of this is metric-based and a 'reward' for previous performance and some is directed at specific projects. For example, the Higher Education Funding Council for England's (HEFCE) Workforce Development Programme has been helping universities to develop their capacity to deliver employer and learner responsive provision. Between 2008 and 2011, some £150m has been committed across more than 90 HE institutions to support a diverse range of HE - employer engagement projects. The majority of these projects explore employer co-funding where employers share with the state the costs of provision. In 2008/09 employer co-funded provision supported an additional 9,200 learners. Part-time study was the main mode of delivery (90% of co-funded learners), with the majority of the overall total studying at sub-degree level. HEFCE supported a further 20,000 employer co-funded places for 2009/10. The Workforce Development Programme has also led to a range of other achievements including the development and introduction of new forms of provision – training at times, places and means to suit employers and learners.

In England, for those who are wishing to enter HE upfront loans are available to cover tuition costs. Repayment begins at the end of study and this is income contingent. Recent HE reforms will bring significant increases to the charges universities may make for tuition from 2012/13, with loan levels rising accordingly. The reforms will also extend upfront loans covering tuition costs to part-time students (including mature students).

Individuals wishing to undertake post-graduate study, and FE learners seeking study that is not currently supported by public funds, may look to apply for a Professional and Career Development Loan (PCDL). Up to £10,000 is available for course costs, subject to eligibility and acceptance by the participating banks. Repayment begins at the end of study. Fee remission, for those seeking first lower-level skills, enables individuals to study when otherwise it may not have been possible to afford it. FE learners most in need of financial assistance may be able to receive discretionary funding to continue study. As part of a move to re-balance investment in skills, the Government is to introduce FE loans, in which individuals further contribute towards their cost of learning. The role of PCDLs will be reviewed as a consequence.

In general, there has been an increasing trend to, on the one hand, make provision more responsive to potential student demand and, on the other, for adult students to make larger contributions to cost. Although small in scale, part of putting purchasing power in the hands of students was the introduction of *Independent Learning Accounts* (ILAs). Individuals could claim up to £150 if they invested £25 or their own money in a virtual "account". They could then use the total sum to buy vocational courses of specified types. Its success put too much pressure on available funding and there were administrative problems; therefore the scheme was withdrawn in England though it continues successfully in Scotland. A new scheme, the Lifelong Learning Account, was introduced in September 2011. This builds on an existing online tool, 'myNextStep', and enables users to log achievements and access information on learning and

work. Following September 2011, further developments enabled users to signal demand for new courses and access vouchers representing entitlements which can be spent at an accredited learning provider of their choice as a full or part contribution towards a course.

Case Studies[82]

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82 This chapter is heavily based on: Öz & Hamburg [2014] and Houston, M. & Osborne, M. [2014].

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The main selection criterion of the TLL-programmes in the HE-institutions has been their relevance to the main target population of mid-life learners. Nevertheless, the analysis of the TLL-Activities has shown that, in general, only a few programmes have been directly addressed to mid-life learners. In several programs, one would find, however, a mix of certain age groups. Hence, mid-life learners do not only comprise the specific target group in TLL-Programmes in the case studies.

	Table 17 Case studies			
	Name of the Institution	**Programme**	**Institutional Setting**	**Nº of Interviews**
CZECH REPUBLIK				
1	Charles University in Prague (public institution)	Programme for School Consultants	Department of Psychology of the Faculty of Arts	9
2	Masaryk University in Brno (public institution)	PREFEKT	Supervised by a specially established board from the cooperating universities	8
3	College of Applied Psychology (private institution)	Traffic Psychology	Outsourced rooms, programme directors and lecturers	7
GERMANY				
1	University Bochum	Change Management	Organized by the Ruhr-University Academy (RUB).	10
2	University Duisburg-Essen	VAWi Business Computer Science	organized by the Ruhr Campus Academy	7
3	University Hagen	Infernum: The interdisciplinary Distance Learning Program for Environmental Sciences	Own Faculty and institutional cooperation	8
SPAIN				
1	Fundation URV - Centre of Continuous Training Universidad Rovira i Virgili	Human Resource Management	C) outsourced university owned organisation	16
2	Institute of Continuous Training IL3 University Barcelona	Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organisation	B) Special university administrative unit + C) Outsourced university owned organisation	10
3	Politechnic University Valencia - Centre of Continuous Training	Photovoltaic Energy, Car design European Financial Advisor	B) Special university administrative unit	10
HUNGARY				
1	Szent Istvan University Faculty of Mechanical Engineering	KITE Farmers' training programme	Joint programme based on the cooperation of the Faculty and the KITE Co.	4
2	Debrecen University Faculty of Engineering	Quality Management Engineering Studies	Faculty-based postgraduate training course	4
3	Budapest Business School	Business Coach Postgraduate Programme	Joint programme cooperation School and Flow Group	3

	Name of the Institution	Programme	Institutional Setting	Nº of Interviews
Table 17 **Case studies**				
ITALY				
1	University of Bologna - Form Area	Form Area Educational Campus	External independent organisation (Form Area)	10
2	University of Genoa - PerForm	'International Business Leadership'	Outsourced university owned organisation (PerForm)	8
3	University of Bolzano	"CasaClima" Environmental Design	Own Faculty (Science and Technology Faculty)	10
THE NETHERLANDS				
1	Campus The Hague, Leiden University	Course Public Affairs	Separate faculty of the university for (a.m.) professional learning	9
2	Expertise Centre for Vocational Education	Learning Network Management of Innovation	Intermediary organisation between universities and the field of vocational education	13
3	The Dutch Police Academy	Master of Criminal Investigation	Recognised college for higher education, cooperating with universities	16
UNITED KINGDOM				
1	University Glasgow	BA Community Development	School of Education, College of Social Sciences	9
2	University of the West of Scotland	Health and Social Care, Business and IT	Lifelong Learning Academy – university department with responsibility for all part-time enrolment	5
3	Open University in Scotland	Health and Social Care, Community Education	National Centre with degree of autonomy at both regional and local levels in relation to provision	5

With respect to institutional setting, the cases show huge diversity. The programmes are designed and implemented within different institutional frameworks. Several organizational units are outsourced, mainly due to regulatory and financial reasons, in order to offer training programs to wider population groups other than traditional degree students. This allows, to a certain extent, the programme managers to overcome some regulatory and other constraints and to achieve a modicum of autonomy in the design and implementation of the programmes. Among the case studies some programmes are integrated in the traditional organisational setting. Especially, master programs requiring accreditation and certification are organized in the universities. The vertical axis in graph 2 gives an overview of the institutional setting. The categories on the horizontal axis indicate the institutional framework, that is whether the organisational unit operates as an integrated one, or it is outsourced or it functions partly or completely independently (stand alone).

The programmes can be also classified with respect to general focus as shown by reading horizontally across the graph. Some programmes are delivered using classic teaching and learning methods aimed mainly at transmitting knowledge and competencies to students. The general focus is based on university or academic centred design and implementation of the programmes. The majority of the programmes studied so far, however, concentrate on specific

non-academic topics with a practical focus and greater relevance, shown in the graph as 'field-centred'. A comparative analysis of case studies selected within the THEMP-project will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

Figure 13
Institutional settings and general focus of the programme
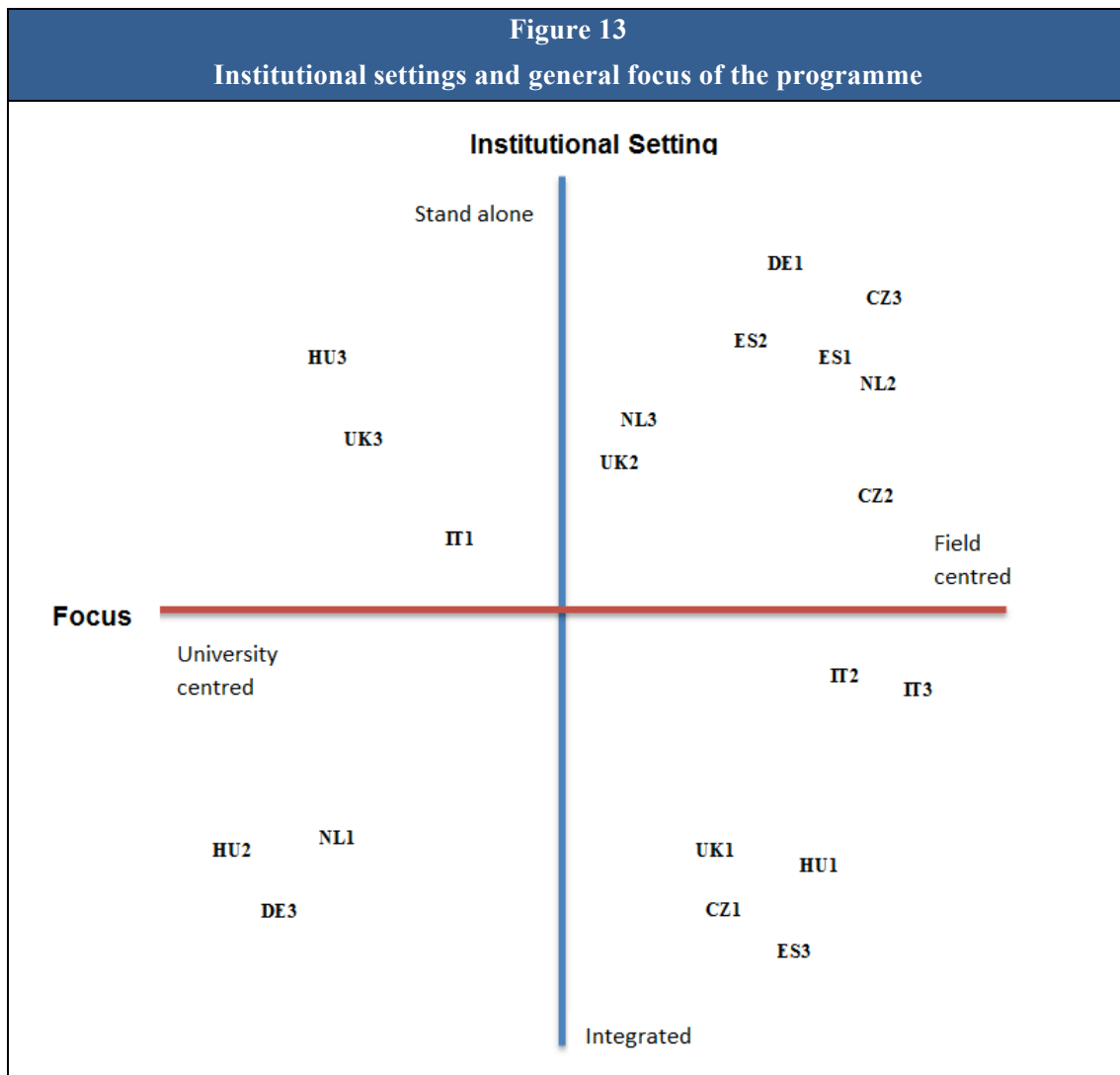
Structural aspect of Social Inclusion

One of the main research interests of the THEMP project has been the question of if and in which ways higher education institutions are involved in lifelong learning with a special focus on mid-life learners. The state of the art within such lifelong learning programmes and activities has been studied in seven European countries. Despite the diversity among the programmes, they have in common the fact that they refer to learning activities in general and hence, they build a link between scientific knowledge and professional development. They bridge the scientific world of HE institutions and the labour market. For a better understanding of the cases studied in the framework of the project, programmes and lifelong learning activities will be summarised in the following section under four major thematic headings:

- If and how do the design and implementation of the lifelong learning activities take age specific issues into consideration?
- How relevant are those programs for mid-life learners and how is the curriculum development designed and adapted?
- How are such activities are evaluated and what are the impacts?
- What is their relevance to labour market orientation and social inclusion in general?

Target group specific needs and topics are related to the background of the participants. HE-Institutions in the selected European countries have long been involved in lifelong learning activities and offer a variety of programmes. Nevertheless, the major target group has been either graduates or persons with some academic background. HE-institutions either do not offer any specific programmes for a wider audience without any academic background or the would-be participants have mostly been reluctant to connect with HE-institutions. The opening of HE-institutions to a wider public, greater permeability and recognition of occupational and life experiences for access to study have been major topics on the European agenda for restructuring education systems. The notion that HE-institutions should play an important role in lifelong learning and reach out to new target groups has been a key feature of that strategy.

The involvement of HE-institutions in lifelong learning activities in partner countries differs in intensity and development. The analysis of the case studies shows that, in general, the programmes demonstrate high diversity with respect to age, occupation and target group. Other than traditional students, students with professional background, graduates, employees, self-employed people, police officers and a variety of occupational groups are targeted in their offerings.

The scrutiny of 21 cases in partner countries shows that mid-life learners or persons over 45 are only involved in these to a limited extent. Only a few programmes directly address such age groups. Mid-life learners could be observed among participants in several lifelong learning activities, but in general they are not the main target group of the special programmes. They are treated like other age groups, and their participation occurs at random and not as a result of any specific orientation of the programmes. They are mostly heterogeneous groups of people with respect to age, education and previous work experience. Although huge progress has been made to open up HE-institutions to new populations, the improvement of the regulatory framework, the design and implementation of appropriate programmes and flexibility for the incorporation of mid-life learners constitutes one of the major challenges in the European lifelong learning system.

Table 18 Target group and curriculum development				
		Programme	**Target group specific needs and activities**	**Curriculum Development**
CZ	1	Programme for School Consultants	Employed (teachers who are to become school consultants). Access: (degree and professional experience)	Traditional lectures, discussions, interactive training, networking
	2	PREFEKT	Employed + students (researchers and research administrative staff, doctoral students): (from within the university or partner universities)	Predominantly traditional lectures, some interactive activities
	3	Traffic Psychology	(Self-) employed (psychologists who want to take up a career of the traffic psychologist or continue it). (degree and professional experience)	Traditional lectures, discussions, interactive practical trials, web forum
DE	1	Change Management	The programme is oriented to people who work in positions as employee's representatives particularly members of work councils. The participant have usual no academic background and even never had contact to an academic institution. They have long years of occupation practice and experience. The participants belong middle-aged groups	The programs focus is on linking the theoretical background knowledge with practical implementation of newly gained skills. The lecturers must be able to transmit academic findings, show practical content and adapt it to the target group. Most of them are professors of the university in Bochum, but also external lecturers with an economic background
	2	VAWi Business Computer Science	Following target groups are in the focus: People with migration background and people who want to acquire a degree in tertiary education. A minimum 3.0 in a qualifying program at a university or equivalent At least one year occupational experience IT-related competencies equivalent to one year BA-program in computer science, economics or engineering science	The program is based on 100% e-Learning and has modules with different specialization possibilities. 20 lecturers, 40 tutors are involved in the course. There is a central online portal for documents and information, some lecturers put videos online. The content and structure of a lecture is not adjusted to midlife learners needs.
	3	Infernum: The interdisciplinary Distance Learning Program for Environmental Sciences	The program is addressed to employees in business, science, administrative bodies, freelancers and qualified junior scientists who want to acquire environmentally-related skills. The master's program Infernum requires a university degree and can be completed with 60, 90 or 120 credits, depending on the previous degree A first university degree or college degree are required	The curriculum combines different elements of blended learning to provide students a largely space and time-independent studies. It consists of: • Study letters (teaching texts and readers) • Virtual Learning Environments • Classroom seminars The lecturers have experience in teaching and adult building mostly from practical work.
ES	1	Human Resource Management	It addresses learners from different academic fields. The students are persons without work experience with the	The two year programme is modular providing two kinds of certificates. It combines theoretical knowledge about

		Programme	Target group specific needs and activities	Curriculum Development
			objective to enrich and specify their education curriculum, or students with work experience, who to refresh their professional knowledge, prepare themselves for new working opportunities or to prepare their re-entry in the labour market.	Human Resources Management with problem based learning in small groups, project based learning and internships in enterprise to reinforce the practical aspects of the students without direct access to work practice
2		Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organisation	It addresses people who have professional experience or experience as voluntaries in the sector of non-profit organisation. The majority is work in non-profit organisation. They want to be prepared for new work tasks at management level or to improve their management performance. Due to this characteristic, the main part of the learners has around 35 years. The majority of the learners have higher education qualifications, but also people without such certificate can access to the course. The participants are selected by personal interviews with the programme director	It is a blended learning programme combining on-line learning with three face-to-face sessions. The programme is modulated and counts with a central place (Moodle) where documents and information are available, This central place is also the means for collective learning of learner groups moderated by the tutors. The design is adjust to have learners from all parts of the world.
3		1. Photovoltaic Energy 2. Car design 3. European Financial Advisor	**1:** Target group: young graduates without work experience but also people with work experience in the sector. The objective is to prepare them to handle a new working field in the sector improving so their work opportunities. To have a higher qualification certificate isn't an admission criteria **2:** Target group: Mainly people with high interest in car design coming directly from other official university careers. It is a course oriented to a very specific professional sector offering also access to new labour opportunities. **3:** Oriented to people working in the sector facilitating professional training as a requisite to work in the sector. Their objective is to obtain a training certificate, which is compulsory to work in the sector. Many of the participants are preparing labour market transitions due to the critical situation of the branch	**1:** Modulated online programme with asynchronous tutorials and online examinations. The-learning process is reinforced with practical examples and problems developed from information acquired from real installations and virtual tours to the facilities that are available in the university (videos showing the photovoltaic plants). It includes also the offer to participate voluntary in face-to-face session in the installations of the university **2:** is a face-to-face programme organised in evening session from Monday to Friday of 3,5 hour. The students learn the theoretical basis and practice car design taught by academics and professionals. It is based on project learning. The student must present three individual projects and perform an original project as a thesis. **3:** It is a blended learning programme including face-to-face sessions and online learning allowing self-directed learning including group learning to solve hypothetical problems. It is based on standardized programmes to

		Programme	Target group specific needs and activities	Curriculum Development
Table 18 **Target group and curriculum development**				
HU				obtain the certificate of European Financial Advisors including 13 modules.
	1	KITE Farmers' training programme	The main target groups of the programme are companies acting as (potential) buyers of premium machinery distributed by KITE; These companies mainly operate in the field of plant production.	The curriculum is jointly developed by the KITE and faculty staff members
	2	Quality Management Engineering Studies	The programme is target for graduated engineering professionals who would like to deepen their competences in quality management issues.	The programme is based on the market needs of the potential target group. The curriculum development includes regular dialogue with the representatives of the various professional bodies working on the field.
	3	Business Coach Postgraduate Programme	3 target groups identified: (1) those already possessing professional experiences (psychologists, HR consultants, trainers, etc.) wanting to improve their existing competences. (2) those who want to change their professional carrier and learn a new profession. (3) Those that use the programme in order to support their personal development.	The content of the courses is practice-oriented. On the one hand experienced practitioners are involved as external lecturers and the content is designed according to the competence needs of a business coach, on the other.
IT	1	FormArea Educational Campus	Unemployed	The Occupational Campus has been taught as a series of laboratories/learning modules which are embedded into larger training programs with technical and professional contents (Corsi di Qualificazione Professionale), awarded by the Emilia Romagna Region. In general, each edition of the programme is articulated in traditional lessons focused on the development of transversal competencies like decision making, rationality, autonomy, team work, and communication. Other parts of the programme might be dedicated to activities like career counselling, skill balance and evaluation, enterprise culture, entrepreneurship, employability.
	2	'International Business Leadership'	Managers	The program was designed and implemented following the scheme of a 'Temporary Enterprises Association' that was stipulated among Fondazione Ansaldo, University of Genoa

