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ABSTRACT

This report organizes the discussion of six key messages from the European Union's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning that stressed the importance of lifelong learning for all citizens in the member states. Before considering the messages, Chapters 1-3 discuss the following three characteristic trends in the Netherlands in the area of lifelong learning as found in recent literature: "Policy Developments in Recent Decades: Many Actors But No Blueprint," "Initial Education Remains the Foundation," and "Growing Demand for Learning Throughout Life." Each chapter concludes with "key points for future policy." Chapter 4 discusses the Memorandum and lists six "key messages" that can be regarded as policy recommendation within a European perspective. Chapters 5-10 each focus on one of these key messages: new basic skills for all; more investment in human resources; innovation in teaching and learning; valuing learning; rethinking counseling and guidance; and bringing learning closer to home. Each chapter begins with a summary of questions for discussion. The authors work out the questions in the perspective of recent developments in the Netherlands. "Key points for policy" conclude the chapters. Chapter 11 presents elements of a policy agenda for a life long of learning in the Netherlands, distilled from a combination of the key points. Appendixes include 73 references, abbreviation list, and the Memorandum. (YLB)

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Cees Doets and Anneke Westerhuis

A life long of learning: elements for a policy agenda

The Six Key Messages of the European
Memorandum in a Dutch Perspective

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Cees Doets and Anneke Westerhuis

Colophon

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Introduction

During the last decades of the previous century, the pattern of the individual life-course became gradually less self-evident. The three stages of life – the introduction phase of socialisation and learning an occupation, the productive phase of adulthood focusing on forming a family and employment, and the withdrawal phase of old age – have become less evident. In the twenty-first century, new choices are increasingly made in each stage of life both with regard to personal life and occupational careers. Sociologists make reference in this regard to the decline of the standard life-course and the emergence of the choice life-course. Flexibility in life-courses is influenced by a variety of societal, cultural and socio-economic factors. Changes in the life-course and associated changes in jobs, hobbies and leisure are part of a broader awareness that choices no longer last a lifetime. Such developments can have major implications for society as a whole, and educational policy has to take account of this. For the individual, learning is no longer restricted to the youth phase but will play an important role throughout life.

The European Union's *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning* appeared at the end of 2000. This working document of the Commission of the European Communities stressed the importance of lifelong learning for all citizens in the member states. The Memorandum also formulated a number of possible policy measures for the member states. These policy measures took the form of six key messages and they were explicitly formulated as points for discussion. The members of the European Union were requested to organise discussion of these key messages, and to formulate future expectations and dilemmas, and where possible to take a standpoint.

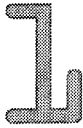
One way of dealing with this request was to undertake a literature study of the discussions which were conducted in recent years at national level, the standpoints adopted, and the available data. CINOP accepted such a commission from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences. The six key messages and associated measures in the Memorandum were taken as the point of departure. The subsequent step was to make an inventory of the recent literature in The Netherlands. This inventory was focused on what

is known about: the demand from citizens; the provision; and the policy of government and social partners.

The results of this study are described in this report, which has the following structure:

- before considering the six key messages the authors refer to three trends characteristic of developments in The Netherlands in the area of lifelong learning. These trends are dealt with in three chapters each of which concludes with a number of 'key points for future policy'. These key points can be seen as recommendations based upon the literature study. They are intended as stimuli for all those involved in the near future with policy formation towards a life long of learning in The Netherlands;
- in the fourth chapter attention is given to the European Memorandum itself that provides the basis for this publication and that is appended to this report. The basis of this Memorandum comprised six so-called 'key messages', which can be regarded as policy recommendations within a European perspective. For each key message the Commission formulated a number of questions for discussion which it would like to have discussed in the different member states;
- in chapters five to ten, this discussion takes place, whereby the researchers work out the key messages in terms of the questions for discussion formulated by the Commission. Following a summary of these questions, they are worked out by the authors in the perspective of recent developments in The Netherlands. (In working out the questions for discussion, it became clear, however), that some of the points mentioned in the Memorandum refer to each other, that not all questions are clearly formulated, and that not all questions can be answered. As is the case with the first three chapters, these six chapters all conclude with a number of 'key points for policy';
- a combination of the key points from the different chapters enables the researchers to distil the elements of a policy agenda for a life long of learning in The Netherlands. This agenda can be found in chapter eleven;
- two appendices are included in the report: appendix 1 is a literature list while appendix 2 is the text of the Memorandum.

(N.B. This publication includes texts from other publications by the two researchers, among other from *Levenslang leren: retoriek of een nieuwe bve-concept*, published in: Doets et al, 2001.)



Policy developments in recent decades: many actors but no blueprint

Up to the present, discussion in The Netherlands has led neither to a grand design nor to a comprehensive concept of lifelong learning. This has partly to do with the way in which developments have taken place in the recent past, and the fact that responsibilities and initiatives are developed by a great variety of stakeholders.

* **Translator's note:** In the Dutch language the original use of the term 'lifelong learning' has been replaced by 'a life long of learning' in official usage.

An important global impulse for ideas about 'a life long of learning'* was the UNESCO World Conference held in Montreal in 1960. In those days people spoke in terms of a system of *éducation permanente* which was regarded as '... different forms of out-of-school and adult education as part of the educational system'. At the time, the accent was placed upon the importance of the cultural politics of *éducation permanente*. In the middle of the previous century, adult education in The Netherlands was largely based upon and organised by voluntary initiative. Provision was made by traditional organisers of adult education such as NIVON [Dutch Institute for Adult Education], the NUT [Society for the Common Good], the volksuniversiteiten [Peoples' Universities], residential colleges and folk high schools, rural organisations and women's organisations etc. Adult education was carried out by volunteers as well as professionals. There was hardly any relationship with formal education and vocational education and training. Priority was given to maintaining good relationships with the social welfare sector; community development and neighbourhood centres. The national organisations were associated in the Nederlands Centrum voor Volksontwikkeling – NCVO [Dutch Centre for Popular Education] established in 1965. NCVO played an important role in stimulating discussion about the purposes of adult education.

Lifelong learning was not closely related to the labour market and was much more concerned with personal development and emancipation. This formulation of the concept

was appropriate to the Dutch mentality of the 1960s. There was more leisure time and a rising standard of living. Furthermore, there were the necessary social movements which placed great emphasis upon the education of adults as critical citizens. These developments stimulated interest in culture and education. In 1969 the NCVO took the initiative in public debate and published *Purpose and Future of popular and adult education with adults in Dutch society*. This document developed further the term *éducation permanente*, which was defined as '... a principle of cultural politics by means of which a completely integrated and flexible structure of provision can be achieved that will offer each individual during his whole life the most appropriate possibilities to satisfy his educational, social and cultural needs and to develop his personality, both through work and leisure, both for himself and to the benefit of the community in which he lives' (Nederlands Centrum voor Volksontwikkeling, 1969: 68).

From the middle of mid-1970s, there were many new initiatives in the field of popular and adult education. Some of these were taken onboard by the traditional providers, but also involved new organisations and groups that no longer felt comfortable within the traditional structures. Examples included VOS [Women's Orientation in Society] courses, Ouders op Herhaling [Refresher courses for parents], VIDO- courses [Women in the Menopause], and literacy groups. These initiatives were financially viable within the central government's Regulation for Popular Education. Around this time the term 'volwassenen-educatie' came into widespread use as the Dutch equivalent for adult education which also broadened the understanding of the field beyond the traditional organisations. Such a broadening of the understanding of the field was also a consequence of the development by evening schools for adults of provision during the daytime which was especially attractive as a second chance for women. The establishment in 1984 of the Dutch Open University needs to be mentioned in this regard as one of the initiatives explicitly regarded at the time as a part of adult education.

From the middle of the 1970s the government's interest in adult education policy increased. At first this was manifested by the Ministry for Culture, Recreation and Social Work. With the arrival of the Den Uyl government, adult education received significant support. The most important policy target was indeed 'the redistribution of power, knowledge and income', which included an important place for the development of an integrated social welfare policy. Under consideration was a Welfare Framework Law that would include adult education. This initiative did not materialize. As a result of societal developments an increasing interest in adult education developed beyond the field of social welfare. In the early 1980s the renamed Ministry of Welfare, Health and Culture lost

its leading policy role and other ministries, such as Education and Sciences, Social Affairs and Employment, and more recently Economic Affairs, began to get involved in adult education.

This was a result of worsening economic conditions that gave rise to a change of thinking about the economic importance of a life long of learning. The employers' representative Van Veen formulated this in terms of 'a policy directed at the necessary recovery of the economy is helped by policy in the area of adult education that is not characterised by principles of cultural politics but by principles of socio-economic policy' (Schop, 1983).

During the 1980s the leading policy role was assumed by the Ministry of Education and Sciences. In co-operation with other ministries a number of advisory committees were established which were intended to deliver the building blocks for a policy towards adult education. There were experiments with the Open School for adults, Adult Literacy, Local Educational Networks, Educational Activities for Cultural Minorities and Paid Educational Leave. The least successful of these were the experiments with paid educational leave, which quietly died a death. Apparently it was not the appropriate time and no agreement could be reached with the social partners. The results of the other experiments led to the development of a system of basic education. Via a State Regulation for Popular Education, a Development Plan, and a Framework Law for Adult Education, this adult basic education was eventually included, all be it in a very restricted way, as part of the original concept of adult basic education in the legal regulation of a Law on Adult and Vocational Education.

With regard to opinions about lifelong learning and *éducation permanente*, the government nowadays places increasing emphasis upon the socio-economic importance of adult education and the term 'employability' has moved to the foreground. In the 1993 policy paper from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences, *Stay Learning: Development Perspective for Adult Education in Broad Terms*, the importance of lifelong learning was emphasised in terms of its contribution to strengthening the knowledge economy. An important priority in policy became the achievement of a 'start qualification' by the whole of the working population. During the European Year of Lifelong Learning in 1996, the emphasis in The Netherlands was placed upon learning for the benefit of the workplace¹.

¹ This found expression in the membership of the Steering Committee which included representatives of the ministries, employers and trade unions.

The 1998 action plan, *Lifelong Learning: The Dutch Initiative*, from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences was almost entirely dominated by economic motives and the need for every adult Dutch person to be and remain employable. Only more recently has there been an indication of a renewal of interest in the social cultural dimension of adult

education, and in September 2000 the first Week of Adult Learning was organised at the initiative of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences. This attracted a great deal of attention beyond the structures of formal adult education and training².

² See the brochure *Leren in Nederland; opleidings- en cursusmogelijkheden voor Volwassenen* (CINOP, 2000).

This brochure contains information on the provision made by the Regional Educational Centres and that of a number of organisations that provide non-vocational courses for adults.

With regard to general adult education, government policy has emphasised a strong degree of decentralisation. Within the Law on Adult and Vocational Education, the local authorities are responsible for determining the priorities and financing for the provision of second chance general adult education. It is also possible for commercial providers, associations and private organisations, such as the Popular Universities, to make appropriate provision without any regulation by government.

Recent developments suggest an awareness of the need for a new balance in the distribution of responsibilities, although these developments are somewhat contradictory. On the one hand, policy-makers at national level stress the responsibility of the individual. There is a growing interest in individual decisions about investments in learning. In governmental initiatives for experiments with individual learning accounts, the role of the individual learner is central. Learning and management of knowledge are increasingly seen as essential elements in the personal life-course and no longer as mere instruments for the maintenance of occupational skills.

On the other hand, there is a tendency in the educational policies of local authorities to impose increasing pressure on specific target groups to participate. Within the framework of a broadly based political commitment for the integration of minority groups in Dutch society, individual members of these groups are more or less compelled to make use of the educational provision intended for them. In recent years there has also been increasing pressure upon the long-term unemployed, people on occupational disability benefits, and those dependent on social security benefits to participate in training. There are now numerous examples of links between the provision of benefits and the requirement to make use of educational provision. The rationale behind this compulsion is that the qualification level of the members of such groups is below the level of the start qualification and their employability is relatively low, which opens them up to marginalisation and social exclusion.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Emphasis on a multi-faceted policy with a view to the eventual repositioning of responsibilities and no search for one national blueprint for a life long of learning.* Many different actors are involved in the development of policy for a life long of learning. This was the case in the past and will remain so in the future. These actors will have to give both form and content to such a policy, whether bottom-up or top-down. This implies the possibility that there may be a shift in responsibilities. The emphasis must be upon a multi-faceted policy. There is no need to strive for a national system for lifelong learning. It is preferable to allow different initiatives to exist side-by-side and to develop further. In gaining insights in developments it will be important to make use of descriptions of 'good practices';
- *Attention for 'life-broad learning' in addition to 'lifelong learning'.* Policy-making must give attention to both vocational and non-vocational education and training. The one-sided emphasis on economic motives and lifelong learning must be replaced by devoting more attention to 'life-broad learning'. Furthermore, policy-making must also pay attention to non-formal and informal learning in addition to formal learning, together with the mutual relations between these three forms and their effectiveness.

Initial education remains the foundation

The growing interest in lifelong learning in The Netherlands has not as yet led to a decline in the interest for initial education. This is in part a result of macro-economic reasoning that the highest returns result from investments in education during the earliest phases of life. It is also partly a result of the societal need to give people as much equipment as possible in order to live a life outside of the workplace. The growing provision of out-of-school learning has not contributed to less emphasis on attending school. Quite the contrary is the reality. A report from the Social-Cultural Planning Bureau expressed this as follows: 'Experience in recent decades demonstrates that developments point in the opposite direction; there is a concentration of an increasing number of functions and tasks upon schools and an increasing over-burdening of education during the youth phase' (Bronneman-Helmers, 2000). Dronkers and Van Eck stress specifically that lifelong learning is above all taken up by those with successful initial education, or by '... those with a favourable background such as milieu or initial school success'. They also add the caution that '... lifelong learning is not best served by redistributing education throughout life. On the contrary, the foundation for successful lifelong learning is established in initial education (Dronkers and Van Eck, 1997: 20). De Grip also points out that the increasing interest in lifelong learning has not led to a reduction in the importance of investing in initial education: '... a good foundation with respect to learning potential and motivation in initial education is crucial for a society which recognises the social necessity of increasing participation in post-initial education' (De Grip, 2000).

Participation in non-compulsory education has continued to increase in recent years; especially in higher professional education, but also in secondary vocational education. About half of all young people now enrol in secondary vocational education, whether as the completion of their initial education or as a step towards higher professional education (Kuhry, 1998). As a result of this development, the educational level of the Dutch work force has increased significantly during the last decades. Almost 40% of the

³ See also the policy document of MKB Nederland – the national organisation for small and medium-sized businesses – which states that many employers are of the opinion that entrepreneurs must possess at least a diploma from secondary vocational education and that this will be increasingly the case for employers.

work force now has a secondary vocational education diploma while 25% have a university or higher professional diploma. It is expected that this increase in the educational level of the work force will continue in the future; the labour market places great emphasis on secondary vocational and higher education qualifications (Metze, 1999)³. According to Elshout-Mohr and Riemersma (1997), three factors are essential in this: a) to ensure that pupils are themselves responsible and thus able to develop effective study skills; b) there is complementary provision of a similar but modified programme for premature school leavers; c) that adult education should make good use of these previously acquired skills.

Making adequate provision for good initial education is a difficult task as it is. Ensuring that more young people acquire a specific basic level will demand greater efforts. Additional measures will probably make it possible to reduce the drop-out in secondary vocational education. This is now estimated as between 30 and 40%, and it is not expected that it can be reduced to zero. Especially in periods of economic growth, a tight labour market, and a greying population, work will be a more attractive alternative for some youngsters (Doets en Westerhuis, 2000).

To the degree that the required basic level is raised, there will be a subsequent increase in the financial investments in initial education. Perhaps not in terms of staff, but rather in terms of buildings, apparatus, learning materials and guidance systems so that secondary vocational education becomes more attractive to those who now opt for secondary general education (Bronneman-Helmers, 2000).

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Focus initial education more on lifelong learning.*
The foundation for a life long of learning has to be established in initial education. Without such a basis, any policy for a life long of learning is doomed to failure. This means that initial education must pay attention to those skills and competencies which enable citizens to continue learning. To this end, at least a part of secondary vocational education must be redesigned;
- *Make it possible to acquire a start qualification outside of formal education.*
While it is necessary to prevent premature drop-out in initial education, many will continue to leave initial education without such a qualification. For this category opportunities must be created so that they can acquire a so-called 'start qualification'⁴ in later working life; in particular by stimulating learning in the workplace.

⁴ A 'start qualification' indicates the minimum education level needed for life time employment.

Growing demand for learning throughout life

There is broad support for lifelong learning among the Dutch population. Research by Doets et al (2000) reported that 80% of adults think that it is important for adults to continue to learn in order to keep up with change. Motives to continue learning are primarily instrumental with personal development scoring 67%, while learning for occupational purposes scores 61%. There has been a significant growth in participation in adult education since the 1960s. Hake (cited in Houtkoop, 2000) estimates that 38% of adults take part annually in one or other form of adult education. Compared to the 1960s, participation has doubled. Houtkoop (2000) estimates that 46% of the working population participated in one or more work-related course. In 1994/95 this was 34%.

Van der Kamp (2000) arrives at similar figures. He makes, however, a distinction between the generations which demonstrate very significant differences in participation. Furthermore, he points out, that the level of participation in adult education in The Netherlands is relatively low compared with certain other countries. In Sweden, for example, 53% of the population takes part in one or other form of adult education. It must be recognised, nonetheless, that the level in neighbouring Belgium is much lower at 21%.

Further analysis suggests that the previously mentioned relation between changes in the life-course and learning in later life is not significant. Most people follow a course related to their current job (41%). They want to keep their skills up-to-date. Only 25% follow a course with a view to improving their career perspectives and then mostly within the same firm. Participation is directed primarily towards current performance and not towards long-term strategic employability in the labour market. Employers are the largest investors. In 84% of the courses followed, the employer pays all the costs, while employees pay in only 12% of cases (Houtkoop, 2000). Rather than employees themselves, it is the employer who takes the initiative for job-related training.

Research by Doets et al also examined the participation patterns of people who follow a course at their own initiative. Although 80% of adults find that it is important that adults continue to learn, the reality is that about 20% of Dutch adults follow a course at their own initiative. These are more usually women rather than men. Popular courses are hobby-related, or concerned with ICTs, and modern languages. In other words, actual participation is located somewhere between leisure activity and the type of lifelong learning favoured in policy documents.

The most recent statistics concerning company-based training were published by the Central Statistical Office in 2001. These indicate a clear increase in participation in company-based training. A comparison between 1993 and 1999 shows that participation in in-company and out-company training has increased from 26% to 41%. The differences between small and large companies have declined. Highest growth rates were actually found in smaller businesses with 10-99 employees, where participation increased from 15% to 37%. Smaller firms tend to spend relatively less on training than larger firms, 1,8% compared to 3,8% of the wage-bill. There are differences between different sectors, with the financial sector at 65% and catering at 32%.

Of some significance is the rather different picture presented in the *Intermediair Training Survey 2001* (Vos, 2001). This survey refers to the phenomenon of 'course exhaustion' and a consequent decline in participation from 35% in 1995 to 17% in 2001. This decline is particularly marked among the generation born after 1970. Although this survey only involved readers of the *Intermediair* magazine and is thus not representative of the Dutch population as a whole, it could point to an interesting trend that will have to be taken into account in the future. This is especially the case when one looks at the supposed causes of this decline in participation among the younger generation. Possible explanations mentioned included: high pressure of work; having neither energy nor time; lack of clarity concerning actual effects and the rising quality demands of employers.

On the whole, research suggests that the interest in learning in later life among the population as a whole has increased. Research by Doets and Houtkoop suggests that Dutch citizens think that the employer should pay for work-related training. Self-financed courses are in most cases leisure-time related. It is also clear that the demand for and participation by adults in learning activities is equally divided between work-related and non-work-related activities. In other words, equal percentages have an interest in learning activities for personal development and work-related learning activities. With regard to the latter category, the employer rather than the employee makes the decision.

In broad terms, it can be argued that an interest in learning has above all an instrumental character: individuals want to be able do something with the learning acquired whether in leisure time or at work.

As far as demand is concerned four trends can be distinguished:

- expansion of areas of life to which learning is related towards life-broad learning;
- extension of the period in which learning takes place towards life-long learning;
- increase in participation in learning activities;
- possible lack of time for learning among the younger highly-educated generation.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Within the framework of a life long of learning attention should also be explicitly given to personal development as well as vocational/professional development.*

Amongst the population there is a broad interest in learning in later life. This applies both to work-related as to non-work-related learning. Up to now government policy has been primarily concerned with work-related learning together with the necessary attention for risk categories. Given the significant demand for learning for personal development, the government needs to pay more attention to this issue in the future. Furthermore, it is possible that both areas strengthen each other: learning for personal development can be motivating and lead to the acquisition of learning attitudes and skills that are essential for learning in the workplace.

The European Memorandum

During the Portuguese presidency, the European Commission agreed in March 2000, in Lisbon, that educational policy in the member states should increasingly focus on lifelong learning. The Commission found this to be necessary for a successful transformation towards the knowledge economy and knowledge society. From the perspective of iterative planning, the member states will have to give both form and content to this process of transformation. According to the Memorandum, lifelong learning must become the leading policy principle for education and training in the member states with regard to both the provision and the stimulation of demand. The preconditions for this are among others:

- equal opportunities for all to learn throughout life and for different areas of life in accordance with their own wishes and possibilities;
- flexibility of the possibilities to learn, among others through combinations of learning and work, learning and leisure-time, and learning and social activities;
- improving the quality of education, training and development;
- stimulating the whole population to participate in learning activities.

The Commission states categorically that it must not only be a question of vocational education and training; the two focal points of policy are the employability of the population and stimulating citizenship. This was formulated in the final Lisbon conclusion, as follows: 'lifelong learning is essential to policy for the development of citizenship, social cohesion and employment'. More so than in the past, where training and general education were quite different worlds, there is now an appeal for an integral policy based upon social, cultural and economic objectives.

There is, furthermore, a plea for a broadening of attention in policy for different forms of learning. In the past governments were above all interested in formal learning taking place in educational and training institutions. In the future more attention must be given, also by governments, to non-formal learning – learning that does not necessarily lead to formal diplomas – and informal learning – learning in daily life, in the workplace, and often unintentional.

A final element is the emphasis placed upon the responsibility of the citizen: 'People themselves are the leading actors in the knowledge societies. In a constantly changing society, the individual is increasingly responsible for his or her learning: educational institutions must actively respond to this responsibility'.

