

ILME

**Adult Learners' Education and Training in Six European Countries  
(Bulgaria, Estonia, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, UK)**

**Towards a Comparative Analysis**

*Paolo Landri and Giuseppe Ponzini,  
IRPPS-CNR*

January 2005

## Index

<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Some key figures of the countries .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Policies of Adults' Education and Training and Lifelong Learning.....</b>	<b>6</b>
Scope .....	6
Most important target groups.....	7
The plurality of provisions.....	9
The range of providers.....	10
<b>Coordinating policies .....</b>	<b>12</b>
Bodies of Regulations.....	12
Partnership .....	14
Guidance .....	15
Certification of learning and quality assurance.....	15
Funding Lifelong Learning .....	16
<b>Managers of Learning.....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>Debates and future challenges .....</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>Appendix.....</b>	<b>26</b>
Best Practices .....	26
Annex.....	27

## Introduction

This report will present a comparative analysis of six European countries (Bulgaria, Estonia, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, UK) regarding several characteristics of the interorganizational fields of adults' education and training. Here, the comparison has been carried out for developing the background of the ILME project. The purpose is the clarification and the mutual understanding of the "core dynamics" of the interorganizational field of adult education of different countries facing the implementation of lifelong learning perspective. In that respect, the results of this analysis are intended to be helpful (we hope) for practical goals and, in particular, for the improvement of the design of the framework of courses to be delivered at the local and at the international level.

The methodological tool for collecting data has been an open-ended questionnaire about several dimensions:

- The *policies of adult learner education and training*;
- The *settings of organizational field of adult learner education and training*;
- The *profiles for managers of learning*;
- The *controversies and the emerging debate*.

The respondents to the questions have been the partners of the projects that provide the data about the implementation processes. It has been suggested to limit the possible answers to the questions for gathering essential information. However, and not surprisingly, the countries reports have some differences in length. The differences, in some way, can be considered as the consequence of the efforts for combining in practice the request to be to the point, while at the same time, to furnish the relevant information, facing the complexity of the themes. Of course, differences in responding can be accounted for diversities in styles and approaches to the arguments to be confronted with. Those differences represented the major resource for this summary we supplemented with some references to researches and reflections on the same topics.

In the following we will focus attention primarily on the sample of countries with some basic figures. Then we will develop our summary on the responses to the questionnaire, letting emerge the similarities as well as the differences along the dimensions of the country reports. We will see, in particular, how the adults' education and training in different countries is interested by a *process of de-differentiation* that leads to a continuing process of shifting boundaries of "traditional" institutional domains (Ragatt, Edwards, Small, 1996; Edwards, 1997; Kuhn and Sultana, 2005). The key point is that knowledge and learning are gaining a notable relevance in contemporary societies. Some effects of this importance are, on one hand, the diffusion of their domains and practices, and on the other hand, the loss of their comfortable organizational settings. That spreading produces some uniformity in the dominant institutional rhetoric, indisputably characterized by lifelong discourses and policies, while at the same time, the concrete pathways of different countries can be useful to understand the variety of the national responses.

## Some key figures of the countries

The six countries of the project are quite different regarding to their demographic and economic structure and their national welfare state model. Nevertheless, and to some extent, they also offer a good summary of the EU context and of its recent developments. By referring to some key figures, we will start the comparison among the countries according to several dimensions: the population, the wealth, the social expenditure, the labour market situation, the educational level and expenditure, the national welfare models.

As to the population, we have three large countries (Germany, United Kingdom and Italy) and a middle size country (Netherlands), all included among those that have been EU member States for some time. Then we have a small country (Estonia) representative of the new member States, and another middle size one (Bulgaria), representative of the future steps of the EU enlargement process. According to Eurostat<sup>1</sup>, total population in 2003 was 82.5 millions in Germany, 59.3 in the United Kingdom, 57.3 in Italy, 16.2 in the Netherlands, 7.9 in Bulgaria and 1.4 in Estonia.

From the point of view of the economical structure, and referring to GDP per capita index (EU25=100), we have two “rich countries”, where the GDP index has increased between 1996 and 2002: the Netherlands (120.5 to 122) and the United Kingdom (110.3 to 117.8); two “rich countries” where, on the contrary, the GDP index has decreased: Germany (118.4 to 108.7) and Italy (115 to 109); yet two comparatively “poor countries” are experiencing a quick economic growth process: Estonia (37.2 to 46.6) and Bulgaria (27 to 28.8 between 2000 and 2002).