		Programme	Target group specific needs and activities	Curriculum Development
NL				(Department of Economics and PerForm), three companies (Ansaldo STS S.p.A., Oto Melara S.p.A., SIIT Sistemi Intelligenti Integrati e Tecnologie) and the Italian National Research Council (CNR). The master had a mixed didactical model: two days per week (12 hours) of 'classical' lecturing plus work experiences and stages in Italy and abroad. The programme lasts 1.500 hours on overall: 288 hours in class, 40 hours E-Learning, 40 hours abroad, and 410 hours of Project Work and 748 hours of individual study.
	3	"CasaClima" Environmental Design	Professionals in environmental planning	The Master in "CasaClima" is articulated into basic courses (sustainable development and low energy consumption, efficiency, building physics, solar plants and others), for about 350 hours of lessons, and specific or complementary courses (timber buildings and architectures, fireproofing, waterproofing, marketing, management), for about 150 hours of lessons. In addition to traditional lectures, the program includes a 150 hours internship in domain-related companies or institutions. External courses within industries, conferences, seminars, trips and activities in laboratories also contribute to the didactical offer.
NL	**1**	Course Public Affairs	Professionals working in the field concerned. Open access for higher educated professionals	Series of lectures and workshops, study trips; participants work on assignments and take part in discussions
	2	Learning Network Management of Innovation	Professionals working in vocational education. Access for professionals holding or acquiring a staff position in that field	Learning network: participants share experiences, discuss practices and develop knowledge, supported by researchers
	3	Master of Criminal Investigation	Police officers wanting to develop their careers and 'lateral influx' from outside the police. Both groups having or acquiring HE level; transition courses and APL available	Dual programme: integration of learning and working; study projects and working projects are connected
UK	**1**	BA Community Development	Formal qualifications are not required for entry. The focus of the programme is on the provision of a professional	Mix of academic and Practice orientation – extensive use of group-work, and practice placements; entry

		Programme	Target group specific needs and activities	Curriculum Development
		Table 18		
		Target group and curriculum development		
			qualification to work in Community Development, Youth Work, Community Work and related fields. In relation to branding, in keeping with the ethos of the programme there is a focus appropriate to the target group and ethos of inclusion, empowerment and social change.	restricted to existing lower level practitioners
2		Health and Social Care, Business and IT	Students are a mix of those seeking professional qualifications to further chosen career (BA Childhood Practice/Studies; BSc Health Studies), or to gain new qualifications to advance in present career, or provide them with more options and opportunities (BSc Information Technology BA Business Studies).	Flexible provision, pre-entry and on-going personal guidance and support, mix of face to face, blended and distance opportunities. Preparatory and access courses available
3		Health and Social Care, Community Education	Student funding is a mix of personal finance, Individual Learning Accounts (ILAs), and Scottish Funding Council (SFC) grants. In addition, for some courses in areas of CPD or professional areas there may be some employer support. Some activities receive stakeholder and/or central/local government support. 53% of OU students in health and social care are sponsored by their employers.	Almost unlimited flexibility, true open access; supported learning environment with both personal and professional orientations

The basic structure of the further training programs for adult learners is characterised by the diversity of learners. This, therefore, presents important challenges: How to adjust contents and didactical aspects to the requirements and needs of the learners constitutes one of the main challenges in TLL-programmes; if and how the HE-institutions integrate and incorporate didactical issues for the design and implementation of training programs with a special focus on mid-life learners.

In comparing the case studies, analysis shows that, in some programmes, the participants have, in general, no academic background and even had no contact to any academic institution during their previous working experience, whereas in others the target groups are graduates with professional experience. Depending on the structure of the programmes and on the target group, the lecturers and programme initiators take target group specific issues into account when planning study design and content preparation. This allows a balance of professionally-oriented content and scientific knowledge in order to achieve optimal learning progress. Some programmes directly target an increase in employability of the participants. The participants with an academic background mostly want either to upgrade their knowledge and skills, or to acquire new qualifications in order to achieve a better salary or position. In general, programmes developed for people with an academic background focus on a combination of scientific-knowledge together with the professional needs of the participants. Since many

participants are working part time or fulltime and have, hence, professional experience, this encourages the incorporation of practical experiences into programme content.

For curriculum development, several forms of teaching and learning apply. As well as traditional learning methods such as classroom seminars, e-learning, blended-learning, project works, study letters and documents, virtual learning environments and study trips are used. Learning networks among students encourage the sharing of experiences and discussion of practices.
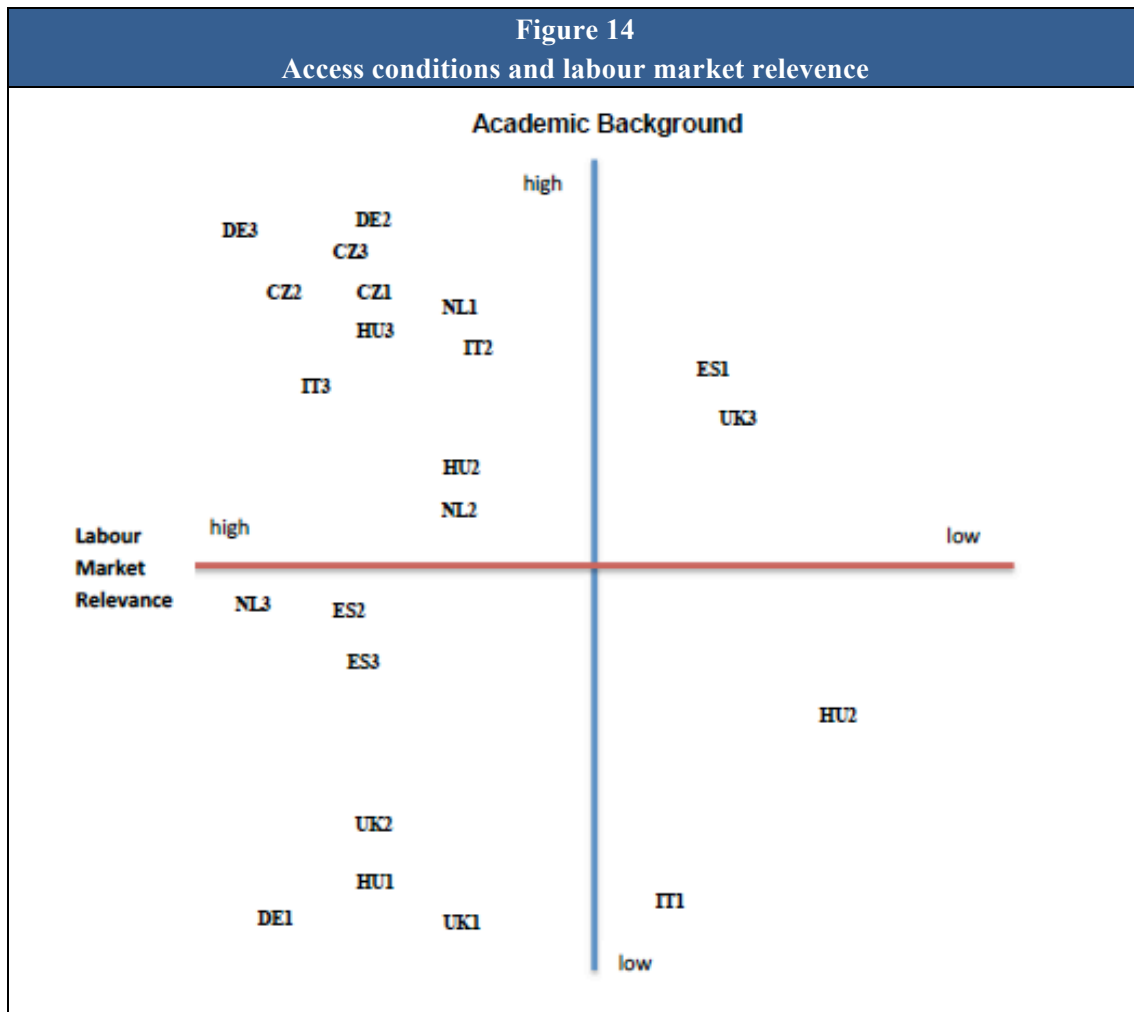
The central issues regarding curriculum can be classified under general topics.

- Supply driven/demand driven: The curriculum can be based on the application of particular teaching methods without taking specific issues of the target group into account. This approach can be labelled as supply driven. For example, in the case of the Czech programmes, the central focus for curriculum is to use traditional teaching and learning methods with a strong emphasis on learning, and transmitting the knowledge to students without taking into account age, experience and academic background. In demand driven programs, as with the programme "Change Management" there is a strong emphasis on the specific background and needs of the participants. Former professional experience and labour market requirements are taken into consideration at the stage of curriculum planning. Both supply driven and demand driven approaches may use new teaching approaches via e-learning and virtual platforms, and the use of interactive methods.

- Academic and scientific base, practical dimension (improvement of general ability): The selected programmes differ in academic and practical orientation. Master programmes like Infernum, VAWI (Business computer science) require an academic degree for access. In some others like Change Management, KITE Farmers Training and the photovoltaic programme of the UPV, an academic background is not needed, even though the programmes are delivered in HE-institutions. In general, programmes may concentrate on the practical dimension without spending much time on academic theoretical aspects. Furthermore, programmes such as 'FromArea' which is targeted at the unemployed, or 'Course Public Affairs', which attracts professionals working in the field, all emphasis a general improvement of skills and abilities in order to enhance prospects in the labour market.

- Inclusive/exclusive (general orientation or experience): the curriculum may include professional experience as an integral part of the training programme. Several participating programmes highlight the importance of such design content. Project work, workshops, learning networks, flexible provision, personal guidance and support enhance the experience of learning interactively. Some master courses, incorporate a limited integration of the professional experience of participants into the degree programme.

- Connection to working activity: Practical use or integration of learning and working: learning motivation can increase if the curriculum is connected to the working activity of participants. In the case of Change Management, for example, the learners may choose a practical topic from their own working place for project work and this can give additional relevance and motivation.

		Programme	Target group orientation		Access conditions		Programm Finance	
		Table 19 **Overview of target group dimension and finances of the programmes**	employed	unemployed	Academic background	Professional Experience	Own Contribution	Other financial resources
CZ	1	Programme for School Consultants	XXX*	X	XXX	XX	XXX	X
	2	PREFEKT	XXX	X	XXX	X	XX	XX
	3	Traffic Psychology	XXX	X	XXX	XXX	XX	XX
DE	1	Change Management	XX	X	X	XXX	X	XXX
	2	VAWi Business Computer Science	XX	X	XXX	XXX	XX	X
	3	Infernum:	XXX	X	XXX	XX	XXX	X
ES	1	Human Resource Management	XXX	X	XXX	XX	X	XXX
	2	Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organisation	XX	XX	XX	X	XX	XX
	3	Photovoltaic Energy, Car design, European Financial Advisor	XXX	XX	XX	X	XX	XX
HU	1	KITE Farmers' training programme	XXX	X	XX	XXX	XX	XX
	2	Quality Management Engineering Studies	XXX	X	XXX	XXX	XXX	X
	3	Business Coach Postgraduate Programme	XXX	X	XXX	XXX	XXX	X
IT	1	FormArea Educational Campus	X	XXX	X	XX	X	XXX
	2	'International Business Leadership'	XXX	X	XXX	XX	X	XXX
	3	"CasaClima" Environmental Design	XXX	XX	XXX	X	XX	XX
NL	1	Course Public Affairs	XXX	XX	XXX	XX	XX	XX
	2	Learning Network Management of Innovation	XXX	X	XX	XXX	X	XXX
	3	Master of Criminal Investigation	XXX	XXX	XX	XXX	X	XXX
UK	1	BA Community Development	XXX	X	X	XXX	X	XXX
	2	Health and Social Care, Business and IT	XXX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX
	3	Health and Social Care, Community Education	XXX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XXX
*) **XXX** high, **XX** medium, **X** low.								

Figure 14
Access conditions and labour market relevence

For the classification of the different analysed programmes under the perspective of social inclusion, we propose two criteria: the access to the programmes and their labour market relevance. The vertical axis in the graph above refers to access conditions and the general orientation of the programmes. The majority of them require an academic degree in order to obtain a place. Some require a combination of an academic degree and professional experience. Students and professionals working in the field are targeted as well. With the exception of the OuiS (UK3), which operates a true open access policy, only a few courses such as BA Community Development Program (UK1) do not require any formal qualification for entry, although these do require practical experience. In Spain, Photovoltaic Energy, Car design (ES3) aims to satisfy specific training needs without definition of the target groups in terms of labour status. The programme 'Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organization' (ES2) is, however, oriented towards preparing people for promotion to positions in Human Resource management in this specific sector and is therefore closely related to labour market transition.

The second axis of the graph demonstrates the relevance of the programmes for the labour market. Nearly all of them have an effect on the employability of the participants. These may be effective directly or indirectly, or take place in the short or long run. Capacity building and upgrading skills and competencies allows participants to have better opportunities in the labour

market. Those participants who were interviewed in the case studies have confirmed that they would either get a better position in the company where they work or change the work place.

The programmes address both unemployed and employed participants. Some programmes, however, do not differentiate between those groups. 'FormArea Educational Campus', for example, offers several series of learning modules which are embedded into larger training programs with technical and professional content. The main target group is the unemployed, whereas the majority of the other courses are dedicated to specific training needs irrespective of labour status. Employed people and professionals active in the labour market follow the training programmes either on a part time basis or divided into short term modules. Labour market status is especially important for financing such programmes.

Working professionals tend to regard participation in the courses as an opportunity to upgrade qualifications and acquire new skills. For example, in the Dutch 'Course Public Affairs' (NL1) and 'Learning Network Management of Innovation' (NL2), participants are already actively in a job and expect future improvements in employment status. 'Change Management' (DE1) on the other hand, aims to prepare working council members for new positions and to help them find new positions either in the open labour market or in their employing companies. In some other programmes, students are a mixture of those seeking professional qualifications to further their chosen career or those hoping to gain new qualifications to advance in their present career. In general, the majority of the programmes have a direct or indirect connection to the labour market. Since some of the participants are already professionals in their field they are expecting to further their own career. Training courses have positive effects for self-employed participants as well. Masters programmes also require, besides an academic degree, some professional experience in the relevant field. For such courses, there is a high relevance for the labour market. In general, all programs have at least some relevance for the labour market. Any direct connection leading to labour market transition, however, cannot be concluded from participation activities in the training programmes studied so far.

		Programme	Evaluation and Assessment of Impacts	Social Reach and Social Inclusion
Table 20				
Evaluation of impacts and social inclusion				
CZ	1	Programme for School Consultants	Informal unstandardised evaluation (not for all classes), accreditation (professional recognition), impact not measured, but can reasonably be expected to somewhat increase responsibilities and income	(Mainly) human capital (accreditation), social capital (networking, sharing experience), social mission (positive impact on children with difficulties and their families)
	2	PREFEKT	Continuous external evaluation (questionnaire); Certificate of completion, credits for students; Impact (not measured)	Human capital (research management skills)
	3	Traffic Psychology	Informal unstandardised evaluation (not for all classes), accreditation (professional recognition), impact not measured, but can reasonably be expected to increase (in some cases significantly) income	(Mainly) human capital (accreditation), social capital (networking, sharing experience)
DE	1	Change Management	Constant evaluation in every teaching unit particularly through evaluation forms fulfilled by the students	The program has made a successful contribution to social inclusion of participants by capacity building where a new orientation and reintegration of participants to the labour market is strongly emphasised.
	2	VAWi Business Computer Science	Introductory Meetings are evaluated by students with the use of questionnaires. Each module is evaluated at the end of the semester by using questions related to lecturers, content, organisation and structure The administrative unit of the program analyses the results and publishes them to improve the course	The program supports the building of own capabilities to cope with requirements of change labour market. The master program has little relevance for social inclusion.
	3	Infernum: The interdisciplinary Distance Learning Program for Environmental Sciences	Each module is evaluated with a special questionnaire or through a feedback discussion at the end of the course	The program "Infernum" is particular attractive for working people in middle age due to the flexible design of the training and individual focus and can contribute to the development of new networks and social integration of middle-aged learners and affect social inclusion positively.

		Programme	Evaluation and Assessment of Impacts	Social Reach and Social Inclusion
		Table 20		
		Evaluation of impacts and social inclusion		
ES	1	Human Resource Management	A systemic approach for evaluation is not implemented. At the programme level, the students and the lecturers made an evaluation at the end of the module.	Graduate students complement their studies with practical training to improve their labour market opportunities, technical professional improve their work performance.
	2	Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organisation	No systematic impact measurement. Student satisfaction is evaluated at the end of the course.	It's oriented to improve human capital & tacit social capital stock. No information available about impact on employability and quality of work. No systematic impact measurement. Student satisfaction is evaluated at the end of the course.
	3	Photovoltaic Energy, Car design European Financial Advisor	No systematic impact measurement. Student satisfaction is evaluated at the end of the course.	It's oriented to improve human capital & tacit social capital stock. No information available about impact on employability and quality of work. Student satisfaction is evaluated at the end of the course.
HU	1	KITE Farmers' training programme	There is no formal programme evaluation.	The programme aims at developing participants' technical/professional competences in order to increase or preserve their labour market status (human capital).
	2	Quality Management Engineering Studies	The evaluation is based on intensive communication with the participants and regular communication with relevant actors, such as enterprises, chambers, etc.	The programme develops the participants' specific technical knowledge related to quality management as well as their personal skills and competences, e.g. problem solving, systemic thinking, communication.
	3	Business Coach Postgraduate Programme	Complex evaluation: Formal evaluation made by the participants (questionnaire). A programme mentor is responsible for mediating between students and lecturers. The programme management regularly monitors the programme and suggests changes if necessary.	The training programme increases the participants' human and social capital. It contributes to their professional skill development and opens a new career trajectory for them.

		Programme	Evaluation and Assessment of Impacts	Social Reach and Social Inclusion
IT	**1**	FormArea Educational Campus	The effectiveness of the Campus Laboratories is evaluated both at the end of lessons and some months after course conclusion. The evaluation takes place through ad-hoc questionnaires which are jointly edited by the University of Bologna, FormArea and the funding institutions. The questionnaire evaluates both learners' satisfaction and their occupational outcomes. The first assessment pointed out that about 30% of participants successfully found a new job after attending the program.	Indirect (soft skills): decision making, rationality, autonomy, team work, communication, career counselling, skill balance and evaluation, enterprise culture, entrepreneurship, employability. The programme is specifically targeted to support adults going through transitions in their professional lives. The Occupational Campus is open to all adults; however, its main focus is on those workers who have been adversely affected by crisis (people who have lost their job or are risking losing it, people who are requested to acquire new competencies to maintain their occupation, etc.).
	2	'International Business Leadership'	The effectiveness of the program was measured by two different means, internal (made by Perform) and an external auditing.	All employed participants covered managerial positions within big and middle Italian companies operating in the high-technology sector. The main aim is to enrich the skills of those who are already employed. A second level degree is required to be admitted to the programme.
	3	"CasaClima" Environmental Design	The effectiveness of the program is measured every year, at the end of activities, with a questionnaire aimed to investigate learners' satisfaction.	The main educational goal of the course is to create professionals able to plan and coordinate projects based on low-energy consumption, conserving energy in existing timber-made buildings. A second level degree is required to be admitted to the programme.
NL	**1**	Course Public Affairs	Process evaluations during the course. No formal assessment of impact.	Open to newcomers, but mainly addressing people already having a position in the field concerned.
	2	Learning Network Management of Innovation	Informal process evaluation. No formal evaluation of impact.	Exclusively directed at staff members of organisations in the field concerned.