The Memorandum formulated six key messages, namely:

key message 1: new basic skills for all

key message 2: more investment in human resources

key message 3: innovation in teaching and learning

key message 4: valuing learning

key message 5: rethinking counselling and guidance

key message 6: bringing learning closer to home

The following chapters will examine the situation in The Netherlands in the perspective of these six key messages.

Key message 1: new basic skills for all

In the words of the Commission, the idea behind this key message in the words is the question as to whether every citizen 'must have universal and permanent access to learning activities in order to acquire and refresh the skills that are necessary for a continuous participation in the knowledge society'.

Questions mentioned in the Memorandum in this regard are:

- 1 the principle upon which curricula must be based in the knowledge age and the degree to which schools can introduce new skills into their programmes;
- 2 the personal right of every citizen to acquire new skills throughout life;
- 3 issues concerning the increasing information gap;
- 4 defining new basic skills within a common European framework;
- 5 measures to enable older workers to keep their skills up-to-date;
- 6 the manner in which competencies acquired out-of-school can be recognised and accredited.

(N.B. questions 6 is not discussed here but at length by key message 4)

AD. 1: BASIC SKILLS AND THE REDESIGN OF PROGRAMMES

In The Netherlands there has been much discussion about the importance of everyone having the basic skills needed to survive in the modern knowledge society. In addition to competencies related to employment, the term 'citizenship competencies' is also used. Without these basic skills the individual's position on the labour market is extremely weak and the possibility of active participation in social, cultural and political life is restricted. It is not always clear, however, what these skills are, how they can be acquired, how they can be translated in forms of teaching/learning, and how curricula have to change.

When we take a look at government policy, we see that education is asked to pay attention to the new skills required to participate in the knowledge society. In the policy document, *Education at the ready: power and creativity for the knowledge society* (Min.

OCenW, 2000), this is expressed as follows: 'The need for more variety in education makes new demands on curricula. During the last decade the government has added many new demands and goals in the curricula for primary and secondary education. This has led to a programme that requires schools to make priorities'.

According to this document, it appears that work is being undertaken in diverse sectors of education in order to give meaning to these new skill requirements. In the Vocational and Adult Education sector, representatives of the National Bodies for Vocational Education [LOB's] and the Regional Educational Centres [ROC's] have made agreements to define key competencies in general terms rather than in detailed, knowledge and skill based objectives.

Higher education also has to recognise the growing need for more variety in flexible learning trajectories. Institutions of higher education are working to introduce differentiation in terms of study speed, duration of study, curricula and didactical methods. A more flexible financing system for higher professional education is intended to support this development of more variety.

It is clear that the term 'competency' will become central in vocational education and possibly also in adult education. According to the ACOA competency can be defined as 'the ability of a person to act adequately in situations in terms of both processes and results'. The ACOA distinguishes four kinds of competencies, namely: a) occupational and methodical-instrumental competencies; b) management, organisational, and strategic competencies; c) social communicative and normative cultural competencies; d) learning and design competencies. Three forms of qualification are proposed for secondary vocational education in particular in terms of vocational competencies, learning competencies and citizenship competencies.

The focus in the above approach is upon redesigning initial education. However, emphasis upon the importance of basic skills can also mean that every citizen has the (lifelong) right to acquire the skills that are required in order to survive and develop in modern society. When such a focus is adopted, the question then arises as to what these basic skills are, who determines and provides them, and whether a qualification is attached to them? The introduction of adult basic education – later included as 'education' – in the Law on (Adult) Education and Vocational Education – can be regarded as the first minimalist attempt to offer a package of basic skills to adults who could not cope in society or who wished to develop themselves socially. These basic skills do not comprise a standard

provision, but the courses offered by ROC's do take account of the needs of such adults. In most cases, this involves elementary language, arithmetic, social and digital skills. In the literature – and policy documents – most attention is given to the problems of adults with language difficulties. Houtkoop (2001) reports that 1.5 million Dutch adults between 16 and 74 are functionally illiterate. They are to be found among older people, those with little education, and those not born in The Netherlands. With reference to the latter category provision is moving away from courses concentrating on language training towards training for a broader set of skills, such as those on offer in so-called 'citizenship courses'. The idea behind this development is the government's view that it has to ensure the provision of the minimum level of skills necessary for integration into Dutch society.

Each year, 200,000 adults – 2% of the adult population – take part in these (three) forms of adult education, while 50% of these 200 000 participate in courses for Dutch as a second language or citizenship courses. Despite the political commitment, this is a relatively small part of adult learners as a whole. In comparison, the participation in hobby-related courses amounts to 10% of the adult population.

AD 2: A PERSONAL RIGHT

The interest in The Netherlands in new basic skills and competencies appears to be focused on initial (vocational) education. The acquisition of a start qualification as such can be regarded as a right (and a duty). It is a right that for the moment is restricted to the youth phase.

There is as yet no real discussion as to whether every citizen has the right to acquire skills by way of lifelong learning. With regard to the citizenship courses for immigrants mentioned previously, it could be argued that this involves a right (and a duty) for the specific groups involved to become involved in learning, although the contents are determined by the government.

A number of experiments with Individual Learning Accounts (ILA) have recently been started at the initiative of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences. ILA's can be regarded as an instrument that will contribute in the future to a right to learn throughout life. Whether this will apply to all citizens is the question. A similar initiative involving Personal Development Accounts (PDA) – involving the ministries of Education, Culture and Sciences, Social Affairs and Employment, Economic Affairs together with the social partners – will probably be limited to the working population. The degree to which the government will provide direct financial support for an eventual right of all employees is

an important discussion point. If financial support is introduced it will probably be restricted to those employees – and possibly job-seekers – without a start qualification.

AD 3: ICT SKILLS AND THE INFORMATION GAP

A few years ago, the first – mostly alarming – publications appeared about the danger of a division in society between those citizens who make intensive use of the new information technologies, and those citizens who do not do this and thus become isolated and fall behind. Research from a few years ago demonstrated that this was indeed the case for some of the elderly, the poorly educated and the unemployed. As a result of many initiatives by government, business and voluntary organisations (e.g. the SeniorWeb)⁵, it appears that the gap is actually getting smaller rather than larger. The question is whether there is indeed an information gap, or whether differences are related to disadvantages in other aspects of social life. The research report 'Digitalisation of the life-world' concluded that: 'The results of the research do not lead to great concerns about new forms of social inequality let alone about a new and growing social divide in the information age. There are inequalities, but these are old rather than new and do not suggest that inequality of knowledge will replace traditional economic inequalities. The inequalities are above all gradual in nature; there is no evidence of a knowledge gap. Insofar as inequalities of ownership (e.g. of a PC) exist, it can be expected that these will be temporary and not reinforcing, and that they are based upon the nature of complex and costly innovations. This kind of inequality will quickly become less important with the wider distribution of cheaper and user-friendlier innovations, and will be replaced by new advantages of higher income groups in other areas.

A significant and unexpected major inequality is that between men and women. New information technology is not only expensive and complex but is apparently technical, and for this latter reason is of less interest to women. Moreover, there are indications that these gender differences are less among the younger generation.' (Van Dijk, De Haan and Rijken, 2000).

Government policy with regard to ICTs is strongly directed towards initial education where large-scale initiatives are intended to get everyone behind the personal computer. As a result the younger generation playfully grow-up with the use of ICTs that touch all facets of their lives, specific attention of ICT appears hardly necessary for the young.

This picture is confirmed by recent research. Interest in ICT-related courses differs strongly between the generations. Among the general population the interest in participating in an ICT-related course increases from 0% among the 16-19 year-olds, via

⁵ An initiative developed by among others the Dutch Platform Elderly in Europe.

almost 30% among 50-60 year-olds, to 50% among those above 60. If priorities are necessary, these should be directed towards the elderly. Previously mentioned research indicates that ICT-related courses enjoy a growing popularity, and that the lower-educated and elderly participate more than the higher-educated and young people.

In reducing the information gap further, priority can be best given to training for specific occupational categories such as teachers who assume a key position in the transfer of knowledge and skills. The ICT-monitor 2000 shows, for example, that only one-third of teachers in the ROC-sector have completed one or more modules of the European Digital Driving License.

AD. 4: DEVELOPMENT OF A EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK

An analysis of the literature suggests that there is not a great deal of interest in the development of a common European framework for the definition of basic skills. In general terms, it can be argued that the skills referred to in the EU Memorandum – ICT skills, foreign languages, technological culture, entrepreneurship and social skills – feature regularly in Dutch discussions. During the Year of Languages in 2001, for example, extensive interest is given to the importance of commanding one or more foreign languages, and the assumption is that this interest will be a stimulus for vocational education.

⁶ Axis is an initiative by parties in business, education and government concerned with reducing labour shortages in the technical sectors. ATB is an initiative by government and education intended to make technical vocational education more popular.

There are also different innovation programmes (e.g. Axis and ATB)⁶ that are intended to counter the declining interest in technical subjects and professions. Rather than the development of a generic framework in all areas, there is a preference to learn from each other's experience and explore how this can be translated to the specific context of (parts of) the educational system in a particular country. This can involve experiences in those areas where there is a more generic framework such as the European Digital Driving License and the European Framework Foreign languages.

AD. 5: MEASURES TO ENABLE OLDER WORKERS TO KEEP THEIR SKILLS UP-TO-DATE

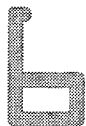
Research by Houtkoop among others, suggests that the initiative to follow a course is in most cases the responsibility of the employer. Apparently this accords with the Dutch tradition in job related training: the employee waits until the 'boss' gives the signal. As pointed out earlier, employers cover the costs of training in the majority of cases whether or not they make use or not of subsidies, sector training funds or fiscal facilities. Previously mentioned research suggests that older employees participate less in training with a relatively strong decline above 50 years of age. The policies of both government

and social partners are directed at giving the individual employee more responsibility for his own training and employability. Experiments must demonstrate which instruments are most suitable. Possibilities include Individual Learning Accounts, Personal Development Accounts and Personal Development Plans.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Basic skills should be learned in first instance in initial education.*
Basic skills will be primarily learned in initial education. When social change and developments in the labour market call for new skills and competencies, these will have to be translated into initial education. To this end, education must maintain open lines to society in so far as possible.
- *Facilitate the possibility for adults to learn the skills necessary in order to function optimally in the knowledge society.*
Skills can be relevant to functioning in the workplace and in social life. The emphasis must be placed upon the demand by individual adults. Because the knowledge society as a whole requires learning by the total population it is necessary to give broad sections of the population the possibilities to acquire basic skills. In this respect, it is necessary to explore the degree to which the specific target group policy characteristic of (adult basic) education in the ROC sector – with its emphasis upon immigrants and the functionally illiterate – can be extended in the direction of a more general and broader basic provision.
- *Experiment further with the right (and duty) to learn.*
A right for all citizens to acquire the qualifications they think to be necessary is not opportune without both adequate financing and infrastructure, and this cannot be achieved overnight. Through co-operation with the educational field, the necessary measures can be taken to experiment further with the right (and the duty?) to learn for certain groups in a position of disadvantage. In order to avoid the dangers of an ad hoc target group policy, these experiments must be carried out from the perspective a broad basic provision. Examples are available in the area of (adult basic) education – e.g. citizenship courses for immigrants – that can be extended to other groups. With reference to the working population, the focus should be placed upon (older) workers without a start qualification.

- *Be careful with large-scale specific programmes for ICT skills.*
Basic skills in the area of ICT will be acquired informally by the largest part of the population in initial education. There appears to be no need to give specific priority to the information gap. Disadvantages in this respect have much to do with disadvantages in other areas. For groups who are behind – e.g. the elderly – there seem to be adequate initiatives. Special attention could be given to specific occupational groups such as teachers.
- *Do not strive for a European framework for basic skills.*
Basic skills can differ for different groups in terms of both content and desired levels of competence. As long as discussions are conducted at national level, it is not opportune to strive for common European frameworks. A good system of describing and exchanging experiences is preferable. It will be useful to explore how far the existing frameworks such as ECDL and foreign languages can be used as a comparative standard.



Key message 2: more investment in human resources

The second key message concerns the need to increase the investment in human resources. This does not involve merely increasing the level of investments as such, but stimulating the attractiveness of such investments among those directly involved. How can citizens and employers be encouraged to invest more in learning? Investment is only attractive when the returns are visible and the preconditions for investing in the acquisition of new competencies are in place. As a consequence, this theme is approached through three sub-themes:

- 1 making clear to citizens and employers that investment in education and training is important;
- 2 stimulate citizens to finance their own learning and themselves determine in what they wish to invest;
- 3 creating time and opportunity to combine learning with responsibilities in the workplace and the private sphere.

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AD. 1: THE IMPORTANCE OF INVESTING IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Why should one invest in learning later in life? From a macro-economic perspective the importance of continuing to learn is beyond dispute: 70 to 80% of economic growth is driven by knowledge (Leijnse, 2001). Recent years have seen a strong development in the knowledge intensity of work. The share of knowledge-based jobs in the labour market has increased and the educational level of employees has risen. This is translated into changes in the organisation of work processes. Influenced by technological developments, physical labour in the workplace has made way for knowledge work in the 'new firm': monitoring, communication, control and maintenance. Production processes become information management processes. People who were central to production processes are now involved in steering organisational processes. As a consequence their responsibilities increase; their most important task is the management of information from different networks. Employees become entrepreneurs on the work-floor. They provide services,

steer processes, control processes and solve problems independently (Klamer, 2000; Kraan, 2000; Pieper, 2000). This knowledge intensity exerts its influence upon the organisation of firms. Knowledge intensity is encouraged when knowledge is easily transferable in organisations. ICTs encourage the horizontal mobility of personnel and the absence of hierarchical gaps due to barriers between the educational levels of employees (Klamer, 2000).

Another macro-economic argument is that regular changes of tasks makes learning a necessity, and conversely that continuing to learn makes it easier to change tasks: the internal and external mobility of employees who follow courses is higher. Such changes can be stimulated by reorganisation in firms, but also the personal aspiration to change jobs. The number of people who change jobs is increasing: from 30% in 1994 to 40% in 1999 among those who started their job during the last year. As with many other developments in the labour market, the majority of these presently comprise the young and well-educated employees⁷ (Leijnse, 2001). It is expected, moreover, that this trend will extend to include a broader section of the working population and thus lose its élitist character: 'permanent education and continuing functional mobility will become standard aspects of existence. This requires of employees that they regularly change roles of positions in the firm and outside' (Zegers, 1999).

What is the situation with regard to investing in learning from an individual perspective? The returns to initial education are high. Returns to higher education in particular have risen very significantly during the last five years: the tight labour market has been translated in terms of higher incomes for highly skilled employees and in greater income differences between the higher and lower skilled (Leuven, 2000). Returns to post-initial training and retraining are more difficult to estimate. Up to now employers have taken the bulk of the costs for their account. Of course this form of financing is related to the fact that most of the training activities involved are task-related and are in fact articulated by the demand side of the labour market (Labour Foundation, 2001: 10). The role of second-chance general education – education followed later in life as a compensation for initial education – has declined. The emphasis has shifted to training in order to survive on the labour market by adapting to the demands of the labour market (De Grip, 2000: 16). There is an increasing emphasis on 'core training' in order to stay in one's current job (Bartel, 1992 cited in De Grip, 2000). So long as the motives for participation in continuing education and training are defined in terms of the current job, employees expect that the employer will cover the costs. This is not illogical. For firms, training is a way of readjusting the balance between the required and available competencies, whether

⁷ Think of the gradual growth of the population that participates in further training. Recently, the share of women, elderly and lower educated is unmistakably increasing: 'for many years participation in courses was higher among young and well-educated employees. These differences have become less during the past 10 years and will become smaller in the future' (Leijnse, 2001).

this involves coping with new employers and replacements, or is due to changes in tasks (Forrier, 2001).

The picture changes when the purpose of training is broader, and when the link with the current job is less. A recent document for the Labour Foundation argued: '... in addition to the standard training arrangements in collective bargaining agreements, it is necessary to make agreements about a broader more general employability policy that is not only directed at the individual and the firm, but also rises above the needs of specific firms and indeed sectors' (Labour Foundation, 2001: 21). More aspects of training are being included in collective bargaining agreements as in the recent case of the construction and building industries. The interests of the individual is evident, it increases opportunities on the labour market. It can be expected that the financial burden for this kind of training will shift towards the individual employee.

Ad. 2: STIMULATION OF DEMAND

We arrive, here, at the second point: stimulating citizens to co-finance their education and training, and enabling them to decide on these investments. An important question in this regard is whether the citizen experiences the need to acquire broader training. There is, nonetheless, an unmistakable social interest. We have reported that there is an increasing demand for highly educated individuals. This expanding demand has resulted in a significant increase in incomes which means a higher return to the individual on the investments made. In order to reduce tensions in the labour market, it is important to educate and train more people to higher levels and to ease transfer from preparatory vocational education to secondary vocational education (see De Grip, 2000). Given the demographic change to fewer young people and more older people in society, a collective effort to raise the educational level of the working population is a realistic alternative. But the question is whether this societal need is translated into individual willingness to invest in this kind of education and training. The assumption here is that people no longer automatically define their career within the current firm or sector.

It is significant that the importance of self-regulation with regard to one's own career development appears above all in trend studies. Metze argues that the employee will be responsible in the future for the (lifelong) maintenance of his/her own competencies: 'employees will increasingly be expected to give direction and self-steering to their own careers' (Metze, 1999). In the words of Korver: 'the entrepreneurial employee is willing and able to take decisions about his own career and can be called upon in terms of the risks associated with such decisions' (Korver, 2000).

⁸ The cabinet has started in 2001 with a number of experiments with Individual Learning Accounts in the BVE-sector for the employed and unemployed. The learning account is a savings account with which the employee or job-seeker can purchase training at an institution chosen by himself. The funds in the account not only come from the government but also from contributions by the individual, the employer or sector training funds.

⁹ This is not unimportant for initiatives intended to encourage citizens to invest in their own learning. When time is more a problem than money, only arrangements are of interest by which those interested can purchase time. See also the earlier cited article in Intermediar about 'course exhaustion'.

This indication is in particular seized upon in the policy circles of government and the social partners. The initiative to experiment with Individual Learning Accounts is a good example⁸. However, there are few signs of a latent need among employees to privately invest in favour of their career development. Despite the increase in job changes, internal changes within the current firm is far and away the most important factor; indeed there is a tendency in The Netherlands towards the lengthening of the duration of contracts of employment (Leijnse, 2001).

AD 3: CREATING TIME AND OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN

Now the third sub-theme: creating time and opportunity to learn in combination with responsibilities in the workplace and in the private sphere. It would be unjust to regard learning in later life entirely as a burden that has to be fitted in alongside other more traditional ways of spending time. The choice between certain forms of time investments has acquired another dimension. As a result of increasing living standards and purchasing power, life itself has become a challenge in terms of getting as much out of it as one can. The experience of life is of increasing importance in modern life; much more is put into a life and this has to be both variable and worthwhile (Schnabel, 2000). This demands finding a good balance between working, learning, housekeeping, caring and leisure-time. It is not money, but time, that is a scarce commodity⁹. The abilities to plan and make effective combinations can be seen as constituting the necessary survival strategies of the modern citizen.

In addition to personal skills in planning and combining areas of life, changes in preconditions can contribute to creating time to learn. Meeting the consequences of the need to combine so many things in a given period of time has now acquired high priority on the agenda of households and indeed the political agenda. The solution is to be found partly in the more efficient organisation of households with the availability of household apparatus, the redistribution of tasks between partners, and the purchasing of personal services such as domestic help. Consequently, the redistribution of household tasks between partners has become less skewed: the contribution of men has increased 10% in the last ten years to 27% of caring tasks and 30.7% of housekeeping tasks (Min. Social Affairs, 2000). Policy is increasingly interested in the planning of daily life and the adjustment of the opening hours of schools. The previously divided domains of school, work, family and state become increasingly inter-related (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2000).

Employers can be asked to remain attractive as employers by offering employees more choice in the conditions of employment. These must suit the wishes of the employee and

can change in different phases of life. Young employees attach value to training opportunities and the chance to take a longer holiday from time to time, while young parents have other wishes. Conditions of employment should take account of such preferences.

Nonetheless, finding an unacceptable balance between expectations, aspirations, duties and possibilities is problematic. Research suggests that many of the Dutch population have difficulties in this respect (Ester, 2000). They ask themselves where the limits are to the permanent search for excellence within and between the domains of work, caring and leisure. The Dutch experience a mismatch between observable developments in the system of work and their own preferences.

Is increasing stress an indication of the increasing emphasis on performance in terms of quality and quantity of life? Or is the pressure of work an indication of an uncompleted transformation of paradigms? Research by Ester suggests that the Dutch population regard the pressure of work as something they are unwillingly subjected to. Van Beek is of a different opinion. Pushing the increasing self-awareness of employees to the limit, he comes to the following conclusion: 'we have enjoyed our preparation for the labour market in an educational system that is as closely related as possible to existing jobs. There was (and is) no place for the discovery of ideals, the development of talent, establishing one's own goals, taking one's own decisions – the very preconditions of being able to actually manage the possibilities open to us' (Van Beek, 2000). The growing experience of stress is for him an indication of the fact that people are not used to thinking about work in terms of setting limits, the proactive investment of one's own talents and ideals. Furthermore, the current structure of work calls forth obedience and predictability, rather than creativity and assertiveness. Many employees are socialised in these structures. In short, the worker is not the victim of increasing external pressure of work, but is the under-socialized entrepreneur of his own work career and life-course.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Extend the learning perspective beyond the current job.*
The accent in learning in later life has up to now been focused on keeping up in order to function in the current job. There is only a very limited development of learning in support of mobility within or beyond the current firm. Extra attention is needed for extending the function of lifelong learning in support of broadening the career development perspective;

- *Raising the qualification level of the population.*
As a result of developments on the labour market there is a strong demand for middle and higher level qualifications. Responding to this demand serves both a personal and a social purpose. In order to meet this demand there should adequate financial facilities available to stimulate the adult labour force to raise their qualification levels;
- *Attention for the distribution of time as a scare good.*
As a consequence of increasing possibilities for choice and the wish to allocate the time available to a broad range of activities, learning is only one of many options available. In addition to the possibilities for creating more time or making learning processes more efficient, the promoters of lifelong learning will be asked to more clearly demonstrate the usefulness and added value of learning. Furthermore, explicit attention has to be given to the efficiency and effectiveness of learning and learning processes, whereby the utilisation of ICTs should be examined above all in terms of saving time.