The social expenditure, as a percentage of GDP, has been generally decreasing during the second half of the nineties, particularly in the countries where it was previously higher. Nevertheless, in 2000 (see Annex, Table A.1), it remains higher in Germany (28.5), United Kingdom (25.8) and the Netherlands (25.7) than in Italy (24.3); and it is significantly lower (but increasing) in Bulgaria (17.9) and Estonia (15.2). These differences become clearer using per capita data (Eur per capita in 2000): the social expenditure is 7,302 Eur in Germany, 7,083 in the Netherlands, 6,923 in the United Kingdom, and only 5,096 in Italy, below the EU15 average (6,175 Eur).

The total employment rate in 2003 (see Annex, Table B.1) is higher in the Netherlands (with the highest EU25 male employment rate) and United Kingdom, relatively high in Germany and Estonia, and lower in Italy (where we find a very low female employment rate) and in Bulgaria.

The weakness of the labour market in Italy and Bulgaria seems to be confirmed by data on employment rate of older workers (see Annex, Table B.2). The total unemployment rate in 2003 is very low in the Netherlands and in the United Kingdom, it is close to the EU25 average in Italy and Germany, and it is higher in Estonia and Bulgaria (see Annex, Table C.1). However, if we consider the unemployment rate of population aged less than 25 years, we find a better scenario in the Netherlands (the lowest EU25 rate in 2003), in Germany and

---

<sup>1</sup> The source of figures reported in this section is Eurostat, unlike differently specified.

in the United Kingdom (with rates significantly below the EU25 and the EU15 average); but we also find a worrying situation in Italy, Bulgaria and Estonia (the rate is about ¼ of population aged less than 25 years, see Annex, Table C.2).

The balance of the labour market in the Netherlands and in the United Kingdom and – on the contrary – its lack of balance in Italy and Bulgaria, are confirmed both by data on the long-term unemployment and on the unemployment rate by level of education (see Annex, Tables C.3 and C.4).

Some data on education (see Annex, Tables D.1 to D.5) show clearly that “in the EU southern countries, levels of education are still relatively low. Percentage of people who did not successfully complete upper secondary education in Italy, Portugal and Spain are above 40% for the 25 to 34 age group and above 75% for the 55 to 64 age group”; and that in new member States “almost all percentages for all age groups are lower than the EU average, suggesting an higher educational level”<sup>2</sup>. Particularly interesting for our project are the data regarding the share of population aged 25 to 64 participating in education and training (Table 1). United Kingdom (21.3% in 2003) and the Netherlands (16.5%) reach the highest rates. On the contrary, Italy (4.7%) and especially Bulgaria (1.4%) show the lower participation. Germany and Estonia are in an intermediate position (about 6%), but still below the EU average.

**Table 1 - % of the adult population aged 25 to 64 participating in education and training**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	5,2	6,0	5,6	6,4	4,8	5,6
Estonia	6,0	6,2	4,1	5,2	7,6	7,1
Italy	5,5	4,7	5,5	4,2	5,4	5,2
Netherlands	15,6	16,5	16,4	16,2	14,7	17,0
United Kingdom	21,1	21,3	17,9	17,6	24,4	25,3
Bulgaria	1,4*	1,4	1,5*	1,2	1,4*	1,6
EU 15	8,5	10,0	8,0	9,2	8,9	10,8
EU 25	7,9	9,3	7,5	8,6	8,4	10,0
Highest Value (EU25)	21,6 (S)	34,2 (S)	19,2 (S)	31,3 (S)	24,4 (UK)	37,3 (S)
Lowest Value (EU25)	1,1 (EL)	3,7 (EL, P)	1,1 (EL)	3,3 (LT)	1,1 (EL)	3,6 (MT)

Source: Eurostat

\* = Year 2001

When it comes the national welfare state models, accordingly to a conventional approach, we can say that Germany, United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Italy reflect the core model of the European welfare systems: the corporatist one, primarily based on employed, looked upon both as the main target group and the basic contributory source with respect to social policies. In this sense, none of the six countries follows the universalistic welfare model, typically diffused in the Scandinavian area and established on the criterion of citizenship

<sup>2</sup> See CEDEFOP, *Key Figures on Vocational Education and Training*, 2003.

rights. However, assuming further recently introduced theoretical frameworks, we can suggest a more detailed analysis.