Table header:

Table 20

Evaluation of impacts and social inclusion

		Programme	Evaluation and Assessment of Impacts	Social Reach and Social Inclusion
		Table 20		
		Evaluation of impacts and social inclusion		
	3	Master of Criminal Investigation	Formal evaluation of educative process and learning outcomes. Semi formalised evaluation of impact, through field committees and evaluations among alumni.	Explicitly aiming at career development opportunities up to tertiary level to people both from inside and from outside the police organisation.
UK	1	BA Community Development	Credit rating mapped onto SCQF plus professional accreditation and validation if relevant. University wide evaluation systems Retention, progression and Retention, progression and Retention, progression and completion. Completion. Sector wide KPIs and both internal and external Quality Assurance mechanisms	Social inclusion, personal capital and empowerment as key part of programme ethos slightly at odds at institutional level
	2	Health and Social Care, Business and IT	Credit rating mapped onto SCQF plus professional accreditation and validation if relevant. University wide evaluation systems in relation to retention, progression and completion. Sector wide KPIs and both internal and external Quality Assurance mechanisms	Social inclusion and personal capital as key part of LLA mission and ethos as well as provision of vocationally relevant degrees and programs
	3	Health and Social Care, Community Education	Credit rating mapped onto SCQF plus professional accreditation and validation if relevant. University wide evaluation systems in relation to retention, progression and completion. Sector wide KPIs and both internal and external Quality Assurance mechanisms	Social inclusion, social justice and empowerment through personal capital development key to institutional ethos

In general, evaluations of the effectiveness of the programmes are considered of great importance. Programme managers are interested in feedback which could provide information for changes in design, content, implementation and impact of the programmes. Whereas some programmes conduct continuous evaluation during the implementation stage, others evaluate the satisfaction of the participants at the end of each module or programme. With respect to reach and diversity, evaluation can be performed in different ways:

- **Accreditation:** the effectiveness of the programs can be recognised formally or non-formally. As in the Italian case 'International Business Leadership"' the measurement can be conducted by external auditing. Non-formal evaluations are applied in nearly all cases. In two of the Spanish cases, no systematic impact measurement is carried out during the

course. The programmes or training units, however, are evaluated through a specially-designed questionnaire or through feedback discussion at the end of the course.

- **Professional Certification**: In the UK-Scottish cases, courses are evaluated through the medium of credit rating mapped onto Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework (SCQF) plus professional accreditation. Mostly, they are evaluated for internal purposes in order to obtain insights of participant-satisfaction and professional outcomes. Professional certification would have higher relevance if the courses are part of a university degree programme.

- **Follow-up studies:** the majority of the programmes studied so far have direct or indirect effects on employability and, hence, high labour market relevance. The effects can only be seen, however, after certain time lag, which would make any measurement and evaluation about the immediate outcomes difficult. Professional outcomes may be related to transition from unemployment to employment or to sucessful job integration. Skills acquired during the program would have their impacts in the current work place if the participants are already employed. Unfortunately, in none of the case studies, a later follow-up evaluation forms part of the evaluation procedures. Programme managers are mainly interested in evaluation during and at the end of the courses for future optimization and adaptation. Some of the interview partners claimed that the continuing success of the programme would be measured if it has a good reputation in the training market. Unsuccessful programmes without positive impacts on participants would be terminated due to lack of interest. In this sense, a prolonged delivery of the programme can be interpreted as a success factor. Furthermore, follow-up studies tend to be cost and time intensive. They also require know-how and experience, which is why they are not often carried out.

With respect to social inclusion, the case studies have made both a direct and an indirect contribution. Some of them have a strong focus on providing adults with opportunities either to embark on tertiary level study in order to enter graduate, postgraduate or professional level employment, to move or change career direction, or to progress within an existing career or profession. Some lifelong learning activities have indirect relevance to capacity building, especially where participants are encouraged to build up human and social capital (networking, sharing experience) which may contribute positively to social inclusion.

The reach of the programmes in the case studies is often limited because of their scope and content and the access limitations set by the universities. For example, in the case of Bochum-University and Fern-University Hagen, access to the programs, is limited to those with a first university degree or at least a certificate that would enable accessibility to a university. Persons without such certification or degree cannot attend such programmes. Even though, in the past, some measures were taken to ease the participation of people without degrees, only in a few universities in partner countries would one find this happening. Especially, distance learning and virtual learning platforms offer valuable opportunities for participants who want to stay employed or to acquire a new degree or upgrade qualification and skills which would eventually allow further promotion possibilities and increase employability. Such platforms would be a useful extension, and complementary, to the regular study programs at the university. In the face of diminishing financial resources of the universities and overcrowded seminar rooms in many universities, this would relieve particular constrains and offer students new possibilities for more effective learning.

		Programme	Labour market orientation		Capacity building		Connection to working activity	
		Table 21 **Social inclusion of the programme**						
			Direct relevance	Improvement of skills	General orientation	Professional experience	Practical use	Integration to learning and working
CZ	1	Programme for School Consultants	XX	XX	XX	XX	XXX	XX
	2	PREFEKT	XX	XX	XXX	X	XXX	XX
	3	Traffic Psychology	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX
DE	1	Change Management	XXX	XX	X	XX	XXX	XXX
	2	VAWi Business Computer Science	XX	X	XX	XX	XXX	X
	3	Infernum:	XX	X	XX	XX	XX	X
ES	1	Human Resource Management	XXX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX
	2	Social Economy and Management of Non-profit organisation	XXX	XX	XXX	X	XX	XX
	3	Photovoltaic Energy, Car design, European Financial Advisor	XX	XX	XX	XXX	XXX	XX
HU	1	KITE Farmers' training programme	XXX	XX	X	XX	XXX	XX
	2	Quality Management Engineering Studies	XXX	XX	X	XXX	X	XX
	3	Business Coach Postgraduate Programme	XXX	XX	X	XX	XXX	X
IT	1	FormArea Educational Campus	XX	XX	XX	X	XX	X
	2	'International Business Leadership'	XXX	XXX	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
	3	"CasaClima" Environmental Design	XXX	XXX	X	XXX	XX	XXX
NL	1	Course Public Affairs	X	X	XX	X	X	X
	2	Learning Network Management of Innovation	X	XX	XX	XX	XXX	XXX
	3	Master of Criminal Investigation	XXX	XXX	X	XXX	XX	XXX
UK	1	BA Community Development	XXX	XXX	XX	XXX	XXX	XXX
	2	Health and Social Care, Business and IT	XX	XX	XX	XXX	XX	XX
	3	Health and Social Care, Community Education	XX	XXX	XX	XXX	XXX	XX
* **XXX** high, **XX** medium, **X** low.								

The programmes investigated in these case studies have made a valuable contribution to several aspects of social inclusion. Especially, with respect to labour market relevance, they would aim to achieve a degree which would directly improve employability and enhance labour market opportunities. Skills improvements would also have similar direct or indirect effects. The contribution to soft skills like communication, time management or network building would have side effects which enable participants not only to practice them in the workplaces but also to apply them in their private lives. Some programmes like Change Management include the learning of such skills as an integral part of the course.

Programmes can be also evaluated with respect to their contribution to capacity building. They may provide a general orientation which would encourage participants to take up further learning. This outcome would be dependent on the programme's scope and structure. Within a specific labour market segment such as traffic psychology or a farmer' training program, capacity building would be tailored to meet specific needs and oriented towards upgrading professional experience. A more generalised content would be limited in these cases. In general however, the majority of the programmes studied address both objectives. A more generalised approach also covers professional capabilities. Masters programmes delivered in a university setting tend to open new perspectives of the labour market.

Some programmes incorporate working experience into their design and content. If the participants are employed, they will need to apply learning content into practical use as an integral part of the course. In 'Change Management', the participants are encouraged to choose a topic from their working place for their final project work. In this way the practical use of training and learning related to the work place affects learning motivation. Some masters programmes even encourage learners with professional experience to incorporate their professional experience into the teaching and learning processes. In general, such a combination provides profit for both teaching staff and learners. While learners can connect the new knowledge and skills with their own experience, and profit from an exchange of experiences with other learners, the teaching staff can acquire new examples from working life outside their own academic boundaries and, in this way, understand how their academic knowledge actually functions in practice.

How such a diversity of participants with different ages, working experience and labour market status could influence the design and implementation of the programmes constitutes a major challenge for the future. Flexibility in teaching and learning, the modification of didactical content to fit diverse participant groups, part-time study opportunities and the incorporation of professional experience would be a major breakthrough for increasing TLL activities in HE-institutions.

TLL and future challenges in HE-Institutions with special focus on mid-life learners

Social inclusion and the support of labour market integration are major factors underlying agendas for widening participation, and comprise the central focus of the THEMP project. This agenda has its roots in the historical view of university education as accessible to, and beneficial for, only a small proportion of the population. However, in many countries the increase in higher education numbers has largely occurred in response to the demand. Such an increase has not necessarily resulted in the widening of participation for under-represented groups. In

particular, social background is still a major determining factor in several European countries. Issues surrounding the opening up of higher education to wider groups, the development of procedures for recognition of prior work experience and breaking down the barriers to access have made great progress in recent years, but they are still underdeveloped, and will present major challenges to European education systems in the coming years.

Universities that wish to develop tertiary lifelong learning policies may consider a number of challenges revealed by our project. Some conclusions based on selected case studies can be summarized as follows:

- Universities have, in general, two main missions: The conduct of scientific research and the provision of educational programmes in a variety of disciplines for initial students. Tertiary lifelong learning, as well as adult education in general, isn't integrated in these two missions of many universities. As the need to keep up, to refresh and to renew competences is continuously growing in a knowledge society, it is a fundamental challenge, both to the universities and to government policy, to adopt it as a 'mission'. Many universities opt to include it in the third mission as service to society. Even where HE-Institutions do have such a third mission commitment, it does not enjoy a high priority.

- A closer look at lifelong learning activities demonstrates that HE-institutions follow more or less the same strategy with respect to organisation. Either such training activities are outsourced or are organised within the university within a different administrative unit, although the forms and the degree of autonomy vary among HE-institutions.

- Universities contain many strands of knowledge relevant to professional practice. Opening this knowledge to professionals in similar ways as for courses for initial students will not be sufficient. To reach adult and professional learners, the modularisation of programmes, developing appropriate modern learning materials and an extensive use of e-learning, among other actions, are all necessary. Such an approach is especially directed at learners who prefer to follow an individual learning pathway.

- Tertiary lifelong learning that aims to contribute to the sustainable employability of adult professionals has to make the connection to the professional context in which people are working. Universities should consider developing programmes that respond to the needs of specific professional groups and to companies and organisations in particular sectors. A close cooperation with these groups and sectors is therefore desirable. Such cooperation may make programmes more distinctive and contribute to wider access.

- Universities hold good and relevant resources to deliver scientific input into tertiary lifelong learning from a position of independence, and to provide the broader approach that opens up new perspectives into professional practice. In return, adult learners would provide academic staff with insights into professional concerns, so enriching the knowledge, competencies and abilities of academic staff. When this happens, it would be a mutual learning process.

- Professional groups, companies and organisations bring their professional expertise into the programmes. This expertise includes, among other benefits, the implementation and contextualisation of knowledge and the scrutiny of new issues that originate from their practice. In a knowledge society this has a growing importance for the expansion of scientific knowledge. Tertiary Lifelong Learning can provide a suitable format to connect fundamental and disciplinary research with practice-oriented and interdisciplinary knowledge development.

- Post-initial programmes must build on the expertise that people have acquired in their professional practice. They should contribute towards making professional knowledge more explicit and linking this to scientific knowledge in order to create a two-way exchange of expertise. This approach presupposes an active role for learners and a valuable degree of flexibility. In these mutual learning projects the distinction between education and research diminishes. The integration of education and research is always a valuable aim for universities. But the integration of education, research and professional practice is even more valuable. In this way lifelong learning activities may become of more interest for universities. A similar process of co-creation will also advance the transfer of knowledge to professional practice.

- In effect such mutual learning projects will probably adopt the mantle of non-formal programmes. Most formal programmes now demand a course design that starts from a list of required subjects and ends in fixed learning outcomes that are to be tested. A movement towards modularisation may contribute to resolve this problem. A number of non-formal lifelong learning activities may be combined with a formal completion module. Access to the latter may be achieved by means of APL procedures that also take into account non-formal activities. This also allows the formal modules to be independent from vested interests and their funding.

- Programmes with a dual structure offer a particularly appropriate format for joint learning projects organised on the basis of cooperation between universities and organisations in professional practice. They offer good opportunities for creating links between theory and practice, and for the mutually agreed planning of joint studying and working schemes.

- Dual programmes also support the integration of lifelong learning activities in human resources management. This is important from the viewpoint of sustainable employability and underpins the motivation behind the THEMP project. A knowledge economy needs a flexible and dynamic labour market. Organisations may use dual programmes for the recruitment of new staff, for the career development of employees and for improving external mobility.

- In general, access to tertiary lifelong learning for people with a weaker position in the labour market is very limited. An integration of lifelong learning and human resources management may contribute to widening access also for these groups. A broader use of APL and transition courses also adds to improved access. In some countries, financing of further training activities within the HE-system differs from traditional pedagogical perceptions. Taking part in higher education is mainly considered to be a personal investment. Post-initial programmes are completely left to the 'market'. Students who wish to take a second course after their first studies have to pay a much higher fee. Policies do not provide any support to adult learners with a weaker position on the labour market. For example, both in Germany and in the Netherlands further training doesn't receive any financial assistance from the state and all activities and programmes must cover the costs by themselves, whereas such financial incentives do exist in Spain, albeit with limited access possibilities. In all countries, there is, in general, a growing tendency to commercialisation and market orientation in HE. Consequently, the selection and implementation of the programmes depends highly on cost-effectiveness and their attractiveness to potential participants.

- The organisation of further training into autonomous administrative units encourages the design and application of flexible and effective solutions. This allows academic staff much

more freedom to develop new programmes. However the fact that such programmes should be self-financing and relevant to the market is a major drawback to innovation. Some of the interview partners claimed that fluctuations in demand and changing labour market conditions and needs threaten the initiation and continuation of those programmes with insufficient financial support. Programme managers perceive strong competition in the training market. As testified by some interview partners, marketing activities are still underdeveloped and need to be improved. During the initiation and design period, programme managers examine labour market demand and the needs for further training. But the decisions for training programmes are made usually on the basis of cost considerations.

- Except in a few cases, most programmes and activities are not oriented exclusively towards mid-life learners. In some, the specific needs of adult learners with professional experience in the labour market are taken into account during the design and implementation stages. Because of the low proportion of mid-life learners in such programmes, neither content nor didactics are adjusted to meet the special needs of such age groups, so they have to cope with the same study materials and contents as other participants.

- In general, the development of further training programmes by the universities is regarded by some lecturers as problematic because the majority of university staff concentrate mainly on teaching and research and have no practical or job experience in companies. Nevertheless, the widening of HE for wider target groups has led to the development of further training programmes as a necessity. Faced with increasing financial constraints, HE-institutions sometimes regard such a change of focus as a possible strategy for obtaining access to further financial resources.

Opening up HE-Institutions and increasing further training activities will remain important issues in the near future in Europe but there are positive aspects to this change:

- The regulatory framework in most of the European Countries with respect to the extension of training activities has been improved in recent years.

- The design and implementation of TLL-programs has experienced a new impetus in order to establish further training as a third pillar beside research and teaching. HE-institutions now enjoy much more autonomy with respect to the organisation of such activities.

The incorporation of mid-life learners in TLL is, however, still underdeveloped and the lifelong learning activities of the HE-institutions with a special focus on this age group should be improved.

Some proposals for the improvement of TLL programs to support the social inclusion of middle-life learners in HE are as follows:

- Very recently, persistent, turbulent and fluctuating competitiveness in global markets combined with an extremely low rate of growth in EU regions provides a sharpened and more urgent need to ensure that HE institutions, as a major source of highly skilled, knowledge intensive human capital, embrace a modernisation agenda. Therefore, a new orientation of Lifelong Learning strategies in HE is necessary, with respect to the role of

universities in Lifelong Learning strategies with a special focus on older and more diverse target groups.

- The institutional settings and legal framework referring to financial support for further training activities should be improved. In addition staff efforts to prepare implement and satisfy training needs to be encouraged and recognised.
- The selection and implementation of TLL should not depend so much on cost-coverage considerations but should adopt a content and structure consistent with the middle and long term labour market needs. HE-institutions would require more financial support and resources for such a long-term orientation to the design and implementation of such programmes.
- TLL activities can use other locations than campus environment: In workplaces and in other off-campus locations, new forms of digital technologies and online learning platforms are enabled by using distance education.
- The creation of flexible pathways through HE-institutions in order to reduce barriers for adult participation is related to both the regulatory framework and the design and development of suitable programs. Flexibility in the context of opening HE to adults and widening their participation is seen as crucial. Restrictions in the regulatory framework in some partner countries limit part-time solutions and should be removed.
- The analysis of case studies has indicated that follow-up studies which evaluate the labour market perspectives of the former participants and assess the impact of training programs are missing. Developing evaluation procedures and follow-up studies would deliver indicators for optimising the reach of the programs.
- In general, HE-institutions have the capacity to play a role in a lifelong learning strategy. To achieve this target, however, improvements of the regulatory framework as well as additional financial support are needed. Funding possibilities for adult learners for TLL should be improved
- Despite wide discussion, government policies do not give any priority to tertiary lifelong learning. Against this background cooperation between universities and social partners in specific sectors (organisations of employers and of employees) may be necessary to create the conditions for initiatives in tertiary lifelong learning. Such initiatives influence government policies to promote the knowledge economy, and to pay more attention to the facilitation of tertiary lifelong learning.

Teaching and Learning for social inclusion

In this chapter we focus specifically on the questions related to teaching and learning. Data has been gathered in THEMP case studies, principally via the systematic interviewing of key stakeholders (decision makers, lecturers and students), and a survey used only with students [see chapter 2 about Methodology and also Mariani & Krüger 2013].

In relation to the didactical issues, it was necessary to create a model within which we could classify or categorise our observations of teaching and learning approaches within the cases selected for analysis. Didactics, although meaning teaching methods in general, in English is often associated with a heavily teacher-centred approach without significant learner involvement. Thus it is better to speak about teaching and learning approaches, which may vary

from procedures with very extensive teacher involvement to those which are largely self-directed by the student.

Greeno, Collins & Resnick [1996] identify three clusters or broad perspectives that make different assumptions about what we need to know to understanding learning. These are termed:

- the *associationist/empiricist* perspective (learning as activity);
- the *cognitive* perspective (learning as achieving understanding);
- the *situative* perspective (learning as social practice).

These perspectives contribute in distinctly different ways to the way in which we describe learning outcomes, design learning environments and teaching methods, and create associated assessment. In a later section, we will attempt to apply these different perspectives to our case studies, although in practice the distinctions are not always so clear-cut and mutually exclusive.

In the **Associationist/Empiricist approach**, knowledge is an organised accumulation of associations and skill components. Learning is the process of connecting the elementary mental or behavioural units, through sequences of activity. This view encompasses the research traditions of associationism, behaviourism and connectionism (neural networks). At one extreme teaching in this tradition is viewed as heavily didactic and teacher-directed, but it can also encompass learning by doing, individualization of instruction and individual feedback.

