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OVERVIEW OF COUNTRY POLICIES AND PRACTICES

As part of the wider perspective of lifelong learning, adult learning has in recent years slowly begun to be mainstreamed into education and human resource policies. It is now clearly recognised as an important tool for equity and social cohesion, for economic and social development in knowledge-based societies, for reducing unemployment and skills shortages, for personal development, and for furthering citizenship and democratic values. This chapter will show that all countries visited for the thematic review have taken some type of specific policy measure targeting adult learning at the national level. These range from general action plans to increase learning opportunities for all adults, to more specific programmes designed to upgrade skills, target particular adult sub-groups of the population or increase training opportunities for those in the labour force. A number of these reforms are also geared towards improving the performance and efficiency of adult education in a more integrated approach that is learner-centred. Efforts have been made towards greater system efficiency through providing general frameworks for policy development, improving co-ordination among different (including the social) partners, rationalising existing supply, focusing on cost effectiveness, and taking greater account of individual needs. Decentralisation has been an important aspect of this process.

Overall, the analysis reveals that adult learning has indeed reached national policy-making agendas. Common patterns emerge, such as approaches to step up learning opportunities for individuals, to providing basic educational attainment to those who do not have it, to bringing about a holistic approach focusing on potential learners and to recognising informal and non-formal learning processes. Policy responses vary however, according to economic and social contexts, the historical development of education systems, and political structures and systems in place. From the diversity of policies and practices, it is difficult to understand the overall country funding arrangements in place and whether they have reached the multiplicity of objectives established. The role of the enterprise in funding training is quite important in this respect. Finally, it is important to provide better, more clearly defined intermediate objectives and better means of measuring the efficiency and effectiveness of different programmes and approaches in light of those objectives.

4.1. A diversity of objectives for public intervention in adult learning

The degree to which countries decide to invest resources depends on whether they feel it is necessary to devote public efforts to stimulating adult learning and whether there should be public intervention in adult education markets or whether they should be left to the private sector. Chapter 2 has evoked a number of reasons – economic, social and personal – for a step-up in skills development. Chapter 3 has shown that a large proportion of adult learning is supplied by the private sector (firms or commercial organisations). Do these growing requirements for skills and the high proportion of private sector learning imply that governments should participate in the supply of learning for adults? Public spending is limited and the fact that investment in learning can bring private returns to individuals and higher productivity for firms questions the degree to which the public sector should finance these types of investments.

Most governments have seen the need for public intervention for a variety of reasons.

The analysis of policy objectives reveals that countries participating in the thematic review believe in the need for some degree of public intervention. Most countries have explicitly articulated their reasons for public involvement, as can be seen in Table 4.2 (at the end of the chapter). At an individual level, country policy statements call for education for personal, professional and social development. At a macro level, equity and social cohesion, the inequity of market outcomes, the development of democratic values and the improvement of skills to participate in the economy and labour market are all stated as vital reasons for government participation in adult learning. Furthermore, an overarching and more recent goal has been the development of knowledge-based societies. Overall, countries agree on the long-run goals, which include economic and non-economic reasons: the need to target low educational attainment and to intervene for social cohesion and economic development, for unemployment purposes and for personal and social development. They believe in the role of adult learning for redistribution and growth. These objectives are seen as important enough to formulate specific policies; most governments therefore believe that intervention in the adult learning market is justified.

Federal systems may categorise adult learning as a regional responsibility.

Countries with a federal system might not include national objectives for adult learning because they are the responsibility of regional governments. In fact, in Canada and Switzerland, national adult learning policies have been part of labour market policies because they are situated at the national policy-making level, while education policies are the responsibility of the provinces or cantons. However, there have been recent efforts to embrace adult learning in the national policy-making agenda. In Canada, the Innovation Agenda (2002) includes two complementary green papers: “Knowledge Matters”, addressing Canada’s skills and learning challenges, and “Achieving Excellence”, dealing with Canada’s innovative capacity. Switzerland is in the process of passing a bill that will target adult vocational training in a more comprehensive manner.

In some countries, there are separate policies for vocational and general adult education.

In Spain, there are separate educational and vocational policies for adult education. From the educational perspective, there is a focus on access, upskilling and participation in the social, political and economic realms of life. From a labour market perspective, there is a strong focus on vocational training for reducing unemployment and on labour market training for

employed populations. In Portugal, separate objectives were established by the education community and by the social partners together with the government, but they focus on combating low skills.

Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom have a broader vision of the concept of lifelong learning for personal, professional, economic and social reasons, made explicit under one single document or policy (Table 4.2). These countries focus on ensuring adequate learning opportunities for all adults. Learning is seen as important from an economic perspective of increased productivity, but also from a more personal and social perspective concerned with social and democratic values and attitudes. All view adult learning as necessary for workplace, society and individual development, although some countries then focus more on training for labour market purposes.

This vision of adult learning as part of lifelong learning has been adopted in a number of countries and has formed the basis of a number of government initiatives. It was embraced in 1996, when OECD education ministers adopted “lifelong learning for all” as a guiding framework for their education policy. They included adult learning as key in ensuring that all individuals have the knowledge and skills to fully participate in society throughout their lives. Their policy framework implies that adult learning and lifelong learning should be embraced from a learner perspective.

4.2. Country policy approaches to adult learning

As shown in Table 4.2, most countries reviewed have taken specific policy actions or measures at the national level geared towards adult learning. These range from defining general action plans to targeting adult education and skills needs and passing broad legislative initiatives for developing adult learning, to other operational issues that involve institutional or structural rearrangements.

Most country policies are focused on improving the opportunities for upskilling or reskilling of adult populations through different approaches. Canada’s recent skills and learning agenda highlights the importance of lifelong learning for personal well-being and continued economic growth; Denmark’s Adult Education Reform (2000) aims to tie together in a single coherent and transparent adult educational system the different training categories; Finland’s Joy of Learning (1997) is a comprehensive reform of adult education; Norway’s Competence Reform (1999) also spelled out a long-term initiative to expand learning opportunities for adults. Portugal prepared a strategy for the development of adult education (1998) aiming at greater access for low-educated people. It also signed an agreement on employment, labour and education and training policy (2001) between the government and the social partners to consolidate an adult education system within a coherent strategy to raise skill levels. Spain’s National Vocational Training Programme (1998-2002) aims towards flexibility and adults’ access to training across different settings. Sweden recently passed a new law on adult learning and has mainstreamed the Adult Learning Initiative focused on increasing skills. The Learning and Skills Act (2000) in the United Kingdom is focused on raising the skill levels of English adults. Switzerland’s development of their vocational training law will try to ensure equal training opportunities to all.

Certain countries place adult learning in the wider, overall policy context of lifelong learning.

OECD education ministers support “lifelong learning for all” as a guiding principle.

Policy measures vary from general action plans, specific targeting to operational issues.

Most focus on improving opportunities for upskilling or reskilling of adult populations...

... using different approaches, separately or in combination.

There are a diversity of approaches that countries have taken towards reaching these goals. These different approaches, listed below, are not mutually exclusive:

- *Emphasising demand through financial incentives:* Some countries have focused on introducing individual incentive mechanisms to stimulate adults to undertake learning opportunities. These include grants, loans, individual learning accounts and other individual financial incentives such as income support for studies or study allowances. In Canada, loans, grants and tax incentives have been used to stimulate individual demand. In the United Kingdom there is a broad range of financial support to encourage students to undertake learning throughout the country. In Finland, Norway and Sweden there are income support allowances complementary to free provision.
- *Emphasising demand through non-financial incentives:* There are other important mechanisms that have been used to stimulate demand; in many cases they are complementary to financial incentives. The rights to education or training leave from work in Finland, Norway and Portugal are an important incentive for workers to undertake learning. Most countries have also initiated plans or activities towards assessment or recognition of informal or prior learning as an incentive to bring adults back into learning. Portugal has created a national system of centres that recognise, validate and certify skills.
- *Focusing on supply:* Countries have worked towards developing the public adult learning system so as to increase supply at different levels, rationalise and give coherence to the diversity of offerings, and co-ordinate the different actors involved. In most of these cases, that implies free or near-free provision of formal adult education or other educational opportunities. This is the case with the reforms introduced by Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, and efforts undertaken by Spain and Portugal. Most of these countries have focused on increasing access and improving public provision. Some have tried to rationalise different supply available by sharing institutions or resources. Some countries have also undertaken work to improve adult teachers' skills so as to improve supply.
- *Stimulating supply and demand:* In some countries the focus has been on creating mechanisms that can help stimulate the adult learning market by targeting both supply and demand. Some countries have funded infrastructure for educational suppliers, or assisted the private market through incentives or subsidies. Others have provided or assisted in providing information, orientation and guidance concerning learning opportunities (such as "learn festival" in Switzerland or Opintoluotsi open search service in educational information in Finland). The introduction of a quality assurance schemes [EduQua in Switzerland or Investors in People (IiP) in the United Kingdom] has also contributed to allowing the private sector to take an active role. The introduction of subsidies to private suppliers, the Danish taximeter system,¹ tax exemptions and subsidies for employer-financed education or tax

1. The government gives grants to cover the education and training costs of institutions according to the number of full-time equivalent students completing training.

levies for learning and training can also be viewed in this light. Social partners have become involved in stimulating vocational and enterprise-based training in most countries. Greater decentralisation and transfer of decision-making power to the local level have also been key.