Key Message 3: innovation in teaching and learning

There has been increasing interest in recent years for innovations in the didactical methods used in education. Alongside the implementation of the Study House in Dutch upper secondary education, there have been numerous efforts to reform both vocational education and adult education. The central idea behind such reforms is that education should respond to the demands of the participants, should relate to practice, and that the participant must be better prepared for his/her future role as both a citizen and an employee. Key words for this innovative process are:

- from provision-oriented to demand-led education;
- from teaching to learning;
- increasing attention for non-formal and informal learning;
- changes in the role of the teacher from knowledge transfer to coach.

The rapid development of ICTs plays a role throughout all this. Given their influence in all aspects of society and in education, they are simultaneously the goal and the means of innovation. It is significant in The Netherlands that not only the educational system itself, but also the central government is a source of stimuli for the renewal of didactical processes in education. Alongside adult education a leading role is played by secondary vocational education. The most recent example here is the government supported 'transferability agenda', which argues among other things for a new pedagogical and didactical approach to vocational education. This new approach should offer the student attractive learning possibilities within and outside of the school, together with forms of learning and learning contents that relate to and interest students.

Recent publications, by among others Bolhuis and Simons (1999), Van den Berg (1999), Onstenk et al (1999), and De Bruijn and Moerkamp (1997), devote considerable attention to new didactical approaches. There appears to be a consensus that new educational forms should be directed to active, authentic and competency-oriented learning in which

learning through practice assumes a central place. Most authors are agreed that the so-called 'constructivist paradigm' provides the foundation for new forms of education and didactics. According to Simons key concepts within this paradigm are:

- active construction of meaning;
- interaction in the co-operative construction of meanings;
- reflection about the learning process;
- contextualisation of learning in concrete experiences.

Of interest here is that the introduction of ICTs and the related e-learning seem to fit well in a constructivist understanding of learning and that they can be an important means for its practical realisation.

At least a partial redesign of the teaching-learning process is needed in order to realise the renewal of education in the future. On the basis of Simons' work, Van den Berg proposes five goals for innovation that should provide the basis for such a redesign:

- delivery of tailor-made provision;
- context-rich learning;
- emphasis on skills;
- steering by the participant;
- explicit emphasis on learning to learn.

Van den Berg argues, furthermore, that while there is a certain degree of agreement about the basic principles, actual practice manifests a ragbag of methods and didactics that partly overlap, partly emphasise different elements, and are rarely directed to a comprehensive renewal of the teaching-learning process. An analysis of practice in 1999 shows that in the ROC-sector there were thirteen different educational models in use varying from Interactive Learning Groups to Experiential Learning¹⁰.

¹⁰ For a description of these models see: Van den Berg, 1999 (only in Dutch available).

Comparable innovation processes take place at the European level. The Memorandum points to four aspects, in short:

- 1 the relation between ICT-based didactical methods and innovation in education, together with co-operation between educational publishers and teachers;
- 2 quality control of innovations;
- 3 the qualifications of teachers working outside the regular educational system;
- 4 the priority areas for research.

¹¹ See *Onderwijs in Stelling* (Education at the Ready), Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (2000b). The following paragraphs largely come from this policy paper.

Ad. 1: THE RELATION WITH ICTs

In Education at the Ready (2000) developments and possible problems are clearly expressed¹¹: 'the growth of ICTs is of great importance for education. On the one hand, ICTs places extra demands upon education and thus the teachers. Pupils and students have to be prepared for participation in the knowledge society. On the other hand, ICTs offer new possibilities for knowledge transfer that can provide an enormous enrichment of education. At the same time ICTs can involve an enormous change for the structure of education.

ICTs offer the potential for a more demand-led education.

In present developments, however, the technology itself sets the pace. The good use of ICTs enables educational institutions to offer tailor-made education in relation to needs and capacities of individuals. Through the use of computers many learning processes can be effectively run together. The good application of ICTs offers pupils and students the possibility of acquiring information independently sometimes with the help of technical supporting personnel. Teachers are thus able to offer more individualised support in the application of information. Furthermore, they can make time free for other activities in which their qualities are expressed, such as contributions to educational innovation, counselling pupils and students, and developing tests. In this manner an educational institution with a differentiated and multi-skilled staff can continue to offer a high quality of education.

In supporting the development of e-learning four action lines are important.

Equipment. Schools are well-provided with ICT equipment. Learners must have access to other (sources) of learning such as libraries, cultural centres and museums.

Professional development at all levels. Professional development will be directed to basic digital skills by way of innovative educational models particularly in vocational education. This involves improving the expertise of teachers, ICT co-ordinators and heads of schools.

Developing software. The European Union strives for a European market for educational software and closer co-operation between software developers with the educational field.

A virtual campus. In The Netherlands a market place is being created through Knowledge Net where educational institutions and supporting institutions can present themselves and be in communication. Knowledge Net must become the platform for all possible communicative networks in the field of education both at the local and regional as well as the national and international levels.

The development of virtual higher professional education is also of interest. Virtual education makes optimal use of the possibilities offered by ICTs, whereby the differences between distance and correspondence education decline, education becomes less dependent upon place and time, and the learner assumes a central place in the educational process. The establishment of the Digital University in The Netherlands provides an impulse to the growing market for virtual and flexible education. The Digital University comprises a consortium between the Open University, three other universities, eight institutions for Higher Professional Education which are bringing together their expertise in working towards educational innovation and the realisation of a broad provision of digital education in The Netherlands.'

These are the policy intentions. The real world is as always rather different. The ICT-Monitor shows that there are currently many problems to be overcome. With regard to the ROC's the following are mentioned: the lack of teachers' knowledge and skills; the software; and difficulties with integrating ICTs into 'normal lessons'. In teacher training the foremost problems are: time and software.

Neuvel comes to the conclusion that only one-third of teachers in the ROC's make structural use of ICTs, while one-third does so only incidentally. He concludes that: 'in general terms there is a structural application of ICTs, but this is restricted to a minority of the teachers'. He does suggest, however, that the majority of learners will encounter ICTs as a learning goal, a learning medium or a help (Neuvel, 2001: 90).

Given the positive attitude of most of those involved in education, the expectation is that within three years ICTs will be above all employed as an instrument for renewal. Educational innovation in combination with ICTs is high on the agenda in many schools. At the moment, however, an ad hoc policy is all too often pursued. In order to realise the effective utilisation of ICTs a number of crucial decisions are needed. Neuvel describes these as: '... integrated policy development involving ICTs and educational innovation, organisational adjustments, the management of change process and improving the expertise of teachers'.

With regards to the relations between publishers and schools, De Haas and Marneffe (2001) argue that new forms of co-operation are emerging. They indicate that learning is increasingly an individual activity that takes place in different situations and environments. The teacher will have to construct learning arrangements that make use of advanced learning systems. In such learning systems, data-bases comprising learning packages and

modules will have to be developed in co-operation with publishers (see also key message 6).

AD 2: QUALITY CONTROL OF INNOVATIONS

Innovation must take place primarily in the schools themselves. Innovation is an iterative process in which failures and successes must demonstrate in practice which methods and didactics are useful. Concepts for this can be provided both nationally and trans-nationally. In this manner, it is possible to prevent the wheel being constantly rediscovered and to avoid the confusion brought about by 'tribal struggles' about methods and concepts. The previously mentioned study by Van den Berg (1999) shows that such a danger is quite feasible. With regards to the conceptualisation of learning, a constructivist paradigm is to be preferred that makes it possible to assess whether the points of departure in different learning situations are justifiable and realistic. The question is whether a general didactical model for vocational education and training, together with adult education, is possible, or whether it is preferable to look to different didactical models based, among other things, on different target groups and contexts. It is also of interest to explore whether and to what degree formal, non-formal and informal learning can be related to each other. A monitoring system could be established in order to acquire insights into the results of innovation processes and any adjustments found to be necessary. There are good experiences with this approach in the ROC-sector.

AD. 3: QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS OUTSIDE OF REGULAR EDUCATION

No data are available in The Netherlands with regard to the qualifications of teachers who are employed in the formal educational system but who have not completed the appropriate teacher training courses. It is also a question of whether stimulating the employment of teachers without formal and incomplete teacher training should be given priority at the present time. Priority should preferably be given to teachers already working in the regular vocational education and adult education sectors because they are challenged by significant changes in their roles. This results from both the change from teacher to coach as from the introduction of ICTs. With regard to the changing role of the teacher, solutions are required with regard to both demands upon the teacher as a subject specialist and as provider of support for learners. There is also the question as to whether these aspects can be combined. In modern learning environments the teacher no longer has a monopoly with regard to knowledge. Almost all knowledge is available for everyone via the internet which gives rise to an interesting interaction process between teachers, learners, content and third parties in a new pluralistic learning environment. In

addition to the continuing professional development of teachers, an optimal future for a lifelong of learning calls for the renewal of initial teacher training.

AD. 4: RESEARCH

Innovations can be best supported through forms of research and development together with action research. Such forms of research possess the advantage that the development of theories and the clarification of concepts can be developed through experience and co-operation with practice¹². The exchange between different countries of experience and good practices can add to the value of such research.

¹² A good example of this is the approach adopted by Axis for the design of technical vocational education.

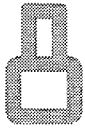
¹³ A good example of such research is the evaluation of the WEB that was carried out in 2001 and comprised 7 distinct research projects.

Furthermore, evaluation research and monitoring demand attention whereby the emphasis should be placed upon finding out whether the innovations are really effective and the degree to which widely accepted axioms can be implemented in practice¹³. Illustrative in this regard is one of the research projects in the Evaluation of the Law on Adult and Vocational Education (WEB) that demonstrated that there are limitations to the realisation of tailor-made educational provision in practice, and that many participants do not know 'which tailor-made provision I actually want'. A similar assessment is to be found in a recent article in the *NRC Handelsblad* (29 May 2001) about the high drop-out rate in secondary vocational education. Both teachers and students ask themselves questions about the overwhelming emphasis upon tailor-made provision: 'the students almost drown in the freedom of choice'.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *The practice-theoretical development of the constructivist paradigm.*
From the viewpoint of a lifelong of learning, it is necessary in the near future to invest in the continuing renewal of didactical processes in (vocational) education and adult education. The constructivist paradigm would appear to be a good point of departure, although a practice-related conceptualisation is essential in this regard. Such a conceptualisation is of no little importance in order to add transparency to the variety of existing methods and didactical models. Priority should not be given to the search for a generic theory. The development of theories of practice can be best served by forms of research – such as action research – that stress close co-operation with practice;

- *Integrating ICTs in innovations.*
The development of ICTs must not be regarded as distinct from innovation in educational methods and didactics. It is important to avoid an over-emphasis upon the stimulation of ICT projects as such. Emphasis should be placed upon the use of ICTs as a means rather than ends in themselves. When these means are not related to broader innovations, this can act as a brake on innovations.
- *Specific attention for the role of the teacher.*
Teachers are a crucial factor in didactic innovations. It is vital to devote appropriate attention to the continuing professional development of teachers (and heads of schools);
- *Evaluation and monitoring.*
In addition to research on the development of theories of practice in order to establish the effectiveness, efficiency and practical realisation of innovations, it is also necessary to give attention to evaluation and monitoring. In order to facilitate comparisons between countries, trans-national projects need to be established that utilise common conceptual frameworks.



Key Message 4: valuing learning

Given the importance of diplomas and certificates as evidence of possessing qualifications, the fourth key message involves the necessity of enabling broad social groups to acquire these. The broadening of certification involves both recognising that competencies can be developed outside of traditional education, and access to the courses and experiential trajectories in which diplomas can be acquired. But this also means the availability of an infrastructure for the recognition of skills and competencies together with the guarantee that the results of experiential learning can gain accreditation. In a European perspective this also refers to the importance of international recognition.

The importance of the Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) has been recognised in The Netherlands for some time. The report of the Wijnen Committee was published in 1994. This study explored the possibilities of establishing a system for the recognition of competencies not acquired through the formal educational system – that is to say the recognition of indeterminate qualifications. Wijnen suggested that the qualification structure for secondary vocational education should be adopted as a frame of reference for the accreditation of prior learning. The reaction of the Dutch government in 1995 accepted this position: ‘... it would be most undesirable if this should lead to an independent system for accreditation and qualifications. This (...) could lead to a kind of second-class qualifications (...) That the manner of accreditation should be less dependent on fixed learning trajectory than is now the case points to an important development task for the appropriate examining bodies’. According to the expectations of Dutch policy-makers, the possibility of capitalising experiential learning into diplomas will possess a multiplier effect. It is expected that the possibility of accrediting experiential learning will stimulate the demand for learning. There are many possibilities to learn and less traditional learning trajectories will be developed in order to meet the new demand (Min. Economic Affairs, 2000).

In The Netherlands, the discussion on valuing learning involves three themes:

- 1 expansion of the possession of diplomas among the population as a result of the recognition of the equivalence of competencies whether these are acquired at work, in private life, or in the formal educational system.
- 2 availability of a framework that makes this equivalence possible in the sense that standards for accrediting the achievements of individuals must be appropriate to the assessment of both learning experiences in formal education and in the workplace. This criterion is referred to as 'qualifications and standards acquired irrespective of whether the learning trajectory involved is school or work-based.
- 3 the positive, stimulating effect of the acquisition of recognised qualifications by alternative means upon the demand for learning and the development of new learning environments.

AD. 1: THE EXPANSION OF THE ACQUISITION OF DIPLOMAS.

This is not a discussion point in The Netherlands. In the period during which the necessity for continuing to learn acquired policy relevance (Blijven Leren, 1993), a new qualification framework for secondary vocational education was introduced. This new national qualification framework was the most obvious frame of reference for the accreditation of competencies acquired via informal trajectories. An additional argument was that there was a broad consensus between the government and the social partners that APL-certificates should be accepted by both educational institutions and the labour market. Certificates and diplomas acquired via APL must be equal to those acquired via the national qualification framework. The precondition for the implementation of APL was that it should be adapted to existing structures.

AD. 2: AVAILABILITY OF A FRAME OF REFERENCE

More problematic is making real use of the opportunities for APL. Following the publication of the advisory committee's report and the reaction of the cabinet (1995), there followed a period of experimentation with APL procedures. Up to now APL has not emerged from this experimental phase. Even now, some years further on, it still seems that the dissemination of APL is problematic. In the research report APL-monitor in the process industries by Boterman et al (1999c), it appears that the success of APL procedures is largely dependent on 'enthusiastic pioneers'. This is characteristic for the developmental phase in which APL still remains. Most projects within subsidised institutions are carried out with additional resources. It is very doubtful whether these APL projects would have started without these extra contributions.

Attention appears to focus primarily on the application of APL procedures by the intake of 'returnees' to secondary vocational education. APL procedures are mainly used in this context in order to give credits for parts of the courses. In other words APL is applied in order to make tailor-made provision for working people within the regular educational infrastructure (Boterman, 1999a). APL procedures appear to be affective in this regard. A qualitative research into APL in The Netherlands (Thomas & Frietman, 1998) showed that the use of APL can lead to effective training and thus to a saving of both time and money. This applies above all to APL activities that are intended to grant credits or to gain national certificates or diplomas.

However, due to the fact that APL procedures are mainly applied in the intake to regular vocational courses, they are not freely accessible to all. It is not possible for an individual, whether employed or unemployed, who has no intention of following a course to have their competencies accredited and to acquire a qualification in this way. The application of APL procedures for the capitalisation of work experience hardly enters the picture as an alternative to following a formal course (Klarus, 1998, 1999). This development, or rather lack of development, was one of the reasons for the setting up of the APL Knowledge Centre in 2001 by the Ministry of Economic affairs and the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences. The application of APL in the coming years must be given a strong impulse by way of providing information about procedures, instruments, costs and benefits, and the identification of problems in the area of legislation and regulations.

Of interest here is the question as to why there is such a hesitant acceptance of APL in The Netherlands. What are the causes? Is it the lack of a need for the accreditation of prior learning? Is it a consequence of a lack of flexibility by managers of accreditation procedures or the qualification structure itself? It is clear that the accreditation of learning and work experience outside of secondary vocational education was not taken into account when the qualification structure was established. This justifies the question as to how far the qualification structure is indeed appropriate as a frame of reference for the recognition and accreditation of competencies acquired outside formal education?

The introduction of the qualification framework in 1997 brought about a codification of the content, structure and classification of the objectives of all forms of secondary vocational education that had previously operated with their own ways of determining the contents. This codification was built into the Law on Adult Education and Vocational Education, a law that was intended to provide integration in terms of organisation and contents of secondary vocational education. The Dutch qualification framework was the

final step in the restructuring of secondary vocational education. Therefore, the introduction of the qualification framework can be seen in terms of a guarantee of the relationship between and the co-ordination of initial secondary education by way of a framework of objectives and qualifications.

This can be clearly seen in the purpose of the objectives within the qualification framework that establish the standards by which the results of learning processes can be judged. Such purposes are based upon the information need in the educational system: 'objectives provide the educational system with a transparent description of the knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes that the students must have acquired in order to gain a qualification'. The qualifications in initial secondary vocational education are geared to a broad vocational preparation. This principle relates to the view that initial vocational education must provide a broad basis for the future vocational performance of young people. The vertical demarcation into five levels of competencies is derived from the characteristics of the increasing complexity of the vocational tasks performed at work

In *Format*, accepted by the government in 1994, these views were defined at a more detailed level. The foundation for the explicit description of the breadth of qualifications in terms of the tasks of initial education was formulated in *Format* as: 'initial vocational courses must be directed towards broad and sustainable qualifications that enable the student to acquire a high degree of flexibility' (1994: 6). According to *Format*, the distinction between vertical levels should be worked out in terms of three characteristics of occupational situations. The description of each level comprises a specification of the responsibilities and complexity of tasks and the breadth of knowledge and skills involved. The definitions are not concrete and seem to be intended to position qualifications in relation to each other within any given sector. Drawing distinctions between function-related, occupation-related and occupationally independent knowledge and skills only acquires meaning in an environment within which constructs such as functions and occupations can be related to each other. It is interesting that the choice for such criteria was based on experience abroad. The criteria proposed were chosen as those most frequently forthcoming in a comparison of Dutch, European and two Anglo-Saxon systems. Specification of objectives and breadth of qualification are thus based upon the tradition of Dutch vocational education, while the definition of levels has been adopted from other, especially the Anglo-Saxon, systems.

It is significant, that, while a) the perspective of initial vocational education was chosen for the specification of objectives and qualifications, b) the characteristics of occupational

performance were preferred for the description of qualification levels. In terms of a), qualifications are constructs formulated for educational programming on the basis of information from vocational practice, while they do not represent a mirror image of practice. With regard to b), qualifications represent the structure of vocational practice. Terms such as task- or occupation-related knowledge and skills suggest that the demarcation between qualifications must be located in terms of the breadth of a task or occupation.

Policy papers about APL formulate arguments for the translation of the qualification framework into standards that are completely independent of the objectives of courses in secondary vocational education (see: Klarus and Nieskens, 1997; *ibid.*, 1998; Labour Foundation 2001). Such arguments do not take into account the fact that the broadening of the purpose of qualifications creates tensions between this new function and the function that was originally intended: that is providing broad qualifications for young people. There is an undeniable tension between: a) the intention to use the qualification system for accrediting and certifying actual activities at work, b) the intention to communicate the requirements for broad and sustainable occupational performance in the future. Must a qualification follow practice or must it be concerned with improving someone's competencies?

Proposals implied by the 'turn to competencies' (ACOA, 1999) tie the Dutch qualification structure even more strongly to initial vocational education. These proposals support the transformation of this form of education by providing a firm foundation for employability and a life long of learning. Preparation for occupational practice is no longer the primary task of secondary vocational education: the frame of reference for determining the content of vocational education can no longer be dictated by analyses of current jobs. The question becomes rather: how should people be prepared in order to operate successfully in the labour market in an increasingly entrepreneurial society (Riemersma, 2000)? Acquiring the triple qualifications of occupational, citizenship and career competencies must provide the answer. Such an approach matches the conviction in Dutch policy that a life long of learning should not result in a reallocation of participation in education over the life course, but that it involves a strengthening of participation and consumption of education in the youth phase in order to learn more in later life.

The unavoidable consequence of this is that the content of vocational training moves further away from actual vocational performance. It is, therefore, not surprising that the position of APL is marginal in this discussion, and that is restricted to pragmatic questions

as to whether the three types of qualifications should be recognised in APL procedures. APL becomes limited to a special form of intake for initial secondary vocational education. The question, as to whether work experience and school-based experience should be equally expressed in qualifications, and the indirect consequences of equality for the content of education, is not posed as such and remains as such outside of the discussion. But the answer is already given: the Dutch qualification structure was not designed to be independent of formal vocational learning routes.

The application of the qualification structure for the assessment of competencies acquired outside of the educational system is thus far from self-evident. Research for a thesis (Van Broekhoven & Van Herwijnen, 1999) examined the standards for assessing and accrediting competencies used by firms in APL trajectories. It appeared that firms often adopt either their own or sector standards due to the fact that the (partial) qualifications in the national qualification framework inadequately match the competencies acquired in the firms. Acquired competencies and partial qualifications are not comparable either in terms of content or level. The national qualification structure is found to be more appropriate for the purposes of assessing occupational knowledge and skills than for the valorisation of attitudes and behaviour.

AD 3: POSITIVE EFFECTS OF THE POSSIBILITY TO ACQUIRE RECOGNISED DIPLOMAS BY WAY OF ALTERNATIVE ROUTES ON THE DEMAND FOR LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF NEW LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

Little has been published with regard to the desired effects of the possibilities to acquire recognised diplomas by means of alternative routes upon the articulation of the demand for learning and the creation of new learning environments. Given the state of affairs with regard to the first two points, the answer is obvious. Instead of calling forth a fruitful interaction, the qualification structure and APL are joined in a fatal embrace.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Explore possibilities for weakening the stranglehold of the educational system on APL.* While there has been a policy interest in APL during the past ten years, it has only been adopted in minor ways. APL trajectories are embedded in the infrastructure of secondary vocational education. Despite the many advantages, this has unrecognisable disadvantages. Up to now there has been too little recognition of these disadvantages;

¹⁴ Examples are the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), the European diploma supplement in higher education, EUROPASS for recognition of vocational training, EVW certificate for participation in European Voluntary Work for Youth, the European Digital Driving License, and many automated instruments for self-evaluation. A European diploma for basic skills in the ICT area will be developed in the e-learning initiative.