Characteristics of teaching and learning approaches in this domain include:

- Teacher-led instruction – lectures, seminars, symposia, tutorials;
- Individualised instruction with questioning and feedback – programmed and computer-based instruction;
- Breaking learning down into small logically-connected and sequenced units;
- Highly focused objectives – competencies;
- Alignment of learning objectives, instructional strategies and methods used to assess learning outcomes.

Cognitive approaches to learning emphasise the assumptions of constructivism that understanding is gained through an active process of creating hypotheses and building new forms of understanding through activity. In short we individually construct knowledge and mental representations through experience and acting on our environment. We construct our own realities through meaning-making, and this is dependent on social and cultural contexts.

Teaching and learning approaches within this domain include:

- Active learning – discussion groups, debates, games, brainstorming, simulations, role plays;
- Guided Learning through discovery and experimentation;
- Experiential learning and its accreditation [Kolb 1984];
- Teachers facilitating connections between new knowledge and previous experience;

- Meta-cognition – learning to learn[1][83];
- Self-directed learning;
- Developing autonomous learners;
- Coaching and modelling of thinking skills;
- Scaffolding[2][84];
- Creating opportunities for reflection on practice [Schön 1983 and Mezirow 1990].

In situated approaches, knowledge is seen as situated in the practices of communities – the outcomes of learning involve the abilities of individuals to successfully participate in those practices. The socio-psychological view of situativity emphasises the importance of context-dependent learning in informal settings. In this context 'practice fields' represent constructivist tasks in which the learning activity is made authentic to the social context in which the skills or knowledge are normally embedded.

Examples of practice fields include:

- Problem-based learning;
- Project-based learning;
- Anchored instruction[85];
- Cognitive apprenticeship[86] [Collins *et al.* 1987].

A second important element of the situated approach is the relationship of an individual to the group where beginners are initially peripheral in communities and gradually become more central. Learning approaches therefore encourage:

- Legitimate Peripheral Participation (LPP) in communities of practice (a concept related to how newcomers become part of a group and introduced by Lave & Wenger [1991];
- Developing learning relationships with others;
- Learning through collaboration;
- Learning through the authentic practice of formulating and solving real problems;
- Collaborative projects and assessment tasks;
- Co-creation of knowledge [Hall *et al* 2013];
- Conversational learning [Laurillard 2002].

All of the above approaches can be mapped onto spatial and temporal contexts. In short these apply to classroom face-to-face, open learning, flexible, virtual and e-learning environments, and to synchronous and asynchronous learning designs.

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[83] In Higher Education linked to the work on approaches to learning developed initially by Marton & Säljö [1976].

[84] This refers to a teacher giving support to a learner during a learning process in various forms (resources, models, guides, advice on skills development, etc), gradually removing the supports over time as the student develops knowledge and skills. It is most closely associated with the work of Vygotsky [1978].

[85] This refers to using a realistic and authentic case or problem as a fixed and situated point from which to develop further learning. It is associated with the work of Bransford *et al.* [1990].

[86] This refers to a skills exchange between masters and apprentices that takes into account tacit knowledge, bringing this into the open in the teaching and learning process, and is linked to Bandura's [1977] notion of modelling

In a more detailed analysis of teaching approaches in each case we have looked for evidence of the characteristics associated with each of these approaches. This will be explored in more detail below, when we attempt to compare cases against a list of criteria drawn from the characteristics listed below. In summary we have looked to analyse the following:

- Modes of instruction/facilitation: blended, face to face, distance;
- Degrees of learner autonomy: choice of options, student input into choice and trajectory of study;
- Support systems in place for learning: provision of pre-entry, ongoing and post study support, guidance and information;
- Capitalising on learner experience: co-construction of knowledge, links to practice:

Additionally we have to link these approaches within teaching and learning to:

- Degree of openness of programmes: Highly selective v completely open to anyone;
- Degree of flexibility of learning: Timing (daytime, evening, weekend, summer, etc) place (e.g. classroom, workplace, etc) and space (face-to-face, virtual, blended);
- Orientation: Vocational v Theoretical.

In relation to the qualities of teachers delivering higher education within the context of a student complement of lifelong learning we are informed by the work of Buiskool *et al.* [2010] for the EC. They classified the competences for being an adult educator into three categories – generic competences, specific competences related to the learning process and specific competences supportive of the learning process. In their work the description of each competence contains the following information:

- **Title**: this is the header of the competence, which contains information summarizing the competence.
- **Description of the competence**: this item gives a full description of the competence.
- **Knowledge**: every competence consists of knowledge, skills and attitudes. In this item the knowledge described is that which is considered to be relevant for this competence.
- **Skills:** In this item the abilities and skills are described, that are considered to be relevant for this competence.
- **Attitudes:** In this item the attitudes are described that are considered to be relevant for this competence.
- **Empirical underpinning:** the competence described can be traced back to empirical reality. Under this heading some examples of job descriptions in Europe that mention this competence are presented.
- **Activities related to/supported by this competence:** under this heading the activities which are supported by this competence are made explicit. With other words, someone who has the competence as described is able to carry out specific activities in a certain context (possibly helped by other competences).

They divide competences into those that are Generic, those that are Specific and directly involved in the learning process and those that are Specific and supportive of the learning process in the following way:

Generic competences

1/ Being a fully autonomous lifelong learner;
2/ Being a communicator, team player and networker;
3/ Being responsible for the further development of adult learning;
4/ Being an expert in a field of study/practice;
5/ Being able to deploy different learning methods, styles and techniques;
6/ Being a motivator;
7/ Dealing with heterogeneity and diversity in groups.

Specific competences: directly involved in the learning process

1/ Being capable of assessment of adult learners' learning needs;
2/ Being capable of designing the learning process;
3/ Being a facilitator of the learning process;
4/ Being an evaluator of the learning process;
5/ Being an advisor / counsellor;
6/ Being a programme developer.

Specific Competences: supportive for the learning process

1/ Being financially responsible;
2/ Being a people manager;
3/ Being a general manager;
4/ Dealing with PR and marketing;
5/ Being supportive in administrative issues;
6/ Being an ICT facilitator.

Only some of the competences are related to delivery and facilitation of learning. We therefore informed our analysis of teaching by choosing just 10 items for analysis. These were items 4-7 under generic competences, and all of the specific competences that are *directly* related to the learning process.

The purpose of this chapter is to report the analysis of the case studies in relation to various characteristics. The first step is to introduce the cases. The table of the case studies in the previous chapter provides general details about the case studies. It also provides brief information on: the location of the case and sector (public/private/cooperation); the programme(s) covered by the case study and institutional setting.

As can be seen the majority of the cases would appear to be organised in universities, although in a number of cases this is either in partnership with external organisations (public or private sector), or as in the case of Spain and to a lesser extent Italy, owned by the university but

operated in separate units or organisations. The only private organisation is noted in CZ3 where we see the operation of professional studies in the form of NL3 and DE3, or in partnership with a sector wide organisation in the case of NL2. The UK cases could be seen more as traditional first cycle courses and programmes.

Having provided a general overview, we will now attempt to apply a typology of the case studies in relation to issues of pedagogy, and will draw upon notions of how far the cases can be classified as Associational/Empiricist; Cognitive or Situated as defined in more detail before. However, as we will report, these classifications are not always mutually exclusive, and that while some cases can in general be located in one of the three approaches, in others elements of more than one can be identified.

ID	Outcome/ award	Associationist/ Empiricist	Cognitive	Situated
Table 22 **Pedagogical approaches**				
Czech Republic				
CZ 1	Legal accreditation and certificate	Knowledge/theory transmission	Some use of games	Elements of problem based learning
CZ 2	CPD ECTS rated	Knowledge/theory transmission		
CZ 3	Legal accreditation and certificate			Dominant method
Germany				
DE 1	Masters level	Knowledge/theory transmission		Project and problem elements
DE 2	Masters		Interactive and supportive learning dominant	
DE 3	Masters		Interactive and supportive learning dominant	Elements of PBL
Hungary				
HU 1	Certificate of Competence (Accredited)		Simulation based	Practice oriented
HU 2	PG Certificate	Competence and focused objective elements		Program and practice elements
HU 3	PG Diploma	Knowledge/theory transmission		Practice and problem elements
Italy				
IT 1	Certificates?		Learning to learn	Collaborative and problem elements
IT 2	Masters	Knowledge/theory transmission		Problem-based and collaborative
IT 3	Masters	Knowledge/ theory transmission		Practice, problems and placements

Table 22 Pedagogical approaches				
ID	Outcome/ award	Associationist/ Empiricist	Cognitive	Situated
Netherlands				
NL 1	CPD Non-formal certificate	Knowledge/ theory transmission dominant	Discussions	Collaboration through exchange of expertise
NL 2	CPD No certificate	Dissemination of scientific knowledge	Active and experiential learning	Community of practice dominant
NL 3	Professional Masters ECTS rated	Knowledge/ theory transmission	Active learning and reflection dominant	Practice-based learning
Spain				
ES 1	Own Master Certificate (2 years)	Some elements	Interactive and supportive learning dominant	Project & problem based; collaborative, placements
ES 2a*	Own Specialist Certificate	Knowledge/ theory transmission	Interactive and supportive learning dominant	Learning through practical examples; possibility to create learning communities;
ES 2b*	Own Masters Certificate		Interactive and supportive learning	Project based, Learning through practice;
ES 2c*	Own Specialist certificate	Knowledge/ theory transmission	Interactive and supportive learning dominant	Learning through practical examples; problem based; possibility to create learning communities; possibility for self directed learning
ES 3	Own Masters Certificate		Interactive and supportive learning	Collaborative and practice/problem elements/ Cognitive apprenticeship
UK-Scotland				
UK 1	Bachelors level + Professional Accreditation		Learning to learn and scaffolding	Collaborative and practice/problem based placements
UK 2#	Bachelors level (Professional Accreditation if relevant)	Knowledge/ theory transmission		Collaborative and practice/problem elements
UK 3#	Bachelors level (Professional Accreditation if relevant)		Interactive and supportive learning dominant	
* ES 2 examines three programmes each with a different dominant approach: ES2a Photovoltaic Energy; ES2b Car design; ES2c European Financial Advisor # Programmes examined included some with professional recognition CPD = Continuous Professional Development PG = Post-Graduate (Generally Second Cycle)				

As can be seen, few of the case studies rely on the empiricist approach with most utilising a combination of approaches, often for specific purposes. Those which tended to have a dominant

cognitive approach were often distance learning courses, where the development of interactive materials, the use of discussion and of learning to learn was dominant, although this was not exclusive to distance learning. On the other hand, those with a more professional or practical orientation tended to be dominated by a situated approach. There were also cases (IT3; HU3) where the first half of the course could best be described as empiricist; while the second half of the course was dominated by a situated approach to apply theory and knowledge to solve problems or to improve practice.

Overall, however, there was little evidence of teaching and learning specifically developed or designed to accommodate older adults, who may or may not have had recent academic or educational experiences. The closest approximation might be IT2, where the emphasis is on learning to learn, and providing soft transferable skills which empower learners to make informed choices about future career or labour market activity. It could, however, also be argued that the *raison d'être* of UK3 when it was created was to provide opportunities for working adults to gain higher education qualifications. For some of the cases (DE2 and DE3), online delivery required material to be adapted and teaching approaches to be more supportive, interactive and collaborative in general. All the three UK cases, while not directly changing teaching style to accommodate older learners; have systems in place to support learners in adapting to the requirements of academic study. Both UK2 and UK3 and also NL3 allocate a personal adviser or tutor to all students. These offer pastoral and academic support to provide them with the required skills and competences to succeed in higher education. Moreover, these cases also offer guidance, support and information at all stages of the learner journey (pre-entry, on-going and post study).

A further consideration in relation to teaching is the recruitment and selection of lecturing staff. We have already noted some of the similarities and differences across THEMP case countries in relation to the extent and degree of collaboration with external partners or stakeholders; and how this is often reflected in the mix of academic and professionals or practical elements. It is not surprising that in a number of cases teaching is shared between those with an academic background and employed directly by the institution on academic contracts; and those with a professional or practice background or with specific relevant expertise.

In some cases, this may take the form of guest lectures, seminars or workshops (for example: CZ2; DE1; HU2). In other cases, external or professional staff play a considerable role (for example: CZ1; CZ3; ES2; ES3) in the delivery of the programme. Moreover, in at least a couple of cases, external staff were responsible for at least 50%, if not more, of teaching input. In the case of HU2, there was a 50/50 split between academics and HR professional employed by the private sector partner, while in the case of IT3, external staff made up the majority, and often these were international academics or professionals recruited through a competitive process.[87]

In the case of NL1, the increased input of professional (60-70%) versus academic (30-40%) staff was the result of a conscious decision to deliver a more professionally oriented programme. In ES1, where a similar academic/professional balance operates, the course organisers believe that this professional focus is a key to its success in attracting participants. In

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[87] A competitive recruitment process also operated in relation to IT1.

addition, lecturers are usually selected by the director and the coordinator based on their CV and a personal interview. Selection of academic and practical staff by the course director also operates in ES2.

In some cases outsourcing was a major element because of the requirements of the course in relation to the amount of specialised or expert input it utilised. In IT1 for example both University Professors and professionals from the private sector are used, depending upon the content of the learning modules. For example, Occupational Psychologists are responsible for content related to change management, motivation and skills balance; communication specialists teach subjects related to information seeking and new media; and Sociologists and Jurists deal with matters related to labour market and workers' rights. Many teachers have previous experience in the University, where they have worked as lecturers or collaborators in research projects. The selection of staff and the balance of professional and academic staff, dependent upon course requirements, can also be seen in ES3 although the majority of the delivery is by academic staff (75%).

There are more specific cases in relation to inputs and these are to some extent directly related to the programme focus. The first concerns HU1 where the outcome is the attainment of specific competences in relation to technologically sophisticated and advanced agricultural equipment. In this case, while academics deliver much of the programme, it is designed and developed by representatives of the manufacturing organisation and their agents who also supplied the required simulation software. A second is that of NL3 where the specific requirements of advanced training of police officers requires a mix of those with academic backgrounds and those with backgrounds in police practice. In addition, experts in specific areas related to law enforcement are also involved in the delivery of specific lectures or workshops. In relation to UK1, while academics deliver much of the programme, external professionals are involved in the supervision and assessment of the required placements which students must undertake in relevant organisations. This practical element is an important factor in the accreditation of the programme by the relevant professional regulatory body.

What might be termed a more distributed model of teaching supply can be observed in ES2. The Financial Advisors programme involves 7 academics and 3 external professionals. The academic lecturers have the responsibility to develop the programme contents, prepare the tests and introduce improvements based on the evaluation of the students. However, they have no direct relation with the students, who are managed by the 3 externals and one academic staff, an associated professor. Finally, there are a number of cases (DE2; DE3; UK2; UK3) where the programmes are embedded in university provision and the responsibility of traditional academic staff based in the department or academic unit responsible for the programme.

Perhaps disappointingly, only a small number of the cases noted specific training in teaching and learning for university lecturers[88] and in very few cases (e.g. DE1; UK3) did this have an emphasis on adult education. In others, (e.g. UK2) lecturers either self-selected to teach on the part-time degree programmes or in the case of DE1 were specifically selected on the basis of their experience in teaching adults; while in the case of UK3, frontline academic contacts were

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[88] In the UK, in general all new academic staff are required to undertake a Teaching in HE post-graduate qualification unless already in possession of such.

subject to intensive training for their role as Associate Tutors. Teaching staff in ES2, ES3 also act as mentors, tutors or provide other forms of support. In NL3 the tasks of providing scientific input, teaching subjects, mentoring students and supervision of students in professional practice are to a large degree divided among different staff members. In other cases (e.g. DE3, IT1), while there may not have been any formal training to teach adult, academic staff often had considerable teaching experience.

When we look at outcomes, the majority were at post-graduate level and as will be shown, many required at least a 1st cycle and in some cases a 2nd cycle qualification for entry. As might be expected, those with a focus on practice usually conferred some form of CPD or in the case of CZ1; CZ3; HU1; UK1 (and to some extent UK2 & UK3) professional accreditation to practice. The UK cases were the only ones to offer adults programmes resulting in a 1st cycle Bachelor degree; said to be crucial in creating the pool of quality workers that Europe 2020 suggests is required in the knowledge economy.

We now turn to issues of organisation. As noted above, it has been suggested that increased flexibility is an important factor in allowing adult learners to access learning opportunities; and a number of examples were provided of what that flexibility might look like in practice. With this in mind we were concerned with questions of mode, delivery, duration and time commitment. For example is the course delivered face-to-face, by distance or is it a mix of the two in a blended mode; and, is it full- or part-time. We also look at entry requirements in terms of level and whether there are restrictions based on having relevant experience or specific employment/professional roles. As Table 3 reports we are also interested in duration, in terms of hours, days or months; and modes of participation in terms of day, evening, weekend. Obviously, in the case of online programmes the inherent flexibility tends to allow students a choice of when to study. Table 3 also reports on the focus or target of the programme and whether this is generic or specific in terms of profession or career outcomes; and, who was responsible for the development of the programme. Finally, Table 22 reports on funding in terms of costs to the students and if there is employer or other support.

ID	Mode(1)	Duration	Entry requirements/ openness	Flexibility	Specific/ generic orientation	Rationale - development	Cost to student
Table 23							
Organisational elements of case studies							
Czech Republic							
CZ 1	F2F; PT	250 hours	1st cycle Restricted	2 days per month	Specific	Legislative change	€520 (employer support)
CZ 2	F2F; PT	92 hours	2nd cycle and restricted access	day	Specific	Collaboration	free
CZ 3	F2F; PT	160 hours	1st cycle and relevant experience	weekend	Specific	Legislative change	€ 380
Germany							
DE 1	F2F; PT	12 month	Professional or vocational education plus relevant experience	day	Specific	Collaboration	free
DE 2	D; PT	Bounded flexibility	1st cycle and selective	flexible	Specific	Collaboration	€???
DE 3	B; PT	Flexible credit related	1st cycle minimum	Flexible/ day	Specific	Collaboration	€???
Hungary							
HU 1	F2F; PT	5 days	Restricted relevant employment	day	Specific	Collaboration but demand led	None (employer)
HU 2	F2F; FT?	12 month	1st cycle	day	Specific	University led?	€ 570
HU 3	F2F; PT?	12 month	1st cycle	day	Specific	University/ private partnership	€ 1.200
Italy							
IT 1	F2F; PT?	48 hours	open	day?	Generic	Collaborative	free
IT 2	F2F; PT?	24 months	2nd cycle required	flexible	Specific	Collaborative	free
IT 3	F2F; FT?	24 months	2nd cycle required	6 day blocks	Specific	Collaborative	€ 7.500
Netherlands							
NL 1	F2F; PT	10 days over one semester	2nd cycle relevant experience	2 day blocks	Specific	Profession led	€4550 (employer support)
NL 2	B; PT	Continuous programme	Professional experience	day	Specific	Sector led	€400 (employer support)
NL 3	F2F; PT	24 month	1st cycle and Restricted	Day	Specific	Profession led	Free (employer pays costs and salary)

ID	Mode(1)	Duration	Entry requirements/ openness	Flexibility	Specific/ generic orientation	Rationale - development	Cost to student
Table 23							
Organisational elements of case studies							
Spain							
ES 1	F2F; PT	24 month	1st cycle	2 day blocks	Specific	Academic led Cooperation with companies	€6000, some employer support
ES 2a*	Online + option F2F session	6-12 month	Professional Experience or HE-certificate	flexible	Specific options	Academic led Cooperation with companies	€ 1.400
ES 2b*	F2F	12 month	HE-certificate	Evening 5 days/week	Specific	Academic led Cooperation with companies	€ 7.800
ES 2c*	blended	12 month	Professional Experience	Flexible + 1 day per week	Specific	Academic led Cooperation with companies	€ 2.700
ES 3	Blended	12 month?	Professional Experience or HE-certificate + interview	Flexible/ day	Specific	Academic led Cooperation with companies	€4000 some aid available
UK-Scotland							
UK 1	F2F; FT	36 months	None but relevant practice required	Day	Specific	Collaboration between School and regulatory body	free¤
UK 2#	F2F/B/D; FT/PT	36/48 months	Access - generally unrestricted	Day, Evening, Weekend	Specific although more generic options available	University led but for accredited degrees in collaboration with stakeholders	free¤
UK 3#	D: PT/FT	Flexible but not less than 36 months	None/ unrestricted	Total flexibility	Specific although more generic options available	University led but for accredited degrees in collaboration with stakeholders	free¤
* ES 2 examines three programmes each with a different dominant approach							
# Programmes examined included some with professional recognition							
(1) F2F = face-to-face; B = blended; D = distance; FT = full-time; PT = part-time							
¤ Scottish and EU students pay no fees but see Section 4 for complexity of UK student funding.							