There are also different approaches towards labour market training. In some countries it has been included within the broader concept of adult learning. In Denmark for example, the adult education reform tries to bring continuing training and further education together into a single coherent system. In Sweden, the Adult Education Initiative was financed by reallocating funds from passive labour market measures to active education and training programmes in the ministry of education. In other countries, ministries of labour sometimes have separate strategies for labour market training, including training for the unemployed and for employed adults. In Spain, the creation of a National Vocational Training Programme has focused on the development of a cohesive system of vocational training, leaving basic or general education as a separate issue. In a number of countries, these objectives are established separately from general adult education objectives, and their policy measures or approaches are viewed separately.

Approaches also vary with regard to labour market training.

However, what has been common to all countries is the activation of labour market policies, or the increased importance accorded to training and other active measures as opposed to reliance on passive reception of unemployment benefits. Some countries have introduced a training insurance scheme to assist the unemployed for the loss of unemployment benefits during training. Other countries have made training mandatory during unemployment spells. Another instrument has been alternation leave or job rotation in place in Denmark and Finland: in the latter, an employee goes on training leave (from 90 to 359 days) and a registered unemployed jobseeker fills in for him/her.

Generally, active measures are preferred over passive reception of unemployment benefits.

Learning in the enterprise has also been included in some national policy approaches but not in others, although in most countries there is some type of support for this learning. Support models and structures vary. In Spain, the Canton of Geneva, Switzerland and the region of Quebec, there is a tax levy on workers and enterprises for funding learning in the enterprise. In Denmark, training is channelled through training leave and is publicly financed. In Finland, there is a tax levy directed towards compensating income loss for employees who participate as a means of advancing or maintaining their vocational skills. In Norway, there is tax exemption for employer-financed education. A recent agreement between the social partners in Portugal (2001) establishes an individual entitlement to a minimum amount of training for all workers (20 hours per year to be increased over time) and a minimum annual volume of training, which has been set at 10% of all workers.

There is also support for learning in the enterprise, provided through a variety of structures.

Towards a holistic view of adult learning?

Although different forms and patterns of institutional arrangements exist in adult learning across OECD countries, there is a general trend towards a more holistic approach to adult learning in a lifelong learning perspective, as can be seen from most of the recent reforms. Some countries already had a broader concept of adult learning in its early stages, although it was limited to adult basic education and literacy or other programmes not directly related to the labour market. Until the adoption of a lifelong learning vision, adult

Prior to the lifelong learning approach, education and labour market policies were separate domains.

education and training policies had been fragmented efforts to target specific needs of adults. There had not been sustained efforts towards mainstreaming adult education into general education policies. And most importantly, education and labour market policies remained isolated from each other. However, the increasing unemployment rates in the early 1990s, the growing requirements for high-skilled workers linked to the development of the knowledge economy, and the increased awareness of the importance of human capital have slowly moved adult education to the political forefront.

Since then adult education has shifted to adult learning: a more systemic, adult-centred view.

These developments have stimulated a shift from the concept of adult education towards that of adult learning, in a more systemic adult-centred view. In fact, in a number of countries recent policies in adult learning represent a shift towards increasing opportunities across the board in a lifelong learning perspective. As shown in Table 4.2, Canada's recent measures are directed at increasing overall participation. Denmark, Finland and Norway all embrace the broad spectrum of learning opportunities for all. Sweden's new parliament supports individual learning for all, as does the United Kingdom, which seeks to stimulate participation in different learning activities. There is a growing effort to give coherence to the many scattered and diverse programmes and courses for adults. The concept of education is broadening to include formal, non-formal and informal learning as reviewed in Chapter 2, as well as a broad range of educational strategies. This approach offers a more systemic view of learning, and includes the diversity of demand for and supply of learning opportunities as part of a whole system. It places the learner at the centre and includes all the different types of learning that adults undertake. It also covers the multiplicity of objectives that adults may have in learning, be it for professional, personal or social reasons. The approach also represents an increased effort to rationalise adult education and give it a national coherence within education and labour market policy agendas. If all of this seems more of an objective than a reality at present, countries are nonetheless moving in this direction with efforts to develop coherent or co-ordinated approaches or *systems* of adult learning.

Most countries support vocational-oriented training more than they do general adult learning.

While this holistic vision is being developed in country approaches, there is greater support for vocational-oriented training as opposed to general adult learning in most countries, a development reflected in levels of participation. There is some debate about this division, especially in the Nordic countries, but there still remains a dominance of learning for labour market purposes and of vocationally oriented conceptions of lifelong learning. A number of the reforms are especially focused on vocational training, such as those in Portugal, Spain and Switzerland, mainly targeting legislative reforms. Also, most Nordic countries' reforms have had as main aims the development of training systems to attend to economic and labour market developments. The European Social Fund (ESF) and a European Employment Strategy to provide funding for increased training to reduce unemployment in European countries have also contributed to this focus.

There have been efforts to shift that trend in support of democratic values.

There are also some attempts to shift these tendencies in countries' policy statements, including expressions of support for the development of democratic values and other non-vocational practices. For example, in Switzerland, private training providers have shifted away somewhat from more vocational purposes toward more civic concerns, and the role of the federal government in consolidating vocationally oriented education has

caused strains with those who believe that non-vocational forms should also be included. In Norway, the Competence Reform will maintain a connection to the tradition of providing adult education for its own sake, and the study associations that provide the majority of adult learners have their roots in liberal rather than vocational study. Both Norway and Sweden have folk high schools with non-vocational traditions, and Sweden also has active study circles. In Sweden, the Adult Education Initiative targeted a reduction in high unemployment rates by increasing the educational attainment of the unemployed to secondary level education so as to improve their position in the labour market. In the United Kingdom, the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) has recently brought together the planning and funding of all post-compulsory education and training into a single body. Overall, while the scales appear to be tipped toward vocational rather than non-vocational purposes, there seem to be increased efforts to broaden the focus and provision in a more comprehensive approach.

The establishment of a European area of lifelong learning, initiated by the European Union Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, is also reflecting this shift towards a holistic vision of adult learning. It aims to bring together within a lifelong learning framework education, training and other important European policies such as youth, employment, social inclusion and research policy (European Commission, 2001). It calls for a more coherent and efficient use of existing instruments and resources to achieve a European lifelong learning area that includes a whole spectrum of formal, non-formal and informal learning for employment-related aspects, as well as active citizenship, personal fulfillment and social inclusion. The creation of the Grundtvig programme (2000 to 2006) is evidence of the heightened attention given by the Commission to adults within lifelong learning (Box 4.1).

A more comprehensive view of adult learning within lifelong learning is not, however, a fully realised concept. This is in part a result of the different forms of supply, which come from a policy fragmentation that exists both at a vertical and horizontal level.² Coherence and co-ordination have been lacking at the national level over the years, and adult learning has not been a priority on many governments' agendas until recently.

Remedial or second chance programmes: A priority

A clear policy decision in most reviewed countries is to support basic skills instruction (Table 4.2). Most countries have a broad range of adult education schools or initiatives targeting the attainment of basic educational levels for adults, either primary or secondary. These are mainstream programmes included in education ministries' general policies, and represent the most

The EU has called for the creation of a European area of lifelong learning.

Fragmentation poses a challenge to realising a holistic approach within lifelong learning.

Ensuring that adults have at least the minimum level of basic skills is a priority in most countries.

2. These levels depend on and reflect, to a large extent, the administrative and political configuration of the state. Vertical integration would imply that adult education and training programmes are well integrated within the formal education system at initial, secondary and tertiary level, and that informal and non-formal learning is taken into consideration as part of the adult education process. Horizontal integration refers to how the different partners that contribute to the design and implementation of adult education policies work together or co-ordinate their planning or activities to provide coherent adult education policies.

Box 4.1. Adult learning in the European Union: The Grundtvig programme

The Grundtvig programme places the adult learner at the centre. Equal attention is given to students in the formal and informal systems. Grundtvig aims to enhance the options available for lifelong learning and improve the quality of adult education within the European dimension.

The following main goals have been distinguished:

- The promotion of European partnership and co-operation between bodies offering adult education.
- Improving the education and training of persons who teach in adult education.
- Promotion of product development and other outcomes.
- Continuing the debate on lifelong learning and dissemination of good practice.

The campaign directs itself towards adults with special educational needs and/or adults who lack basic skills. Groups that are difficult to reach such as adults who live in deprived areas within nations or areas suffering from socio-economic disadvantages also make up important target groups for the programme. The organisations eligible to apply for in the programme therefore cover a fairly large range: adult education institutions (formal and informal), universities, socio-educational and socio-cultural organisations/institutes, non-government bodies, libraries, museums and local communities, etc.

Source: European Union, Grundtvig, <http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/socrates/adult/overview.html>

clear adult education delivery mechanisms. However, to strengthen remedial opportunities there have been a number of specific programmes designed to facilitate the attainment of a minimum level of education by adults. Countries with high overall levels of attainment have focused on upper secondary education and vocational education, while those with lower levels have focused on adult basic education and primary-level education. The extent to which each country supports these varies, but all have a diversity of arrangements towards this objective. The role of the International Adult Literacy Survey in detecting low literacy levels in all countries has been important to raise awareness of this deficiency; a number of such policies were designed after the IALS results were published.