- *Prevent the inflationary effect of too many diplomas.*
With support from the (EU) community programmes for education, training and youth, a number of assessment and accreditation instruments have been developed¹⁴. The European Memorandum asks whether these instruments can be coherently applied and expanded. The question really is whether the availability of many such instruments serves the real purpose that diplomas function as recognisable evidence of possessing qualifications. It should not be forgotten that diplomas are 'currency'. They only have significance when the value of a diploma is recognised by both parties in an exchange relationship. It is undeniable that a broad range of diplomas without European-wide recognition has an inflationary effect. This is too rarely recognised;
- *Develop a frame of reference for relating competencies acquired in practice with formal qualifications.*
Developments in the qualification structure for vocational education follow the developments in initial vocational education towards a broad foundation for a life long of learning. This makes the use of the qualification structure for the recognition and accreditation of work experience significantly more complex. Given the new tasks of the qualification structure in The Netherlands, it will be necessary to devote more attention than has been the case to discussion of a reference system for comparing competencies acquired in practice with formal qualifications. Linkages to a European system for accreditation of qualifications, improving acquired knowledge and skills to promote mobility and lifelong learning, is a bridge too far so long as the problematic status of the development of the qualification structure is not recognised from the perspective of APL applications.

Key Message 5: rethinking counselling and guidance

In the past, most people only took the step from education to the labour market once in their lives, namely in their youth when they left school or university and looked for a job. Today we more often make use of information and advice about possible and indeed necessary steps in one's career. In order to be able to weigh-up possibilities and take decisions, an infrastructure is needed which makes available adequate information, professional advice about possibilities, or feedback about one's strengths and weaknesses. Counselling and guidance must evolve towards a more complete provision that can respond to a variety of needs, a diverse demand, and different target groups. The new role of professional counsellors and advisers can be best described as 'advocacy'. The counsellor as advocate looks after the interests of his clients, possesses a battery of information appropriate for the client, and helps in making decisions about the best direction to be adopted in the future.

Counselling and guidance must be a permanent service available to all: study advice, occupational guidance and personal guidance that reach all groups among the population. A proactive approach must be developed in which counsellors and advisers are responsible for motivation, providing relevant information, and facilitating the taking of decisions. This means that positive action must be taken to either prevent or compensate for problems at school and drop-out. One consequence is to move away from a provider-led system close to the educational system towards an approach based upon the demand and the central position of the clients and their needs.

With regard to the rethinking of counselling and guidance three key concepts are significant;

- 1 development of an accessible infrastructure for career counselling;
- 2 location of this infrastructure within or between the worlds of education and work;
- 3 positioning of counselling and guidance as catalysts for a life long of learning.



AD. 1: DEVELOPMENT OF A LOW THRESHOLD AND ACCESSIBLE INFRASTRUCTURE FOR CAREER COUNSELLING

In recent years the involvement of government with career counselling has decreased. The absence of policy papers in the area of counselling and guidance is illustrative of this. The focus of governmental interest in lifelong learning policy is focused more on the question of how to keep 'the active' in work and to get the 'non-active' into work, rather than the question as to how people define their working-lives and careers, and how they can become the entrepreneurs of their own careers.

Career counselling and guidance have long been used for the reintegration of the unemployed and occupationally disabled as well as for supporting the educational and occupational choices of young people. Career counselling and guidance in support of the mobility of the employed is marginal. Earlier chapters have indicated that the mobility of the Dutch working population is not high. As a result there is not a vigorous demand for services in this area. According to some trend studies the expectation is that this demand will be met by the development of new intermediary services in relation to the labour market. Such studies suggest that new markets for employment advisers are developing as a result of labour shortages, changing structure of jobs, and changing relationships between employers and employees. New services are emerging at the cutting edge of the flexibilisation of work and the maintenance of competencies. There is also the expectation that employees will give more direction to their own careers: 'the new style worker must maintain his skills otherwise his market value will decline. Under these circumstances the need for an 'impresario' will increase who is helpful in making the best choice from a broad range of provision' (Zegers, 2000; Goldschmeding, 2000).

AD. 2 LOCATING THIS INFRASTRUCTURE IN OR BETWEEN THE WORLDS OF WORK AND EDUCATION

Characteristic of Dutch developments in the area of career counselling for specific target groups, such as job-seekers, the handicapped and young people, is that these services now operate in the market. This has resulted in the development of many new providers such as (re-)integration bureaux, outplacement firms, and job application advisers. In addition to the larger firms that specialise in (re-) integration, there are also many small providers active in this market. As a consequence, the market lacks transparency and has become a hybrid form. In addition to the many new providers, the introduction of market principles has also led to the development of counselling services by educational institutions and

firms that serve participants and employees respectively. This service provision is clustered around three themes:

- potential participants in educational programmes;
- employees of firms or sectors;
- job-seekers and the handicapped.

The development of career counselling towards provision for (potential) participants in educational programmes is evaluated by the autonomous regional Advisory Bureaux for Training and Jobs (AOB's). Since 1997 these have operated on a demand-led basis. This entails that educational institutions and the employment services can buy in the provision of services by the AOB's. Since August 2000 the AOB's have been completely privatised. At the start of this privatisation the assumption was that the time was not yet ripe to completely do away with the ear-marking of funds for educational and vocational guidance, partly because this could result in a significant fall in demand. The fear was that those buying-in the services of the AOB's would not regard these services as their primary task, and would redefine them in terms of providing information about their own courses prior to enrolment in a course or transfer to another course (Van Tooren, 1995).

It would now appear that these reservations were justified. In the meantime, the network of 16 AOB's has been reduced to 8 as a result of amalgamations and retrenchment. It is expected that the total will decline further to between 4 and 6 (Asbroek, 1999). Do educational institutions take over this task? Research carried out in the context of evaluating the WEB indicates that almost nothing at all is known about the current situation with regard to educational and vocational guidance. Little is to be found in the literature. It would appear that the educational institutions have taken on this task themselves, whereby attention is focused on the intake phase rather than guidance during courses. Many ROC's are now establishing service centres for students, but the situation is as yet too unclear to enable judgements about whether the situation has improved since the early 1990s (Doets and Westerhuis, 2001). It is clear, however, that independent educational and vocational guidance has developed into a guidance service for potential participants who have not as yet made a choice between the variety of courses provided by the institutions.

The provision of services for employees in firms assumes many forms. Larger firms in particular have long provided career guidance for middle and higher management. More recently so-called 'career shops' have developed that are available to all employees. Often originating in mobility centres responsible for external outplacements as a result of large-

scale reorganisations, these career shops are now centres where employees can get information about career possibilities and other jobs in the firm. Those involved view career shops as the most appropriate instrument to mobilise employees: 'almost 80% of our people have been mobilised and half of the visitors to our career shop have applied for other jobs' (Luijendijk in: Vlaming, 2000). This development is of interest in that the provision of possibilities for career counselling has apparently created its own demand.

Career shops have a function in stimulating and facilitating the mobility of employees, but they do so in such a manner that experience and newly acquired competencies are kept within the firm. These developments are still too new to be evaluated, but Kidd has made some pertinent observations. He points to a number of potential tensions between the interests of individual employers and those of the firm itself. An example is the tension between the development needs of employees and the need of the firm to make the best choice of potential personnel; being honest about yourself in a developmental assessment and trying to make a good impression do not always go well together. Furthermore, giving information about career possibilities outside the firm can result in the undesired departure of employees (Kidd, quoted in: Den Broeder, 1999).

Such internal services are too expensive for small and medium-sized firm. Furthermore, there are fewer possibilities for internal mobility in these firms. Initiatives by sector organisations, such as the appointment of so-called employability advisers, can play an important role in these situations. It is unavoidable, however, that questions of loyalty will present themselves; in whose interest is advice given? Advisers must be able and want to look beyond the boundaries of the sector itself. A recent paper by the Labour Foundation put forward such an argument (Stichting van de Arbeid, 2001).

Looking for suitable work for returnees to the labour market can also be regarded as a form of career counselling, although this is limited to preparation for a job where those involved can as quickly as possible start to earn their own living.

Taking all things into consideration, there is no clear infrastructure in the field of career counselling and guidance that can operate independently of the world of work and education. Career counselling and guidance are available within the frameworks wherein the client operates or has committed himself. Independence is potentially available in the form of the profit-based employment agencies. According to the employment agencies themselves: 'this negotiating role suits the employment agencies well' (Goldschmeding, 2000).

AD. 3: THE REPOSITIONING OF COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE AS A CATALYST FOR A LIFE LONG OF LEARNING

Experience with career shops makes it clear that the provision of possibilities for career counselling stimulates mobility. It is also possible that this provision will also be a catalyst in the identification of new learning needs and will as a consequence stimulate the wish to learn and to develop competencies. In addition to career counselling for the well-qualified for jobs in management, career counselling activities have a history of providing help and advice for people who could not themselves find an attractive or suitable job. With regard to stimulating a life long of learning this image of a fall-back function is completely out-of-date and indeed counter-productive. Career counselling and guidance are potentially powerful instruments for stimulating mobility and thus learning.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Relate counselling and guidance to the promotion of mobility and relate this to competency development.*

Career counselling fulfills different purposes. The emphasis in The Netherlands should be more focused on promoting mobility. Training, competency development and learning are all instruments that should be seen in this perspective. The question is whether career counselling also has this catalyst effect upon mobility between different countries. In this context economic motives would seem to play a more important role. Career mobility must be supported with a broad range of initiatives. Awareness is one part of this as well as counselling and training. Multi-dimensional services, active and pro-active, are necessary requirements. Services must be easily accessible and appropriate to a variety of target groups. Concepts such as the 'one-stop-shops' are appropriate in such an approach. In order to be able 'to sell' career counselling it is worthwhile to explore what are the triggers of mobility. Alongside such factors as a tight labour market, a higher salary, the desire for a change of environment, and trying something new; combinations of career counselling and learning – including advice about competency development – could open up new perspectives which would not have occurred to people themselves.

Key Message 6: bringing learning closer to home

Research by Doets and Neuvel (2000) indicates that about 20% of participants in courses do so via an association, while another 20% do so via a private teacher and/or community centre. It would appear from these statistics that learning and participation in courses still takes place to a large degree in close proximity to the home environment. As is the case with many other things, learning seems to be stimulated when there are possibilities as close as possible to home and when people can make use of an adequate infrastructure in their direct environment.

In this regard, the EU Memorandum mentions four themes for discussion that can be synthesised in relation to two developments related to 'bringing learning closer to home', namely:

- 1 accentuating the regional knowledge infrastructure, and the concept of 'learning regions';
- 2 the possibilities made available by the utilisation of ICT and in particular e-learning.

Ad. 1: REGIONALISATION

In the policy document *BVE On Course*, much emphasis is placed upon the strengthening of the regional knowledge infrastructure and regional co-operation between educational providers and stakeholders. This regional co-operation should involve both adult education and vocational education. With reference to adult education, the local authorities are regarded as having a significant directing role to play particularly in terms of the articulation of demand under the motto: 'at the local level they know the demand'. In practice, this directing role is not always manifest due to the fact that priority is given to politically inspired issues. At least, this is one of the conclusions drawn in one of the studies conducted during the evaluation of the WEB (Brandsma et al, 2001). The researchers conclude that: '... There is little evidence of a clear articulation of demand based upon systematic analysis or research on educational needs. Local authorities give

¹⁵ This involved research project number 1 of the WEB Evaluation programme, co-ordinated by Brandsma. Quotations are taken from the Newsletter published on this project (2001).

priority to immigrants and job-seekers which results in ignoring other target groups'. Furthermore: '... it appears that not all local authorities are as yet successful in performing their supposed directing role and are able to formulate a clear educational policy'¹⁵. On the basis of such results, the Steering Group for the WEB Evaluation proposes in its provisional conclusions that the directing role of local authorities should be reduced.

With regard to vocational education, the intention of government is to secure regional co-operation in the area of the education and training market, exchange of knowledge between firms and educational institutions, and, if possible, the development of learning trajectories in relation to regional needs. With regards to the latter, a successful experiment has been started with co-operation between the schools for Higher Professional Education and the national organisation for small and medium-sized firms: the so-called MKB learning and working trajectory in which students have the freedom to use educational vouchers in order to plan their own learning trajectories and to develop the competencies that they themselves find to be important. The relationship with practice is essential. According to one of the students involved: 'the learning process at school is very different from that in the firm. At school everything is artificial and hypothetical including the problem that you must resolve and the environment in which you have to do it'.

In order to give some form to regionalisation there are experiments in different regions with the concept of the 'learning region' or 'learning town'. According to Hövels (2000), the popularity of this concept is related to two quite different arguments:

- a the efforts of firms and institutions to co-operate with geographically close partners in order to survive in the marketplace given the tendencies towards globalisation and internationalisation;
- b a policy-related response to the declining significance of the nation state in favour of both regionalisation and internationalisation.

It is impossible to envisage at the moment whether this concept will be successful or not. On the basis of research in the care sector, Hövels concludes that five factors are critical for determining the success of the learning region:

- a common and required level of organisation;
- learning practices where people learn from each other;
- region-specific constructions and 'soft direction';
- depart from real problems and support at the grass roots;
- transparency and the implementation of appropriate policy instruments.

Educational institutions such as the ROC's have still to find their place within the regional knowledge infrastructure. Nieuwenhuis (2001) is not too optimistic about the role that ROC's can play in the regional knowledge infrastructure. On the basis of research in a number of business sectors, he arrives at the conclusion that the '... learning cultures within education and business are growing apart: learning processes in formal education are characterised by certainty and standardisation, while innovative learning processes in firms are increasingly characterised by uncertainty and participation'.

According to Nieuwenhuis, the concept of the learning region is above all based upon the economic perspective of firms together with the government's perspective on knowledge and technology policies in which the role of vocational education is limited. Vocational education will itself have to assume a role in this structure of competition '... with the help in different regions of the techno-centres that have been established with macro-economic subsidies'. Nieuwenhuis concludes that firms have access to a great number of organisations for the development and transfer of knowledge, and that '... an approach to educational institutions is not necessary when innovative network activities are involved'. If the learning region is to offer the necessary perspectives for educational institutions a great deal will have to happen. In order to strengthen the position of schools, the author argues that the relationship between educational institutions and the economic sectors must be improved because it is there that '... the skills are concentrated that are necessary to communicate with business life'. According to Nieuwenhuis a new vision about the role of vocational educational in the regional economy is required if participation in regional networks is to be eventually successful.

Ad. 2: E-LEARNING

The use of ICTs is a second development enabling learning to be brought closer to home. In fact this development contradicts the one mentioned above: e-learning offers the possibility of finding the source of learning outside of the direct environment. There is an element of paradox here: the physical distance to the source has almost disappeared – 'learning can take place in the home at any moment with the use of world-wide sources' – while the psychological distance has increased – 'the source and fellow learners are no longer known'.

Although ICTs are a very powerful medium and their integration in education will continue, it is important that the wishes of the participants are not lost sight of, and that in particular the 'psychological distance' should not be forgotten. Recent research suggests that the majority of Dutch adults (70%) have a preference for traditional ways of learning

with the teacher before the class. A minority (40%) found that the help of the computer was an acceptable way of learning. The elderly and those with least education are in particular very hesitant about this form of learning (Doets, Neuvel, 2000). Furthermore, it would also appear that not even many of the well-educated and younger people are involved in 'on-line' learning. The *Intermediair Training survey*-, mentioned in chapter 3, indicated that only 4% of courses followed were provided via inter- or intranet. Most learning takes place 'normally' in a class, and that in no more than 20% is a computer also involved (Bleeker, 2001).

Nonetheless Dutch government policy has placed great emphasis on the development of learning supported by ICTs, and it has given their implementation in education significant support in recent years. A number of innovative programmes have been set up such as BVE2000, Knowledge Net and BVEnet. The perspectives for government policy in the coming years are set out in *Education On-line*. Among other things, this document proposes that in the near future all schools must meet the '... prevailing quality criteria for the ICT applications in education', and that the government will create the necessary conditions. Activities planned in this context include among others: increasing the purchasing power of schools with a minimum of NGL 125 per pupil; connecting all schools to Knowledge Net; stimulating small-scale projects; a 'didactobank' for educational software; and the creation of expertise and information centres. There are also a number of initiatives not under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences, such as the SeniorWEB for the elderly and an initiative by the Minister of State for Urban Affairs and Integration Policy known as ICT and the City.

In the coming years, schools will be faced with the need to decide upon the way in which they wish to develop. The core question is: whether to emphasise the school as a physical entity with interpersonal contact or to place the stress on the 'virtual school', or a combination of the two. Den Hartog and Van Veldhuizen sketch a number of the dilemmas associated with such choices:

- distance over against closeness with the key question: which learning activities are most suitable for a virtual or a real approach. How can 'old values' be integrated into e-learning?
- global or regional. Should schools focus on the region or should they emphasise the world market in the future?
- central or decentral. In how far should central direction be given to the organisation of schools? Or will the further introduction of ICTs lead to an emphasis on 'tailor-made' provision?

- in the length or the breadth. What are the real costs of ICTs in comparison with the more traditional forms of education? What investments are necessary? Do the costs match the benefits? What are the consequences of the investments in teachers, buildings and infrastructure?

The authors further point out that there is a discrepancy between the 'talking theories' of policy makers and managers and the 'doing theories' of teachers. If this gap is not bridged there is a strong possibility that the development of ICTs will stagnate. The causes of this gap include:

- ICT policy is all too often expressed in terms of pure technology policy;
- teachers feel themselves not to be involved in the development of policy. Statements to the effect that 'within three years 50% of education is unthinkable without ICTs' leads to no more than teachers 'raising their shoulders' in disdain;
- ICT actually demands a new paradigm but the ongoing routines of education cannot be stopped: day-to-day practice is dominated by traditional paradigms;
- there is a great deal of uncertainty about just who is responsible for the introduction of ICTs. The tasks of application and system management are as yet unclear.

KEY POINTS FOR FUTURE POLICY

- *Look for a good balance between a regional and national approach.*
Both a regional and a national approach is required for the development of an adequate infrastructure that is related to both a life long of learning and an optimal response to the demand from citizens. With regard to adult education the question is whether a directing role for the local authorities is adequate;
- *Make a realistic assessment of the position of education in the regional knowledge infrastructure.*
Regionalisation is in principle a good strategy to bring learning activities closer to the citizens. The notion of a 'learning region' is, however, a relatively theoretical construction that has to prove its value in practice. It seems to be promoted for above all economic and political motives, while the role of education and its importance for the individual learners has yet to be explored. In this regard it is important to realistically assess the contribution of education and training institutions. It is essential to assess the contribution of education, given its own specific tasks, to the solution of regional problems. The openness of education to the regional environment is essential in this regard.

- *Investigate further the realistic possibilities of ICT with regard to both formal and in particular non-formal learning processes.*

Despite the enormous investments, the use of ICTs in formal education is relatively limited. The use of ICTs demands a thorough rethinking of teaching/learning processes. It is necessary to examine, among other things, how the large majority of the population learns – or wishes to learn; whether the additional advantage of traditional educational processes can be replaced within e-learning; how direction can be given to one's own learning processes; what are the real costs and benefits of different forms of learning etc. The question is whether the use of ICTs as such in formal education is able 'to bring learning closer to home'. The possibilities of ICTs as non-formal and in informal sources of learning have to be investigated: these can be much greater than within formal learning processes.



Summary: Elements of a Policy Agenda

At the end of each of the preceding chapters a number of key points was mentioned which the authors regard as part of the Dutch agenda for the near future. In this last chapter these key points will be summarised.

- *Emphasis on a multi-facetted policy with a view to the eventual repositioning of responsibilities and no search for one national blueprint for a life long of learning.*
A diversity of actors are involved in the development of a policy with regard to lifelong learning. This was the case in the past and it will continue to be so in the future. Together these actors will have to give form to such a policy, sometimes 'bottom-up' and sometimes 'top-down'. This may involve possible changes in responsibilities. Emphasis must be placed upon a multi-facetted policy. It is not necessary to strive for one national system of lifelong learning. Preference should be given to allowing different initiatives to exist and develop alongside each other. The description of 'good practices' could be an important means of keeping an eye on developments.
- *Attention for 'life-broad learning' in addition to lifelong learning'.*
Policy formation needs to pay attention to both the vocational and non-vocational education and training. The one-sided emphasis upon economic motives and the emphasis upon 'life-long' learning must be replaced in government policy with more attention for 'life-broad' learning. Furthermore policy formation must not only focus on formal learning but also pay attention to non-formal and informal learning as well as the mutual relationships between these three forms and their effectiveness.
- *Focus initial education more on lifelong learning.*
Initial education must lay the foundation for 'a life long of learning'. Without such a basis policy for a life long of learning is doomed to failure. This means that initial education must pay attention to the skills and competencies that make it possible for

citizens to continue learning. To this end it will be necessary to redesign (at least a part of) vocational education.

- *Make it possible to acquire a start qualification outside of formal education.*
Although premature school-leaving in initial education – that is say without a start qualification – must be prevented as far (as possible, it cannot be expected that everyone will complete initial education with a start qualification. For this group it is important that opportunities are created in later life – within and outside of work – to enable them to acquire a start qualification: in terms of the motto 'learning in the workplace'.
- *Within the framework of a life long of learning attention should also be explicitly given to personal development as well as vocational/professional development.*
Amongst the population there is a broad interest in learning in later life. This applies both to work-related as to non-work-related learning. Up to now government policy has been primarily concerned with work-related learning together with the necessary attention for risk categories. Given the significant demand for learning for personal development government needs to pay more attention to this in the future. Furthermore, it is possible that both areas strengthen each other: learning for personal development can be motivating and lead to the acquisition of learning attitudes and skills that are essential for learning in the workplace.
- *Basic skills should be learned in first instance in initial education.*
Basic skills will primarily be acquired in initial education. When social change and developments in the labour market demand new skills and competencies this must be translated to initial education. To this end education must maintain 'open lines' of communication with society.
- *Facilitate the possibility for adults to learn the skills necessary in order to function optimally in the knowledge society.*
Skills can be relevant to functioning in the workplace or in social life. The emphasis must be placed upon the needs and demands of individual adults. Because the knowledge society as a whole requires learning by the total population it is necessary to give broad sections of the population access to basic skills. In this respect it is necessary to explore the degree to which the specific target group policy that is characteristic of (basic) education in the ROC's – with its emphasis upon immigrants

and functionally illiterates – can be extended in the direction of a more general and broad basic provision.