According to the explanatory scheme proposed by Esping-Andersen (1990)<sup>3</sup> we can distinguish a conservative welfare-state regime (in which corporatist organization and etatism are especially pronounced), a liberal regime (with the prominence of means-tested targeting and with private-market reliance) and a socialist regime (where universalism and equality are leading principles of welfare-state solidarity). In this perspective, Germany and Italy are characterized as conservative models, with a medium degree of liberal attributes in the case of Italy, and of liberal and socialist attributes in the case of Germany. United Kingdom is at an intermediate position between liberal and socialist regimes. The Netherlands are included among socialist regimes (with Scandinavian countries) although a medium degree of conservative and liberal attributes.

Another classification, proposed by Ferrera (1998)<sup>4</sup>, refers to four social “families” in the European setting: the Scandinavian (well developed universalistic welfare model), the central European (well developed corporatist welfare model), the Anglo-Saxon (intermediate between universalistic and corporatist welfare model) and the Mediterranean (low developed corporatist welfare model). We can add to this scheme one more group, namely referring to new EU member States, in which we are facing the transition from an egalitarian (communist) welfare regime to a more market-oriented one, and in which, anyway, the social protection system is now comparatively weak. By assuming, and partially merging these reflections, we can say that: United Kingdom is representative of the Anglo-Saxon welfare model; Germany, of the Central European model; Italy, of the Mediterranean model; Estonia and Bulgaria, of the Eastern European model; the Netherlands, in some respect, could be referred to the Scandinavian model.

## **Policies of Adults’ Education and Training and Lifelong Learning**

### Scope

An effect of the de-differentiation drive in adults’ education and training is the decline of the traditional model of education and training. That model attributed a major role to formal learning and, accordingly, to formal schooling from primary to higher education, establishing clear boundaries between the level of education and between education and non-education. In a perspective of Lifelong Learning, we have a redefinition of these boundaries in order to include learning throughout the lifecycle. This implies a restructuring and, in particular, the broadening of the scope of the national policies.

In table 2, we have collected the main important policies regarding the implementation of lifelong learning strategies. Those policies concern the traditional formal educational organizations, but open new perspectives of inclusion of other settings where a learning opportunities and processes can be given (workplaces, leisure time etc.) along the life span with an increasing attention to the demand-side of adult education and training.

---

<sup>3</sup> See Esping-Andersen, G., *The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism*, Polity Press, Cambridge, 1990.

<sup>4</sup> See Ferrera, M., *Le trappole del welfare*, Il Mulino, Bologna, 1998.

The answers to the claims for a lifelong perspective follow different pathways that depend on the national features. Here, some common themes overlap with particularities of each country. It can be noted as to commonality how the discourse has been usually deployed in two dimensions: the former is about the “skills raising” for foster the competitiveness of a regions or of a country, while the latter concerns the question of participation and the integration in the society linking these arguments with the classic issues of citizenship and democracy.

With the respect to the legislation, some countries (like for example Estonia, The Netherlands) have a national act regarding adult education that represents a point of reference for the organization of the domain. Alternatively, others countries (Germany, UK, Italy and Bulgaria) address the field through diverse legislative sources that operate at the different normative level (national and particularly at the regional level) without the convergence in a unique regulative framework.

### Most important target groups

The mentioned target groups of adults’ education and training are varied, but quite similar across the countries. The most important target groups, in that respect, are:

- Unemployed (long term and short term);
- Employees with poor or without qualifications;
- Employees with the needs to keep up-to date their “stock of knowledge”;
- Individual returning to work after a long or a brief period of absence form labour market (i.e. women after being a long time home after a child);