Basic skill instruction has been a special priority in Canada with literacy programmes, and in the United Kingdom (as part of a UK national intervention for improving adult literacy and numeracy skills). Denmark, Norway and Sweden have all created national-level programmes that try to increase skills by offering primary or secondary education and other provisions to adults. The Adult Education Reform, the Competence Reform and the Adult Education Initiative are all programmes that target the increase of adult learning at a national level. In Portugal, the creation of ANEFA is also geared to create opportunities for low-qualified adults. In Spain, the provision of primary and secondary education for adults, directly or through open call exams, can also be viewed in this light. In general, the importance of adult basic education programmes has been recognised, but the existence of waiting lists in a number of countries visited reveals that efforts undertaken so far are not enough.

Approaches to inequities in access

There are a number of programmes that respond to government's concerns for equity. As shown in Chapter 3, there are groups that are under-represented in adult learning programmes, with fewer opportunities of access and participation. Countries have designed different solutions. They may have targeted programmes of spending, subsidies for groups with special needs, special outreach programmes, easier access to courses for specific groups, and in a few cases special institutions (*e.g.* for aboriginal people in Canada). Barriers to participation in mainstream educational programmes can be eliminated, for example by providing childcare to working mothers or transportation in rural or suburban areas, or expanding access to education grants and loans (Grubb, 2001). The specific groups targeted in public policy vary in different countries, but overall there are public programmes targeting the following.

There are various measures to assist groups under-represented in adult learning programmes.

The unemployed and the long-term unemployed. Special measures have targeted the unemployed and the long-term unemployed in all forms of adult learning, vocational and non-vocational. The long-term unemployed tend to have lower levels of education, and active labour market policies have focused on training them for the job market. However, a number of policies with employment targets have had the effect of “cherry picking”, or selecting those that have the highest chances of finding a job whether they have training or not. The Swedish IT programme (SWIT) aimed at meeting particular competence-shortages in the labour market, and described as a success, has been cited as an example.

There are measures geared to the unemployed, immigrants, the low-skilled, or the handicapped.

Immigrants. In a number of countries, increasing immigration rates are contributing to an increase in language and culture immersion programmes. This is an effect of equity concerns but also in response to changing labour force requirements and skills shortages. Countries have recognised the need for immigrants to obtain working knowledge of the country where they live if they are to integrate and participate fully in the labour market and in society. Sweden has a strong Swedish for Immigrants programme (Sfi), while Denmark also has Danish as a second language for adult foreigners. The Finnish Broadcasting Company YLE provides Finnish for both Finns and foreigners. In Spain, recent immigration inflows have caused an increase in public and NGO provision of Spanish language and culture courses. Figure 3.7 in Chapter 3 has already shown learning rates by residence situation, revealing that in some countries the differences in learning participation are not so large, but in others, such as Switzerland or Spain, participation is much lower.

The low-skilled. As can be seen in Table 4.2 and the section above, a large proportion of measures or reforms taken in countries have been directed towards providing opportunities for increasing the educational attainment for those with low skills. The Swedish Adult Education Initiative, the efforts in Portugal, or in Norway with the right to basic or to upper secondary education, and in the Danish reform are good examples. Furthermore, most countries have a broad variety of adult education institutions that provide upskilling opportunities for adults.

Low-income groups. One of the main approaches to increase motivation and participation in adult learning is through financial incentives. Most public programmes involve either the creation of free provision or the development of financial assistance mechanisms for those who cannot fund their own learning. Most of the financial arrangements focus on formal learning or

education directed to obtaining a certificate. However, from the participation rates and profiles seen in Chapter 3, inequities in participation remain, as it is those with the highest educational attainment and those with higher wages participate more in adult learning.

Rural or remote dwellers. There is an imbalance between programmes available in urban *versus* rural areas. Similarly, the efforts to enhance competition among providers generally have worked only in urban areas, where there are multiple providers, and not at all in rural areas where provision of adult education is scarce. Different delivery methods have tried to target these inequities, as shown in Table 4.2, but the results are unclear. In Saskatchewan (Canada), for example, there have been efforts to develop regional colleges in rural areas where students then go into technical institutes in urban areas. In Finland (and other countries) there have been efforts to develop distance learning methods to overcome the isolation of rural areas, though the lack of availability of computers for older groups and low-income groups has hampered this process. In the more remote communities in Spain, there are also efforts to bring adult education close to home. In countries that have federal government structures, such as Canada or Switzerland, there are regional differences in access to adult education. In Canada, residents of remote communities and poorer provinces (like the Maritimes) tend to have less access; in Switzerland the German-speaking cantons have the greatest access and the Italian cantons the least. In these cases the only cure for regional imbalances is for the federal government to play a greater equalising role.

Handicapped individuals. There are a number of adult learning programmes geared towards the handicapped, especially those using available information and communication technologies. All countries have substantial numbers of disabled or handicapped individuals, and they often lack access to public services such as education. Although the focus of the thematic review has not been on handicapped people, the review teams have seen a number of inspiring programmes across countries. In Sweden for example, a visit to a school from Municipal Education for Adult with Learning Disabilities (*särvux*) was enlightening. Handicapped adults were learning to use advanced ICT technologies to read and write.

From supply-led to demand-driven education and training

There has been greater recognition of and response to demand.

From the analysis of the different reform measures taken by countries, a tendency towards greater recognition of and response to demand through different policy approaches can be observed. However, evidence has not shown clear institutionalised mechanisms for detecting needs, as can be seen in the evaluation column of Table 4.2. Most adult learning has been supply-driven, with learning opportunities largely relying on replicating the formal education system used for young people to serve the needs of adults.

However, as economies and societies evolve, changing learning needs of adults need to be taken into account. The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) was one international effort that drew attention to the magnitude of the lack of skills in adult populations throughout OECD countries in a comparative manner. However, it is unclear that countries use systematic means to detect demand. In recent years, countries have made increased efforts, and in fact a number of country policies state the need to recognise demand and to broaden learning opportunities for adults.

Different mechanisms employed to gauge demand have involved decentralisation of decision making to the regional level and to the education provider level. These can be viewed as a response to provide greater access and to foster a broader variety of learning opportunities for adults. The wider use of individual incentive mechanisms can also be seen as recognition that individuals will choose what is best for them. Such arrangements, however, can serve to exacerbate inequities, as those who have higher educational attainment are usually those who follow more training. Therefore, countries also use compensatory mechanisms to assure equal access opportunities for those groups that are under-represented in training, such as those mentioned in the previous section.

There seems to be a need for national policy agendas to take the recognition and detection of demand as an important instrument in policy design (Pont, 2001). The Danish 10-item plan includes the development of provision based on demand, and the recent Swedish parliament goals also include provision for adjusting education to individual needs.

A shift from process to outcomes: national qualification systems

Another way in which some governments have tried to provide a holistic approach to adult learning, as well as incentives for adults to learn, is through the introduction of national qualification frameworks. The recognition of all kinds of learning can motivate adults back to learning; qualification frameworks offer the possibility of progression routes and equivalencies within education systems (OECD, 2000a); and, through credit transfer and established equivalencies, they can make it easier for individuals to have skills and competencies acquired in one sector recognised in another. Countries are looking towards their qualifications systems as a means of promoting lifelong learning for all, but the impact of different policy instruments within qualifications systems – including qualifications frameworks – needs more clarification. A new OECD Directorate for Education activity is analysing these issues more in-depth across OECD countries (OECD, 2002a).

From an institutional point of view, the definition of common criteria for the outcomes or results of training processes can be an important tool to make different institutions work towards the same goals, giving them (and individuals) the flexibility to design their own education pathways. Qualifications frameworks are regarded as potential powerful steering mechanisms for developing more open and effective systems of lifelong learning.

Countries are experimenting with different types of qualifications structures that can cater to adult learners. Finland has had a qualifications framework since 1994, based on competence-based examinations irrespective of where the knowledge and skills are acquired. Portugal and Spain are in the process of defining national qualifications frameworks, the latter through the creation of the National Institute for Professional Qualification (INCUAL) to accredit qualifications. In the United Kingdom the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) is a unified system of vocational qualifications, and efforts are currently under way to bring together general and vocational qualifications under one unified system. Modularisation, or the division of qualifications into small units, falls within this framework and is

Individual incentive mechanisms designed to widen access and opportunity may in fact exacerbate inequities.

Qualifications systems that recognise competencies can fuel adults' motivation to return to learning.

If different institutions share the same goals, learners will be freer to design their own pathways.

Modularisation of qualifications allows for the recognition of individualised "skills profiles".

viewed as positive for adult learning. It allows for an individualised pace of learning and for the recognition of individualised “skills profiles”.

Recognition of informal and non-formal learning

Recognition of informal and non-formal learning, which occurs outside formal settings...

The recognition of informal and non-formal learning that adults undertake has been included in a number of country approaches towards adult learning. In fact, some countries are in the process of developing and implementing methodologies and systems for the identification, assessment and recognition of non-formal learning. It has been viewed as a tool for realising lifelong learning systems, as it can give learners credit for learning undertaken throughout different settings and contribute to the development of individualised career paths. It can also be a valuable tool for motivating individual learners. It can avoid repeating education processes and contribute to shortening them: adults can therefore begin learning at the level that reflects their actual competencies, not based on their formal qualifications. These approaches can thus support more flexible education, training and learning careers, making it possible for people to better afford education and training (Bjørnåvold, 2001).

... allows adults to begin learning at the level that reflects their actual competencies.

Sweden has recently begun developing general systems for assessment of competencies that have been acquired outside formal learning settings together with the social partners. While the social partners seem to be more concerned about the utilisation of competencies developed in working life, the interest of the government seems to be more focused on the need to make public educational institutions more flexible (to open the system up for immigrants and adults with long working experience, and to reduce costs). And while the social partners seem to strive for a more balanced recognition of formal and non-formal learning, the government initiatives aim to use the formal, school-based qualification as the standard according to which other competencies should be measured and valued (Bjørnåvold, 2001 and OECD, 2001c).