- *Experiment further with the right (and duty) to learn.*

A right for all citizens to acquire the qualifications they find to be necessary is not opportune without both adequate financing and infrastructure, and it cannot be achieved overnight. Through co-operation with the educational field, the necessary measures can be taken to experiment further with the right (and the duty?) to learn for certain groups in a position of disadvantage. In order to avoid the dangers of an ad hoc target group policy, these experiments must be carried out from the perspective of a broad basic provision. Examples are available in the area of (adult basic) education – e.g. the citizenship courses for immigrants – that can be extended to other groups. With reference to the working population the focus should be placed upon (older) workers without a start qualification.
- *Take care with large-scale specific programmes for ICT skills.*

Basic skills in the area of ICT will be acquired by the largest part of the population either informally or in initial education. There appears to be no need to give specific priority to the information gap. Disadvantages in this area have much to do with disadvantages in other areas. For groups who are behind – e.g. the elderly – there seem to be adequate initiatives. Special attention could be given to specific occupational groups such as teachers.
- *Do not strive for a European framework for basic skills.*

Basic skills can differ for different groups in terms of both content and desired levels of competence. To the degree that the necessary discussions are conducted at national level it is not opportune to strive for European frameworks. A good system of describing and exchanging experiences is preferable. It will be useful to explore how far the existing frameworks such as EDLC and foreign languages can be used as a comparative standard.
- *Extend the learning perspective beyond the current job.*

The accent in learning in later life has up to now focused upon keeping up with the demands of the current job. There is only a very limited development of learning in support of mobility within or beyond the current firm. Additional attention is needed for extending the function of lifelong learning in support of broadening the strategic career development perspective.

- *Raising the qualification level of the population.*

As a result of developments on the labour market, there is a strong demand for a middle- and higher qualified workforce. Responding to this demand serves both a personal and a social purpose. In order to meet this demand there should adequate financial facilities available to stimulate the adult labour force to raise their level of qualifications.
- *Attention for the distribution of time as a scarce commodity.*

As a consequence of increasing possibilities for choice and the wish to allocate the time available to a broad range of activities, learning is only one of many options available. In addition to the possibilities of creating more time or making learning processes more efficient, the promoters of lifelong learning will be asked to more clearly demonstrate the usefulness and added additional value of learning. Furthermore, explicit attention has to be given to the efficiency and effectiveness of learning and learning processes, whereby the utilisation of ICTs should be examined in terms of saving time.
- *The practical theoretical development of the constructivist paradigm.*

From the viewpoint of a lifelong of learning, it is necessary in the near future to invest in the continuing renewal of didactical processes in (vocational) education and adult education. The constructivist paradigm would appear to be a good point of departure, although a practice-related conceptualisation is essential in this regard. Such a conceptualisation is of great importance in order to give transparency to the numerous existing methods and didactical models. Priority should not be given to the search for a generic theory. The development of theories of practice can be best served by research – such as action research – that stress close co-operation with practice.
- *Integrating ICTs in innovations.*

The development of ICTs must not be regarded as distinct from innovation in educational methods and didactics. It is important to avoid an over-emphasis upon the stimulation of ICT projects as such. Emphasis should be placed upon the use of ICTs as a means rather than an end. When these means are not related to broader innovations, this can act as a brake on innovations.

- *Specific attention for the role of the teacher.*
Teachers are a crucial factor in didactical innovations. It is vital to devote the appropriate attention to the continuing professional development of teachers (and heads of schools).
- *Evaluation and monitoring.*
In addition to research on the development of theories of practice in order to establish the effectiveness, efficiency and practical realisation of innovations, it is necessary to pay attention to evaluation and monitoring. In order to facilitate comparisons between countries, trans-national projects need to be established that utilise common conceptual frameworks.
- *Explore possibilities for weakening the stranglehold of the educational system on APL.*
While there has been a policy interest in APL during the past ten years, the idea has only been adopted in minor ways. APL trajectories are embedded in the infrastructure of secondary vocational education. Despite the many advantages, this has unrecognisable disadvantages. Up to now there has been too little recognition of these disadvantages.
- *Prevent the inflationary effect of too many diplomas.*
With support from the EU programmes for education, training and youth, a number of assessment and accreditation instruments have been developed. The European Memorandum asks whether these instruments can be coherently applied and expanded. The question really is whether the availability of many such instruments serves the real purpose that diplomas function as recognisable evidence of possessing qualifications. It should not be forgotten that diplomas are 'currency'. They only have significance when the value of a diploma is recognised by both parties in an exchange relationship. It is undeniable that a broad range of diplomas without European-wide recognition will have an inflationary effect. This is too rarely recognised.
- *Develop a frame of reference for relating competencies acquired in practice with formal qualifications.*
Developments in the qualification structure for vocational education follow the developments in initial vocational education towards a broad foundation for a life long of learning. This makes the use of the qualification structure for the recognition and accreditation of work experience significantly more complex. Given the new tasks of the qualification structure in The Netherlands, it will be necessary to devote more

attention than has been the case to discussion of a reference system for comparing competencies acquired in practice with formal qualifications. Linkages to a European system for accreditation of qualifications, improving acquired knowledge and skills to promote mobility and lifelong learning, is a bridge too far so long as the problematic status of developments in the qualification structure is not recognised from the perspective of APL applications.

- *Relate counselling and guidance to the promotion of mobility and relate this to competency development.*

Career counselling has different purposes. The emphasis in The Netherlands should be more focused on promoting mobility. Training, competency development and learning are all instruments that should be seen in this perspective. The question is whether career counselling also has this catalyst effect upon mobility between different countries. In this context economic motives would seem to play a more important role. Career mobility must be supported with a broad range of initiatives. Awareness is one part of this as well as counselling and training. Multi-dimensional services, active and pro-active are necessary requirements. Services must be easily accessible and appropriate to a variety of target groups. Concepts such as the 'one-stop-shops' are appropriate in such an approach. In order to be able 'to sell' career counselling it is worthwhile to explore what are the triggers of mobility. Alongside such factors as a tight labour market, a higher salary, the desire for a change of environment, and trying something new, combinations of career counselling and learning – including advice about competency development – could open up new perspectives which would not have occurred to people themselves.

- *Look for a good balance between a regional and national approach.*
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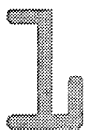
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Abbreviation list

APPENDIX

ACOA	Advies Commissie Onderwijs Arbeidsmarkt (Advisory Committee on education, Training and Work)
AOB	Adviesbureau voor Opleiding en Beroep (Careers Guidance Office)
ASF	Australian Standard Framework
ATB	Aantrekkelijk Technisch Beroepsonderwijs (Attractive Technical Vocational Education)
Axis	Nationaal platform voor Natuur en Techniek in onderwijs en arbeidsmarkt (Dutch foundation aiming to reduce the shortage of personnel in the technical sector)
BVE	Beroepsonderwijs- en Volwassenen Educatie (Adult and Vocational Education)
CAO	Collectieve Arbeids Overeenkomst (Collective Labour Agreement)
CBS	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (Central Office for Statistics)
CINOP	Centrum voor Innovatie van Opleidingen (Centre for the Innovation of Education and Training)
CRM	Ministerie van Cultuur Recreatie en Maatschappelijk Werk (Ministry of Culture, Recreation and Social Work)
ECDL	European Computer Driving Licence
ECTS	European Credit Transfer Scheme
EU	Europese Unie (European Union)
EVC	Erkenning van Verworven Competenties (Accreditation of prior learning)
EVK	Erkenning van informeel Verworven Kwalificaties (Accreditation of prior learning)
EZ	Ministerie van Economische Zaken (Ministry of Economic Affairs)
HAVO	Hoger Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs (Senior General secondary education)
HBO	Hoger Beroeps Onderwijs (Higher professional education)
ICT	Informatie- en Communicatie Technologie (Information and Communication Technology)
ILR	Individuele Leer Rekening (Ministry of OCenW) (Individual learning account)
LDC	Landelijk Diensten Centrum, expertisecentrum voor loopbaanvraagstukken (National Centre for Career Issues)
LOB	Landelijk Orgaan Beroepsonderwijs (National Organization for Professional Education)
MAVO	Middelbaar Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs (Junior General Secondary Education)

MBO	Middelbaar Beroeps Onderwijs (Senior Secondary Vocational Education)
MKB	Midden- en Klein Bedrijf (Small and Medium-sized Businesses)
NCVO	Nederlands Centrum voor Volksontwikkeling (Dutch Centre for Popular Education)
NIVON	Nederlands Instituut voor Volksontwikkeling en Natuurvriendenwerk (Dutch Institute for Adult Education)
NT2	Nederlands als Tweede Taal (Dutch as second language)
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification (UK)
O&O fondsen	Opleiding & Ontwikkelingsfondsen (Education and Development Fund)
OCenW	Ministerie van Onderwijs Cultuur en Wetenschappen (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science)
OSA	Organisatie voor Strategisch Arbeidsmarktonderzoek (Organization for Strategic Market Research)
OU	Open Universiteit (Open University)
POP	Persoonlijk Ontwikkelings Plan (Personal development plan)
POR	Persoonlijke Ontwikkelings Rekening (FNV)
ROC	Regionaal Opleidings Centrum (Regional Education and Training Centre)
SCP	Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau (Social and Cultural Planning office)
SECOD	Système Européen de diffusion des offres et des demandes d'emploi en compensation internationale (European System for the diffusion of jobs offers and demands in international dimension)
SCW	Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid (Ministry of Social affairs and Employment)
VIDO	Vrouwen In De Overgang (Woman in Menopause)
VMBO	Vorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (Pre-vocational Secondary Education)
VOS	Vrouwen Oriënteren zich op de Samenleving (Woman orientated on the society)
WAO	Wet op de Arbeidsongeschiktheidsverzekering (Occupational Disability Insurance Act)
WEB	Wet Educatie en Beroepsonderwijs (1996) (Adult and Vocational Education Act)
WO	Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (University Education)
WVC	Ministerie van Welzijn Volksgezondheid en Cultuur (Ministry of Health and Culture)

2

APPENDIX

European memorandum on lifelong learning



COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

Brussels, 30.10.2000

SEC (2000) 1832

COMMISSION STAFF WORKING PAPER

A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning

78

EXPERTISECENTRUM

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I. Introduction

The European Council held in Lisbon in March 2000 marks a **decisive moment for the direction of policy and action in the European Union**. Its conclusions affirm that Europe has indisputably moved into the Knowledge Age, with all that this will imply for cultural, economic and social life. Patterns of learning, living and working are changing apace. This means not simply that individuals must adapt to change, but equally that established ways of doing things must change too.

The conclusions of the Lisbon European Council confirm that the move towards **lifelong learning must accompany a successful transition to a knowledge-based economy and society**. Therefore, Europe's education and training systems are at the heart of the coming changes. They too, must adapt. The conclusions of the Feira European Council invite the 'Member States, the Council and the Commission (...) within their areas of competence, to identify coherent strategies and practical measures with a view to fostering lifelong learning for all'¹. This Memorandum takes up the Lisbon and Feira European Councils' mandate to implement lifelong learning. Its purpose is to **launch a European-wide debate** on a comprehensive strategy for implementing lifelong learning at individual and institutional levels, and in all spheres of public and private life.

The Commission and the Member States have defined lifelong learning, within the European Employment Strategy, as all purposeful learning activity, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence². This is the working definition adopted in this Memorandum as a starting-point for subsequent discussion and action.

Lifelong learning is no longer just one aspect of education and training; it **must become the guiding principle** for provision and participation across the full continuum of learning contexts. **The coming decade must see the implementation of this vision**. All those living in Europe, without exception, should have equal opportunities to

adjust to the demands of social and economic change and to participate actively in the shaping of Europe's future.

The implications of this fundamental change in perspectives and practices deserve and justify the debate proposed here. **The Member States**, who are responsible for their education and training systems, **should lead this debate**. It should also be conducted in the Member States, and not only at European level. Lifelong learning concerns everyone's future, in a uniquely individual way. The debate should take place **as close as possible to citizens themselves**. **The Commission intends to draw up a report in autumn 2001 based on its outcomes**. This report will be taken up within the framework of the open method of co-ordination agreed by the Lisbon European Council².

This Memorandum opens by stating the case for implementing lifelong learning. Section 2 argues that promoting active citizenship and promoting employability are equally important and interrelated aims for lifelong learning. Member States agree on its priority, but have been slow to take concerted action. Section 3 argues that the scale of current economic and social change in Europe demands a fundamentally new approach to education and training. Lifelong learning is the common umbrella under which all kinds of teaching and learning should be united. Putting lifelong learning into practice demands that everyone work together effectively – both as individuals and in organisations.

In response, Section 4 highlights **six key messages** which **offer a structured framework for an open debate** on putting lifelong learning into practice. These messages are based on experience gathered at European level through Community programmes and the European Year of Lifelong Learning (1996). Each key message includes a set of questions, the answers to which should help to clarify priority areas for action. The key messages suggest that a comprehensive and coherent lifelong learning strategy for Europe should aim to:

- guarantee universal and continuing access to learning for **gaining and renewing the skills** needed for sustained participation in the knowledge society;
- visibly **raise levels of investment** in human resources in order to place priority on Europe's most important asset – its people;
- develop effective **teaching and learning methods** and contexts for the continuum of lifelong and lifewide learning;
- significantly improve the ways in which learning **participation and outcomes** are **understood and appreciated**, particularly non-formal and informal learning;

- ensure that everyone can easily access good quality **information and advice** about learning opportunities throughout Europe and throughout their lives;
- **provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to learners as possible**, in their own communities and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate.

A framework of partnership should help to mobilise resources in favour of lifelong learning at all levels; this Memorandum closes, in Section 5, with examples of how European level actions can assist Member States to make progress. Working together to put lifelong learning into practice is the best way forward

- **to build an inclusive society which offers equal opportunities for access to quality** learning throughout life to all people, and in which education and training provision is based first and foremost on the needs and demands of individuals;
- **to adjust the ways in which education and training is provided**, and how paid working life is organised, so that people can participate in learning throughout their lives and can plan for themselves how they combine learning, working and family life;
- **to achieve higher overall levels of education and qualification** in all sectors, to ensure high-quality provision of education and training, and at the same time to ensure that people's knowledge and skills match the changing demands of jobs and occupations, workplace organisation and working methods; and
- **to encourage and equip people to participate more actively** once more in all spheres of modern public life, especially in social and political life at all levels of the community, including at European level.

The key to success will be to build on a sense of shared responsibility for lifelong learning among all the key actors – the Member States, the European institutions, the Social Partners and the world of enterprise; regional and local authorities, those who work in education and training of all kinds, civil society organisations, associations and groupings; and, last but not least, individual citizens themselves. Our shared aim is to build a Europe in which everyone has the opportunity to develop their potential to the full, to feel that they can contribute and that they belong.

2. Lifelong learning – time to take action

Why is this debate so urgent? Why is putting lifelong learning into practice a top priority for the European Union? There are two equally important reasons:

- Europe has moved towards a knowledge-based society and economy. More than ever before, access to up-to-date information and knowledge, together with the motivation and skills to use these resources intelligently on behalf of oneself and the community as a whole, are becoming the key to strengthening Europe's competitiveness and improving the employability and adaptability of the workforce;
- today's Europeans live in a complex social and political world. More than ever before, individuals want to plan their own lives, are expected to contribute actively to society, and must learn to live positively with cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity.

Education, in its broadest sense, is the key to learning and understanding how to meet these challenges.

These two features of contemporary social and economic change are interrelated. They underlie **two equally important aims for lifelong learning: promoting active citizenship and promoting employability**. Active citizenship focuses on whether and how people participate in all spheres of social and economic life, the chances and risks they face in trying to do so, and the extent to which they therefore feel that they belong to and have a fair say in the society in which they live. For much of most people's lives, having paid work underpins independence, self-respect and well-being, and is therefore a key to people's overall quality of life. Employability – the capacity to secure and keep employment – is not only a core dimension of active citizenship, but it is equally a decisive condition for reaching full employment and for improving European competitiveness and prosperity in the 'new economy'. Both employability and active citizenship are dependent upon having adequate and up-to-date knowledge and skills to take part in and make a contribution to economic and social life.

Change can only come about in and through the impetus of the Member States, with Community-level support and facilitation where appropriate. It is the

Member States who, in the first instance, are responsible for their education and training systems – each according to their institutional circumstances. In practice, the achievements of these systems are dependent upon the input and commitment of a wide range of actors from all walks of social and economic life, including the Social Partners – and not least upon the efforts of individuals themselves, who, in the last instance, are responsible for pursuing their own learning.

The importance of lifelong learning for Europe's future has now been endorsed at the highest level. The Heads of the Member States agree that in the next decade, the European Union should set an example for the world. Europe can – and must – show that it is possible both to achieve dynamic economic growth and to strengthen social cohesion. Emphasising that *'people are Europe's main asset and should be the focal point of the Union's policies'*, the conclusion is that, above all, education and training systems must adapt to the new realities of the 21st century and that *'lifelong learning is an essential policy for the development of citizenship, social cohesion and employment'*.⁴

These messages are the natural outcomes of a decade during which lifelong learning has once more risen to the top of national and international policy agendas. In the early 1990s⁵, Europe's economies had to come to terms with sharply changing production, trade and investment patterns. This threw labour markets out of balance, resulting in high levels of structural unemployment alongside increasing skills gaps and mismatches. To help resolve these problems, patterns of education and training provision and participation demanded more attention. The 1996 European Year of Lifelong Learning (EYLL) showed just how much interest and commitment exists at all levels for lifelong learning, and this helped to influence policy thinking in the Member States⁶.

By the mid-1990s, it was agreed not only that education and training throughout life helps to maintain economic competitiveness and employability, but it is also the best way to combat social exclusion – and this means that teaching and learning must place individuals and their needs at the centre of attention⁷. On this basis, lifelong learning became the common guiding principle for the new generation of Community education, training and youth programmes⁸. Since 1998, the Employment Guidelines have stressed the importance of lifelong learning for employment but the assessment of their implementation has shown that little progress has been achieved so far in promoting a comprehensive strategy on lifelong learning⁹. The European Parliament strongly supports the view that lifelong learning is the key to ensuring social integration and to achieving equal opportunities¹⁰. On the international stage, recent G8 Summits have underlined for the first time the importance of lifelong learning for everyone in the 'new economies' of the Knowledge

Age¹¹. The Union's Member States have clearly found a large measure of consensus on their shared interest in lifelong learning, but this has not yet been translated into effective action. The time has come to do so.

3. A citizens' Europe through lifelong learning

3.1 Knowledge societies: the challenge of change

Today's Europe is experiencing change on a scale comparable with that of the Industrial Revolution. Digital technology is transforming every aspect of people's lives, whilst biotechnology may one day change life itself. Trade, travel and communication on a world scale are expanding people's cultural horizons and are changing the ways in which economies compete with each other. Modern life brings greater chances and choices for individuals, but also greater risks and uncertainties. People have the freedom to adopt varied lifestyles, but equally the responsibility to shape their own lives. More people stay in education and training longer, but the gap is widening between those who are sufficiently qualified to keep afloat in the labour market and those who are falling irrevocably by the wayside. Europe's population is also ageing rapidly. This will change the make-up of the labour force and the patterns of demand for social, health and education services. Last but not least, European societies are turning into intercultural mosaics. This diversity holds great potential for creativity and innovation in all spheres of life.

This Memorandum cannot provide an in-depth analysis of the changes summarised so briefly immediately above. But they are all part and parcel of the overall transition to a knowledge society, whose economic basis is the creation and exchange of immaterial goods and services. In this kind of social world, up-to-date information, knowledge and skills are at a premium.

People themselves are the leading actors of knowledge societies. It is the human capacity to create and use knowledge effectively and intelligently, on a continually changing basis, that counts most. To develop this capacity to the full, people need to want and to be able to take their lives into their own hands – to become, in short, active citizens¹². Education and training throughout life is the best way for everyone to meet the challenge of change.

3.2 A continuum of learning throughout life

The knowledge, skills and understanding we learn as children and as young people in the family, at school, during training and at college or university will not last a lifetime. Integrating learning more firmly into adult life is a very important part of putting lifelong learning into practice, but it is, nevertheless, just one part of the whole. Lifelong learning sees all learning as a seamless continuum 'from cradle to grave'. **High quality basic education for all, from a child's youngest days forward, is the essential foundation.** Basic education, followed by initial vocational education and training, should equip all young people with the new basic skills required in a knowledge-based economy. It should also ensure that they have 'learnt to learn' and that they have a positive attitude towards learning.

People will only plan for consistent learning activities throughout their lives if they want to learn. They will not want to continue to learn if their experiences of learning in early life have been unsuccessful and personally negative. They will not want to carry on if appropriate learning opportunities are not practically accessible as far as timing, pace, location and affordability are concerned. They will not feel motivated to take part in learning whose content and methods do not take proper account of their cultural perspectives and life experiences. And they will not want to invest time, effort and money in further learning if the knowledge, skills and expertise they have already acquired are not recognised in tangible ways, whether for personal reasons or for getting ahead at work. Individual motivation to learn and a variety of learning opportunities are the ultimate keys to implementing lifelong learning successfully. It is **essential to raise the demand for learning as well as its supply**, most especially for those who have benefited least from education and training so far. Everyone should be able to follow open learning pathways of their own choice, rather than being obliged to follow predetermined routes to specific destinations. This means, quite simply, that education and training systems should adapt to individual needs and demands rather than the other way round.

There are three basic categories of purposeful learning activity.

- **Formal learning** takes place in education and training institutions, leading to recognised diplomas and qualifications.
- **Non-formal learning** takes place alongside the mainstream systems of education and training and does not typically lead to formalised certificates. Non-formal learning may be provided in the workplace and through the activities of civil society organisations and groups (such as in youth organisations, trades unions and political parties). It can

also be provided through organisations or services that have been set up to complement formal systems (such as arts, music and sports classes or private tutoring to prepare for examinations).

- **Informal learning** is a natural accompaniment to everyday life. Unlike formal and non-formal learning, informal learning is not necessarily intentional learning, and so may well not be recognised even by individuals themselves as contributing to their knowledge and skills.

Until now, formal learning has dominated policy thinking, shaping the ways in which education and training are provided and colouring people's understandings of what counts as learning. The continuum of lifelong learning brings non-formal and informal learning more fully into the picture. Non-formal learning, by definition, stands outside schools, colleges, training centres and universities. It is not usually seen as 'real' learning, and nor do its outcomes have much currency value on the labour market. Non-formal learning is therefore typically undervalued.