<b>Table 2. Main policies regarding Lifelong Learning</b>	
Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Law on Higher Education (1997; 1999)</li> <li>• National plan for economic development 2001</li> <li>• National action plan on employment 2001;</li> <li>• The Labour Code (2001)</li> <li>• National strategy on human resources development 2006;</li> <li>• National and regional projects and programmes on employment and professional qualification</li> </ul>
Estonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adult Education Act (1993)</li> <li>• Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act (1993)</li> <li>• The Universities Act (1995)</li> <li>• The Vocational Education Institutions Act (1998; 2001)</li> <li>• The Applied Higher Education Institutions Act (1998)</li> <li>• The Private Education Institutions Act (1998)</li> <li>• The Social Protection of the Unemployed Act (2000)</li> <li>• The Employment Service Act (2000)</li> <li>• The Rural Development and Agricultural Market Regulation Act (2000)</li> </ul>
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reform Project for Vocational Training – Flexible Structures and Modern Occupations (1997)</li> <li>• Lifelong Learning for Everyone (2001)</li> <li>• Jointly agree strategy on L3 (2004)</li> </ul>
Italy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enterprise Training Plan, 1993</li> <li>• Agreement for Occupation, 1996</li> <li>• Act n. 196/1997 (“Pacchetto Treu”)</li> <li>• School Autonomy (Act 59/1997)</li> <li>• DLeg 112/98 (Decentralization)</li> <li>• Reform of University (2000)</li> <li>• Reform of Social Assistance (Act 328/2000)</li> <li>• Training leaves for workers and non workers (Act 53/2000)</li> <li>• Reform of Education and Training (Act 53/2003)</li> </ul>
The Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adult and Vocational Education Act (WEB, 1996)</li> <li>• Skills Recognition (EVC, 2003 ?)</li> <li>• Taskforce life long learning (2004 ?)</li> </ul>
UK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supply-side policies (past two decades)</li> <li>• ILA (Individual Learning Account, 1998)</li> <li>• ELD for SME’s (Employee led Development, 2001 ?)</li> <li>• Skills Strategy Whitepaper of 2003</li> <li>• Trades Union Learning Representatives’?</li> <li>• Learning Brokers?</li> </ul>

The only notable difference regards the immigrants, that are relevant in case of Netherlands, Germany and, recently, in Italy. Here, understandably the expressed need is for learning language, but even for improve the integration within the society of migration as well as for increasing the chances of a “good” occupation.



However, the passage to a lifelong perspective does not seem to have a relevant impact on the expansion of target groups for the sample of our countries as, in some way the dominant discourse would imply, with the exception of Italy, where there has been recently several efforts to expand the demand and supply for different kind of target groups.

Finally, the question of target groups raises the issue of the participation/non participation to adults' education and training, i.e. between those who are the current beneficiaries of the initiatives and those who should be the "real" beneficiaries. This question seems particularly important for UK and Italy, where there is a potential groups of people that is difficult to engage in any educational and training initiatives even if they present an high social risks of social exclusion.

### The plurality of provisions

The supply-side of adults' education and training of the countries is plural and differentiated. This, in some way, suggests similar movements towards *pluralistic, flexible decentralized systems* capable to follow and adapt the mutable demand of learning from the individuals and the organizations. In any case, it is simpler to describe the formal initiatives; less clear are the information regards the provision coming from the non-formal and informal settings.

The plurality regards the range from the public as well as from the private sphere, where particularly important are the non-profit organizations (third sector and NGO's). Yet, another important aspect of the plurality is the diversities of objectives that can be the orientation of the delivery in this field. The typology of provision, in that case, should include compensatory education, general education, vocational training, continuing vocational training, tertiary education, special programs, distance education. The claim for raising skills to sustain competitiveness of countries, however, assigns a major relevance to vocational training and, consequently to strengthen the respective supply. There is some evidence, accordingly, of a move towards "economic instrumentalism" in case of UK, but, in some way explicitly or implicitly stated in other countries report (see for example The Netherlands, but in Italy too).

In addition, a keyword, in that respect, is "flexibility" in the design and the delivery of the courses. This leads to plan a provision that can match the needs and the time period individuals and institutions intend to devote to the carrying out of educational and training initiative. Here, the flexibility implies the modularisation of the courses and the scheduling of the educational activities in suitable time period for adult learners (single day, evening course, combination of daily course and self learning, see for example the report).

The distance education supported by new technologies of information and communication seems to acquire a particular interest in that field. Here, the new arrangements promise a notable flexibility for adult learners and are attracting relevant economic investments in the countries of our sample. This regards Bulgaria, for example, where e-learning has received recently a notable interest, UK (some experiences are reported in the answers to the questionnaires, like the initiatives of Learn Direct) and the other countries of our projects.