Canada has prior learning assessment at an institutional level across the country; British Columbia has developed guidelines that cover prior learning assessment and recognition (PLAR) of both the K-12 system and of adult education. In Denmark an important goal of the Adult Education Reform is to create a coherent system of recognition for training supervised by the ministry for labour. In Norway, documentation and recognition of informal and non-formal learning is one of the key elements in the Competence Reform, through which the government is trying to develop a national system for the documentation and recognition of non-formal learning. The parliament has approved a measure whereby an adult over 25 years old can access university studies with the approval of his/her non-formal learning. In Finland, each institution providing education and training leading to a qualification must see that the student has the opportunity to obtain competence-based qualifications as part of the programme. However, despite the fact that one aim of the system was to facilitate public recognition of the competence of adults with long work experience in particular, it is the younger generations who have mostly obtained the qualifications. In Portugal, the creation of a national system for the recognition, validation and certification of school attainment and personal experience will develop key competency

benchmarks in areas such as language and communication, ICT, everyday mathematics, employability, and citizenship.

Evaluation of outcomes and quality assurance

Evaluation and quality control should be integral components of adult learning systems, as they can contribute to more efficient and effective policy making. Evaluation of outcomes can guide policy makers to choosing the most appropriate adult learning programmes for specific objectives. The importance of understanding the results and effects of learning is imperative for all stakeholders, from learners to investors. To obtain a consensus and maintain commitment and sustainability of the policies over the long run, it is important to measure the efficiency and the returns. Quality assurance mechanisms can also contribute to controlling public and private spending in adult education. However, the extent to which countries have recognised this is still limited. There have been recent efforts by some countries to include it as part of their adult learning reforms; most countries state that there is a need for improved evaluation of outcomes and results.

Evaluation is crucial to develop satisfactory policies, and should be an integral part of policy design. It can help detect adult learning needs and whether they are being met or not. Evaluation can also contribute to rationalising limited resources and to better co-ordinating different actors across the board. Unfortunately, most evaluation of adult learning policies is limited to the measurement of the number of students taught and funding spent (Table 4.2, outcomes measurement). Some evaluation can be found at the local or regional level but information is not carried through to the national level. There has been widespread use of surveys, such as labour force surveys, to measure change and learning profiles. In Finland for example, adult education surveys are conducted every five years to provide a picture of educational needs and participation in adult education. However, the Finnish state that steering and monitoring measures aiming to utilise the adult education system to achieve government objectives for education, labour, social and industrial needs often prove inadequate and call for the expansion of person-based data collection (OECD, 2001b).

More evaluation has been focused on public training programmes than on any other type of adult learning. Some evaluation studies show that public training programmes appear to work for some target groups but not for others. Having the answers to such questions is important for appropriate policy design. Martin and Grubb (2001) have found four crucial features in the design of public training programmes: *a*) the need for tight targeting on participants; *b*) the need to keep the programmes relatively small in scale; *c*) the need to have a strong on-the-job component in the programme; and *d*) the need for the programme to result in a qualification or certificate that is recognised and valued by the market.

Quality assurance can also be seen as part of an efficient and effective adult learning system. In countries with a larger public provision of adult learning, there are public institutions in charge of quality control and evaluation. In Sweden, the National Agency for Education takes on this role, while in Spain there is an Education Inspector Directorate at a national level. The Adult Education Reform in Denmark establishes the task of quality

The importance of understanding the results and effects of learning is imperative for all stakeholders.

Some evaluation is performed locally or regionally but the information is not carried through to the national level.

Public training programmes have been evaluated more than any other type of adult learning.

Quality assurance is another key element in any efficient and effective adult learning system.

assurance at different levels, including the overall adult education and training system, the education or education programme level, and the institutional level. The Danish have created an Evaluation Institute, which is an independent institution under the ministry of education. Its tasks include external examination of individual education programmes under the ministry of education, assessment of coherence between various educational programmes, development and innovation related to evaluation techniques and methods, and collection of national and international experiences with education evaluation. An example of a recent measure in this direction is the Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI) in the United Kingdom, a new non-departmental public body with responsibility for quality assurance. It will inspect provision for people aged 19 and over in further education colleges, for enterprise based training for all age groups, New Deal, adult and community learning, University for Industry/learnDirect, as well as education and training in prisons. All providers of adult literacy and numeracy provision funded by the Learning and Skills Council or a local authority will be inspected by the Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED) and/or the ALI.

Government may prove a reliable quality controller.

In countries where there is a large private provision of learning, the national government can play a role in assuring and improving quality, as there is concern about the role of private training providers. In Canada, for example, the review team was made aware of a private institution that closed in a fortnight and disappeared in a province where there was no control over private training providers. Countries have established different mechanisms for quality control. The EduQua system in Switzerland is a quality assurance mechanism for training institutions that assures learners of the quality of the institution. The Investors in People in the United Kingdom follows a similar pattern.

Resourcing and financing issues³

Adult learning financing can be a shared endeavour.

In all countries reviewed, adult learning is a shared endeavour undertaken by the public as well as the private sector. According to IALS data, training is mostly financed by the enterprise or by private individuals; a small proportion of learning is financed by the public sector. These data need to be interpreted with caution: some respondents are often not clear on where the financing for their training comes from because it is not transparent. For example, enterprise training might be publicly funded but the employees might not be aware of this financing arrangement.⁴ Training financed by individuals might also include loans and grants, which are public mechanisms to stimulate learning.

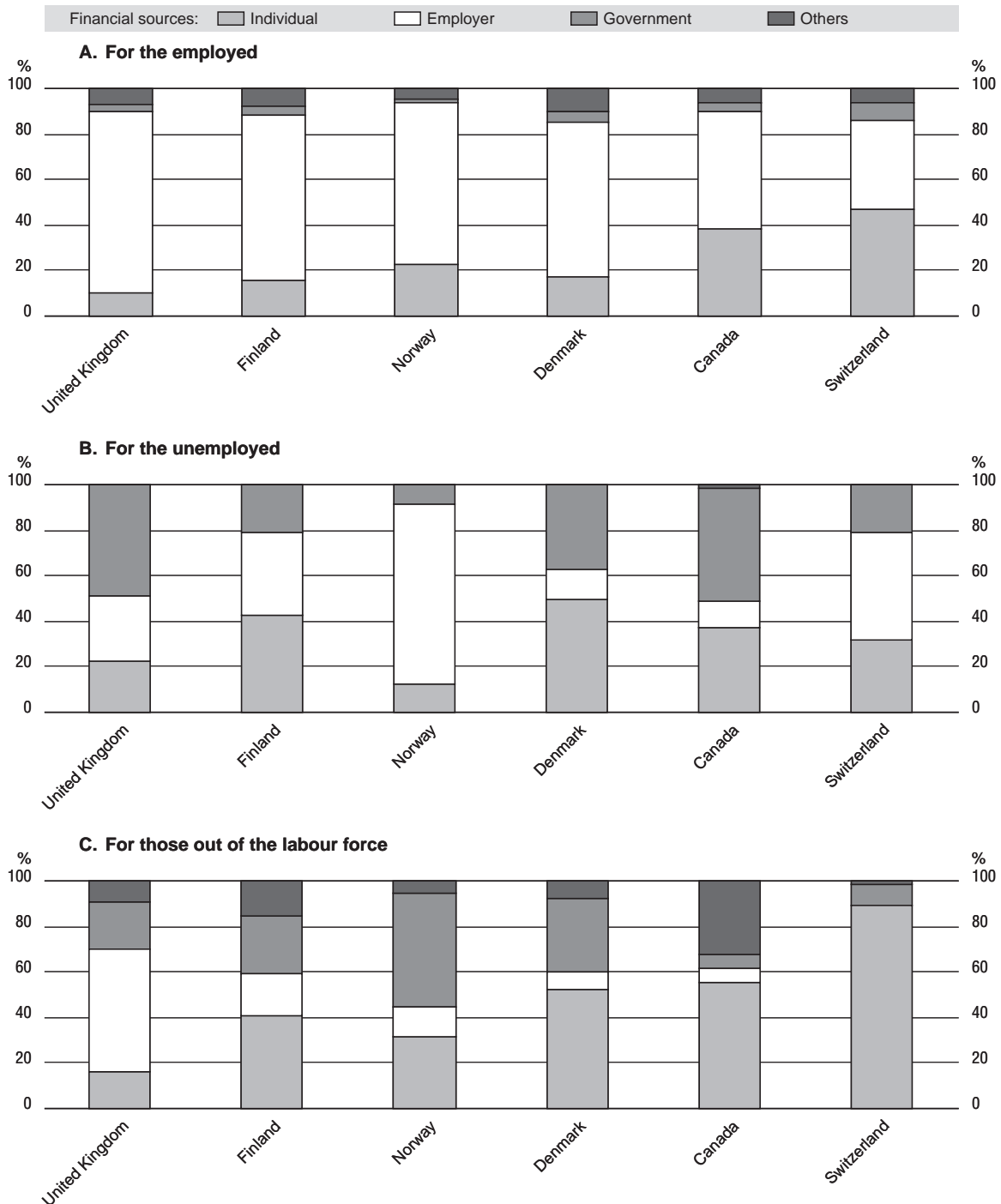
A large proportion of learning for the unemployed and those not in the labour force is government financed.