But informal learning is likely to be missed out of the picture altogether, although it is the oldest form of learning and remains the mainstay of early childhood learning. The fact that microcomputer technology has established itself in homes before it has done so in schools underlines the importance of informal learning. Informal contexts provide an enormous learning reservoir and could be an important source of innovation for teaching and learning methods.

The term 'lifelong' learning draws attention to time: learning throughout life, either continuously or periodically. The newly-coined term 'lifewide' learning enriches the picture by drawing attention to the spread of learning, which can take place across the full range of our lives at any one stage in our lives¹³. **The 'lifewide' dimension brings the complementarity of formal, non-formal and informal learning into sharper focus.** It reminds us that useful and enjoyable learning can and does take place in the family, in leisure time, in community life and in daily worklife. Lifewide learning also makes us realise that teaching and learning are themselves roles and activities that can be changed and exchanged in different times and places.

However, lifelong learning is still defined in a variety of ways in different national contexts and for different purposes. The latest available policy reviews¹⁴ suggest that definitions remain largely informal and pragmatic, wedded more closely to action than to conceptual clarity or legal terms. The driving force that brought lifelong learning back onto policy

agendas in the 1990s has been the concern to improve citizens' employability and adaptability in the face of high levels of structural unemployment, hitting the poorest qualified hardest. The prospect of a sharply ageing European population means that the need for up-to-date knowledge and skills cannot be met by relying mainly on new entrants to the labour market, as happened in the past – there will be too few young people and the pace of technological change is too fast, particularly the accelerating shift to the digital economy.

Today, a noticeable shift towards more integrated policies that combine social and cultural objectives with the economic rationale for lifelong learning is taking place¹⁵. New ideas about the balance of rights and responsibilities of citizens and public authorities have begun to take hold. More people have become more confident about claiming distinctive identities and ways of life. There is now widespread demand for decisions to be taken as close as possible to people's daily lives, and with their greater participation. For these reasons, attention has turned to the need to modernise governance at all levels of European societies¹⁶. At the same time, gaps have widened between the mainstream of social life and those who are at risk of long-term social exclusion. Education and training have become more important than ever before in influencing people's chances of 'getting in, getting on and getting up' in life. The increasingly complex patterns of young people's initial transitions between learning and working may be an indication of what lies in store for people of all ages in the future. Employability is obviously a key outcome of successful learning, but social inclusion rests on more than having paid work. Learning opens the door to building a satisfying and productive life, quite apart from a person's employment status and prospects.

3.3 Working together to put lifelong learning into practice

Although comprehensive and coherent strategies have not yet been developed by the majority of Member States, all recognise that working together in **a variety of partnerships is an essential** means of putting lifelong learning into practice. These partnerships include co-operation between ministries and public authorities to develop co-ordinated policies. They systematically integrate **the Social Partners** in the development and implementation process, in conjunction with public-private initiatives. Partnerships thrive, above all, through the active involvement of local and regional bodies and civil society organisations, who provide services that are close to the citizens and are

better adapted to the specific needs of local communities¹⁷. European Community education, training and youth programmes, for their part, have proved their worth in supporting transnational co-operation, partnership and exchange to develop good practice.

The continuum of lifelong and lifewide learning also means that the different levels and sectors of education and training systems, including non-formal domains, must work in close concertation with each other. Here, **working together effectively** will mean going beyond existing efforts to build bridges and pathways between different parts of existing systems. Creating a person-centred network of lifelong learning opportunity **introduces the vision of gradual osmosis between structures of provision** that remain, today, relatively disconnected from each other. Current debates in the Member States on the future of universities are an example of how policy thinking is beginning to grapple with the practical implications of this vision. Opening university studies to new and wider publics cannot be achieved unless higher education institutions themselves change – not only internally, but also in their relations with other 'learning systems'¹⁸. The vision of gradual osmosis brings a dual challenge: firstly, appreciating the complementarity of formal, non-formal and informal learning; secondly, developing open networks of opportunity and recognition between all three learning settings.

4. Taking action on lifelong learning: six key messages

4.1 Key Message 1: New basic skills for all

Objective: Guarantee universal and continuing access to learning for gaining and renewing the skills needed for sustained participation in the knowledge society.

This is the essential foundation for active citizenship and employability in 21st century Europe. Economic and social change are modifying and upgrading the profile of basic skills that everyone should have as a minimum entitlement, enabling active participation in working life, family life and all levels of community life – from local through to European. The new basic skills included in the Lisbon European Council conclusions (paragraph 26) are IT skills, foreign languages, technological culture, entrepreneurship and social skills. This is not necessarily an exhaustive list, but it certainly covers key areas. Nor does the list imply that the traditional basic skills of literacy and numeracy are no longer important. But it is important to note that this is not a list of subjects or disciplines as we know them from our schooldays and beyond. It specifies broadly defined areas of knowledge and competence, all of which are interdisciplinary: learning foreign languages, for example, involves acquiring technical, cultural and aesthetic capacities for communication, performance and appreciation. General, vocational and social skills hence increasingly overlap in content and function.

As a starting-point for discussion, **this Memorandum defines new basic skills as those required for active participation in the knowledge society and economy** – in the labour market and at work, in real-time and in virtual communities and in a democracy, and as a person with a coherent sense of identity and direction in life. Some of these skills – such as digital literacy – are genuinely new, whereas others – such as foreign languages – are becoming more important for many more people than in the past. Social skills such as self-confidence, self-direction and risk-taking are also increasingly

important, because people are expected to be able to behave much more autonomously than in the past. Entrepreneurial skills release capacities both to improve individual job performance and to diversify company activities; they also contribute to job creation, both within existing enterprises – especially SMEs – and for self-employment. Learning how to learn, to adapt to change and to make sense of vast information flows are now generic skills that everyone should acquire. Employers are increasingly demanding the ability to learn and acquire new skills rapidly and to adapt to new challenges and situations.

A solid command of these basic skills is crucial for everyone, but it is only the beginning of a continuum of learning throughout life. Today's labour markets demand ever-changing profiles of skills, qualifications and experience. Skills gaps and mismatches, particularly in ICT, are widely recognised as a significant reason why unemployment levels are persistently high in particular regions, industrial branches and for disadvantaged social groups. Those who have not been able, for whatever reason, to acquire the relevant basic skills threshold must be offered continuing opportunities to do so, however often they may have failed to succeed or to take up what has been offered so far. Member States' formal education and training systems – whether initial, further/higher or adult/continuing – are responsible for ensuring, as far as possible, that each and every individual acquires, updates and sustains an agreed skills threshold. Non-formal learning domains also have a very important role to play in these respects. This all requires the assurance of high quality learning experience and outcome for as many people as possible. It equally demands continuous review of basic skills reference levels, so that what is educationally provided matches what is economically and socially needed.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- School and college curricula everywhere are already overloaded with ceaseless demands to incorporate new content and new skills. What can be done to relieve this pressure? What principles should inform curriculum organisation and content in the Knowledge Age?
- Can an individual right for all citizens to acquire and update skills through lifelong learning be envisaged?
- The eLearning initiative has set the target that, by 2003, all pupils leaving school should be digitally literate. What are the priority areas for action for those groups of citizens – young and old – on the wrong side of the emerging digital divide?

- How might a shared European framework for defining the new basic skills required for active participation in the knowledge society and economy be developed as proposed in paragraph 26 of the Lisbon conclusions?
- The proposal for Employment Guidelines 2001 (Guidelines 3, 4 and 6) calls on Member States to ensure that young people complete compulsory education and to improve adult access to learning, especially for older workers, those in part-time or temporary employment, and the unemployed. What kinds of measures would be appropriate and effective to achieve these aims as well as the aim of skills updating, more generally?
- What could be effective ways to monitor and meet new emerging skills needs – and prevent skills mismatches and recruitment difficulties – through lifelong learning provision in line with the proposal for Employment Guidelines 2001 (Guideline 7)? How can testing and self-assessment tools for basic skills be further developed?

4.2 **Key Message 2: More investment in human resources**

Objective: Visibly raise levels of investment in human resources in order to place priority on Europe's most important asset – its people.

The Lisbon European Council conclusions set clear aims for all concerned to increase the annual per capita investment in human resources, and the Employment Guidelines (13, 14 and 16) invite Member States to set corresponding targets. This means not only that **current investment levels are regarded as too low to ensure the replenishment of the skills pool, but that it is necessary to re-think what counts as investment altogether.** Taxation regimes, accounting standards and company reporting and disclosure requirements in the Member States differ. For this reason alone, no single solutions are feasible – as in the case of treating company investment in human resources on an equal basis as capital investment. But neither would they be desirable: respect for diversity is the guiding principle of Community action. One way forward could be for Social Partners to establish framework agreements on lifelong learning generally, setting targets for continuing training (based on best practice) and introducing a European award for particularly progressive companies. There is equally a need to make investment in human resources more transparent.

At individual level, however, there is no doubt that incentive measures must be more fully developed. The idea of individual learning accounts is an example, by which people are encouraged to contribute to the cost of their own learning through special savings and deposits that attract matching or supplementary grants and benefits from public and private funding sources. Company schemes that give employees an amount of time or money to pursue learning of their own choice or agreed to be vocationally relevant is another example. In some Member States, rights to subsidised study leave have been negotiated for employees, and the unemployed, too, have rights to training opportunities. There are, furthermore, examples of companies that provide opportunities for employees on parental leave to participate in skills updating courses during their leave period or before they return to work again. As far as workplace-based or work-related learning is concerned, particular attention will have to be paid in the coming decade to those aged over 35. This is partly because demographic trends will increase the strategic importance of older employees. Participation in continuing education and training also currently falls off sharply for older workers, most especially for the less qualified and those in lower level jobs.

Employers have registered a rising demand to move to part-time contracts, not simply for family-related reasons but also in order to pursue further studies. This remains, in many cases, difficult to organise in practice, although levels of voluntary part-time working do vary markedly between Member States – room for exchange of good practice clearly exists. More generally, the **Social Partners have an important role** to play in negotiating agreements for co-funding of learning for employees and more flexible working arrangements that make participation in learning practically feasible. Investing in human resources is therefore also question of enabling people to manage their own 'time-life portfolios' and making a wider range of learning outcomes more visible for all concerned. Creative and innovative approaches to investing in human resources are an integral part of developing learning organisations.

Whatever the particular measures devised in individual Member States, industries, occupational sectors or individual companies, the important point is that raising investment in human resources requires moving towards a culture of shared responsibilities and towards clear co-financing arrangements for participation in lifelong learning.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- How can investment in learning be made more tangible and transparent for the individual and for the employer or enterprise, in particular by strengthening financial incentives and removing disincentives? What are promising ways to encourage and enable individuals to co-fund and take control of their own learning (for example, through individual learning accounts or competence insurance schemes)?
- A concerted research-based initiative in the Member States and at Community level could help to clarify the social and economic benefits of investing in lifelong learning, including developing more transparent input and output measures. Is there sufficient collective will to do so, and how might this initiative be best launched and carried through?
- How could the Structural Funds, and in particular the European Social Fund, be effectively used to target investment in the infrastructure of lifelong learning, most particularly for establishing local learning centres and installing up-to-date ICT equipment? To what extent can these resources and measures help to ensure that the quality of publicly-funded education and training does not fall behind that of privately-funded alternatives?
- In what kinds of ways do progressive employers provide time and flexibility for taking part in lifelong learning, including arrangements that assist parents and carers to fit learning with their family as well as work responsibilities? How can best practice be made more accessible to enterprises throughout Europe? How might government and public service employers become effective models of good practice in these respects?

4.3 **Key Message 3: Innovation in teaching and learning**

Objective: Develop effective teaching and learning methods and contexts for the continuum of lifelong and lifewide learning.

As we move into the Knowledge Age, our understandings of what learning is, where and how it takes place, and for what kinds of purposes, are changing. We increasingly expect teaching and learning methods and contexts to recognise and adapt to a highly diverse range of interests, needs and demands, not only of individuals but also of specific interest

groups in multicultural European societies. This implies a **major shift towards user-oriented learning systems with permeable boundaries across sectors and levels**. Enabling individuals to become active learners implies both improving existing practices and developing new and varied approaches to take advantage of the opportunities offered by ICT and by the full range of learning contexts.

Quality of learning experience and outcome is the touchstone, including in the eyes of learners themselves. But little effective change and innovation can take place without the active involvement of professionals in the field, who are closest to the citizen as learner and are most familiar with the diversity of learning needs and processes. **ICT-based learning technologies offer great potential** for innovation in teaching and learning methods, although practising educationalists insist that, to be fully effective, these must be embedded in 'real time' contexts and relationships between teachers and learners. New methods must also take account of the changing roles of tutors and teachers who are separated from their students by distance and time¹⁹. Furthermore, **most of what our education and training systems offer is still organised and taught as if the traditional ways of planning and organising one's life had not changed for at least half a century**. Learning systems must adapt to the changing ways in which people live and learn their lives today. This is especially important for achieving gender equality and catering to an increasingly active 'Third Age' citizenry. We still know and share too little, for example, about how to generate productive self-directed learning, whilst remembering that learning is ultimately a social process; how senior citizens best learn; how to adjust learning environments to enable integration of the disabled; or what the potential for mixed-age learning groups could be for cognitive, practical and social skills development.

Improving the quality of teaching and learning methods and contexts will mean significant investment by Member States to adapt, upgrade and sustain the skills of those working in formal and non-formal learning environments, whether as paid professionals, as volunteers or as those for whom teaching activities are a secondary or ancillary function (for example, experienced skilled tradespeople in the workplace or community development workers). Education and training practitioners work in a wide variety of establishments and with very different kinds of learners. Quite often, the fact that their work has to do with teaching and learning goes unrecognised – including by themselves, as in the case, for example, of those working in youth organisations²⁰. This all means, above all, thoroughgoing review and reform of initial and in-service teacher training, so that it genuinely caters to the full range of learning contexts and target groups.

Teaching as a professional role faces decisive change in the coming decades: teachers and trainers become guides, mentors and mediators. Their role – and it is a crucially important one – is to help and support learners who, as far as possible, take charge of their own learning. The capacity and the confidence to develop and practise open and participatory teaching and learning methods should therefore become an essential professional skill for educators and trainers, in both formal and non-formal settings. Active learning presupposes the motivation to learn, the capacity to exercise critical judgement and the skill of knowing how to learn. The irreplaceable heart of the teaching role lies in nurturing precisely these human capacities to create and use knowledge.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- How can the development of ICT-based pedagogies be effectively combined with the search for improvement and innovation in human-based pedagogies? How can technical specialists and teachers/trainers work together more effectively to produce quality learning materials and resources? Given the growing scale of commercially-produced learning materials and resources, how can their quality and appropriate use be best monitored, including through co-operation at European level?
- What would be the best way to monitor and analyse the outcomes of transnational projects with a view to producing a report on effective lifelong learning methods for specified contexts, purposes and types of learner? What are the prospects for developing meaningful qualitative benchmarks drawing on comparative case-studies in this area?
- Training courses and qualifications for education and training practitioners working in non-formal sectors (such as youth and community work), in adult education or in continuing training are underdeveloped everywhere in Europe. What can be done to improve this situation, including through European co-operation?
- What should be the priority themes for applied educational research in the Member States and at Community level in the coming decade? How can the added value of research effort be raised through greater transnational co-operation and exchange? What could be done to support action research in education more effectively, which works closely with practitioners themselves but which is frequently undervalued in the research community?

4 . 4 **Key Message 4: Valuing learning**

Objective: Significantly improve the ways in which learning participation and outcomes are understood and appreciated, particularly non-formal and informal learning.

In the knowledge economy, developing and using human resources to the full is a decisive factor in maintaining competitiveness. In this context, diplomas, certificates and qualifications are an important reference point for employers and individuals alike on the labour market and in the enterprise. The rising demand for qualified labour by employers and increased competition between individuals to gain and keep employment is leading to **much higher demand for recognised learning than ever before**. How best to modernise national certification systems and practices for new economic and social conditions has become an important policy and professional issue in all parts of the Union.

Education and training systems provide a service to individuals, to employers and to civil society as a whole. Ensuring that learning is visibly and appropriately recognised is an integral element of the quality of service that is provided. For an integrated Europe, both an open labour market and citizens' rights to free movement to live, study, train and work in all Member States demand that knowledge, skills and qualifications are both more readily understandable and more practically 'portable' within the Union. Valuable progress has been achieved in transparency and mutual recognition agreements, especially in the higher education sector and for regulated professional and technical occupations.

There is broad consensus, however, that we need to do much more in this area for the benefit of much wider segments of the population and the labour market. Explicit recognition – in whatever form – is an effective means to motivate 'non-traditional learners' as well as those who have not been active in the labour force for some time due to unemployment, family responsibilities or illness. Innovative forms of certification for non-formal learning are also important for widening the recognition spectrum altogether, regardless of the type of learner at hand.

It is absolutely essential to develop high quality systems for the Accreditation of Prior and Experiential Learning (APEL), and to promote their application in a wide variety of contexts. Employers and admissions tutors in education and training institutions also need to be persuaded of the worth of this kind of certification. APEL systems evaluate and recognise individuals' existing knowledge, skills and experience gained over long periods

and in diverse contexts, including in non-formal and informal settings. The methods used can uncover skills and competencies that individuals themselves may not have realised they possess and can offer to employers. The very process requires the active participation of the candidate, which in itself raises individuals' confidence and self-image.

Diverse national terminology and underlying cultural assumptions continue to render transparency and mutual recognition a hazardous and delicate exercise. In this area, recourse to technical expertise in designing and operating reliable and valid recognition systems is essential. This must be accompanied by **greater involvement of those who ultimately validate credentials in practice** and who are closely familiar with the ways in which individuals and enterprises use credentials in everyday life. The Social Partners and relevant NGOs are therefore no less important than are official authorities and professional educators.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- Innovative forms of assessment and recognition are a priority area for action. What needs to be done to establish working APEL-type systems in all Member States? In what ways might systematic information on their use and acceptability be developed and exchanged between countries? How can appropriate systems be developed to recognise competencies gained in non-formal and informal contexts, such as youth and community associations?
- With the support of the Community education, training and youth programmes, a number of assessment and recognition instruments have been co-operatively developed. These include ECTS (European Credit Transfer Scheme) and the European Diploma Supplement (in the higher education sector), EUROPASS (recognition for work-linked training), the EVS certificate (participation in the European Voluntary Service scheme), the ECDL (European Computer Driving Licence) and various automated self-assessment tools (European pilot projects). A European diploma for basic IT skills will be developed through the eLearning initiative. How can these various instruments be extended and developed in coherent ways? What scope might there be for a broad credit-based initiative linked to the development of a common format for a 'European cv' as proposed in paragraph 26 of the Lisbon conclusions?
- The proposal for Employment Guidelines 2001 (Guideline 4) calls on Member States to improve the recognition of knowledge, qualifications and skills to facilitate mobility and

lifelong learning. What measures should be undertaken to do so? How might the existing European Forum on the Transparency of Qualifications²¹ be developed in service of these aims, and what kinds of similar initiatives could enhance the development of common approaches and the dissemination of good practices for assessing and recognising competencies?

- How can communication and dialogue between the Social Partners, enterprises and professional associations be improved in order to raise mutual confidence in the validity and utility of more diverse forms of recognition?

4.5 **Key Message 5: Rethinking guidance and counselling**

Objective: *Ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities throughout Europe and throughout their lives.*

In the past, moving between education, training and the labour market happened only once in most people's lives – as young people, leaving school or university to find a job, perhaps with one or more periods of vocational training in between. Today, we may all need information and advice on 'what to do next' at several times in our lives, and perhaps quite unpredictably. This is an integral part of planning and carrying through a life project as an ongoing process, in which paid work is but one component, however important that might be. Weighing up the options and making decisions certainly demands relevant and accurate information, but professional advice can frequently help to clarify one's mind.

In this context, a new approach is needed which envisages **guidance as a continuously accessible service for all**, and which overcomes the distinction between educational, vocational and personal guidance, and which reaches out to new publics. Living and working in the knowledge society calls for active citizens who are self-motivated to pursue their own personal and professional development. This means that systems of provision must shift from a supply-side to a demand-side approach, placing users' needs and demands at the centre of concern.

The practitioner's task is to accompany individuals on their unique journey through life, by releasing motivation, providing relevant information and facilitating decisionmaking. This

includes developing a more proactive approach – that is, reaching out towards people rather than simply waiting for them to come for advice, and following up on progress made. It also includes taking positive action to prevent and recoup failure to learn and drop-out from education and training courses.

The future role of guidance and counselling professionals could be described as 'brokerage'. With the client's interests in the forefront, the 'guidance broker' is able to call on and tailor a wide range of information in order to help decide on the best course of action for the future. ICT/Internet-based sources of information and diagnostic tools open up new horizons for improving the range and the quality of guidance and counselling services. They can enrich and extend the professional role, but clearly cannot replace it – and the new technologies bring new potential problems to resolve. For example, guidance and counselling practitioners will have to develop high-level capacities for information management and analysis. They will be called upon to assist people to find their way through the information labyrinth, helping them to search out what is meaningful and useful for their own needs. In a globalised universe of learning provision, people will also need guidance on the quality of what is on offer.

For all these reasons, guidance and counselling services must move towards more 'holistic' styles of provision, able to address a range of needs and demands and a variety of publics. It is self-evident that such **services must be locally accessible**. Practitioners must be familiar with the personal and social circumstances of those for whom information and advice is provided, but must equally know the profile of the local labour market and employers' needs. Guidance and counselling services also need to be linked more firmly into networks of related personal, social and educational services. This would enable the pooling of specific expertises, experiences and resources.

In recent years, it has also been increasingly recognised that a good deal of information and advice is sought and found through non-formal and informal channels. Professional guidance and counselling services are beginning to take these factors into account, not only by developing networks with local associations and voluntary groups but also by designing 'low threshold' services in familiar settings. These are important strategies for improving access for highly disadvantaged target groups.