What is apparent is the diversity in provision represented by the case studies. We can see a mix of delivery modes with F2F in the majority. Distance courses are relatively rare among the selected programmes, although a number of them feature a blended learning approach with the balance or proportion between F2F and online, varying case by case. In terms of commitment and often reflecting that participants are in employment, a number of courses are classified as

part-time with attendance either on a one or two day basis spread over a set period of time. The majority however demand more intensive participation with some requiring a commitment over a considerable period of time (1 – 3 years) in relation to for example: all the German cases; HU2 and HU3; IT2 and IT3; NL3; all the Spanish cases and all the UK cases.

Having already noted the preponderance of provision at post-graduate level it is not surprising that this is reflected in the entry requirements noted above. Not only do a number of cases require 1st cycle qualifications, some require 2nd cycle qualifications and in addition, may be restricted to employees or professionals from specific sectors or areas of practice and/or with existing experience of the field. In respect of the UK, UK1 has no academic entry requirements but is only open to those already with a specified amount of experience in the relevant sector; while for UK2 adults who may not meet academic requirements can be accepted on the basis of APEL or RPL, or on completion of an introductory or preparatory course. UK3 is the only case offering true open access for entry to 1st cycle programmes for adults.

It has been suggested that APEL/APL can play a major role in providing access to higher education for adults with experience and knowledge but lacking traditional and/or formal qualifications. Indeed, since the 1990s the EU has stressed the importance and attempted to promote its development not only at a national level but through an integrated and regulated approach at the level of the EU. Merrill & Hill [2003] provide an overview of this history and noted that:

> *APEL processes could contribute towards the need, manifested by globalised capitalism, for a mobile workforce within Europe as the European Union moves towards economic union. While recognising that there is currently some employment mobility occurring the implementation of APEL for this purpose would enable more people to take up the opportunity. Higher education institutions would play a central role in this process. APEL, through a portfolio or a demonstration of skills and knowledge for accreditation would enable employers to assess the employability of potential workers from another European country, dependent upon an individual's fluency of the appropriate language. The APEL process could be a joint scheme involving higher education institutions and employers. In reality employment mobility within Europe is likely to be more attractive to younger adults and/or those without family ties as they are less likely to be tied geographically to a particular locality. Refugees, particularly the skilled and professionals may also be a group for whom APEL would be a benefit. A more fluid system in relation to employment would also help to erode national boundaries within the European Union. [Ibid. 66].*

However, as we have outlined earlier for the UK, in reality, while there may in theory be the possibility to gain accreditation or recognition of prior learning or prior experience, its actual use varies across and within member states. And even within institutions, only certain programmes may allow recognition of prior credit or experiential learning. A similar lack of action is apparent across the THEMP member states. In Italy and Germany, although legislation on prior learning exists, it is not widespread practice among universities; in the Netherlands, it appears that only the Open University has procedures to facilitate APL; while in other countries, for example, Spain, the Czech Republic and Hungary development of systems for the

recognition of prior learning are at an early stage. Nevertheless, in all cases legislation has been passed, and the importance of prior learning in improving access to higher education is recognised.

The focus of the majority of the programmes is on a specific area, sector or profession with the most obvious example of this being perhaps the Police Academy of NL3; although all the accredited programmes presuppose entry to, or progression within, a specified field or profession. This is also perhaps reflected in the underlying initiators of the development of programmes, a number of which were created in collaboration with sectoral or professional organisations and/or regulatory bodies or, in the case of HU3, in a joint operation between the university and a private sector HR organisation. Others are a result of government legislation as in CZ1 and CZ3; or of collaboration with local enterprise organisations in the case of IT1.

The final category in Table 3 relates to the cost of the course and how much this is the responsibility of the individual student. Research has shown that costs are a major barrier to adults seeking to access higher education. There is considerable diversity in the range of costs, varying from free through hundreds of Euros to the most expensive, costing over €7500. It should be noted though that a number of courses which are classified as CPD often attract some form of employer support.

The final area of interest in this section relates to the role of evaluation and assessment of the case studies.

The three UK cases are all firmly embedded and integrated into their respective universities and, as such, are subject to the same quality assurance and academic standards in relation to regulations on assessment as any other degree. They are also subject to internal evaluation procedures which include student feedback at course and modular level as required by university regulations, and externally through the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA); and for accredited programmes by the relevant professional regulatory body. They all operate a system of student representation at course level. A similar system of academic regulation and evaluation also applies in DE2; NL3; ES1

Formal and detailed systems of feedback and evaluation were incorporated in a number of other cases (DE1; DE3; IT1; IT2; IT3; ES2; ES3), and critical issues raised through this process are subject to affirmative action. In addition, in DE1 and NL3 alumni feedback provides evidence of the effectiveness of the programme in real life settings; while in IT1 and IT2 longer term evaluation of the impact is also collected. In HU3, a complex system of evaluation, which included a mentor to facilitate feedback between students and programme representatives, was operated jointly by the university and its private sector partner.

For some cases in which accreditation plays a role in terms of outputs, regulation may well be in part collaborative and include both academic and professional standards in terms of the skills and competences achieved (NL3 and the UK cases are examples). For others, evaluation, as in CZ1 and HU1, is internal and non-standardised, while in CZ2 it was external and feedback considered for revisions to the design of the programme. Perhaps surprisingly there was no official evaluation of CZ3 although informal feedback was sometimes offered by participants. In the case of HU2, evaluation took the form of constant market research and discussions with key stakeholders and experts to provide on-going feedback to programme design. Finally, due to the nature of the programme NL2, which is the result of mutual negotiations and planning and

subject to change to meet the needs of participants and their organizations; it could be argued that informally the programme is under constant evaluation.

The case studies outlined briefly above illustrate a range of provision serving a variety of target groups often focused on a specific career direction. This is reflected in the number of courses which either provides participants with CPD for employment or accredits practice in professional areas. It could also be argued that this accounts for the number of courses which adopt, at least in part, a *Situated* teaching approach with an emphasis on problem solving, project work and collaborative learning.

We also noted the adoption of a range of flexible practices which, as noted earlier, are seen as important for creating opportunities for adults and the employed to access higher education qualifications. Even in courses where face-to-face teaching was the main method of delivery, many utilised VLEs (Virtual Learning Environments) to provide students with a degree of flexibility in accessing materials and taking part in discussion forums. Only a few of the cases actively used APEL and RPL to allow those with relevant experience to gain credit, which could then be used in lieu of formal entry qualifications.

However, if we look for evidence of provision specifically focused on attracting mid-life adults (those over 45 years) we find that, while many of the courses often attracted those fitting that criterion in substantial numbers, this was often more likely to be related to the fact that many of the courses either required 1st or 2nd cycle qualifications; or experience in a specific profession or role, and thus were unlikely to be an option for young students. Moreover, if we recall the aims of Europe 2020 and the need to increase the number of adults with 1st cycle qualifications in order that member states would be able to compete in the *knowledge economy* and global forces, only the UK cases seem to provide such opportunities. In part, this is perhaps related to the long historical tradition of adult education in the UK which is perhaps not mirrored elsewhere. It is also suggested that higher education funding systems should also play a part in the provision offered at both sectoral and institutional levels, although, given the present economic crisis, it is uncertain whether funding for adult education will be seen as a priority in the coming years.

A further factor in the provision and opportunities for adult learners to access 1st cycle higher education in cases UK2 and UK 3 is the degree of flexibility they offer in terms of entry routes, timing and pace of learning in order to allow adults to gain SCQF credits and to progress at their own pace and to maintain work and family commitments. However, in order to negotiate such flexible systems, learners require sophisticated support and guidance systems. A considerable amount of time and money has been invested by both UK2 and UK 3 in the development of systems and structures to provide information guidance and support at all stages of the learner's journey. They have also invested heavily in the training of specialised support personnel who themselves have 1st cycle and often 2nd cycle qualifications, and each student is allocated a named advisor or tutor.

Finally we must recognise that, in the current crisis; with cuts in many member states to budgets for health education and welfare, it is unlikely that adult education will escape unscathed.

Core conditions[89]

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[89] This chapter is heavily based on Krüger *et al.* [2014].

Criteria of social effectiveness

Our case studies, together with discussions with experts and those responsible for ULLL at two mutual seminars and one conference, have allowed us to extract some criteria for measuring social effectiveness (and to design socially effective adult education programmes). These programmes are designed and implemented within different institutional frameworks. Several management units are outsourced mainly due to regulatory and financial reasons and in order to offer training programmes to wider population groups than traditional degree students. This allows the programme managers to overcome some regulatory and content-related constraints, and achieve a certain autonomy regarding the design and implementation of the programmes. Among case studies some programmes are integrated in the traditional organisational structure of the university. Especially, those programmes requiring accreditation and certification are organised in the universities.

In the majority of programmes the conditions for access are the possession of an undergraduate degree. However several programmes – for instance: two cases in the United Kingdom, one Italian, one Hungarian - do not necessarily require academic degrees as a prerequisite. Also, in four of the five Spanish cases, persons without a degree can gain access by offering particular certificates. Another barrier for adults seeking to access ULLL could be the fee.

Within the cases, there is diversity in provision: face to face is in the majority, distance courses are relatively rare, and a number of them feature a blended learning approach. There is also a high variety in the time spent: attendance can be either on a one or two-day weekly basis or spread over a set period of time. The majority however demand more intensive participation with some requiring a considerable time commitment (1 – 3 years).

Nearly all of the programmes compromise participants who are preparing labour transitions. Examples of transition to other work placements in the same enterprise are the programmes of school consultant, management of non-profit organisations, and Master of criminal investigation. In this category we can also include to a lesser degree the courses of public affairs. Yet others are oriented towards the updating of knowledge, competences and the ability to adapt to changes at the work places, as for instance the farmers' training programme, photovoltaic energy, European financial advisor, learning network management of innovation; and environmental design. Some are focused on preparing for a transition to other work places, as for instance in the three cases of the UK, change management and car design, or to new labour market segments as in the programme of traffic psychologist. A special case is the Italian programme 'Educational campus', which is the only one focused on the transition from unemployment to employment. Through capacity building and upgrading skills and competencies, participants have better opportunities in the labour market.

But, generally, labour market transition is not the main consideration of programme design. They start from an intuitive analysis of training needs, which is later confirmed by its success measured in the number of student attending and completing.

It isn't a surprise that only few programmes directly address the group of persons older than 45 years, but almost all programmes contain learners in this age group. They are treated as are other age groups, and their participation occurs rather at random and not as a result of the specific objectives of the programmes. It isn't the age but the work experience of the

participants and their own precise objectives that distinguishes these programmes from traditional higher education programmes.

Our case studies have confirmed that the work in ULLL is different to the work in 'traditional programmes'. For instance, one programme manager declared that his work as a lecturer is a mutual learning process not only between students but also between lecturers and students, which adds more practical knowledge into the programme.

The orientation towards people with professional experience also implies a more cooperative orientation combining scientific theory with practical content in order to achieve a fitting learning process. But there are small indicators that the programmes developed special teaching and learning approaches in order to accommodate adults with large professional experience.

The recruitment and selection of lecturing staff represents a further variable relating to teaching. In many of the case studies, there is a sizeable mix of academics and professionals, so reinforcing the practical content. Such cooperation with professionals can be very diverse whether they act as contracted lecturers, guest lecturers, seminars participants, or workshop leaders. But very few efforts are made to provide specific teaching and learning training for lecturers, any more than it is for other aspects of the job, such as mentoring, tutoring, supervising professional practices.

Generalised Conclusion

Much work has been undertaken at the international level on adult education in general and on tertiary adult education more specifically. Within the Open Method of Coordination many EU documents have been published establishing objectives and indicators to measure the success of the respective national strategies, since the responsibility for education lies in the hand of member states.

In the area of higher education, adult learning isn't generally considered to be a priority within the two core missions of universities: teaching and research. Adult learning may be incorporated into a third mission. For example, the European Project E3M (European Indicators and Ranking Methodology for University Third Mission), has elaborated "*a set of standard indicators for three dimensions of the Third Mission: Continuing Education, Technology Transfer & Innovation and Social Engagement*" [http://e3mproject.eu/summary.html]. At a Workshop on higher education and adult education [European Commission- 2010b] four missions were suggested, "*based on the maintenance of knowledge through intergenerational storage and transmission of knowledge.*" [*ibid* 3] But, for many observers, it is difficult to understand how teaching and research, which is by nature inter-generational, could be undertaken without involving society at large.[90] To emphasise the relevance of university adult lifelong learning and the need to engage all members of society, it seems more logical to propose its integration into the university teaching/learning mission.

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[90] See for example a recent publication from the Pascal Observatory by Inman & Schuetze [2010]

At the same Workshops, the relevance of adult learning was framed within the globalisation process "*in which competition for high-skilled jobs with other parts of the world will become tougher*" [ibid 2], especially with the rise of China and India as stronger competitors for high skilled professionals. Tertiary adult education was also mentioned as a mean of vulnerability management, for instance for the development of critical thinking at all levels of society. It was claimed that more resources must be devoted to education and training for adults, and to reverse the trend to decreasing adult participation. In addition, the gap between "*the rhetoric of lifelong learning and learner-centred approaches and practice*" [*ibid* 3] was acknowledged to be important. The integration of teachers external to higher education institutions is seen as a strong plus, but its weakness lies in the lack of a unified standard. This becomes even more relevant, since the tasks of lecturers in tertiary adult education is not only centred on teaching, but also includes a wide range of other functions such as counselling, management etc. Finally, it was stressed that tertiary adult learning must be more focused on small and medium sized enterprises, as they are one of the main economic pillars of the EU-economy, but the reality shows a "*lack of esteem in academia to work with SMEs*" [*ibid* 5]. In the course of the workshops, recommendations included the following needs:

1. Validation of prior learning;
2. Better information, advice and guidance;
3. Research on the efficiency of adult teaching;
4. Providing stronger financial support;
5. Overcoming bad past-experience in education;
6. Providing other support to free up time for adult learning;
7. Improving the preparation of adult teachers; and
8. Strengthening cooperation with SME's through a variety of strategies.

Based on our empirical work within the two mutual learning seminars and one conference organised by the project, we can recommend core conditions for socially effective university adult learning:

- Policy environment: Any initiative or strategy must consider that in many countries government policies do not give priority to tertiary lifelong learning. Taking part in higher education is mainly considered a personal investment. Post-initial programmes are left completely to the 'market'. Students willing to take a second course after their first studies have to pay a much higher fee. State financing of studying by students over the age 30 is recently discouraged.
- The strategy must also consider that the university is a multi- functional institution with heterogeneous interests[91]. Tertiary lifelong learning proposals will rarely have the full support of the university and will find obstacles and barriers to its full development.

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[91] There is, for instance, a university internal dispute about the prevalence of research or education, but we can also include the disputes between faculties and departments. For the theoretical and empirical foundation, see the works on micro-politics in organisational theory.

For universities, lifelong learning would imply a paradigm shift. University courses may be seen to be a means to repair deficiencies in the qualifications of professionals, but a more fruitful view would be to make the connection between the acquisition of new scientific and professional knowledge and the mutual benefits that would accrue. This strengthens the rationale for cooperation between science and professional practice, leading to new forms of professional behaviour.

And the desired objective of enhancing the social effectiveness of tertiary lifelong learning requires closer cooperation between the university and labour market professionals at all stages of programme designs. This presupposes new forms of institutional behaviour. For instance, more attention should be paid to monitoring the longer term effects (impact) and the strategies to maintain and revitalise the follow up when needed. If universities wish to be effective in promoting and sustaining lifelong learning, a closer link to the more permanent processes of professional lifelong learning needs to be found, monitored and sustained. This also includes the long-term proactive management of graduates and the ability to utilize information available publically from various sources (esp. using media analyses and data from social networks).

Against this background, it may be necessary to create the pre-conditions for new strategies in tertiary lifelong learning. Such initiatives may also influence government policies that aim to promote the knowledge economy, and to facilitate tertiary lifelong learning.

-   Networking: Universities hold much knowledge relevant to professional practice. Opening this knowledge to professionals in the same way as it is delivered in courses for initial students would not be sufficient. Initial programmes are not easily transformed for post-initial learners. They need special provision, a purposeful policy and, consequently, often require a separate infrastructure and an organisation prepared to provide that. Such an organisation would need to make contact with companies and organisations, develop relevant programmes, use the required media (ICT), welcome participants and arrange for the guidance of professional learners by an adequately trained staff. Improving the competences of adult learners, however, cannot exclusively rely on the capabilities of HE institutions and is not their only role in programme development; labour market demand should also be taken into account in creating sustainable TLL programmes.

Tertiary lifelong learning that aims to contribute to the sustainable employability of adult professionals has to make a connection to the collective, professional context where people are working. Universities may therefore additionally consider developing programmes that respond to the needs of specific professional groups and to companies and organisations in specific sectors. A close cooperation with these groups and sectors is therefore desirable. Such cooperation may also make programmes more acceptable and thereby contribute to greater access.

For the design and development of adult education programmes, universities or their organisational units must network with external stakeholders such as enterprises, entrepreneur organisations, trade unions and labour market agencies. One of the main objectives of this networking must be to detect learning needs in the labour market and transform them in feasible adult courses. A second objective must be the detection of specific risk groups for which the university could design specific education and training measures to support their labour market transitions.

- Specificity of universities: Universities have excellent resources to deliver independent scientific input into tertiary lifelong learning, and to construct a broad syllabus that can open new perspectives to professional practice. Limited curtails such input from universities and obstructs the creation of added value. Universities need to combine their specific expertise with the expertise of professional groups, companies and organisations. This combination of contrasting inputs of expertise includes, among other aspects, the implementation and contextualisation of knowledge and the discussion of new issues that might arise as a result of their experience. In a knowledge society, this scientifically enriched expertise has a growing importance for the development of professional knowledge. Conversely, professionally enriched expertise has a growing relevance for the development of scientific knowledge.

- Funding: Within the perspective of reducing the risk of an under-investment in training programmes, universities need to facilitate learners' access to funding opportunities. This could include, for instance, fee reduction for specific learner groups, information on funding opportunities or support with the formal procedures to apply for funding.