## The range of providers

The plurality of provisions is accompanied, and, in some way, solicited by the range of providers that work in that interorganizational field. In table 3, we have grouped the listed providers for each country: it is easy to notice that the organizational range is quite wide. We have, in fact, an organizational heterogeneity depending on the size, the institutional domains (public and private), the geographical level of activities (national, regional, local). Provisionally, with respect to the mission, it is possible to distinguish, at the least three types:

- Some providers whose exclusive and *dominant* organizational mission is “education and training” (for example, the 62 Folk High Schools of Estonia);
- Some others that *frequently* are involved in educational and training activities, but whose mission includes social policies (educational services of unions or charity organisations in Germany for instance),
- Some providers whose organizational mission is intended to other areas of activities and that sometimes *occasionally*, but sometimes more frequently start educational and training activities, (private companies in general of all the countries).

That classification can be useful to shed some lights about the difference in the attention devoted to education and training and, in particular, in accepting the pervasiveness of learning as the lifelong learning model implies. A dominant attention to the specificity of the organizational missions could represent, for example, an obstacle to a more comprehensive approach of the link between the spheres of work, learning and life.

The relationships among the providers are both competitive and collaborative, with the exception of Estonia where the prevailing relationship is competitive. The discourse of lifelong learning seems to imply the development of an *educational market*. However, at the same time the process of de-differentiation seems to be accompanied by the setting up of *networks of organizations*. In some way, the competition appears to be very intense among the private providers and more limited among the public institutions (see the cases of Netherlands and Germany). Nevertheless, it has been reported the establishment of strategies of networking between the private providers, as is the case of Bulgaria, where the National Association of Licensed Vocational Training Centres that has, among others objectives, the task to guarantee fair competition and rules for conflict resolution for the associates. Of course, the overall strategy of the governments in that field can accentuate the market-like or the networks-like regulations. In Germany and in Italy, for instance, there are clear preferences towards the deployment of network mode of governance (the “myth of the network” and the modernist dream of the integration among the policies).

<b>Table 3. Providers of Adults' Education and Training</b>	
Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Professional schools</li> <li>• Universities – departments for further education</li> <li>• NGO's</li> <li>• Private firms for training and human resource development</li> <li>• Licensed centers for vocational education</li> </ul>
Estonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 32 evening schools and adults' public schools</li> <li>• 80 vocational education institutions with departments for adults</li> <li>• 62 Folk High Schools</li> <li>• 56 High school adult education departments and Open Universities</li> <li>• 320 others, incl. private and municipal training centers</li> </ul>
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• University</li> <li>• Technical university (<i>Fachhochschule</i>)</li> <li>• Evening school (<i>Volkshochschule</i>)</li> <li>• Chambers of industry and commerce (<i>IHK</i>)</li> <li>• Chambers of crafts (<i>Handwerkskammer</i>)</li> <li>• Vocational schools</li> <li>• Educational services of unions or charity organisations</li> <li>• Municipal adult education centres</li> <li>• Private organizations</li> </ul>
Italy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CTPs</li> <li>• Secondary Schools</li> <li>• CFPs</li> <li>• Universities</li> <li>• Chambers of Commerce</li> <li>• Public Administrations</li> <li>• Private companies</li> </ul>
The Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 49 regional training centres (ROCs)</li> <li>• Private training institutes</li> </ul>
UK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further education colleges</li> <li>• Learn Direct</li> <li>• Open Universities</li> <li>• Private sector trainers</li> </ul>

## Coordinating policies

### Bodies of Regulations

The widening of scope of education and training policies, the plurality of provisions by means of which adult learners can find their own way for being more adaptable to the constant changes, the expansion of providers in adult education imply the development of a *multilevel mode of governance*. However, while this perspective is, in some way, an inescapable solution at least at the theoretical level, the practice of lifelong learning seems to be difficult to carrying out and produce increasing fragmentation.

The descriptions contained in our countries report allow pointing out the efforts and the attempts for establishing a “new system of governance”. In this view, it is critical the coordination between the line ministries in central government as well as the link between education and training on one hand and training and work on the other. In our reviews (see Table 4 about the regulative bodies), we have three different settings: the first one regards the case of Italy and Bulgaria that have two responsible ministries; the second one, the cases of The Netherlands, UK and Estonia, where there is a single ministry at the national level; the third one, that of Germany, where the governance develops within a federal state composed by a diversity of *Länder* and, consequently, there is a complex relationship within the “local” and the “national” levels.