Traditionally, guidance and counselling have been provided as public services and were originally designed to accompany initial transitions between school and the labour market. Over the past thirty years, market-based services have mushroomed, especially for the

highly qualified. In some Member States, many guidance and counselling services are wholly or partially privatised. Companies themselves have also begun to invest in guidance services for their employees. Nevertheless, **it remains the responsibility of the public sector to set agreed minimum quality standards and to define entitlements.**

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- How can existing initiatives²² and services be enhanced so that guidance and counselling becomes an integral part of an open Europe? What improvements are needed to provide interconnected European databases on learning opportunities throughout life?²³ What are the implications of emerging 'borderless education' – that is, learning provided in one country and accessed from another – for guidance and counselling services?
- The eLearning initiative proposes that, by the end of 2002, vocational guidance and counselling services should offer universal access to information on training, labour market and career opportunities in 'new technology' skills and occupations. How can this target be achieved? More generally, how can further impetus be given to the development of Internet-based tools for self-guidance?
- What can be done to modernise and improve initial and in-service training and professional development for guidance and counselling practitioners? Where are the most urgent needs for enriched training? What kinds of projects in this field should be prioritised under the SOCRATES II, LEONARDO II and YOUTH programmes?
- There is a clear need to expand service provision at local level, in accessible forms and designed for specific target groups. How can innovative approaches – such as 'one-stop-shops' – be applied more widely across Europe? What is the role of marketing strategies in guidance and counselling, and how might they be made more effective? How can inter-agency networks be developed that enable local-level providers, via a pool of specialist sources, to offer genuinely 'tailored' services on an individualised basis?
- How can quality of service be best assured in a mixed public and private market for guidance and counselling? Would it be appropriate to develop quality guidelines for guidance and counselling services, including through co-operation at European level?

4.6 Key Message 6: Bringing learning closer to home

Objective: Provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to learners as possible, in their own communities and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate.

Regional and local levels of governance have become increasingly influential in recent years in line with intensified demand for decisionmaking and services 'close to the ground'. The provision of education and training is one of the policy areas destined to be part of this trend – **for most people, from childhood through to old age, learning happens locally.** Local and regional authorities are also the ones that provide the infrastructure of access to lifelong learning, including childcare, transport and social welfare services. Mobilising the resources of regional and local authorities in support of lifelong learning is therefore essential. Equally, civil society organisations and associations have their strongest roots at local level, and typically possess vast reservoirs of knowledge and experience about the communities of which they are part.

Cultural diversity is Europe's distinctive trademark. Particular localities may have different characteristics and problems, but they all share a unique distinctiveness of place and identity. The familiar distinctiveness of people's home community and region gives confidence and provides social networks. These resources are important for lending meaning to learning and for supporting positive learning outcomes.

Varied and locally accessible lifelong learning opportunities helps to ensure that people are not *compelled* to leave their home region to study and train – although they should equally be able to choose to do so, and the experience of such mobility should be a positive learning experience in itself. For some groups, such as the disabled, it is just not always possible to be physically mobile. In such cases, equal access to learning can only be achieved by bringing learning to the learners themselves. **ICT offers great potential for reaching scattered and isolated populations** in cost-effective ways – not only for learning itself, but also for communication that serves to maintain community identity across large distances. More generally, 'round-the-clock' and 'on-the-move' access to learning services – including on-line learning – enables everyone to use their learning time to best advantage, wherever they may physically be at a given moment.

Densely populated urban areas, for their part, can weld multiple partnerships from a hub of diversity, using **lifelong learning as the driver for local and regional regeneration.** The city, meeting-point of constantly changing groups and ideas, has always

been a magnet for innovation and debate. Urban environments brim over with learning opportunities of all kinds, from everyday street life to fast-paced enterprises and for young and old alike. Villages, towns and cities have also already built up a range of contacts with partner communities across Europe through town-twinning programmes and activities, many of which are supported with Community funding. These activities provide a basis for transnational co-operation and exchange between communities and localities that have a range of similar characteristics and problems to resolve, and which therefore offer a natural platform of interest for non-formal learning initiatives. ICT expands these opportunities by creating the possibility for virtual communication between local communities physically far apart.

Inclusive partnerships and integrated approaches are better able to reach (potential) learners and respond coherently to their learning needs and demands. Incentive schemes and other support measures can encourage and support a proactive approach to lifelong learning both by individuals themselves and by cities and regions as co-ordinating contexts. Bringing learning closer to home will also require reorganisation and redeployment of resources to create appropriate kinds of **learning centres in everyday locations** where people gather – not only in schools themselves, but also, for example, in village halls and shopping malls, libraries and museums, places of worship, parks and public squares, train and bus stations, health centres and leisure complexes, and workplace canteens.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

- The Lisbon European Council conclusions (paragraph 26) propose turning schools and training centres into multi-purpose local learning centres, all linked to the Internet and accessible to people of all ages. This is a major challenge for all Member States. What kinds of projects and provision already exist that could offer promising ways forward and examples of good practice? What kinds of pilot projects should the Community education, training and youth programmes support to this end?
- How can mutually beneficial learning partnerships between education and training providers, youth clubs and associations, enterprises and R&D centres be profitably developed at local and regional levels? Have locally-organised audits of citizens' learning needs and employers' skills needs proved a positive tool for re-designing lifelong learning opportunities in particular communities and regions?

- The Lisbon European Council conclusions (paragraph 38) strongly favour decentralised and partnership-based implementation strategies. What kinds of incentives will encourage local and regional initiatives – such as learning cities and regions – to co-operate and exchange good practice at multiple levels, including the transnational level? Could local and regional authorities pledge a fixed percentage of their income to lifelong learning?
- What scope is there for promoting decentralised lifelong learning partnerships through developing closer links between European-level institutions (European Parliament, Committee of the Regions, Economic and Social Committee, Council of Europe) that have well-established local and regional links?

5. Mobilising resources for lifelong learning

The debate to be launched through this Memorandum will take place at a crucial point in time for implementing the Lisbon European Council conclusions. The outcomes of the debate will help to define priorities and directions under the relevant Community instruments and programmes. **The new open method of co-ordination will enable a coherent policy development and mobilisation of resources at European and Member State levels in favour of lifelong learning.** At Community level, indicators and policy initiatives are being developed and resources will be mobilised.

DEVELOPING INDICATORS AND BENCHMARKS

The question of setting appropriate targets and meaningful benchmarks in relation to lifelong learning will be an important aspect of the coming debate, in conformity with the open co-ordination method introduced in the Lisbon conclusions (paragraph 37) and with the methods already used within the Employment Strategy. **Indicators that reflect the full meaning of lifelong learning as defined in this Memorandum are not presently available.** Work has already begun at European level to consider how this can be improved²⁴ and the Education Council has begun to consider how the idea of benchmarking can be applied to the education field whilst preserving the autonomy of the Member States in this policy domain²⁵. Moreover, a number of indicators on lifelong learning have been specified and used in assessing progress in the implementation of the Employment Guidelines, some of which were considered for inclusion in the list of structural indicators proposed by the Commission for the Annual Synthesis Report²⁶. A joint effort between Community and Member States is needed, both to develop data relating to the six key messages and to define appropriate quantitative and qualitative indicators on lifelong learning, some of which are likely to be new and may well require a new evidential base. (This issue is further dealt with in Annex II – The scope for developing indicators and benchmarks on lifelong learning.)

CURRENT TARGETED INITIATIVES AT EUROPEAN LEVEL

At Community level, action is already underway to implement the Lisbon European Council's conclusions (paragraphs 11, 25, 26, 29, 37, 38 and 41).

- The Education Council is currently preparing, in co-operation with the Commission, a first **report on the common concerns and priorities of Europe's education systems** in the future, including lifelong learning. This report will be presented to the European Council in Spring 2001 under the Swedish Presidency.
- The new **eLearning initiative, which is part of the broader eEurope initiative**²⁷, aims to raise levels of digital literacy and equip schools, teachers and pupils with the necessary material, professional skills and technical support to do so. The effective use of ICT will make a significant contribution to implementing lifelong learning by widening access and introducing more varied ways to learn, including through ICT-networked local learning centres open to a wide range of people of all ages.
- A **Gateway to the European Learning Area** is being developed which, together with the EURES database, is intended to provide easy access for citizens to information about jobs and learning opportunities throughout Europe.
- To facilitate mobility and increase the visibility of learning and work experiences, the Commission will make a proposal for developing a common **European curriculum vitae (CV) format**²⁸.
- The Commission has presented a proposal for a **Recommendation to promote mobility**. As an operational complement to this Recommendation, an **Action Plan for Mobility** is being developed on the initiative of the French Presidency.
- The Commission will also continue to work together with established networks and decentralised agencies and within existing mechanisms to develop lifelong learning, such as the **European Forum on the Transparency of Qualifications**.
- The continued implementation of the **Action Plan to promote Entrepreneurship and Competitiveness (BEST)**, which includes actions on education and training for entrepreneurship.

THE ACTION PROGRAMMES SOCRATES II, LEONARDO DA VINCI II AND YOUTH

Lifelong learning is the guiding principle for the new Community education, training and youth action programmes, which came into effect in January 2000. The activities they will be funding – networks and partnerships, pilot projects and action research, exchange and mobility activities, Community sources of reference – are therefore prime tools for developing the European dimension of lifelong learning. The Memorandum's key messages provide the basis for determining priorities in the regular calls for project proposals. The new programmes also provide for joint actions – that is, funded activities of interests and concern to a number of Community action domains. This is of particular interest for lifelong learning, given its cross-sectoral and integrative nature. For example, joint actions could be envisaged for promoting: co-operation between practitioners working in different education and training sectors or in formal and non-formal learning settings, in order to develop innovative teaching and learning methods; co-operation between different kinds of guidance and counselling provision, in order to bridge the gaps between services and encourage multi-specialist networks.

EMPLOYMENT GUIDELINES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Employment Guidelines are proving **an effective framework for promoting structural reforms, setting targets and monitoring progress** in implementing policy initiatives, including in the field of lifelong learning. In the Commission's Proposal for Employment Guidelines 2001, the lifelong learning element has been considerably strengthened. Lifelong learning is now seen as a horizontal aspect of the Employment Strategy, as well as being addressed under several guidelines. All Member States will have to develop policies to implement the new Employment Guidelines for 2001. Most Member States will need to respond to specific policy recommendations in implementing the guidelines on lifelong learning.

Member States have still to develop comprehensive strategies for lifelong learning, which would enable coherent design and implementation of a co-ordinated range of policy measures capable of making lifelong learning a reality for all citizens. The draft European Employment Guidelines 2001 call on Member States to develop comprehensive and coherent strategies for lifelong learning across the full range of their education and training systems. They are also asked to set national targets for increasing investment in human resources and for participation in further education and training, and to monitor progress in achieving these targets.

As these strategies are being developed, partnership-based and decentralised approaches which bring learning 'closer to home' will take on an important role, as the Lisbon Summit conclusions have underlined. The challenge will be to **create and maintain coherence within diversity** at all levels of community life in Europe.

USING THE EUROPEAN STRUCTURAL FUNDS

The Lisbon European Council conclusions (paragraph 41) underline the need to mobilise the necessary resources, with the European Union acting as a catalyst and adding its own contribution under existing Community policies.

The European Social Fund now has a specific mission to contribute to the actions taken in pursuance of the European Employment Strategy and the Guidelines on Employment. Member States should be vigorously pursuing the development of lifelong learning policies and infrastructure at national, regional and local levels. The new Community initiative EQUAL will address the relevant themes for action in the context of the Employment Strategy, including lifelong learning. There also seems to be **considerable scope for strengthening the links between Youth, Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and EQUAL, on the one hand, and the Structural Funds, on the other** – in particular in terms of utilising successful approaches and project results developed under these programmes on a broader basis.

USING THE RESEARCH FRAMEWORK PROGRAMME

Research relevant to the key messages should be prioritised within the current 5th Framework Programme and taken into account when planning the priorities of the 6th Framework Programme; national research programmes should equally consider prioritising research relevant to implementing lifelong learning. Topics could include, for example, the social and economic benefits of investing in lifelong learning and applied educational research to develop innovative methods of teaching and learning. Under the 5th Framework Programme, one of the key actions under the theme of the user-friendly Information Society already aims to facilitate lifelong learning through the development of multimedia tools and contents.

FOLLOW-UP TO THE MEMORANDUM

The Commission invites the Member States, between now and mid-2001, to launch a consultation process on this Memorandum, close to the citizens and involving the key actors responsible for lifelong learning at all levels. The Commission will collect and analyse the outcomes of these discussions and will also consult the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee, the Committee of the Regions, the Social Partners and other key partners to get feedback on this Memorandum. In addition, the Commission will continue its work on developing indicators and benchmarks and identifying examples of good practice. It will also mobilise Community resources for lifelong learning, as discussed above. Finally, the Commission will prepare a report on the outcome of this consultation process by the Autumn of 2001 with a view to proposing specific objectives, concrete points for action and benchmarks for implementing a lifelong learning strategy.

Notes

- 1 Feira European Council conclusions, paragraph 33.
- 2 The European Employment Strategy was initiated at the November 1997 Heads of State European Council in Luxembourg. This strategy established a monitoring and reporting procedure for all Member States, based on annually revised Employment Guidelines. The Employment Strategy rests on the four pillars employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities.
- 3 Lisbon European Council conclusions, paragraph 37. The new open method of co-ordination involves fixing European guidelines and timetables for achieving specific agreed goals, establishing (where appropriate) indicators and benchmarks in order to compare best practice, translating European guidelines into specific targets and measures adapted to fit national and regional differences, and establishing mutual learning processes based on regular monitoring, evaluation and peer review of progress. As stated in paragraph 38, 'A fully decentralised approach will be applied in line with the principle of subsidiarity in which the Union, the Member States, the regional and local levels, as well as the social partners and civil society, will be actively involved, using variable forms of partnership'.
- 4 European Council Presidency Conclusions, Lisbon, 23-24 March 2000, paragraphs 5, 24 and 25, pp. 2 and 8; European Council Presidency Conclusions, Santa Maria da Feira, 19-20 June 2000, paragraph 33, p. 6.
- 5 *Growth, Competitiveness and Employment*, European Commission White Paper, 1993.
- 6 *Implementation, results and overall assessment of the European Year of Lifelong Learning (1996)*, Report from the Commission of the European Communities, COM(1999)447 final, 15 September 1999.

7 *Teaching and Learning – towards the learning society*, European Commission White Paper, 1995. The 1997 Amsterdam European Community Treaty subsequently introduced the provision, in its Preamble, 'to promote the development of the highest possible level of knowledge for their peoples through a wide access to education and through its continuous updating'.

8 *Towards a Europe of Knowledge*, Communication from the Commission of the European Communities, 12 November 1997 (COM(97)563 final); Council Decision establishing LEONARDO II (1999/382/EC, 26 April 1999) and Decisions of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing SOCRATES II (253/2000/EC, 24 January 2000) and YOUTH (1031/2000/EC, 13 April 2000)

9 *Guidelines for Member States' Employment Policies 2001*, Communication from the Commission, COM(2000)548, 6 September 2000; Joint Employment Report, COM(2000)551, 6 September 2000.

10 *Report on the European Commission report on the implementation, results and overall assessment of the European Year of Lifelong Learning (1996)*, European Parliament, Committee on Culture, Youth, Education, the Media and Sport, 14 July 2000 (A5-0200/2000 final), p. 20.

11 *Cologne Charter – Aims and Ambitions for Lifelong Learning*, G8 Summit Meeting, Cologne, June 1999; *Education in a Changing Society*, Chair's Summary of the G8 Education Ministers Meeting, Tokyo, 1-2 April 2000; G8 Summit Conclusions, Okinawa, 21-23 July 2000. In addition, at the World Education Forum held in Dakar in April 2000, 182 countries committed themselves to six goals to meet the basic learning needs of all. These goals include improving adult literacy rates levels and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

12 *Education for active citizenship in the European Union*, OPOCE, Luxembourg, 1998.

13 For example, see: *Lifelong Learning and Lifewide Learning*, National Agency for Education, Stockholm, January 2000.

14 EURYDICE European Unit, *The challenge of lifelong learning for the education systems of European Union Member States*, Brussels, 2000; CEDEFOP, *An Age of Learning*, Thessaloniki, 2000; ECOTEC, *The Contribution of Community Programmes, Funds and Initiatives to Lifelong Learning*, Report to the European Commission, Education and Culture DG, August 2000.

15 Kearns, P. et al. *VET in the learning age: the challenge of lifelong learning for all*, Vol. 1, National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER), Kensington Park, Australia, 1999, p. 25.

16 This includes the European level; a White Paper on European Governance will be published by the Commission in 2001.

17 *The European dimension of education: its nature, content and prospects. Information report*, Economic and Social Committee, Section for Employment, Social Affairs and Citizenship, 13 June 2000 (SOC/019 final). See also the Committee of the Regions Opinion on Citizenship (accessible via: http://www.cor.eu.int/cor/work/avis_32plen/226-99/226-1999_EN.doc)

18 *Responding to challenges for European Universities – Implementing changes in institutional and disciplinary co-operation*, F2000 European Higher Education Forum, EUCEN (European Universities Continuing Education Network), Liege, July 2000.

19 For example, see *Study Circles in Targeted Intelligence Networks*, JRC/IPTS, Sevilla, 2000.

20 *Lifelong Learning – A Youth Perspective*, European Youth Forum/Free University of Brussels, Brussels, December 1997.

21 This Forum was set up as a joint initiative by the European Commission and CEDEFOP.

22 For example, the Euroguidance network of National Resources Centres for Vocational Guidance, the FEDORA (European Forum for Student Guidance) network, the EURES system and the Internet-based Gateway to the European Learning Area are already established or underway.

23 For 2001, Employment Guideline 7 seeks to enhance the functioning of labour markets by improving interconnected European databases on jobs and learning opportunities.

24 Indicators concerning teaching and learning in the Information Society are proposed in the Educational Multimedia Report, January 2000 (accessible via: http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/com/pdf/2000/com_2000_0023en0.pdf); 16 quality indicators are proposed in the *European Report on the Quality of School Education*, May 2000; the Eurostat Task Force on Measuring Lifelong Learning delivers its first report in December 2000; the eLearning initiative plans to develop specific indicators in relation to the Lisbon targets on digital infrastructure and literacy. Annex 2 of this Memorandum considers the current scope for developing and improving European comparative statistics and indicators on lifelong learning.

25 Leiden Seminar on Benchmarking and Open Co-ordination, 27-28 September 2000.

26 Structural Indicators, Communication from the Commission, COM(2000)594, 27 September 2000.

27 *eLearning – Designing tomorrow's education*, Communication from the Commission of the European Communities, COM(2000)318 final, 24 May 2000. For key documentation concerning eEurope see http://europa.eu.int/comm/information_society/eeurope/documentation/index_en.htm

28 Lisbon European Council conclusions, paragraph 26.

ANNEX I

Examples of lifelong learning good practice

This annex presents a small number of examples of 'good practice', i.e., projects or initiatives that have shown a feasible approach towards putting lifelong learning into practice. Projects have been selected from within the European Union – most of which have received Community funding. There are also examples from countries outside Europe which may, in many cases, face similar challenges when it comes to implementing lifelong learning. The selection has been made based on proposals received from CEDEFOP, EURYDICE, the European Training Foundation (ETF) and a study commissioned by the European Commission on the contribution of Community funding to lifelong learning. Most of the examples from within Europe have a clear European dimension, and all of the examples illustrate innovative and flexible approaches for the citizens and other partners to putting lifelong learning into practice. Several initiatives have already been in place for a number of years and there is evidence that they are effective. In other cases, there is not yet firm evidence of the success of the projects, but the example has nevertheless been included since it points to an innovative or interesting approach. The list is far from exhaustive. The objective is primarily to illustrate, in fairly concrete terms, what lifelong learning can mean and to stimulate the debate and search for new ideas and methods – inside and outside Europe. Identifying good examples and proposing ideas for disseminating good practice will, it is hoped, be an important aspect of the debate launched by this Memorandum.

Objective 1:

Guarantee universal and continuing access to learning for gaining and renewing the skills needed for sustained participation in the knowledge society.

Sweden

The Adult Education Initiative (AEI)

Implementation: July 1997- July 2002

Target group: adults

The AEI is primarily aimed at adults who are unemployed or who lack full three-year upper secondary qualifications. The idea is that those adults most in need of education should be given a chance to catch up and add to their knowledge. Improved levels of skill and increased self-confidence will help them to strengthen their position in the labour market. The overriding aims of the AEI are to:

- reduce unemployment
- develop adult education
- reduce educational divisions
- promote growth

The intention is for all education that takes place under the initiative to be governed in form and content by the needs, wishes and capacity of the individual. Every individual should have ample scope for personal choice in terms of the type of study they require and the timing and location of that study. Validation of competence may allow students to shorten the time they spend in study.

TRANSNATIONAL

YOUTHSTART project – Gemeente Groningen

Implementation: started in November 1995, still running

Target group: young people

Sources of co-funding: YOUTHSTART, Central Government, Private companies in Groningen The Netherlands

Main promoter: The Stin Postbus and partners in Ireland and Austria

The ability to use information technologies and the enhancement of personal skills are thought to be key factors in finding a job in the Netherlands.

This project is closely related to the national objectives of LLL in the Netherlands, which place a high priority on the development of ICT skills and the use of innovative pedagogies. It is also coherent with the European Commission definition of LLL.

The project has been replicated in other northern provinces of the Netherlands. The participation of SMEs has been a key factor for the sustainability of the project. The courses included a combination of training in core skills and in personal skills. The latter included topics such as self-esteem, how to behave in an interview, how to answer a phone, how to work in groups, etc. This combination seems appropriate for the target group of beneficiaries (young people in unemployment), as they tend to be inexperienced in those matters.

Objective 2:

Visibly raise levels of investment in human resources in order to place priority on Europe's most important asset – its people.

European ADAPT project EU Jobrotation

Target group: Individual employees, groups of employees, a department of a company or branch of industry and unemployed

Implementation: Started in Denmark in the 90's and is still running, piloted in ten other Member States through ADAPT

The starting point for JobRotation lies within businesses and their training needs resulting from the introduction of new technology, organisational changes or internationalisation processes. The principle of a JobRotation scheme is simple: the employed participate in supplementary training, while an unemployed person trained for the temporary job takes over as a substitute. In 1999 an estimated 5311 people and 622 companies will be participating in JobRotation projects all over Europe. The flexibility of the JobRotation tool has made it possible to tailor it to the national and/or regional framework and to the unique local situation. When the employment effect for substitutes is considered, the results from all European regions indicate that approximately 75% of substitutes obtain employment after completing the period of replacement, either in the JobRotation enterprise or in another company.