Figure 4.1 shows that most training undertaken by employed people is financed by the enterprise, while the government funds a large proportion of training for the unemployed. A significant proportion of training of those not in the labour force is also government financed. This shows the role of active labour market policies and the strong country policy focus on reducing

3. Further in-depth research on this issue has been undertaken as part of the OECD activity on financing lifelong learning. See findings in OECD, 2000b and 2001a.

4. This is the case of Norway, where participants in labour market training are registered as paid for by the employers for coding reasons, but it would be correct to classify them as funded by the government.

Figure 4.1. **Sources of adult learning financing by labour force status**
 Percentage distribution of financing by labour force status for population 25-64 years old, 1994-98



Note: Countries are ranked in descending order by employers' funding of training of those who are employed.
 Source: International Adult Literacy Survey (1994-98).

unemployment rates and assisting those with difficulties in the labour market, especially in Canada and the United Kingdom. It also seems that people who are not in the labour market benefit from training more in countries with a public system of adult education such as Denmark, Norway or Finland, although there is not enough information for all countries and it is therefore difficult to compare. Still, a large proportion of learning for those out of the labour force is financed directly by individuals.

It is difficult to provide an overall picture of spending on adult learning.

Data on financing adult learning are challenging to say the least. It is difficult to provide an overall picture because of the complex and varied nature of the programmes and their differences across countries in financing arrangements, as can be seen in the broad variety shown in Table 4.2. The different modes range from direct financing to educational institutions, to suppliers of education, to indirect funding, to individual financial assistance mechanisms. Furthermore, adult learning includes general adult education, vocational adult education, basic skills education, general non-vocational education, labour market training for the unemployed or those at risk, and enterprise-based training. It can also include informal training. In some countries, these are separate areas of activity spread across ministries of education, employment and finance. As there is also a high degree of decentralisation, regional and municipal authorities are also involved. The private sector, especially the enterprise, also plays an extremely important role in adult learning. Sources of funding are therefore diverse and it is difficult to provide a homogenised picture of spending on adult learning.

A few countries participating in the thematic review provided overall information on public or private financing for adult learning. Denmark's data show that around 1% of its GDP was spent on adult learning in 1998 – or around 13% of that country's total educational budget. In Finland, education administration public funding of adult education was 0.59% of GDP in 2001. In Spain, the total spending in adult learning, which includes basic adult education, vocational occupational training, work-training programmes and continuing vocational training, adds up to approximately 0.4% of GDP. This is a rough estimate, and includes training by enterprises and by the public sector from the education and the labour side. In Sweden, data presented gave a figure of 4.9% of GDP on adult learning in 1998, although this includes in-service training, which can be private or publicly funded. It represents 44% of the total educational spending in Sweden. Overall, however, it is difficult to provide a complete picture, as there are different concepts involved in each country.

There is more comparable data on labour market training expenditure.

OECD data on active labour market policies expenditure, which are comparable across countries, show that overall spending on labour market training ranges from 0.05% of GDP in the United Kingdom to 0.84% in Denmark in 2001 (Table 5.1).

Public financing arrangements play a small role in the provision of training in enterprises.

There are also data available on financing of Continuing Vocational Training (CVT) courses for some of the reviewed countries (Table 4.1). They reveal that between 1.2% and 3.6% of overall labour costs of enterprises that provided training were invested in training. The total cost per employee ranged from over 600 PPS per employee in Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom to 1 124 PPS in Denmark. The United Kingdom, with the highest labour cost overall, had low cost per employee, perhaps due to a policy of

Table 4.1. **Costs of training courses in enterprises**Costs of training in PPS¹ per employee and costs of training courses as a percentage of total labour costs of all enterprises, 1999

	Denmark	Finland	Portugal	Spain	Sweden	United Kingdom
Direct costs	642	419	342	242	518	507
Labour costs of participants	481	358	338	389	415	143
Contributions (+)	23	10	1	87	4	44
Receipts (-)	22	30	38	50	31	31
Total	1 124	758	642	668	907	662
Costs as % of total labour costs, 1999	3.0%	2.4%	1.2%	1.5%	2.8%	3.6%
1993	1.3%	..	0.7%	1.0%

1. Purchasing-power standards (PPS): costs are indicated in PPS to allow for price differences between countries. The PPS conversion factors indicate how many national currency units the same quantity of goods and services would cost in individual countries.

Source: Eurostat, New Chronos Database, CVTS.

more extensive *versus* intensive participation. What is important to note is that the receipts from national or other funding arrangements were low in most countries as measured in PPS per employee, with the highest proportions in Spain and the United Kingdom followed by Denmark. Included here are public financing arrangements for enterprise-based training, revealing the small role they play in financing and provision of adult learning for those in enterprises. In fact, there is a strong association to be noted between the enterprises' spending in training and overall participation rates.

An interesting analysis using IALS information for Nordic countries has shown that overall, there is no relationship between the level of public support for education and training and training participation rates across countries (NORD, 2001). According to this study, it would appear that the observed high levels of adult education participation in the Nordic countries should not be attributed, at least not directly, to high levels of public support for such activities. There were other countries with relatively high rates of participation in publicly supported adult education, but these had overall levels of participation much lower than the Nordic countries. There were also other countries with low support and high overall participation rates.

A slightly different picture emerges if the incidence of participation among some of the main target groups of publicly supported adult education is examined. When analysing the levels of training of the low-skilled and the odds of receiving public subsidies for it, there is a relationship between the level of public support and the incidence of adult education for the low-skilled. This high level of public support for education and training has increased the training rate of the low-skilled and it might well be that it is here where public spending can make the largest difference.

It is not the level of public resources alone that determines overall learning performance, but the participation of and funding by firms and how public funding is used. The distribution of learning supply, the role of firms and the efficiency of the adult learning system, together with other social, cultural or historical factors, have a strong impact on participation rates. In terms of public resources, it is a question of whether public funding is appropriately directed to provide the right incentives for adults to engage in

The association between participation in and public support for adult education is not clear cut...

... except when it comes to the low-skilled.

Countries are using a variety of public approaches and financial arrangement.

adult learning, especially for the low skilled. Information gathered from the countries reviewed and presented in Table 4.2 shows that countries are using a variety of public approaches and financial arrangements to improve access to and participation in adult learning:

- *Basic adult education* is generally financed by education ministries. In most countries reviewed, there is free adult education for those who want to attain basic education levels. Ministries either have their own provision or give subsidies to private providers for accepting students into their programmes. In some countries where these opportunities are not available, there are loans or grants. There are sometimes subsistence funds for those undertaking learning, or trainees can receive unemployment benefits or similar types of assistance. There is also the possibility of offsetting the wage losses linked to education and training.
- *Labour market training for the unemployed or those at risk.* This is the most organised or homogeneous sector in terms of financial arrangements. It is normally ministries of labour that have special schemes to enhance the employability of those unemployed. Most funding is generated at the national level and there are different arrangements available, from public provision of vocational training for the unemployed to individual funding for unemployed who can purchase their training in private institutions. In a number of countries, there is financial aid of different sorts for those unemployed who are undergoing training. It is also important to note the role of the European Social Fund, which has been an important engine for increasing training for the unemployed in some European countries.
- *Training in the enterprise.* There are different models and levels of public financing across countries. In some countries there is no public funding of enterprise-based training; it is left to the market to be developed. In some cases the social partners, unions and enterprises have special arrangements but there is not public funding of learning. Other countries provide different types of incentives to individual learners to undergo training, such as regulations for paid leave of absence for employees or loans or grants. Individual learning accounts are also starting to be developed; these are not only supported by the government but also available to workers at the enterprise level. Some countries have tax exemptions for enterprises that provide training. Another model is a tax levy on workers or firms for training managed by the social partners. Subsidies for enterprises for training are also present in some countries. The funding of apprentices can also be included here. There are also other types of arrangements in collective bargaining agreements at sectorial level.

4.3. Features of policy design and implementation

Co-ordination and coherence of policies

Dedicated institutions may be the best way to co-ordinate activities and policy making to attain policy coherence.

This recent trend towards a holistic approach in adult learning has been followed by efforts to improve the existing lack of coherence and co-ordination that has prevailed among the different partners involved in the development and planning of related activities. In terms of policy coherence the approach implies joint efforts of different government departments and

agencies to forge mutually reinforcing policy action towards defined objectives. With regards to co-ordination, it refers to institutional and management mechanisms by which policy coherence is exerted among the different entities involved. All countries have a broad variety of partners involved in adult learning, including ministries of education, ministries of labour, regional governments, local-level governments, educational institutions, special adult learning institutions and the social partners. Overall, there is no one good way to co-ordinate activities and policy making, as they depend on historical development and political, administrative and social frameworks. What counts is co-ordination across the board to attain policy coherence, and this may be best attained with the creation of specific institutions devoted to the endeavour. Country experiences reveal that there have been some efforts towards this end.

Collaboration across institutions

The degree of policy coherence can depend to a large extent on the degree to which the different institutions that participate in adult learning share their vision and co-ordinate their activities. In most countries, the ministries or responsible institutions for general education have the responsibility for adult education. However, their scope of activity has been focused on adult basic education, literacy programmes and other types of basic and vocational education. On the other hand, ministries of labour have focused their efforts on specific labour market training programmes for the unemployed or the working population. The degree of collaboration between the two ministries has been limited in most countries. Traditionally, each ministry has designed and provided its own training, without taking into consideration the existing supply from other institutions.