- Guidance: For the same reason, universities must facilitate information for learners on the labour market opportunities linked to their programmes. In order to do this, they should take into account previous learning trajectories of learners as well as staying current on labour market development

- Programme organisation: Programmes should be organised in such a way that they facilitate the fusion of learning, work and private life of the mid-life learners. Mid-life learners need to remain up to date with developments in their work and with ever more flexible working conditions. Many of them have family care responsibilities and other social commitments. In this context, university adult learning programme need to be sufficiently flexible in order to allow learners to reconcile learning with their work and social obligations.

  One way of resolving this problem is to modularise the programmes, for example through non-formal lifelong learning activities combined with a formal completion module. Access to the latter may be arranged using APL procedures that also incorporate non-formal activities. This would allow the formal modules to be independent of interested organisations and the funding they provide.

- Quality: To assure the quality of programmes, universities must not only insert procedures to evaluate learner (and enterprise) satisfaction at the end of the programmes, but also an evaluation of the impact of programmes on the working life of learners after a certain time, for instance at 6, 12 or 18 month intervals after completion.

- Marketing & Communication: Universities should establish coherent marketing and communication strategies not only to "sell" their programmes to potential costumers, but also to detect education and training needs, on the one hand, and specific risk groups, on the other (see networking).

- Lecturer's training: University adult education programmes which target people with substantial work experience require lecturing staff with both academic experience and a knowledge of the respective professional field. In addition, they should achieve an adequate mix of lecturers from academia and from the professional field. The organisers of the programme should assure that lecturers have adequate teaching and communication competences to enable learners to acquire not only human capital (for instance technical professional competences) but also cultural capital (for instance,

communication and social competences) and social capital (networking competences and building of social networks during the programme). For people in mid-life with work experience, learning requires the use of communication competences other than the sort of lecturing that "initial" students coming directly from school receive.[92] This modification of behaviour and attitudes affects both the lecturers from outside the university and the academics. In addition, there is a problem of mismatch between University staff and high-level students from professional groups, organisations and companies. The relatively low level of salaries at universities in some countries can stimulate a shift of lifelong learning activities from universities to professional groups or even companies represented by the teachers. In the long term such an 'activity-drain' leads to an even lower involvement of universities in TLL because programmes are provided at the commercial bases.

- <u>Teaching and learning approaches</u> must be adapted to the specific needs of adult learners. In many cases, blended learning combining the use of e-learning tools with a face-to-face learning environment may to be the best method of offering the necessary flexibility for people in working life. In other cases, face-to-face learning or e-learning only may be more appropriate and feasible for particular individuals. For example, if the programme is designed for a target group dispersed throughout the world, as for instance in one Spanish case, the most appropriate solution is the use of one-line tools. In this particular case it is combined with face-to-face sessions and lectures stimulating self-directed learning processes in order to achieve a high degree of learner involvement. In another example, where the programme is centred more on the transmission of technical competences in the financial area, the exclusive use of online learning tools responds more to the need of the working adult learners. In general, adult education programmes require a greater use of interactive approaches which stimulate both shared and self-directed learning processes among learners.

- <u>Mutual Learning Approach</u>: Post-initial programmes build upon the expertise that people have acquired in their professional practice. Programmes may contribute to making professional knowledge explicit and to facilitating links to scientific knowledge. This can stimulate the exchange of expertise and a more active role with greater flexibility for the participants. In these mutual learning projects the distinction between education and research diminishes, leading to a greater emphasis on lifelong learning at university level. The integration of education and research is always an aim of universities. A process of co-creation advances the transfer of knowledge to professional practice. In the real world, such mutual learning projects will probably be non-formal. Formal programmes mostly demand a design that starts from a series of required subjects and fixed learning outcomes that are to be tested.

- <u>Assessment & evaluation of social effectiveness</u> is necessary to assure high quality education and training, engendering a continuous reflection about their objectives and design. The assessment and evaluation process might be limited to those teaching and

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[92] The European study ALPINE about adult learning professional stated "*that Non Vocational Adult Learning staff cover a broad range of tasks and activities, especially in the case of teachers and trainers*" [Research voor Beleid, 2008: 81]. In spite of that, this report doesn't refer especially to tertiary adult education, we can apply this consideration also on this sector.

learning aspects which relate to the intended learning outcomes. But it might be more appropriate to consider how the learning outcomes can be converted into labour market relevant capital, and their impact on the work and life quality of the learners. Assessment and evaluation procedures must distinguish clearly between the users of the results, policy makers, institutional decision makers and the lifelong learner. To conform to the basic principles of 'Europe 2020' assessment and evaluation must facilitate knowledge and information in the learners so that they can improve the design of their individual learning strategies. Knowledge and information are basic for the management of social vulnerability.

Analysing complexity of University Adult Education

Dimensions to analyse social effectiveness of UAE

Such 'core conditions' are general statements about guiding principles. But as our mapping of the tertiary adult education landscape and our case studies show [see www.themp.eu] university adult education is very complex, and transcends such general analysis. Basic work on the social effectiveness of university adult education must take into account this complexity, and social science must work out a way to reduce it. However, our function as social scientists is to avoid making too general recommendations, but to provide the expertise to analyse adult education at institutional, regional and national level, which allows us then to assess recommendations at different levels to achieve the social effectiveness of the programmes. For this, we also take into consideration the research done in other Lifelong learning projects, and in studies within the field. We will try to do this for university adult education in the following subchapters, providing classification schemes for a) the characteristics of the learners; b) the structural analysis; c) the analysis of teaching and learning; and d) the measurement of social effectiveness. This provides indications of how to define the core conditions whereby university adult education (UAE) can promote social inclusion in terms of employability and quality of work. These include specific profile of the programmes and the organizing institutions, and the particular political and socio-economic environments.

Table 24			
Dimensions of analysis of social effectiveness of UAE			
Learners	**Structure**	**Teaching and Learning**	**Mechanisms to cope risk**
Labour Transitions	Institutional integration	Typology of certificates	Assesment and Consultany Services
Learners' conditions to access to UAE	Organisational structure	Access to programmes	Funding of the programme
Learners' expectations	Distribution of tasks	Recognition of prior learning	Evaluation procedure
	Integration in networks	Teaching Staff	
	Networking Intensity	Learning Methods	

A) Learner

Our focus lies on the social effectiveness of university adult learning programmes measured through employability and quality of work achieved by the learners. From this perspective; it is necessary to take not only the labour market situation of the learners, but also their learning expectations into account.

Learners' labour transitions

We have conceptualized the different types of labour market transition, making a distinction between the transitions within the same enterprise (internal labour market) and those affecting the labour market as a whole (external labour market). For the analysis of the degree to which the lifelong learning programmes are oriented towards social effectiveness, we first consider how they address the transitional situation of the participants from the beginning.

The actual situation of labour market transition could influence the learning opportunities vis a vis the possibilities of the learners to prove in practice what they are learning in the programmes. A learner who prepares for a transition within the same company may have opportunities to test what he has learnt during the programme in his work environment. But a person, who is unemployed, has fewer opportunities to test what he has learned in practice. However, this may be ameliorated if placement opportunities are made available as a component of the programme, and this is where the institution or the programme needs to control its quality. Another method is to integrate a practical orientation directly into the didactics of the programmes, for instance through problem based learning.

Table 25
Typology of labour market transitions

Internal Labour Market
 	
   a) Adaptation to changes at the individual workplace
 	
   b) Personal development
 	
   c) Vertical professional development: up-wards professional career
 	
   d) Horizontal professional development: From one workplace to another at the same hierarchical level

External Labour Market
 	
   e) From unemployment to employment
 	
   f) From one employment to another employment
 	
   g) From one employment status to another

On the other hand, this starting point allows the insertion of the individual situation into the analysis. The social effectiveness of the programmes revolves primarily around the extent to which they have supported the individual to successfully carry out a transition or to avoid the negative impacts of transitions.

Learners expectations in terms of capital acquisition

In addition to the issue of transitions, the expectations (and awareness) of the learners in relation to the acquisition of various forms of capital are important considerations. Our project assumed that learning programmes are oriented to the transmission of knowledge, competences and abilities, which could be converted in labour market-relevant human, cultural and social capital.

Table 26	
Forms of capital: capsule definitions	
Capital	**Resources that facilitate economic action**
Financial capital	Money available for economic activities
Physical capital	Real estate, equipment, and infrastructure of economic activities
Human capital	Professional knowledge, skills and competences that facilitate access to the labour market and improve the labour market position
Cultural capital	General knowledge, skills and competencies that can be turned to the owner's advantage in the economic field
Social capital	Relations embedded in social networks, which can be turned in owner's advantage in the economic field
Source: Adaptation of Light [2001: 2]	

Recapitulating our concept of social vulnerability, a person who knows to a certain degree which capital he needs in the labour market can make better decisions about which learning activities he wants to develop, and how the actual learning programme would respond to expectations. In other words he is less socially vulnerable.

The use of the capital approach allows also a more precise analysis of the interrelation between universities and the labour market, as well as the impact of the lifelong learning programme on the labour situation. Both aspects will be discussed in the following chapter B.

Learners' Conditions for accessing university adult education

In the presentation of the EU discourse on higher education and lifelong learning, we have seen that one of the main concerns is the ease of access of adults to learning opportunities that provide flexible learning approaches. In our previous documents, we have discussed this issue within the heading of reconciliation between learning, work and family.

In other words, learners' personal situations must be taken into account, and these can be summarised within their time disposability, which is conditioned for instance by their working conditions, family situation, social commitments and the distance from work or home to the learning place.

B) Structural Analysis

Typology of UAE in universities

Regarding UAE in universities, our case studies indicate that we must ask three core questions to analyse the status of adult education in universities and in the higher education system in general:

The first question concerns whether Adult Education is seen as part of the core mission of the university and the higher education system. If not, the universities will not include it within their core activities. This could imply that the universities will not play any, or only a residual, role in tertiary adult education. It is possible however that they will cooperate with other entities, but without taking leadership.

Figure 15
Forms of institutional integration of UAE
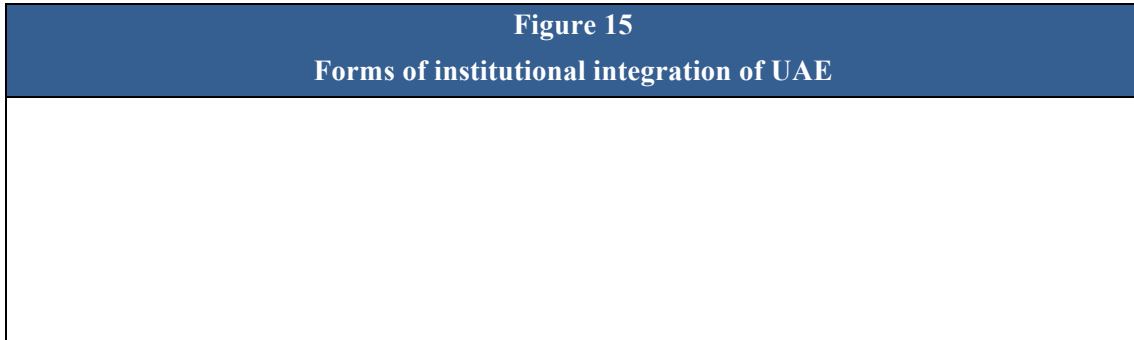
If they decide to accept it as part of their mission, the issue is 'which mission?'. There are actually three missions within the responsibility of universities: education, research and public service. The problem is where the universities and in general the higher education systems are locating adult education - in the education mission or in the mission of public service to society. This will have consequences for the interrelation of adult education to the traditional teaching and learning programmes of universities. If it is considered to be a component part of the education mission, it increases the possibility that adult education would be integrated into the general education programme of the institution. The more it is seen to be within its third mission, the more the university is likely to reject adult education as part of its core business, thus renouncing its leadership in this area.

Organisational Structure of UAE

Relatively little research has been undertaken on the structural arrangements for adult education in universities, and what little there is analysed under the heading of University Continuing Education (UCE) which often subsumes Adult Education. A useful analysis from outside Europe is provided by Berrell & Smith [1996] who have compiled a substantial quantity of literature within this field using the work of Sandery [1983] and Duke [1992] as starting points. Brennan [2000] has provided a snapshot of practices within UCE in European universities, describing a range of organisational structures using case studies from Spain, Portugal, Finland, France, Norway, Belgium, Lithuania and the United Kingdom. This model is shown below in following Table.

In a volume edited by Osborne & Thomas [2003a], many of the authors have described organisational structures within their own countries. In many nations one can find examples of all of the above models. Often we can identify more than one model within a country, though in some there is uniformity or a dominant trend. Thus, *within* a number of countries, they identify consistency in the models adopted. For instance in Finland and Ireland Model A appears to dominate, in Bulgaria Model B, and in the Czech Republic, Model D.

Table 27	
A five-fold typology of organisational structures for university continuing education [Brennan 2000]	
Model	**Form**
A	University continuing education delivery through a separate department, centre or company, with or without expertise brought in from subject departments.
B	University continuing education delivery as above and by a range of subject departments with a number of functions for university continuing education (e.g. development, monitoring, quality assurance) carried out by the university continuing education department.
C	University continuing education delivery entirely devolved to subject departments but with strong central support through a range of functions e.g. strategic leadership, development, monitoring, quality assurance, promotion.
D	University continuing education delivery devolved to subject departments with little or no central support, co-ordination or monitoring.
E	University continuing education delivery through a consortium of institutions each contributing particular expertise towards collaborative university continuing education programmes[93]

However, the reality is often a continuum between one or more models and this does not map neatly into the typology [Osborne & Thomas 2003b]. Furthermore what might appear to be a dominant model could disguise the reality in practice, as their overview of Europe demonstrates in the case of Ireland. Here there was formerly a centralised model in each university, but in reality the delivery was diffused across its various parts. In other countries, such as Austria, Belgium (Flanders), Germany, Greece, Italy, Lithuania, Slovakia, Spain and the United Kingdom, there was huge diversity in approach. This reflects a range of factors, including the lack of a legislative framework, the high degree of autonomy for departments of UCE in many countries and the multiplicity of UCE missions in highly structured differentiated higher education systems. Thus in many countries, diversity will reflect both historical traditions and the current priorities of both the state and institutions. Even within individual universities there may be a multiplicity of models that vary according to discipline area. The example of Lithuania in the Osborne and Thomas study provides a clear example of this.

Distribution of project tasks

Apropos the institutional location of the responsibilities of University Adult Education, we must ask, how the responsibilities of different structures for managing UAE-programmes are distributed within the universities and between the university and external providers.

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[93] The first four models were originally suggested by Brennan [2000]. He has also suggested that, as the potential of learning technology is released, a fifth model is likely to emerge.

Table 28								
Analytical scheme for the location of UAE								
	Responsible							
	Academics	Internal governance	Departments & centres	Central university services	Exclusively University foundations	Joint Foundations	Institutional Cooperation	(Cooperation with) other entities
Programme idea								
Programme development								
Establishing academic norms								
Proposing budgets								
Approval of training activities (incl. budget)								
Approval of criteria of retribution								
Assuming economic risks								
Commercialisation								
Budget Management								
Performance evaluation								
Accreditation								

In other words which university unit (including academic units) or organisation, with which the university is cooperating, is responsible for the different tasks. The study also requires a schemata of the different variables required to facilitate running a university adult learning programme. Defining the different actors involved and its structure leads to the question of who will be responsible for programme management starting from the creation of the programme idea and programme development, through to its accreditation. The presented scheme is a first proposal.

Integration of UAE in labour market and regional development policies

The LLL-project MASON underpins the importance of regional engagement in lifelong learning policies. National and regional diversity must have a role in ensuring the positive impact of lifelong learning on social and economic development. Regionally anchored Lifelong learning policies

> *"promote better LLL policy coordination on the ground, increased commitment by those who are implementing LLL strategies at local level, more efficient use of resources and sharing of ownership and responsibility. Furthermore, place-based approaches can enhance LLL policy comprehensiveness because they allow for a more flexible and localised identification of LLL needs and priorities and a better*

mobilisation of a wide range of LLL stakeholders at local level" *[http://mason.iacm.forth.gr].*

Within the perspective of our project, measuring the social efficiency of UAE in terms of employability, quality of work and quality of life, the degree of orientation of UAE programmes to the labour market and social policies has a high relevance. This infers the integration of the UAE into public labour and social policies. The core considerations are:

1. If regional and national labour market policies take into consideration tertiary adult education?
2. If regional and national labour market agencies consider universities as training providers?
3. If the universities themselves have developed learning programmes framed within an institutional strategy to support the regional and national labour market?

The coordination of labour market and education policies is a complex issue and "*networks constitute an organizational response to the complexity of the living situations and needs of educational target groups" [Jütte, W. 2004: 4]*. In an even more complex educational environment:

> "*networks are an organisational answer to the diversity and complexity of educational needs of the various stakeholder groups of lifelong learning. The more diversified and specific learning needs and provisions become, the more pressing also becomes the need for integration of the diverse experiences and approaches. To form and participate in inter-organisational and personal networks seems to be one answer to overcoming the fragmentation of the lifelong learning landscape" [Bienzle et al 2007: 23].*

The first step is the analysis of the level at which the institution or programme is networking and what its function is. The comnet project in its work 'Art of Networking', distinguished between three types of European education networks, which can also be used to classify education networks at other geo-political levels:

- **Dissemination networks** "*supports and promotes the exchange of good practice among actors. Such a network should also trigger innovation in the field through the efficient promotion of the exploitation of the results of other projects, initiatives and research outcomes*" [Bienzle *et al.* 2007: 47].
- **Resource networks** "*contributes to the development and exchange of research outcomes in a specific area, and thus to become one reference point for the field at the European level. This implies enlarging the scope of the theme and the analysis on a large scale. Its main concern is to become the field's observatory in such a way that it is recognised as the main reference point in its thematic area, both for the European institutions and for the other network actors or the public*" [Bienzle *et a.l* 2007: 48].
- **Policy development networks** "*focuses mainly on the shaping of policy in its field. Its main concern is to either shape agendas by influencing legislation and guaranteeing the*

representation of interests at the European level (or at a national or regional level), or to contribute to the drafting of legislation and policy action. Central to its activities and overall scope for its existence is the advocacy and shaping of policy and practice in a specific thematic field or subject area" [Bienzle *et al.* 2007: 49].

Table 29			
Degree of integration in national, regional and local policy networks			
Type of network	**Political Level**		
	National	Regional	Local
Dissemination network			
Resource network			
Policy development network*			
Source: Art of networking			

The networking structure of universities with stakeholders such as political authorities, entrepreneur associations, companies, trade unions, professional organisations etc. is an important aspect of the integration into broader policies. Assuring the positive impact of lifelong learning on social and economic development

"requires going beyond 'one-size-fits-all' policies towards integrated, place-based, approaches to the design and implementation of LLL policies that meet regional and local needs in partnership with regional and local authorities, economic actors, social partners and the civil society" [Mason: http://mason.iacm.forth.gr].

Table 30			
Degree of networking by stakeholders			
Networking Partners	**Degree of networking**		
	Low	Medium	High
Public authorities			
General Entrepreneur associations			
Branch associations			
Professional associations			
Trade unions			
Other VET providers (including TVET)			

The classification of the networks can progress further by examining their organisational nature in different dimensions such as

"for instance, factors like the frequency of meetings, the degree of formalisation, decision structures (joint sessions, moderation etc.), the numbers and heterogeneity of members involved, openness or exclusiveness of access, geographical range (e.g. working at communal or international level), all of which can be presented

differently. Depending on the network and context all serve as elements for classification" [Bienzle et al. 2007: 14].