United Kingdom Investors in people

Implemented in 1991, still running

Investors in People was introduced in the UK in 1991 and has since proved an important initiative in recognising those enterprises which invest in training for their employees. The programme provides employers with a national standard of training needs analysis and those companies wishing to be recognised as an Investor in People must conform to this standard. It helps to maximise business performance by linking the training and development of employees to an organisation's business objectives. The standard is based on four main principles:

- Senior management makes a commitment to develop all employees to achieve business objectives;
- The employer regularly reviews its business objectives and plans how to achieve them by developing the skills of the individual employees and the teams;
- The employer trains and develops individuals from the time when they are recruited and throughout their employment;
- The employer evaluates the investment in training and development and assesses the impact of the training on improved effectiveness.

Investors in People is also being launched in the Netherlands, promoted by the Dutch initiative on lifelong learning and the National Action Plan for employment.



Objective 3:

Develop effective teaching and learning methods and contexts for the continuum of lifelong learning.

Transnational

Socrates project: MIWEUL- Making it work: European Universities and LLL

Implementation: **1997- 1999**

This transnational project was funded under the Adult Education action of the Socrates programme and involved collaboration and comparative research between researchers from 4 EU Member States. The project aimed at developing a network of research centres in order to identify what is needed to enhance the contribution of education and training policies and practices to LLL.

Therefore, the project has focused on the following aspects:

- Analysis of the development of higher education institutions as centres for lifelong learning in four European countries
- Focus on policy formulation, orientation of LLL (especially access to education and needs of adult learners) and barriers to future development
- Identification of commonalities and differences between European countries regarding LLL
- Promotion of policy change at regional, national and European levels by contributing to the understanding of what is happening at national and institutional levels
- Promotion of the European dimension and mutual understanding around LLL.

As part of this research project, a comprehensive view has been adopted covering the context of the lifelong dimension of higher education (HE), the types of policies implemented at national level. A significant contribution to the development of LLL in higher education relates to pointing out the extent to which higher education institutions, in partnership with business, regional and local authority groups and groups in the community, can widen participation and access to education and training to non traditional learners, including through the use of ICT.

European

European Network of Innovative Schools (ENIS)

Target group: learning institutions

As a component of the EUN (Schoolnet) structure the overall goal of ENIS is to create a network of innovative schools which can be utilised for full demonstration of pilot projects in EUN and beyond. The complete network consists of approx. 500 schools with broad European representation, and will constitute a common integrated framework in terms of: Connectivity and technical infrastructure, pedagogical and organisational tools, pedagogical and organisational methodology and skills and knowledge.

The network comprises schools with proper ICT-equipment and experience of using it. A process is underway in each of the EUN member countries to appoint the most innovative schools. Each ENIS school will complete and submit a form, which will be evaluated by the national authorities. Key benefits and expectations for Innovative schools:

Access to the full EUN-WEB site at the Internet. Including access to use:

- Collaborative applications
- Communication platform
- Educational material and tools developed by EUN work programmes.

Objective 4:

Significantly improve the ways in which learning participation and outcomes are understood and appreciated, particularly non-formal and informal learning.

USA

Prior Learning Assessment

Implemented: 1994, still running

PONSI – Project on Noncollegiate Sponsored Instruction and Credit – was the first scheme introduced by the New York State University's Board of Regents, following a pilot study carried out in 1974. Since 1994, it works in cooperation with California State University and recognises courses from all over the country. In 1999, 1400 universities and academies accepted PONSI recognised certificates. College Credit Recommendation System (Credit) was introduced at the same time by the American Council for Education, Washington DC, which is an umbrella organisation representing all accredited universities and academies in the US.

Three types of approach to PLA are prevalent: tests, evaluation of non-college-sponsored training, and comprehensive assessment of life and work experiences by portfolio assessment.

Portfolio assessment is considered to be the only method which helps adult learners evaluate their own prior learning and build on it to develop plans for their future learning and development. It is a more holistic approach in that it focuses on the identification and articulation of learning as well as its measurement and evaluation.

The portfolio is a formal document outlining non-college learning experiences and is used to request college recognition of experiential learning.

All of these measures point towards the acceptance and implementation of lifelong learning as part of modern life. They lead towards a mainstreaming of post-school learning. However, it is difficult to find evidence of how PLA affects progression and development at work, independent of academic advancement (Mann, 1997). This is therefore an interesting area in need of more research and examination, given that many other countries look to the US as a leader in this field

France

Bilan des compétences

Implemented: 1985, still running

Target groups: individuals and enterprises

The initiative may come from the enterprise or from the worker him/herself. The aim is to permit the employee to understand his or her professional and personal competences as well as their motivation and aptitudes in order to facilitate their professional as well as their educational plans and careers. The bilan des compétences is a national system defined and administered according to national law. It is focused on the labour market and on enterprises. The idea is to give feedback to the employer or employee on questions of competence to support further learning or career development. The bilan des compétences does not aim at formal recognition of competences according to a qualification standard. The main reference points are individuals and enterprises.

Objective 5:

Ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities throughout Europe and throughout their lives.

Transnational

Leonardo da Vinci project: EURO PRO-FILES (Development of a multimedia software program for guidance)

Target group: young people

The project is financed by Leonardo da Vinci and the aim is to design and produce a multimedia software program, which develops vocational guidance systems for young people. The multimedia nature of the tool allows a comparison of occupational profiles and promotes the vocational training of young people and the development of guidance systems.

The project facilitates exchanges in the field of vocational training at European level, since the CD-ROM provides a database on the skill profiles to be acquired for the chosen occupations and the corresponding training. This tool ultimately fosters youth mobility and blurs cultural, vocational and training divides.

The impact on national guidance systems has been very positive. The project allows a careers advisory service provider to respond to requests for information from young people about occupational profiles on a truly transnational basis. The advice can be tailored exactly to the requirements of the trainee and will aid them in making an informed decision about transnational mobility.

Canada

SkillNet.ca

Implemented: 1993

SkillsNet.ca is Canada's fastest growing network of job and career information Web sites. A one-stop shopping site for jobs and career-related information, SkillNet.ca is a partnership of integrated recruitment services, developed by Industry Canada, with assistance from Human Resources Development Canada and Xwave Solutions. These include colleges and universities, health, arts & culture, education, aviation maintenance and the voluntary sector. Many more partner sites are under development. CANARIE Inc. is Canada's advanced Internet development organisation. It was established in 1993 and has been working with government, industry, and the research and educational communities to enhance Canada's advanced Internet infrastructure, applications development and use.



Objective 6:

Provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to learners as possible, in their own communities and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate.

Transnational

ADAPT project: SES-NET (South East Scotland Network for Education and training)

Implemented: September 1998- June 2001, ADAPT programme

Target groups: The target group for project activity are SMEs in a range of sectors including distribution and retail, multi-media, tourism and automotive

University for Industry was created in order to turn the UK Government's vision of a 'learning society' into a reality. The main objectives of Ufi (now branded *learnirect*) are to stimulate demand for lifelong learning amongst businesses and individuals; and to promote the availability of, and access to, relevant high quality, innovative learning opportunities, in particular through the use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT).

The project brings together a wide public-private partnership of suppliers of education and training to create a network of tutor-supported learning centres. The setting up of learning centres is key to the project and many of the centres are situated in non-traditional locations, including companies. It is making lifelong learning available through local learning centres that provide learning opportunities tailored to the specific needs of individuals. Access to information, guidance and advice on learning opportunities and providers has been improved by the setting up of a call centre for one stop shop advice, signposting, guidance and registration for courses.

Offering flexible modes of delivery using ICTs and 'bite-sized chunks' of learning or discrete modules has meant that individuals that require learning for a specific purpose rather than a full qualification or employed learners who need to fit learning around their existing family and work commitments have access to learning.

Australia Learning centres

Implemented: 1989, still running

Objective: Encourage local involvement and build local support

The Centre for Research and Learning in Regional Australia (CRLRA) at the University of Tasmania has explored the relationship between the quality of learning in community, social capital in that community, and sustainable economic outcomes, in regional areas of Australia. Australia also has experience of linking communities of practice (groups linked for a common purpose which involves on-going learning and interchange of ideas and experience), for example farm owners or managers. Useful good practice principles for building learning communities can be derived from the Western Australia Universities or the Queensland Open Learning Network (QOLN).

QOLN was established in 1989, as an initiative of the Queensland Government to improve access to learning opportunities for communities where access was restricted through isolation and other factors. QOLN has developed a network of over 40 Open learning Centres which perform a range of roles and functions in their communities. The centres aim to be a community focal point for learning. Co-ordinators are employed from the local community and are required to encourage local involvement and build local support, so as to broaden the impact of the centre in the community.

ANNEX II

The scope for developing indicators and benchmarks on lifelong learning

I. BACKGROUND

Lifelong learning has been an issue in the policy discussion for quite some years now. However it has increasingly become a priority area in policy making in the late 90s when its importance for social and economic development as well as for social cohesion and active citizenship in the knowledge economy has been widely acknowledged. This recent focus combined with the inclusion of education and training among the Community competencies for the first time in the Maastricht and then the Amsterdam Treatyⁱ, has created increasing demand for statistics in the area of lifelong learning.

The process towards European indicators in education and training was begun decades ago and has gained momentum in the 1990's. In February 2000 the European Commission created a Task Force on measuring lifelong learning. The Task Force aims to make recommendations on approaches to be adopted within the European Statistical System (ESSⁱⁱ) taking on board the statistical implications of this Memorandum. Explicit needs for indicators expressed in other official policy documents such as the Lisbon Conclusionsⁱⁱⁱ, the Joint Employment Report^{iv}, the e-Learning initiative^v and the report on the quality of school education^{vi} will also be taken into account in the further development of indicators in the area of LLL.

The task force includes representatives of UNESCO and OECD, to ensure the greatest possible involvement of the international organisations active in the area of education statistics.

The following paragraphs try to provide a short overview of existing statistical information and tools relevant to lifelong learning as it is delimited in the context of the present memorandum as well as some indication for the way forward.

2. CURRENT SITUATION

Existing statistics on education and learning are based on a system approach, since this has dominated policy perspectives to date and, to a lesser extent, on individuals and companies.

The focus is on the formal education and training systems (UOE^{vii} and VET^{viii} data collections), on educational attainment within these systems and on the labour market outcomes of education (LFS^{ix}, ECHP^x etc). Data on participation of adults in education and learning (LFS) are also collected though there is a clear focus on formal education and job-related training. Information is also available on work related training offered by enterprises (CVTS^{xi}) as well as on the household expenditure on education (HBS^{xii}), but the typologies used for educational services or products do not allow the useful exploitation of this information. Efforts have also been made for the direct assessment of skills through different international surveys like IALS^{xiii} on the literacy and numeracy of adult education, TIMSS^{xiv} which is curriculum and school based and, recently, PISA^{xv} which is school based but not curriculum based.

The present change of perspective, where lifelong learning is given more weight not only in the area of education but also in the areas of employment, economic growth, social exclusion etc is expected to change the perspective of analysis of most of the above mentioned sources unveiling hidden information that has not been exploited until now since there was no policy need clearly expressed. Additionally these sources may be modified in this new perspective to provide improved coverage of different aspect of LLL.

3. EMERGING NEEDS

Today more information is needed on the way individual citizens learn in formal and non-formal settings but also through informal activities like self-learning. Skills can be acquired in several ways and it is essential to monitor skill acquisition – as well as erosion. We need to be able to assess the societal outcomes of learning (eg citizenship related outcomes, environment, consumer protection) as well as the employment-related and personal outcomes in a wider sense (e.g. basic skills, economic well-being, physical and mental health and well-being, satisfaction).

Notions like motivation, expectations and satisfaction are essential for lifelong learning, while personal investment in time and money is a major issue in the debate. The role and involvement of the different actors of the learning market (commercial enterprises,

NGOs, professional bodies, local authorities, state and of course individuals) also needs to be clarified.

Finally, as a market for education and training is taking shape, there is a need to collect information on the providers and the economics of providing teaching/training, the cost and availability of supply. Learning systems have remained substantially stable for several decades and are recently undergoing radical changes. Effective policy-making requires monitoring and even anticipating these changes.

The area of education and learning statistics seems to be overlapping in its non-formal and informal areas with time use statistics, cultural statistics (where DG EAC and Eurostat in cooperation with UNESCO have progressed recently), tourism statistics and statistics on audiovisuals, Information Society and intangible investment in structural business statistics.

These represent opportunities to supplement the direct sources in LLL and call for harmonised and ad-hoc approaches to make best use of them.

Concretely on the main themes of the Memorandum on lifelong learning the following comments may be made:

3.1. NEW SKILLS FOR ALL

Education and training systems are to provide people with the basic skills which are necessary for the knowledge economy. The skills must be continuously updated and many people will need to access them outside the education system. Then every effort should be made to assess them in an acceptable and comparable way, building on the experience of existing direct assessment methods. Information on basic skill levels (e.g. foreign languages and ICT) could be collected through household surveys, where appropriate.

The effectiveness of the formal education system at providing universal access for the acquisition of the basic skills threshold and the development of a learning culture should be further explored in relation to LLL. The assumption that the regular (traditional) system context, which is teachers working for instructional institutions teaching students enrolled on specific programmes, leading to qualifications/diplomas, which they complete within a given time period should be adapted to accommodate modular programmes, non-sequential study and qualification trajectories, open and distance education and self-directed learning programmes. Early childhood education should be distinguished from

childcare and its extent and contents should be specifically examined. Contextual information on structures and organisational and curricular arrangements is paramount for putting in context any statistical information on the formal system, thus making it policy relevant.

Information on non-formal education is already collected by existing sources, from individuals and companies organising training for their employees. Nevertheless specific classifications of non-formal and informal learning activities should be developed or improved, where they exist, for use in household sample surveys, time use surveys etc. Information on individual motivation and attitudes may also be collected through household surveys while the involvement and attitudes of other actors like enterprises, NGOs etc should be assessed in specific surveys.

3.2. MORE INVESTMENT IN HUMAN RESOURCES

To obtain more information on the investment, in terms of time and money, in lifelong learning the following should also be done:

- harmonised information on time investment by individuals (for example through Time Use Survey); this information needs to be combined with contextual information on working arrangements, childcare facilities etc. with a view to assessing the obstacles to learning in terms of time availability;
- harmonised information on household consumption/cost of educational services and products through Household Budget Surveys;
- change the treatment of public spending on education in public sector accounts (it should be treated as capital, not current expenditure); development of satellite accounts on education covering more than spending in formal education; inclusion in the analysis of expenditure on 'LLL infrastructure' (eg communication networks and learning centres);
- investment by enterprises in training (Structural Business Survey, Labour Cost Survey); investment in human resource development should be considered as intangible investment and be given equal treatment, also in statistics, as capital investment;
- improve the coverage of education as an economic activity in Business and Information Society statistics so as to evaluate the offer of educational services and products and their market value (content development, guidance services, educational material production etc).

3.3. INNOVATION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

After the appropriate definitions have been agreed, information on the number of people working voluntarily and employed in education and learning (formal, non-formal, informal) may be collected. Contextual information on the required level of qualifications and skills required for educators may be used for analysis targeting always the longer term objective of measuring the level of the necessary skills, once they have been defined.

3.4. VISIBILITY AND RECOGNITION FOR LEARNING

The outcomes of European Union initiatives such as the ECTS, the CEDEFOP Forum for the transparency of qualifications or the automated assessment test may contribute in the longer term to the development of a typology of qualifications (formal and non-formal) that may be used to assess the totality of validated knowledge available in the society. More opportunities for data collection may come from initiatives such as Europass, aiming to ensure recognition of training across Member States. Other initiatives, for instance the European Computer Driver's Licence (ECDL), could also be a source of essential information.

3.5. RETHINKING GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Contextual information on the arrangements for guidance and counselling at different geographical levels may be complemented with information on whether people know about the possibilities offered and whether they are satisfied with their service. A typology of services of educational guidance and counselling could be developed in the context of the development of a classification of educational and learning services and activities. To be effective, data collections in this area should address individuals as well as guidance centres.

3.6. BRINGING LEARNING CLOSER TO HOME

Information on education and learning needs to be at a geographical level, as close as possible to the level of intervention which is usually the local level. At present, certain data sources, e.g. LFS and CVTS, yield some data at regional level. The main limitation is the cost of extending samples to ensure representativity. In countries where the regional component is very strong, e.g. Italy, additional statistical efforts are made to meet this kind of demand.

Within the foreseeable future, education statistics at regional level will be collected on an ad-hoc basis.

4. THE WAY FORWARD

Systems-based data should be complemented/enriched by learner-centred data that takes formal, non-formal and (intentional) informal learning needs further into account. To cover most of the issues raised in the previous paragraphs for which gaps exist, with the exception of early childhood education and some aspects of investment in education by all actors, the best solution seems to be a dedicated adult learning survey. Such a survey would include information on:

participation (incidence), **time** spent in education and training (volume), **nature** of education and training (by purpose/aim), the **source of financial support** (public, employer, self), perceived **benefits** (job-related, societal, personal), perceived **demand** (needs and interests), perceived **motives** (job-related, societal, personal), perceived **obstacles** to participation, transparency of learning offer (**information and advice**), self reported **digital literacy**, self-reported **foreign language skills**

Background variables would include: Individuals: age, sex, educational attainment, field of education and training, labour market/employment status, current/last job, nationality/citizenship/main residence, income as well as NACE sector, size for those who are employed.

In order to implement this approach some methodological tools need to be developed: a specific classification of learning activities (which should take into account inter alia the existing classifications of fields of education and training^{xvi}, the classifications of economic activities revised to cover educational goods and services^{xvii} the education classifications for use in Time Use Surveys as well as the Classification of training provision developed under a Leonardo I project^{xviii}); a typology of obstacles to learning and a typology of expected outcomes (job-related, societal and personal).

An ideal design of such a survey, though very complex in its implementation, would be to conceive it as a chain of interrelated modules which can be developed gradually as ad hoc or standard modules locked into suitable existing surveys. The LFS 2003 ad-hoc module on LLL, which will be the first link in the chain, will provide the opportunity to develop the necessary methods and nomenclatures and test some of the notions. The inclusion of

cultural statistics modules should also be considered (currently under development by Eurostat with DG EAC, UNESCO and MSs) – educational audiovisuals, leisure/tourism, etc. The Eurobarometer could also be a useful and appropriate source, in particular on perceived effectiveness of education and training.

This approach should allow for the study of different population groups (educationally and socially disadvantaged persons, young people etc) but in case more information is needed on specific categories or cases, the methodology developed in the general context of LLL could possibly be used as a basis for broader comparisons.

Additionally, the administrative structures that are to be put in place for implementing the European Union strategy on lifelong learning should already have an in-built statistical structure in their conception, that would make possible the collection of information at source.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Although some statistical information exists already on LLL, there are still important gaps which are highlighted by every step made towards the development of a concrete policy. The notion of lifelong learning is vast and to study it requires a clear identification of the themes that need to be explored as a priority. We should also recognise that certain of its aspects are not measurable. Statistical information must be complemented by contextual information so as to give depth to our understanding and relating information on the process of learning and its outcomes to the best policies. It is important to reach agreement on the priorities for lifelong learning and discuss their operationalisation in terms of statistical needs. The Task Force on measuring lifelong learning plays an important role in this exercise. Once this process is under way, benchmarks can be set to evaluate progress towards clearly set targets.

The aim should be to combine the interests and needs of the different stakeholders involved in implementing LLL in a way that would allow an appropriate portrayal and monitoring of what is undeniably a complex reality.

NOTES ANNEX II

- i Ref. to article.
- ii The ESS is a network made up of all the government bodies which, at the various levels – regional, national and Community – are responsible for drawing up, processing and disseminating the statistical information needed for the economic and social life of the Community. The education section of the ESS includes not only the fifteen Member States of the EU but also the remaining EFTA countries, the pre-accession countries of Central and Eastern Europe as well as South-East European countries. The Community focal point for the European Statistical System is Eurostat, the Statistical Office of the European Communities.
- iii The Conclusions of the special European Council meeting on 23-24 March 2000 in Lisbon call (para 36) for structural indicators to be provided in annual Synthesis Reports.
- iv Every year the Commission drafts a report on the progress on employment guidelines on the basis of national reports. The JER 2000 and Guidelines for 2001 make explicit reference to the need to develop indicators, in particular in lifelong learning.
- v COM (2000) 318 final « eLearning : Designing tomorrow's education »
- vi The new 'European Report on Quality Indicators in Education', requested by Ministers of 26 European countries in Prague in 1998, presents sixteen indicators relating to the quality of educational systems from 26 European countries. The report is intended to act as a starting point for discussions for assisting national evaluation of school standards across Europe. It can be found at:
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/indic/rapinen.pdf>
- vii Annual joint UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat data collection of statistics on students, teachers, graduates, expenditure; main focus is the regular education system.
- viii Annual Eurostat data collection of statistical and contextual information on initial vocational education and training; includes information on apprenticeship training, financial arrangements and work-based programmes
- ix The Community Labour Force Survey is a quarterly harmonised sample survey on the situation of the labour force in Europe; it is one of the main instruments for measuring participation in education and training and educational attainment of the adult population (15-year-olds and above). The questions on participation in education have recently been updated.
- x The European Community Household Panel is an annual survey that collects data from the same group of people (that is the panel) allowing for a longitudinal analysis of their characteristics; the main problem is that the sample is very small so a lot of the information on education, attitudes and social situation cannot be combined to a great level of detail.
- xi Continuing Vocational Training Survey is an ad-hoc Eurostat Survey held twice (in 1994 and 2000); it collects information from enterprises on the training they provide to their employees.
- xii Household Budget Survey is an annual Eurostat survey; the level of detail of educational expenditure does not permit detailed analysis of results.

- xiii The International Adult Literacy Survey has been held between 1994 and 1998 at least once in a number of countries. Data have been published by Statistics Canada and OECD.
- xiv The Third International Mathematics and Science Survey was a school based survey of the International Association for Educational Assessment (IEA- to check) in (to be completed). A TIMSS repeat is under preparation.
- xv The Programme for International Student Assessment is held for the first time in 2000; it is an OECD-led school based survey that will be repeated in 2003 and 2006; all EU Member States participate in PISA in 2000.
- xvi Classification based on ISCED97 and developed jointly by Eurostat, OECD and UNESCO.
- xvii NACE/CPA.
- xviii Classification of Training Provisions was completed in 1999 under the Leonardo da Vinci programme. It can be found at <http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/leonardo/leonardood/stat/trainingstatis/areas/area6.html>.

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