However, it is not only ministries of education and labour that design adult learning policies. Other institutions also participate in this process. Ministries and other institutions for regional development, ministries of industry and ministries of health and/or social services also carry on learning programmes and policies for diverse groups.

An example of the diversity of institutions that design adult education policy can be seen from two country examples. In Switzerland, the federal and cantonal levels have different competencies for adult education and training, with the Confederation, the Federal Office for Vocational Training and Technology (OFFT), the Federal Department of Interior, the Federal Department of Foreign Affairs, the Pro Helvetia Foundation and the regional governments in charge of a broad spectrum of learning policies. In Sweden, although adult education is comprehensive, policy design and evaluation is in the hands of a number of institutions: the National Agency for Education, the Swedish National Labour Market Administration, the National Agency for Higher Education or the Swedish National Council of Adult Education and the Ministry of Industry.

Not only across ministries but even within them, there is a large number of actors and institutions involved in defining and implementing adult learning policies. For example, in Norway there were three institutions under the ministry of education with particular responsibility for adult learning: the Norwegian Institute of Adult Education (NVI), the Norwegian State Institution

Coherence implies shared vision, and collaboration between ministries of education and of labour...

... not to mention the other ministries and institutions involved.

Even within ministries there are many actors and institutions involved.

for Distance Education (NFU) and the State Adult Education Centre (SRV). These have recently merged under one institution as a result of the Competence Reform. The new institution will cover provision of adult education, allocation of grants, R&D activities and international relations.

Structures have been created specifically...

Knowing that a more unified approach can facilitate policy coherence and consistency, governments have tried to create or improve mechanisms of co-operation among the different ministries or agencies involved.

... to improve co-ordination between ministries.

One way to do so has been through the creation of a new body or agency designed specifically for adult learning policy making. In its Adult Education Reform, Denmark defined three structures that have the specific aim of improving co-ordination between ministries (the Adult Education Council, the Council for General Adult Education at basic level and the Labour Market Institution for Financing of Education and Training); these will include the social partners. The creation of ANEFA in Portugal in 2000 responds partly to the need to co-ordinate the activities of the ministry of education and the ministry of labour and solidarity towards a common objective. The creation of the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) in England, which is supposed to deliver all post-compulsory education and training from April 2001, also falls within this category. In Finland, the T&E Centres house the combined regional units of the ministry of trade and industry, the ministry of labour and the ministry of agriculture and forestry. Their labour market departments have a crucial role in implementing labour market training for adults.

Also to that end, institutions have been merged.

Governments have also responded to this need through the mergers of different institutions in charge of education and/or training. Such is the case of Norway, with the merger of the NVI, the NFU and the SRV into VOX in January 2001.

Partnerships

Partnerships are another answer to co-operation and co-ordination problems.

Partnerships among different agents have appeared as a solution to problems of co-operation and co-ordination. Partnerships with the private sector in the form of semi-public bodies, such as the newly created Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) in the United Kingdom,⁵ or the Regional Development Councils in partnership with local employers (such as the Autonomous Community of La Rioja) in Spain are examples. They have been viewed as a way to reach potential learners and use regional synergies in terms of funding, physical space and the optimisation of public and private resources. Regional industry councils have appeared in OECD countries. Functioning as semi-private bodies gives them flexibility for recognition of demand and for greater co-operation among the different agents that participate, but also raises issues of accountability.

Canada is a good example of the use of partnerships. The 1% employer tax in Quebec has created councils of the social partners to discuss the

5. SSCs have replaced Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs). Their objectives are to ensure that employer and workforce needs are met. They will work in partnership (in England) with organisations such as Regional Development Agencies, the Learning and Skills Council, the Employment Service and the Connexions Service to ensure a coherent analytical and practical approach to skills shortages.

training needs of individual firms, and union members in particular seem happy to play a greater role in such deliberations. Saskatchewan has created industry-education councils, and provides many examples where the brokering function of regional colleges creates programmes that could not be developed without such co-operation. The National Literacy Secretariat has developed productive partnerships with provinces to support research and information-sharing. There are a number of education-community partnerships; for example, in New Brunswick adult basic education is organised through community colleges, which provides assistance in developing curriculum materials for transition into the college, while the adult basic education programmes themselves are provided by community-based organisations. Throughout Canada there are many efforts to link educational institutions, particularly through articulation and transfer agreements linking colleges and universities.

The challenge of decentralisation

As mentioned previously, the trend towards a holistic approach has been accompanied by a trend towards decentralisation in the design and provision of adult education in different countries. This can be due to a number of reasons. Because national governments have not focused on adult education, regional and local governments have developed those policies. In states characterised by a federal structure, the local level has been quite active in adult education policy development. The trends also follow a general trend to bring decision making closer, to adapt to local needs and requirements.

Decentralisation, which has accompanied the trend towards a holistic approach...

Decentralisation has made co-operation among different partners easier because of the scale. At a local level it is easier to bring together education and labour market authorities, together with health and social services working towards the same objectives. It is often the case that adult learning centres are at the same place, and that social service orientation can gear people towards training programmes. Centring the focus on adults has developed systems that offer integral services to adults, whether for health, training or other services.

... has made co-operation easier because of the scale...

There is a certain risk with decentralisation that equity objectives can be lost, and that quality control is at risk. In fact, this has taken place in a number of countries. In Canada for example, quality control and standards depend on the provinces. Some allow for complete market provision, and there have been problems of adult education centres closing and leaving the students halfway during the school year.

... but it can also put equity objectives at risk.

Sweden has experienced a process of decentralisation in its adult education policy. The earlier central steering system was replaced in 1991 by a system of management by objectives with a large degree of local autonomy. Municipalities were given responsibility for the organisation, personnel and school resources. The Swedish Riksdag and the government draw up the national goals and guidelines for child care, the school and adult education in Sweden. In the School Act, the curriculum and different ordinances there are provisions that steer the contents of child care and guarantee equivalent education irrespective of where in the country it is provided. As part of achieving national equivalence, the National Agency for Education is responsible for drawing up national syllabi and grade criteria (OECD, 2001c).

Spain has also finished a decentralisation process in education as well as in training policies. The state reserves the rights to safeguard the homogeneity and unity of the educational system by guaranteeing conditions of basic equality for all Spanish citizens. Autonomous regional governments can develop national regulations, regulate non-basic aspects of the educational system and develop the executive-administrative responsibilities. In terms of training policies, the Public Employment Service (*Instituto Nacional de Empleo*) manages employment policies and the regional governments, in turn, exercise a series of responsibilities in the management of labour policies within their respective territories, in accordance with the guidelines of co-operation established with the PES.

The role of the social partners

Social partners play a multiplicity of useful roles in both policy development and programme delivery.

The social partners have a crucial role to play in both policy development and programme delivery. They can contribute to identifying educational requirements and the development and provision of relevant education and training programmes. They can also help bring about closer co-ordination between adult learning and the labour market, by ensuring that qualifications obtained are useful and are recognised in the labour market. They can have a multiplicity of roles to play in terms of design, promotion, provision, consumption and negotiation.

There are different mechanisms for their involvement.

The extent to which governments include social partners in policy planning and design varies across countries (OECD, 2002b). Mechanisms include:

- The establishment of tripartite agreements related to training. Portugal and Spain have signed tripartite agreements that cover increasing learning opportunities for all.
- No specific arrangements but forums for participation at different levels, with committees and councils in which the social partners are present. Such is the case with Denmark, where they take responsibilities at all levels (although participation of social partners in counselling as regards contents of education programmes is generally limited to vocational education and training as well as CVT). In Norway, there is also strong tripartite co-operation; the Competence Reform is the outcome of a tripartite effort to raise competencies of individuals with all employers, employees and governments as active contributors in the process.
- Special consultative agencies or bodies. The National Advisory Council for Education and Training Targets (NACETT) in the UK is an example of an employer-led body that advises government on education and training policies.

They can have also an impact on policies without government participation, through bipartite agreements.

The social partners can also play an important role without government participation. They can have an impact on education and training policies through bipartite agreements or co-operation in bipartite bodies, as is the case, for example, of sector councils in Canada. Sector councils bring together representatives from business, labour, education and other professional groups, and have proved highly effective in addressing human resource issues in key sectors of the Canadian economy. They have been active in developing voluntary occupational and skills standards; but they have also

been active in training and school-to-work transitions. In Sweden as well, the social partners carry out considerable work with regard to outreach activities and orientation courses. This work has succeeded in motivating people that otherwise would not have taken on further studies.

4.4. Adult learning and policy making

Adult learning has become an important issue in policy making in recent years following the lifelong learning vision adopted by OECD countries. In fact, all reviewed countries have recently adopted some type of reform or have raised it as a policy issue. Some of the reforms are so recent that it is difficult to know how effective they may be. But most countries are indeed adopting a lifelong learning agenda for adults and are trying to broaden learning opportunities across the board. In this light, the development of coherent adult education policies is important for overall effectiveness.

A coherent policy specifically focused on adults has to take the special needs of adults into consideration as the main objective. It has to take into consideration the fact that adults are most often working or have busy lifestyles, and they need time off from their employment or extra time. This implies flexibility in schedules, in provision and in the recognition of prior learning experiences, be it formal or non-formal. Supply should be available in evenings and weekends, or provide for time off from work, and the possibility of part-time studies should be allowed. Policy also has to take into consideration that enterprises offer a large proportion of training opportunities to adults, so it is important to strengthen public-private co-operation in this area. For those who are not working, it would mean providing the financial assistance to cover living expenses. If they have a family, it might require some support services for child care. It would also imply other complementary assistance to return to education, such as guidance and counselling and assistance with personal situations that might arise.