This leads to an overall classification of the degree of integration of the networks.

Table 31			
Degree of integration in national, regional and local policy networks			
	Political Level		
Degree of integration	National	Regional	Local
Not at all			
Low			
Medium			
High			

C) Analysis of teaching and learning aspects

Typology of certificates

One core question concerns the formal learning outcomes of the programmes - the symbolic capital: The learners will obtain a certificate at the end of the programme? So what formal status will this certificate have?

The formal status of the certificates can be measured in two systematic dimensions: its relevance a) for the education system and b) for the labour market

Table 32			
Labour relevance of certification			
	Labour Market relevance		
Type of Certificate	low	medium	high
Higher education certificate			
Credits (ECTS)			
Professional certificate			
Own certificate			
No certificate			

The first refers to the relation of the university adult learning programme to the Bologna cycles: For instance, whether or not the adult learning programme provides the successful learner with an official higher education certificate (bachelor, master, etc)?

The second makes reference to the labour market relevance of the programmes and explores, for instance, if the programme provides the successful learner with an official professional certificate, which is indispensable for access to certain labour market positions or labour market

segment. Or if the programme certificate has a high prestige among enterprises and facilitates access to particular work positions.

Typology of Programmes: Access

Another core consideration is who can access to the learning programmes? Here we can observe two extremes: on the one hand the highly restricted access (for instance tailor made programmes exclusively for employees selected by an enterprise), and at the other extreme the programmes with a totally open access for everyone (for instance some massive online open courses - MOOCs). But in between there is a wide range of possibilities to tailor the programmes according to particular access requirements, as for instance through previously obtained education certificates, professional experience or personal interviews.

Figure 17

Access to UAE programmes

Highly restricted access

Open access
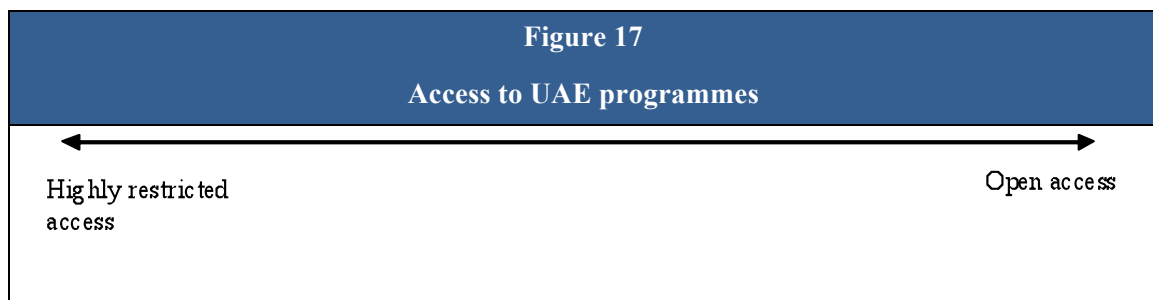
Recognition of Prior Learning

We have suggested that, in spite of the priority given by European strategies to the recognition of prior learning, there is a high diversity in practice between and in the national higher education systems and among universities. But for the analysis of the social effectiveness of University Adult Education, recognition of prior learning has importance in two dimensions:

a)   Are there mechanisms in action to recognise prior learning for the adult education programmes at the universities?

b)   Is there also a mechanism of permeability, i.e. does it provide learners with credits recognised for bachelor, master or doctor programmes or have the certificates and the learning outcomes no relationship with official higher education certificates? In other words, are the learning outcomes of the adult education programmes recognised as prior learning for other university education programmes?

Typology of Teachers

A further aspect of teaching is the recruitment and selection of lecturing staff. In a number of our case studies, teaching is shared between those with an academic background and employed directly by the institution on academic contracts; and those with a professional or practice background or specific relevant expertise.

Table 32				
Distribution of UAE-tasks among lecturer by type of lecturer				
TASKS	Academic teachers	Academic teachers with professional background	Professional with academic background	Professional
Learning needs assessment				
Preparation of courses				
Facilitation of learning				
Monitoring and evaluation				
Counselling and guidance				
Programme development				
Financial management				
Human resource management				
Overall management				
Marketing and PR				
Administrative support				
ICT-support				
Overarching activities				
Source: Based on the tasks classification of FCYD				

In some cases the role of external professionals is limited to guest lecturers at seminars or workshops, in others the external professional staff play a considerable role in the development and delivery of the programme. Moreover, in at least a couple of cases, external staff are responsible for at least 50% if not more of teaching input.

However, as the report "Key competences for adult learning professionals" [B.J. Buiskool, et al 2010: 3] indicates, the tasks of the lecturers are not limited to teaching, but can include a wide range of tasks including programme design and administration. Using the list of tasks mentioned above, it is possible to analyse in more detail the distribution of roles between academic staff, academic staff with professional background, professional with academic background and professionals with no academic background.

Learning methods

In the course of our project we used three clusters or broad perspectives that make different assumptions about what we need to know to understanding learning:

- the associationist/ empiricist perspective (learning as activity);
- the cognitive perspective (learning as achieving understanding;
- the situative perspective (learning as social practice.

Our case studies showed, that the majority of the programmes are using a mixed of perspectives to design the teaching and learning processes.

Each perspective describes different approaches, as we discussed in Houston & Osborne [2013]. They can be mapped in spatial and temporal contexts. We proposed the distinction between classroom face-to-face, open learning, flexible, virtual and e-learning environments and synchronous and asynchronous learning designs. This led us to establish three dimensions for analysing learning:

Modes of instruction/Facilitation:

- face-to-face;
- blended learning;
- distance learning (actually e-learning).

Degrees of learner autonomy:

- choice of options;
- choice in students' input;
- choice in trajectory of study.

Capitalising on learners' experience:

- Co-construction of knowledge;
- Building on work experience;
- Links to practice.

D) Mechanism to cope risks

To describe UAE as a mechanism for reducing social vulnerability in the labour market and for preparing learners for transitions in labour markets and within in-company labour markets means to develop the learning programmes which service and to support learners. Our project considers that action capacity and knowledge of individual situations is crucial for defining the social vulnerability of an individual. It allows adults to prepare for labour market transitions, to become informed about labour markets and to follow learning trajectories which increases their possibility to take an appropriate decision. Other aspects to be implemented are to reduce the barriers to access in terms of fees, and also to reconcile the demands of work, family and learning. In addition to these three dimensions of vulnerability management: assessment, funding and flexibility of learning arrangements, we must add a fourth category relating to the capability and commitment of the university: the availability of instruments to measure the social effectiveness of the programmes in terms of employability and quality of work

<u>Guidance Services</u>

Adult learners should be given access to tools and knowledge which informs them of their possibilities and opportunities in the labour market and how to successfully realise labour market transitions. This implies two factors:

1. If the university makes available the tools and knowledge that allows learners to analyse the labour market.
2. If the university has a guidance service to inform the students about their possibilities in the labour market and to recommend learning trajectories.

These mechanisms to inform the learners about opportunities and risks can be handled by the same university or by external providers, such as the public labour market agencies. What is most relevant is that adult learners have - prior to their decision about their learning trajectory – access to information on learning and working opportunities, so that they can make informed decisions about the nature of their learning. This also includes information about funding opportunities.

In other words, learners' access to guidance could be a means of reducing the risks implied by a social investment in learning.

Table 34 Integration of guidance			
Coverage	Own University	Cooperating Services	No
Learning opportunities			
Working opportunities			
Funding			

<u>Funding of the programme</u>

Funding of the participation of a learners in a programme – i.e. who pays for it - is not a trivial question. The fees paid by learners for a programme, could be - in some countries – quite high, and sometimes prohibitive. So it is important to know who pays the cost of the programme. If the learners do not have to pay fees, then they are fully met by the university (or society). Where the learners must pay fees, there may be mechanisms to reduce his individual contribution. This could be through enterprises who may pick up all or parts of the fees, or the state in the form of public or semi-public funds

This could entail the participation of persons or entities from outside the university in programme design, application and evaluation. If the participation in the programme is paid by an enterprise, a branch association, trade union or a public authority the possibility that they are implicated in these activities is high. For instance, input from stakeholders in tailor-made programmes for an enterprise, a group of enterprises or a branch is implicit in their contribution. This allows, in principal, a greater proximity of the programme to training needs in the labour markets. Thus, we must distinguish between the payer and the learner.

But in our context, it is important to know if such mechanisms are available, and if they are, whether the university is responsible for giving information about them and for facilitating access. The funding mechanisms are not limited to fees. It could include also the financial stimulation of participation in university adult education similar to the schemes for unemployed people.

Table 35 Mechanism of funding participation			
	Public	Semi-public	Private
Available			
Easy accessible information			
Administrative support			

Evaluation procedures to measure social effectiveness

The case studies undertaken in our project showed that evaluation procedures are generally integrated within both programme management and the institution's management. The measurement of the social effectiveness of their programmes is not on their agenda.

Social vulnerability management must take into account the return on investment. The learners are investing money and time in adult learning measures in the expectation that they will obtain some benefits. As in all types of investment, this also implies the risk of losing capital: financial capital, cultural and social capital.

In our scheme, we will relate the investment in first stage to a) money and b) time:

a) Participating in university adult learning programmes risks the loss of financial capital because the learners invest money for their participation. This could be fees, but also losses in income or the costs of travelling to the place. The return on this investment is not predictable, but it can be estimated.

b) The investment of time in training and learning implies a reduction in other activities and could produce a temporary loss of social capital (for instance, less time for family relationships and friendships), and also cultural capital (for instance less time going to concerts or theatres).

However, let us exclusively focus on the financial and knowledge aspect. Focusing first on the financial risk, the initial issue is whether the learner must pay fees to participate in the programme and if the university provides a mechanism to (co-)fund the participation. A next question is whether the university facilitates information (consultancy) about public or private (co-)funding mechanism so that the individual risk of losing capital will be reduced.

On the other side of the balance are the benefits, first in terms of financial, human, cultural and social capital, which adult learners derived from the programmes, measured by the particular extent to which the learning outcomes could be converted into labour market inputs. This depends on the social field of the respective labour market. As we explained in our theoretical concept, going back to the social field approach of Bourdieu; this is a complex social bargaining

process, which determines the degree to which the acquired new knowledge, competencies and abilities are recognised as value by the labour market. We would anticipate that adult learners are able to appreciate the extent to which their learning has been converted into labour market relevant capital.

Table 36 Measuring the return of social investment					
Capital Investment		**Capital Return**		**Impact on Quality of Work**	
			Satisfaction		Satisfaction
Monetary	in €			Economic Security	
Time as Capital	In hours			Social Mobility	
Human		Human		Intellectual Develop.	
Cultural		Cultural		Social Relation	
Social		Social		Participation	
				Balance of time	
				Health	
				Working environment	

Then the question arises to what degree the acquired capital has positively influenced the labour market transition of the learner in terms of quality of work. We propose to measure the learners' satisfaction of changes in the quality of work in the following dimensions: Economic security, knowledge & Intellectual development, social relations, political rights & Participation, Balance of time, health, work environment.

We add an additional category of social mobility, which refers to the possibility of changing the work place in the labour market.

The notion of satisfaction with the changes doesn't only include the contribution of acquired capital to the improvement of one's situation in the different categories, but might also contribute to its impoverishment. Apropos economic security the assurance of a continuation of work or the security to have income obtained by work is important in this respect. But in the actual situation of many European member states like Spain, Portugal and Ireland, where the labour perspective of highly educated people has been impoverished, and where a decline of income can be observed, the acquired capital could have set in motion a major deterioration of the learner's individual income.

Core Dimensions of socially effective UAE and tools of measurement

A Model to manage social effectiveness of UAE

The analysis of structural and teaching and learning aspects of tertiary lifelong learning demonstrates a high level of heterogeneity amongst the case studies [see www.themp.eu]. EUROSTAT statistical data shows that the number of people attaining higher education is increasing. As noted, the declared goal of the EU is to achieve a rate of 40% of the people between 30 and 34 years achieving ISCED 5-6. This indicates that the demand for tertiary adult education will increase in the next decade. Within this perspective, the question of the role of the universities in the lifelong learning policies is highly relevant.

The revision of the national landscape in the seven EU-member states involved in the case studies indicates that the universities in these countries haven't at all adopted adult education as part of their education mission, and nor have they as a component of their third mission.

The EU purportedly views higher education as a crucial factor in economic and social development. Positioning higher education in this way reflects a faith that in changes in the labour market for people with higher education certificates will be positive. That it is suggested may no longer be viable.

In the past, higher education institutions have provided education mainly for people who work in public administration, in the academic system including non-university public research institutions, in the health system (medicals) and in the legal system. But this has changed in the last decades.

> *"The relation between higher education and labour markets is actually more complex then 40 years ago. Correspondingly, higher education must found mechanisms to integrate adequately the stimuli coming from the economic system in their system. The pressure on the higher education system increased even more as the high-qualified employment is seen as the type of employment required"* in *the so-called knowledge economy [Krüger & Jiménez 2008: 48].*

In other words, higher education systems are required to strengthen the vocational aspects of their curricula. But the vision of education and training, including higher education, as aspects of employment and economic policies implies the risk of providing a limited perspective on their social function. In the long-term perspective, education and training is per se a factor in all social, cultural and economic development. Envisioning it as an element of employment and economic strategies means that it may focus on short and mid term development, discounting its contribution to societal development in general. Such a strategy ignores the different logics of education and economic systems. Both systems, formal higher education and the labour market, operate in different cycles making it difficult to coordinate. Under this premise, tertiary adult education seems to be an instrument to adapt higher education, especially university education, in a flexible way to labour market requirements and also providing learners with relevant knowledge, skills and competences updating and certification.

This requires an intensification of the relationship with enterprises and other stakeholders. Universities must create new ways of cooperating in learning networks with the aim a) to design appropriate programmes for adult learners with professional experience, b) to develop tools and

instruments to detect learning needs and labour market needs, c) to assess and evaluate the social effectiveness of their programmes not only in terms of employability but in terms of quality of work and life; d) to provide potential adult students with valuable information that enables them to make decisions about the most appropriate learning programme to increase the possibility of return of social investment.

Lifelong learning has the ability to support the labour market transitions of learners, to reduce their social risks of exclusion from the labour market and/or to improve their work and life quality. In the real world, this means to help learners to find suitable learning opportunities so that they can make decisions about their learning trajectories in accordance with their work and life objectives. It also means informing learners about labour market opportunities, so that they can gauge financial and time investment in learning activities. And it also means the constant up-dating of learning programmes to fit external requirements.

Taking Lifelong Learning seriously – going beyond the concept of continuous training – also means to question the traditional boundaries of education systems. Higher education has always been an element of the learning continuum. But it is traditionally implemented within a specific life period as a transition from secondary school to the labour market, thus introducing a third education and training stage. Once completed, the learner will never come back to the university as a learner. But taking the lifelong learning approach seriously puts in question this traditional concept of higher education. It advocates a higher permeability of the 'traditional study programmes', with constant entry and re-entry of learners in the higher education system through university adult learning programmes. Both 'traditional study programmes' and 'adult learning programmes' could be considered part of the educational mission of the universities. Our case studies have shown a high heterogeneity of the ways in which the universities are handling this issue. At one extreme we have universities, which don't envision adult education to be part of their core mission and at the other extreme, there are universities who see adult education as a major competitive factor in the higher education system.

For this reason it is impossible to establish general core conditions for the social effectiveness of university adult learning. But one result of our empirical research is that, in many universities, there is a lack of coherent planning strategies based on social costs and benefits. For this reason, we propose a flexible social business planning model for a) an institutional approach and b) individual programmes using the classification scheme which we have presented (see table 36).

Table 37 Model to manage social effectiveness of UAE programmes					
Learners motivation	**Key Partners (**Networking)	**Key Activities**	**Value Proposition**	**Disposable Resources**	**Funding Mechanisms:**
Transition: <u>Company internal:</u> - adaptation to new challenges - new work tasks <u>Company external</u> - new company same profess. Field - new company new profes. Field - re-entry labour market	**Internal Partners** • University administration • Faculties • Departments • Academics	a) Programme idea b) Programme development c) Establishing academic norms d) Proposing budgets e) Approval of training activities (incl. budget) f) Approval of criteria of retribution g) Assuming economic risks h) Commercialisation i) Budget Management j) Performance evaluation k) Accreditation l) others	**Orientation** Training & Education Labour Market	**Teaching resources** - Human resources - Infrastructures - Material	- Enterprises - Entrepreneur ass. - Branch associations - Trade Unions - Public authorities - Citizens
Intrinsic Motivation	**External partners** - Enterprises - Entrepreneur ass. - Branch associations - Trade Unions - Public authorities **Status of the University** - project leader - co-operator - provider		**Focused on** <u>Human Capital:</u> d) Divers technical Comp. <u>Cultural Capital</u> e) Social Comp. f) Communication Comp. g) Networking Comp. <u>Social Capital</u> Professional Network	**T & L approach** - blended - online - face-to-face - problem based - project based - self-directed - others	

Modules of questionnaires to measure social effectiveness

We propose to integrate into the institutional decision-making system two modules of questionnaire that measure the social benefits in terms of the quality of work which learners assigned to their participation in lifelong learning. This scheme is based on our theoretical discussion in chapter 1 and in Krüger & Duch [2013], where the dimensions of quality of work were defined, in accordance with the work of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions [Eurofound 2002], and the dimensions of quality of life referring to the works of Eiffe [2008], Nussbaum [2003] Robeyns & van der Veen [2007], and Stieglitz & Sen & Fitoussi [Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress 2007].

Table 38			
Dimensions to measure of social effectiveness			
Achieved Results (Learners Satisfaction)			
Outcomes		**Social Benefits**	
Dimension	Satisfaction	**Dimension**	Satisfaction
Human Capital		Social Mobility	
Cultural Capital		Economic Security	
Social Capital		Intellectual Development	
		Balance of Time	

Taking four dimension of quality of work as a reference - social mobility, economic security, intellectual development and balance of time - we have developed in the course of the project, two questionnaire modules which allow universities to measure social effectiveness. We opt for a modularisation in order to offer flexible tools that can be adaptable to the actual situation a) to persons responsible for programmes and b) to persons responsible for managing a range of programmes in an organisational unit. The empirical requirements are different at both levels. For example, at the level of a programme with 20 learners each year, requesting information about socio-economic background would provide data which aren't available for statistical analysis. But at the level of the organisational unit, a significant level of response on such questions would allow statistical analysis. As result of our discussion, the design of the questionnaire is modular.

The first module makes exclusive reference to the impact in terms of Learning motivation, learning results and quality of work. It will have the following dimension:

Personal Background information

-   Personal Information (age, gender and educational level);
-   Programme information (Name of the programme, date of start and end (month/year) and duration (month+weeks)).

Education

-   Learning motivation;
-   Learning results.

Quality of work

-   Labour Mobility;
-   Economic security;
-   Intellectual & Knowledge development;
-   Balance of time.

The second module is additional to the first one, requesting more detailed information about the learner. Both modules have been discussed with those responsible for the programmes and institutions which have participated in the case studies. The modules are available at the project web in the languages used in the partner countries: Czech, Dutch, English, German, Hungary Italian, and Spanish.

Module 1: Questionnaire

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

PERSONAL DATA: GENDER + AGE + EDUCATION

I.1.   Please, fulfil the following personal information

a. Gender   Female   Male

b. Age   _____

I.2.   What was your labour situation when you started the programme?