From a broader policy perspective, and keeping the special needs of adults in mind, it is really a matter of making the proper choices to attain effective results. Among the conditions that need to be met to have a coherent adult learning policy, one could include:

- The existence of a consensus on the need to invest in human resource development and especially on adult learning, from potential learners and the social partners to policy makers.
- Financial commitment to accompany the implementation of adult learning policies.
- The existence of a structure that includes responsibilities for adult learning policy making and for effective provision of adult education, either centrally planned or decentralised. It is also important to include possibilities of co-operation for the different actors involved as well as formal channels of participation or consultation with partners that may be involved in other policies, such as employment, social, economic or health authorities.
- The establishment of priorities among the different kinds of adult learning, such as literacy, basic educational attainment or IT skills for example, and greater public funding channelled to them.

Adopting a lifelong learning agenda for adults entails developing coherent adult education policies...

... that take their special needs into consideration as the main objective.

Different conditions for a coherent adult learning policy...

... such as a financial commitment...

*... the measurement
of efficiency...*

*... or the integration in
general education and
training policies.*

- The definition of the kinds of institutions that provide different types of adult learning and mechanisms to ensure their quality.
- Special provision and support, financial or other, for population groups with special needs.
- The inclusion of measurement of efficiency and outcomes and the evaluation of policies, as it is important for accountability of the system and for continued investment and support.
- The integration of adult learning in general education and training policies.

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning

CANADA

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make building a skilled workforce a national effort • Focus on post-secondary policies, including adult education • Focus on training for the unemployed and employed • Focus on increasing literacy levels 	<p><i>Learning and skills agenda at national level</i> (2001) and <i>Knowledge Matters</i> (2002):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan to increase by 1 million the number of adult learners within 5 years • Help adults who have difficulty finding time or resources to improve their skills • Individual incentive mechanisms already assist those in need • Improve the loans available to part-time students, so more workers can learn while they earn • Give provinces a major role in providing post-secondary education (PSE) and delivery of Canada Student Loans Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Federal Government: Human Resource Development Canada • National Literacy Secretariat • CMEC (Council of Ministers of Education of Canada) • Provincial governments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong focus on post-secondary education • Employment-related training • Vocational training for the unemployed (Employment Insurance System) • Adult Basic Education, including literacy • Special Adult Basic Education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – for minorities – for aboriginal people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong focus on individual initiative and choice mechanisms • Strong variation of levels of spending across provinces • Student loans for post-secondary education • Skills, loans and grants • Employment Insurance System (funding for short-term training) • Employer tax 1% of wage bill (in Quebec) • Public post-secondary institutions • Federal government has role in PSE in providing indirect investment, financial assistance (support for research and innovation, tax measures, block funding through Canada Health and Social Transfer, CHST) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public and private post-secondary institutions (community and university colleges) • Community-based organisations • Partnerships of all types across public and private sector • Industry councils, etc. • Commercial institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research

Table 4.2. **Different country approaches to adult learning** (*cont.*)
DENMARK

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide vocational and personal qualifications • Provide adequate, relevant adult education and continuing training supply to all adults at all levels, from the low skilled to university graduates 	<p><i>Denmark as a pioneer country and 10-item plan</i> (1995):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish numerical objectives • Establish policy of free admission to training courses for all • Base provision on demand <p><i>Adult Education Reform</i> (2000):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tie continuing training and further education programmes into a single, coherent, transparent adult education system • Hold each institution responsible for the quality of its education • Ensure that all have broad supply • Orient public funding to achieving formally recognised competencies for those with low levels of education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of education • Ministry of Labour (AMU) • Social partners (tripartite agreements) • Decentralised administration of adult education for the unemployed • New interministerial council for advice to Ministry of Education, Labour and Trade and Industry • Shared responsibility between state and local government 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal recognition of competencies • Preparatory Adult Education (FVU): basic skills in reading, writing and numeracy • Adult Education System: including Basic Adult Education, qualifying vocational education for adults, and three advanced higher levels • Vocational education • Adult education for unemployed • Employment-based training • Teaching for the handicapped 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taximeter funding for education institutions • Public financing of employee training leave • Financing for the unemployed by the Public Employment Service or the municipality • Public provision of training for employed persons, combined with user payment [except Continuing Vocational Training (CVT) or Vocational Education and Training (VET)] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Folk high schools • Day folk high schools • AMU • General adult education centres (VUC) • Open education (vocational education schools and colleges) • University extension courses • Distance and e-learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveys • Taximeter system • New reform with set targets and effects analysed and measured at all levels

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning (cont.)

FINLAND

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide learning content that supports the development of personality, consolidates democratic values, maintains social cohesion and promotes innovation and productivity • Target those who lack initial education or have a poor secondary education • Focus on constructing individual educational paths for adults 	<p><i>The Joy of Learning</i> (1997):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprehensive reform of legislation on basic, secondary and adult education based on national regulation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – reinforcement of the foundations of learning – development of a broad spectrum of learning opportunities – public recognition of prior learning and experience – information and support for constructing learning paths – updating the skills of teachers and instructors – a comprehensive policy for the promotion of learning • Alternation and study leave • Increased powers of education providers applying equally to municipal, state and private education • Labour market training guided by the T&E Centres 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Education: learning for change or general skills • Ministry of Labour: learning for jobs • Participation of social partners at different levels • Municipalities: the main maintainers of institutions • The labour market departments of the Employment and Economic Development Centres (T&E Centres) (combined regional units of the Ministry of Trade and Industry, the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry) for labour market training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Universal and free provision of adult certificate- or diploma-oriented education • Adults able to study in the same institutions as young people for same qualifications • Specific adult education structure for adult-oriented qualifications, upgrading of skills and competencies and leisure activities • Alternation leave: employee on leave from work covered by an unemployed job seeker • Study Leave Act enabling employees to take part in full-time studies • Informal learning recognition through competence-based examinations to obtain vocational qualifications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public funding of certificate- and diploma-oriented education • “Mixed model” financing in additional vocational training • State subsidy to major providers of additional vocational training (60% state budget for self-motivated additional vocational training) • State appropriations to higher and liberal education institutions for specific education and training (40%) • Education and training insurance scheme as financial aid to adults during their studies • Obligatory financial contribution by companies for individual educational leave managed by social partners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large variety of adult education and training institutions • Adults entitled to participate in the same initial vocational programmes leading to a qualification as young people • Special vocational adult education centres and national specialised institutions • For tertiary education: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – continuing education centres – open university – open polytechnics • Liberal education institutions • Individual education leave 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveys used to plan the offer of education and training

Table 4.2. **Different country approaches to adult learning** (*cont.*)
NORWAY

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise the education level of the entire adult population • Meet the needs of the labour market for skills and competencies • Satisfy the needs of individuals for personal and professional development 	<p><i>Competence Reform</i> (1999)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long-term initiative: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – expand learning opportunities for all adults – produce highly skilled workforce – develop lifelong learning strategy – improve interaction between education and workplace – recognise the workplace as a place for learning – increase flexibility and use of ICT • Right to basic education • Right to upper-secondary education • Work on non-formal learning assessment • Right to study leave • Tax-free education • Reorganisation of the public education system • Motivation, guidance and information project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Education (KUF), responsible for educational system and national educational policy • Ministry of Labour and Government Administration (AAD), responsible for employment policy • Ministry of Trade and Industry (NHD), responsible for the tools of industrial policy • Municipalities and county municipalities, responsible for providing formal adult education • Social partners (strong role) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compulsory education, including primary and secondary education • Special needs education • Education for immigrants • Adult learning in NGOs • Labour market training for the unemployed, focusing on immigrants, young and older adults, long-term unemployed, individuals at risk and with low levels of educational attainment • Training in the enterprise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial assistance (loans and grants) for most types of education and training, especially for primary up to upper secondary education • Free tuition for primary and secondary education, labour market training, for immigrants and higher education • Block grants to municipalities (central government) • Some grants to private institutions and associations in co-operation with public or NGOs • Tax exemption for employer-financed education • Study leave and employer-financed education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Municipalities: compulsory education • County municipalities: upper secondary education • Folk high schools • Institutions of higher education (further and continuing education) • Private providers • Study associations: tradition of popular enlightenment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future policy based on analysis of the need for resources in the workplace and in society • Different research institutes

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning (cont.)

PORTUGAL

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve competitiveness and social cohesion • Fight against low skills and educational attainment • Adopt active labour market policies and training to combat unemployment 	<p><i>Strategy for the development of adult education (1998) and Recurrent education: Evaluation report (1998)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of ANEFA <p><i>Agreement on employment, labour, education and training policy (2001):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote quality training • Consolidate a National System of Certification • Consolidate an adult learning system with informal and recurrent education • Develop enterprise training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ANEFA: education and training (Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labour and Solidarity) • Community institutions • Social partners • IEFP: training for employment • Establishment of partnerships • Regional development plans • Social partners (strong role) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EFA and initial vocational education for adults with low qualifications • Saber +: skills enhancement in specific sectors • Basic and secondary education • Literacy courses by EFA for LTU, handicapped, immigrants and those close to exclusion • Open University • IEFP: training for unemployment • Right of working individuals to a minimum of at least 20 certified hours of training • Vocational training: retraining 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indirect tax levy for training: 4.2% of the social security budget, financed by a 33% tax on wages • Free provision • European Social Fund (ESF) (important role) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Web of public provision: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – adult education schools – vocational training centres • Regular schools for basic and secondary education • Arrangements with private institutions • Neighbourhood organisations and NGOs provide literacy and basic education programmes • System of recognition, validation and certification of competencies (CRVCC) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INOFOR: diagnosis for training

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning (cont.)