(Please mark only one response)

Self-employed without employees	☐
Self-employed with employees	☐
Employed	☐
Unemployed	☐
Full domestic responsibilities or caring responsibilities	☐
Temporary leave (i.e. parental leave, sabbatical leave)	☐
Full-time education / student (at school, university, etc.)	☐
Other (e.g. retirement/ inability to work))	☐
No answer	☐

I.3.   What is the highest level of education or training that you have successfully completed?
          (Must be adapted to the national education system through examples)

No education	☐
Primary education (ISCED 1)	☐
Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)	☐
Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)	☐
Post-secondary including pre-vocational or vocational education but not tertiary (ISCED 4)	☐
Tertiary education – first level (ISCED 5)	☐
Tertiary education – advanced level (ISCED 6)	☐
No Answer	☐

PROGRAMME INFORMATION

I.4.   What is the name of your programme of study and of the institution that organised it?

Programme		
Institution	Name	
	Place	

I.5.   When did you complete the programme?

Date:	

I.6A.   Was there a fee for the programme?

Yes		No		

I.6B.   If 'Yes', how much was the programme fee?

€		I don't know	

I.6C.   if 'Yes', who financed your participation in the programme?

	Total	Partially
Own funding	☐	☐
Enterprise/employer funding	☐	☐
Public funding	☐	☐
Others	☐	☐
Details		
No Answer	☐	

I.7   ¿How relevant has been the programme for your present job?

Not relevant at all	Slightly relevant	Relevant	Highly relevant	Extremely relevant
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I.8   ¿How relevant do you think the programme has been for your long-term career?

Not relevant at all	Slightly relevant	Relevant	Highly relevant	Extremely relevant
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

II. EDUCATIONAL TRAJECTORY

LEARNING MOTIVATION

II.1   What were your intentions on enrolling for the programme?
         Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates whether you agree or disagree with that statement.

	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or Do Not Know	Agree	Completely
To improve my professional performance					
To learn to carry out new professional tasks					
To prepare for a job in a new enterprise					
To learn for a supervisory/managerial position					
To improve my work and professional prospects					
To resume my higher education studies					
To acquire new qualifications (certificates – titles)					
To begin higher education studies					
To earn more money					
To gain my current job					
I was obliged by my employer					
I was obliged by the law					
Other (please specify)					

II.2.   What were your expectations at the beginning of the programme?
Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates whether you agree or disagree with that statement. If there is some other way in which you feel you have changed, please include it at the end of the list.

	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or Do Not Know	Agree	Completely
To acquire new professional abilities, skills and knowledge to put in practice at work					
To learn from lecturers with professional experience					
To obtain a new broader vision of my work					
To share experiences with other workers.					
To learn about other companies					
To learn from university staff					
To acquire new communication skills					
To network with other professionals					
To acquire self-sufficiency to carry out my (new) role					
To establish new connections useful for my work					
Other (please specify)					

LEARNING OUTCOMES

II.3.   How much has your lifelong learning programme enabled you to develop different skills and abilities?
This time, put a cross in the one box beside each capability that indicates how much you feel you have developed as a result of your studies. If there is some other capability that your studies have helped you to develop, please include it at the end of the list.

	Never	Little	Some what	Much	A great deal
Ability to analyse numerical data					
Ability to apply knowledge					
Ability to use numerical data					
Ability to work in teams					
Computer literacy					
Critical analysis					
Evaluation skills					
Interpersonal skills					
Leadership skills					
Oral presentation skills					
Self-discipline					
Self-reliance					
Time management					
Writing skills					
A real expertise in my subject					
Technical skills related to my profession					
Practical skills related to my profession					
Other capabilities (please specify)					

II.4.   What have you learnt from your studies in the programme?

The following are list 'descriptors' concerning the intended outcomes of lifelong learning programmes in different subject areas. Put a cross in one of the two boxes 'No' or 'Yes' beside each outcome to indicate whether you feel that you have learnt this from your studies.

If you accidentally choose two boxes for any statement or leave a box blank, it will be difficult to use any of your responses, so please check that for each statement there is a single clear response. If there was something else that you expected to get out of higher education, please include it at the end of the list.

	Yes	No
A systematic understanding of key aspects of my (new) professional area		
The ability to deploy established techniques of analysis and enquiry at work		
The ability to sustain arguments and solve problems using up-to-date ideas and techniques from my (new) professional area		
An appreciation of the uncertainty, ambiguity and limits of knowledge		
The ability to manage my own learning and to make use of scholarly reviews and primary sources		
The capacity to communicate information and ideas, problems and solutions		
The capacity to exercise initiative and personal responsibility		
The ability to cite evidence and make judgements about its merits		
The ability to contrast points of view		
The awareness of social diversity		
The ability to recognise the ethical dimensions of research and advances in knowledge		
A view of my professional area which is **predominantly** influenced by the lecturer		
A wide knowledge and understanding of a broad range of professional areas and the detailed relationships between these, and their application and importance		
A view of my professional area which is influenced by a variety of learning sources including the lecturer, fellow students and independent study		
Self-awareness and a capability to operate effectively in a variety of team roles including leadership		
The ability to access information from a variety of sources and to communicate the outcome both orally and in writing		
The ability to plan, execute and present an independent piece of work (e.g. a project) within a supported framework in which qualities such as time management, problem solving as well as interpretation and critical awareness are evident		
An understanding of ethical issues and the impact on society of advances in knowledge		
The ability to record data accurately, and to carry out basic manipulation of data (including qualitative data and some statistical analysis when appropriate)		
Effective strategies for updating, maintaining and enhancing my knowledge		
Others (please specify)		

III. QUALITY OF WORK

SOCIAL MOBILITY

III.1   Since your participation in the lifelong learning programme has your labour situation changed? (only one answer)

No, it has not changed	☐
Yes it has changed to	
self-employed without employees	☐
with employees	☐
employer	☐
unemployed	☐
- Changing company	☐
- Changing work place in the same company	☐
Comment: Subquestion of Changing in the same company (see online version)	
at the same hierarchical level ☐	
at upper hierarchical level ☐	
at lower hierarchical level ☐	
Temporary leave (e.g. parental or other leave or inability to work)	☐
Full domestic or caring responsibilities	☐
Full-time education / student (at school, university, etc.) to	☐
Other (e.g. retirement/inability to work)	☐
No Answer	☐

	positive	neutral	negative	No answer
How do you feel about the change?	☐	☐	☐	☐

III.2. How you feel that your participation in the programme has influenced your actual labour situation?
Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates if you with that statement (Only one answer).

Never	Little	Somewhat	Much	A Great Deal	No answer
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ECONOMIC SECURITY

III.3. If you compare your current situation with that before you participated in the programme, have you experienced a change in your economic situation?

	Increase	No Change	Decrease	No answer
Your salary or income				

III.4. How you feel that your participation in the lifelong learning programme has influenced your actual labour situation?
Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates if you with that statement.

	Never	Little	Somewhat	Much	A great deal	No answer
On your future work prospects						
On your professional prospects (i.e. promotion)						
Your motivation to succeed professionally						

KNOWLEDGE & INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

III.5 Since participating in the programme, have you undergone any of the following:

	Yes	No	No Answer
Work related Training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if self-employed			
Work related Training paid for by yourself			
On-the-job training (co-workers, supervisors)			
College course			
University course			
Other: (details)			

III.6. Do you feel that your participation in the course/programme has influenced your future learning intentions?
Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates if you with that statement.

Never	Little	Somewhat	Much	A Great Deal	No answer
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

BALANCE OF TIME

III.7   As a result of participation on the course/programme, have you noticed a change in the following:

	Increase	No Change	Decrease	No answer
Number of working hours per week				
Flexibility in timing, place or organisation of working schedule				
Work/life balance				

III.8   How many hours and days do you usually work per week? (excluding lunch break and excluding time spent travelling to and from work – if 30 minutes or more, round up)

Nº of hours per week	
Nº of days per week	
No answer	☐

III.9 In general, how do you rate your current work / life balance?

Very poor	poor	acceptable	good	Very good	No answer
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Module 2: Questionnaire

I. PERSONAL DATA: GENDER + AGE + EDUCATION +ETHNICITY

I.1.   Please, fulfil the following personal information

a. Gender   Female   ☐   Male   ☐

b. Age   _____

b. Marital Status   Single   ☐   Married/Co-habiting (with a partner)   ☐

I.2   Were you born in this country?

Yes	☐
No	☐

I.2a   If you were not born in the country; how many years you are living in the country

Years   _____

I.3   What citizenship do you hold?

-

I.4   Do you belong to a minority ethnic group in [country]?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐

I.5.   What is the highest level of education or training that you have successfully completed?

Secondary Education: School	☐
Secondary Education: Vocational/Technical Certificate	☐
Tertiary education: Vocational/Technical Certificate	☐
Tertiary education: Under-graduate (1st Cycle equivalent to Bachelor)	☐
Tertiary education: Post Graduate (2nd Cycle equivalent to Master)	☐
Doctorate	☐
No answer	☐

I.6   Have you ever attended an adult education programme before this, which is the reference to participate in this survey?

yes	☐		No	☐
If yes, what was the name of the programmes (maximum of three programmes)				

Name	Year	Duration
1.		
2.		
3.		

II. FAMILY SITUATION

II.1.   Including yourself, can you please tell me how many people live in your household?

Adults		Children (under 18 years of age)	

II.2.   How many adults in the household are employed?

Adults	

II.3   In a typical day, in which degree are you involved in household activities including care activities?

Everyday more than one hour	☐
Everyday but less than one hour	☐
Every couple of days	☐
Several days a week	☐
Several days a month	☐
Less or never	☐
No answer	☐

III. ECONOMIC SITUATION OF THE HOUSEHOLD

III.1. What is household's income per month? Perhaps you can provide the approximate range instead.

MONTHLY	
Less than €1000	☐
€ 1.001 to € 2.500	☐
€ 2.501 to €5.000	☐
€ 5.001 to € 7.500	☐
More then €7.500	☐
No answer	☐

III.2 Please consider the income of all household members and any income which may be received by the household as a whole. What is the main source of income in your household?

Wages or salaries	☐
Income from self-employment (excluding farming)	☐
Income from farming	☐
Pensions	☐
Unemployment/ redundancy benefit	☐
Any other social benefits or grants	☐
Income from investment, savings, insurance or property	☐
Income from other sources	☐
No answer	☐

III.3. Which of the descriptions comes closest to how you feel about your household's income nowadays?

Living comfortably on present income	☐
Coping on present income	☐
Finding it difficult on present income	☐
Finding it very difficult on present income	☐
No answer	☐

II.4 If you think back to one year ago, how do you think your economic situation then compares to now?

Much better	☐
A little better	☐
About the same	☐
A little worse	☐
Much worse	☐
No answer	☐

IV. LABOUR MARKET SITUATION

IV.1 Which of these categories describes your current labour situation the best?

at work employee or employer/self-employed	☐
at work relative assisting on family farm or business	☐
Self-employed	☐
unemployed less than 12 months	☐
unemployed 12 months or more	☐
unable to work due to long-term illness or disability	☐
on child-care leave or other leave	☐
retired	☐
full time domestic responsibilities, looking after children or other persons	☐
full time education (at school, university, etc.)/student	☐
in community or military service	☐
other	☐
No answer	☐

IV.2 Have you only one job?

Yes	☐
No	☐

IV.3 What kind of employment contract do you have in your main job? (ONE ANSWER ONLY)

An indefinite contract	☐
A fixed term contract	☐
A temporary employment agency contract	☐
An apprenticeship or other training scheme	☐
No contract	☐
Other (for instance self-employed)	☐
No answer	

IV.5   What is the main activity of the company or organisation where you work (mainly)?

IV.6   Which of the types of organisation do/did you work for?

Central, regional or local government	☐
Other public sector (such as education and health)	☐
state-owned firm	☐
private firm	☐
joint private-public organisation or firm	☐
not-for-profit organisation	☐
other	☐
No answer	

IV.7   How many people in total work in the firm/ organisation (at the local site)?

0-1 (interviewee works alone)	☐
2-9	☐
10-49	☐
50-249	☐
250 and over	☐
No answer	☐

IV.8   How many years have you been in your company or organisation?

Number of years		if less than 1 year: How many month	

V. WORK PLACE

V.1   What is the title of your (main) job? By main paid job, we mean the one where you spend most hours.

V.2   What are/were your total 'basic' or contracted hours each week (in your main job), excluding any paid and unpaid overtime?

V.3   How satisfied are you with the balance between the time you spend on your paid work and the time you spend on other aspects of your life?

Extremely satisfied	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extremely dissatisfied

V.4   In your main job, do/did you have any responsibility for supervising the work of other employees?

Yes	☐
No	☐
No answer	☐

V.5   What **training** or **qualifications** are/were needed for the job?

V.6   All things considered, how satisfied are you with your present (main) job?

Extremely satisfied	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extremely dissatisfied

VI. LEARNERS' MOTIVATION & EXPECTATIONS

VI.1. What have been your <u>motivations,</u> when you participated in the programme? Put a cross in the one box beside each statement that indicates how well it applied to your own expectations of higher education.

If you accidentally choose two boxes for any statement or leave a box blank, it will be difficult to use any of your responses, so please check that for each statement there is a single clear response. If there was something else that you expected to get out of higher education, please include it at the end of the list.

	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or Do Not Know	Agree	Completely Agree
I wanted to develop knowledge and skills that I could use in my career					
I hoped the things I learnt would help me to develop as a person and broaden my horizons					
I was focused on the opportunities here for an active social life and/or sport					
I hoped the whole experience here would make me more independent and self-confident					
I mainly came here because it seemed the natural thing. I'd done well academically in the past					
I wanted to learn things that might let me help people and/or make a difference in the world					
I wanted to study the subject in depth by taking interesting and stimulating courses					
I mainly needed the qualification to enable me to get a good job when I finish					
I wanted an opportunity to prove to myself or to other people what I could do					
When I look back, I sometimes wonder why I ever decided to come here					
I needed to learn things that help me to affront changes in my work place					
I mainly needed the qualification to enable me to get better jobs in my enterprise					
I mainly needed the qualification to progress in my professional career					
I mainly needed the qualification to change my job					
I was focused on the opportunities of networking					
I was focused on the labour market opportunities offered by the programme					
I want to learn techniques to resolve specific problems					

VI.2. What have been your <u>expectations</u>, when you participated in the programme? Put a cross in the one box beside each statement that indicates how well it applied to your own expectations of higher education.

If you accidentally choose two boxes for any statement or leave a box blank, it will be difficult to use any of your responses, so please check that for each statement there is a single clear response. If there was something else that you expected to get out of higher education, please include it at the end of the list.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or Do Not Know	Agree	Strongly Agree
When I have a choice, I opt for programme that seem useful to me for my present or future profession					
I have no choice, the company for which I worked for, obliged the participation					
I have no choice, the certification is required to exercise the profession					
When I choice the programme, I was in a critical labour situation					
I have chosen this programme, because it prepares me for the type of work I am highly interested in					
For the kind of work I would like to do, I need to have studied in higher education					
The main goal I pursue in my training is to prepare myself for a profession					
I do these programme out of pure interest in the topics that are dealt with					
I want to prove to myself that I am capable of doing studies in higher education					
I doubt whether this is the right subject area for me					
I aim at attaining high levels of study achievements					
I want to show others that I am capable of successfully doing a higher education programme					
The main goal I pursue in my studies is to pass exams					
I view the choice I have made to enrol in higher education as a challenge					
The only aim of my studies is to enrich myself					
I have little confidence in my study capacities					
What I want in these studies is to earn credits for a qualification					
I see these studies as mere relaxation					
I study above all to pass the exam					
I want to discover my own qualities, the things I am capable and incapable of					
What I want to acquire above all through my studies is professional skill					
When I have a choice, I opt for courses that suit my personal interests					
I wonder whether these studies are worth all the effort					
I doubt whether this type of education is the right type of education for me					
I want to test myself to see whether I am capable of doing Studies in higher education					
I do these studies because I like to learn and to study					
I am afraid these studies are too demanding for me					
To me, written proof of having passed an exam represents something of value in itself					

VI.3 What are your perceptions of learning in the programme? Put a cross in the one box beside each of the following statements that indicates whether you agree or disagree with that statement.

If you accidentally choose two boxes for any item or leave a box blank, it will be difficult to use any of your responses, so please check that for each item there is a single clear response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or Do Not Know	Agree	Strongly Agree
The topics that I learn need to be useful for solving practical problems					
I like to be given precise instructions as to how to go about carrying out a task or doing an assignment					
For me, learning means trying to approach a problem from many different angles, including aspects that I hadn't previously thought of					
For me, learning is making sure that I can reproduce the facts presented in a course					
I should try to look for connections within the subject matter without having to be told to do so					
I should try to apply the theories dealt with in a course to practical situations					
If I have difficulty understanding a particular topic, I should consult other books without having to be told to do so					
Teachers should clearly explain what it is important for me to know and what is less important					
For me, learning means acquiring knowledge that I can use in everyday life					
I prefer teachers who tell me exactly what I need to know for an exam					
For me, learning means acquiring knowledge and skills that I can later put to practical use					
I should try to think of particular examples of points made in the study materials without having to be told to do so					

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Main challenges of the ageing knowledge economy are constant upgrading of the skills of the working population and mitigating new and old social risks. In the aging and globalised knowledge economy, the people in mid-life are increasingly exposed to social risks of exclusion from the labour market and formal Lifelong Learning (LLL), specifically Tertiary Lifelong Learning (TLL).

The access of mid-life learners to TLL and their retention in the education and training system have an increasing relevance for the socio-economic sustainability of the ageing European knowledge society. TLL is considered a key to develop more inclusive and responsive universities. Opening HE for mid-life learners, designing flexible pathways from VET and professional experience to higher education, flexible learning arrangements conciliating family-work life and learning and the adaptation of didactical methods in HE are challenges to affront problems of the aging knowledge society. Opening Higher Education (HE) to this group is still a minor aspect of education and training reforms, but it is a strategic goal to raise the skill level of the adult EU population, as well as closing the mismatch between supply and demand for high-skilled workers.

The project THEMP studied the TLL of HE institutes in several countries with respect to inclusion of mid-life learners. At the core stands a comparative study with concrete example analysing statistically available data, making series of interviews with decision makers, stakeholders, lecturers and mid-life learners. The study analysed the efficiency of TLL programmes in terms of access to and retention in programmes, their duration, the creation of learning pathways and didactical innovation. The results allow advances in the design of core conditions of socially and economically effective TLL programmes. The project used a combination of social research and active participation of the university under scrutiny facilitating mutual learning between HE-decision-makers, stakeholders, practitioners and learners.

For the social research, the project used an innovative combination of Transitional Labour Market approach to define and measure situation of social risks; and the Capability and Capital approach to operationalize employability and well-being. It also analysed the regulation of the TLL system, not only with respect to labour markets and society, but also its internal regulation in terms of access, learning pathways, certifications, recognition of prior learning and funding. Another area of analysis was the analysis of didactical innovation in the TLL programs to assure the retention of non-traditional students in the TLL-systems. It provides differentiated tools to analyse TLL programmes and their integration in the general higher education systems based on adequate definitions of efficiency and quality to evaluate the inclusion of mid-life learners.

The project has produced working papers for the development of research tools, discussion papers and e-books about the theoretical framwork, methodology, the national TLL landscapes, conclusions from the national case studies, the core dimension of social effective TLL and at least this e-book, which resumes the results of the whole project .

All documents in form of working documents, discussion papers and e-books are available at www.themp.eu. The e-books are also available at www.dia-e-logos.com.