SPAIN

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide adults with access to education at all levels • Help them acquire or improve professional qualifications and the capacity to participate in the social, cultural, political, and economic areas of life • Establish their right to education, vocational training and self-advancement through that learning, work, and access to cultural resources • In vocational training, place a greater emphasis on labour market insertion 	<p>LOGSE (1990): provision of primary and secondary education to the adult population</p> <p><i>The National Vocational Training Programme</i> (1998-2002):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articulates a comprehensive system for formal vocational training, for the unemployed and the employed • Creates a National Qualifications System with participation of the regional autonomies <p><i>New Vocational Training and Qualifications Bill</i> (2002)</p> <p><i>III National Agreement for Continuous Training</i> (2000-2004): fund continuous training through a levy (tripartite agreement)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New Royal Decree Law to carry out open call exams for compulsory secondary education • Specific measures by regional governments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports: basic adult education, secondary education certificate, vocational training, and social guarantee programmes, or official language classes • INEM, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs: vocational training • Social partners (through the Tripartite Foundation for Training at Work, previously FORCEM) • Recently decentralised system: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – regional autonomies – local governments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic adult education. • Primary and secondary education degrees and personal development • Social guarantee programmes • Official language programmes • Spanish language for immigrants • Education in prisons • Vocational training programmes for the unemployed • Occupational training (craft school workshops, trade schools and employment workshops) • Continuing vocational training for employed workers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free provision of adult education for specific groups • Education dependent on the educational administrations financed through the state or regional government's general budgets and the ESF • Subsidies to private training centres • Training activities for the unemployed and employed financed primarily through the vocational training fee paid by the businesses and workers • Contributions from the European Social Fund and regional governments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific adult education institutions for adult basic education and literacy programmes • Regular education centres cater to adults • Subsidies to private training centres (collaborative centres) • National vocational occupational training centres • "Aula Mentor", open, free training system carried out over the Internet • Education in Prison • National Distance University (UNED) • Catalonia Open University (UOC) • University extension education aimed at older individuals • Education TV • NGOs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education inspectorate at national level

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning (cont.)

SWEDEN

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support adult learning through redistribution and growth • Bridge educational gaps, promote economic growth, strengthen democracy and satisfy the wishes of individuals • Popular adult education: promote social well-being and strengthen democratic values and cultural life • Focus on the basis of individual needs 	<p><i>The Adult Education Initiative</i> (1997-2002): raise the educational attainment of adults who lack knowledge on the secondary level with flexible provision of upper secondary education (90 000 places annually)</p> <p><i>New parliament goals and strategies for adult learning</i> (2001):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on more flexible support for individual learning, adjusting content and form to more individual needs • Develop competence in industry • Provide a broad range of financial assistance, including special grants for the unemployed and special study assistance for those who take a leave of absence from work • Advanced vocational education: since 2002, a regular part of the education and training system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Education • National Agency for Education • The Swedish Agency for Advanced Vocational Education • The Swedish Agency for Flexible Learning • The Swedish National Council of Adult Education • Municipalities (strong role in selection and delivery) 	<p>Strong public adult education and training system:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adult basic education corresponding to compulsory and upper secondary level • Advanced vocational education • Popular adult education • Labour market training • In-service training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study allowances for university, university college or other post-secondary education, folk high schools, municipal adult education and other forms equivalent to compulsory and secondary school • New study grant (2003) for those with greatest needs and disabilities • Labour market policy financed by the state educational grants to support participants while studying • Part of in-service training and competence development in working life funded by EU structural funds • New state funding for municipal adult education and folk high schools for 2003-2005 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Municipal adult education (<i>Komvux</i>) • Adult education for those with functional disabilities (<i>Särvux</i>) • Swedish tuition for immigrants (<i>Sfi</i>) • Advanced vocational training (<i>KY</i>) • Folk high schools • Study circles • Labour market training carried out by private and public educational providers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow-up and evaluation of publicly funded adult education • Different agencies responsible for the various forms of education

Table 4.2. **Different country approaches to adult learning** (*cont.*)
SWITZERLAND

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Evaluation measurement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Federal policy emphasis: develop skills for occupational purposes • For the cantons: view adult learning as a whole, without distinguishing goals • Vocational training: focus on qualifications for professional activity • Efforts under way to develop a system conducive to occupational and personal development as well as social and occupational integration, to ensure equal opportunities to regions and genders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Federal structure and principle of subsidiarity in adult learning • Federal government to promote continuing and further training when cantons do not do so by law • Active labour market policies: training for the unemployed • Funding of infrastructure and teacher training at learning centres for the development of new technologies • “Learnfestival” to promote access and participation • EduQua: quality assurance scheme introduced • Modularisation of vocational courses, incentives for staff certification and amendments to legislation • Upcoming Law on vocational education (nLFP) to weaken the distinction between vocational education and general adult education • Cantons: a diversity of policies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confederation in charge of vocational training • State Secretariat for Economic Affairs (Seco) in charge of training for the unemployed • Federal Office for Professional Education and Technology (OFFT) in charge of initial and continuing vocational training • General adult education attributed to the federal Office of Culture • Important role of the private sector and not-for-profit institutions of public utility • Cantons in charge of adult education have different approaches: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – encourage or support continuing training by subsidising groups, associations, or secondary and vocational schools catering to adult learners – financial resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New technologies • Languages • Diploma courses (<i>maturité</i> or higher education entrance examination for adults) • Federal certificates and diplomas • Secondary and upper-secondary education • Enterprise training • Leisure courses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Broad variety of arrangements • Financing by the enterprises and individuals • Public financing spread out across the confederation and cantons • Confederation funds the distribution of grants to those who want to finish secondary or tertiary education with cantons, establishing their conditions • Subsidies to training firms for the unemployed • Financing of material and teacher training • Other financing to private institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Private training institutions or commercial schools • Privately run, state-approved institutions and (not-for-profit) associations • Denominational, trade union, political or ethical institutions • Local associations, community groups and third-sector enterprises • Popular universities • Private institutions with public objectives • Migros “club schools” • Secondary schools • Universities • Employers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regular Surveys by Federal Statistical Office (OFS) on participation in adult education

Table 4.2. Different country approaches to adult learning (cont.)

UNITED KINGDOM

Objectives	Measure or reform	Main actors in policy design and implementation	Content or forms of adult education	Financing	Delivery methods	Outcomes measurement
<p>Lifelong learning agenda:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that everyone of working age and beyond has the skills to meet needs of employment and to lead rewarding and fulfilling lives • Provide higher level skills needed for a successful innovative knowledge-based economy • Drive up standards of teaching and learning across education and training 	<p>The <i>Learning Age Green Paper</i> (1998): sets out the vision for lifelong learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>White paper learning to succeed</i> (1999): sets out reforms to the delivery framework, including the establishment of Learning and Skills Council (LSC) for strategic planning for lifelong learning, to stimulate demand for and participation in learning • Joint White paper with DTI <i>Opportunity for All in a World of Change</i> (2001): provide people with skills to adapt to globalisation • <i>Skills for Life</i> (2001): national strategy to improve adult literacy and numeracy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Department of Education and Skills (DfES): responsibilities in, <i>inter alia</i>, lifelong learning • Department for Work and Pensions (DWP): responsibility for, <i>inter alia</i>, helping unemployed • Learning and Skills Council (LSC) responsible for all post-16 education and training • Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) • Large array of players, such as the Campaign for learning and the Further Education Development Agency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lifelong learning • Literacy and basic skills • Flexible learning opportunities • Online learning in IT skills, business skills, basic skills and multimedia • Further education • Academic or vocational training • NVQs • IT literacy • Short training courses • Labour market training for the unemployed • Skills upgrading for those in work 	<p>Financial support mechanisms in process of reform:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial support to students through income contingent loans (ICL) • Individual Learning Accounts: grant given to the first million individuals opening a special bank account for vocational training (suspended) • Further education: system to reward colleges and other providers for taking students from poor neighbourhoods • Tuition-free remission • Loans and grants • Free provision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open University • Ufi/Learn Direct distance learning platform • Residential colleges • National Extension College (distance learning) • BBC Education • Further education colleges • Investors in People (standard for companies with active learning activities) • Local infrastructure for adult information, advice and guidance (IAG) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies and evaluation of results of programmes

Note: For more information concerning specific country approaches please refer to Background Reports and Country Notes.

Source: Thematic Review on Adult Learning Country Background Reports and Country Notes (www.oecd.org/edu/adultlearning).

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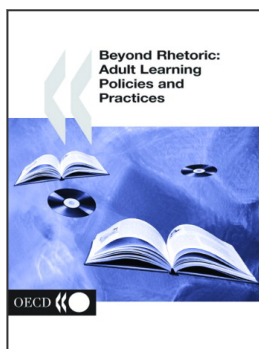
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From:
Beyond Rhetoric
Adult Learning Policies and Practices

Access the complete publication at:
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264199446-en>

Please cite this chapter as:

OECD (2003), "Overview of Country Policies and Practices", in *Beyond Rhetoric: Adult Learning Policies and Practices*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264199446-6-en>

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