In the first setting (Bulgaria and Italy) two ministries work respectively for the interventions in work and social policies on one hand and in education and science on the other hand. These parallel tasks find a point of coordination in a national commission and in the standing conference State-Regions (in the case of Italy) as well as in an agency (NAVET) that supports the ministry for vocational education and training (Bulgaria). Similarly, along the vertical dimension of governance there is a regional deployment with local bodies of coordination, design and monitoring of the policies.

Alternatively, the second setting is characterized by the responsibility of one ministry or one point national of reference. This is the case of Estonia that has the Ministry of Education and Research, of Netherlands with the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science and UK that has the Department for Education and Skills. In case of UK that point of reference is the result of a process of integration. Yet, similarly to the first setting there is a notable complexity for the concrete deliveries of the educational policies as well as for the management of those initiatives at the regional and at the local level.

In our sample, Germany can be considered the example of the third setting because of the federal model of the state. Here, there is an additional level of coordination; therefore, we have Federal Ministry of Education and Research at the federal level; then we have Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* as well as the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs at the *Länder* level.

<b>Table 4. Regulative Bodies</b>	
Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education and Science (MES) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ National Agency for Vocational Education and Training (NAVET)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Ministry of Labour and Social Policy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The Employment Agency (EA)</li> <li>○ National Consultative Council for Vocational Qualification of the Work Force</li> <li>○ The Regional Employment Committees</li> <li>○ 9 regional and 122 local labour offices</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Estonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education and Research <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Council of Adult Education</li> <li>○ The Education and Culture Departments of the County Governments</li> </ul> </li> <li>• The Education Departments of the City Governments</li> <li>• Estonian Adult Educators Association “Andras”</li> <li>• Estonian Non-formal Adult Education Association</li> <li>• Estonian Open Education Association</li> <li>• Estonian Association of Andragogues</li> </ul>
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Federal Ministry of Education and Research</li> <li>• Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs of the <i>Länder</i></li> <li>• Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs</li> <li>• The Federal Institute for Vocational Training</li> <li>• German Institute for Adult Education</li> <li>• Local Chambers of Industry and Commerce</li> <li>• Local Chambers of Crafts</li> </ul>
Italy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education, University and Research</li> <li>• Ministry of Work and Social Policies</li> <li>• Standing Conference State-Regions</li> <li>• Regional Commission</li> <li>• Local Commissions for Adult Education</li> </ul>
The Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education, Culture and Science</li> <li>• Central Register of Vocational Courses</li> <li>• Examination Quality Centre</li> <li>• Inspection of education</li> <li>• Local government (contracts adult education)</li> </ul>
UK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Department for Education and Skills</li> <li>• The Learning and Skills Councils</li> <li>• National Institute for Adult Continuing Education (non government agency)</li> </ul>

## Partnership

The question of establishing an effective mode of alignment among the partners involved in the carrying out represents a key aspect for implementation of lifelong learning policies and for overcoming the possible “closure” associated with adult education and training initiatives and, traditionally, with the differentiated way of schooling.

This is an important point coming from all the countries report of our sample. Some exemplary excerpts from the reports can illustrate that question.

In case of Estonia:

“Co-operation between state and local authorities must be reinforced. Until now local authorities have not been sufficiently involved in adult education and LLL. In order to create an educational environment and make LLL a reality, all essential institutions – local authorities, employers, employment offices, social partners, trade unions and learning providers have to be actively involved in the networking process”

Or, in UK:

“Because the system of lifelong learning is fragmented, a high degree of partnership is required. Research suggests, however, that partnership and collaboration are not easily achieved”.

And in Italy:

“There is a lot of emphasis about the importance of partnership between the organizations in order to successfully carry out the respective policies. The myth of the “network” is the dominant representation both in private (where the idea is the “system”) and in public sector even if it is not always clear if it is a claim or an effective description of the situation”

Of course, attempts to collaboration among all the partners involved in adult education and training find many experiences in all the countries. This is case for example of the Roc’s in Netherlands that collaborate in a national council for defending common interests or of the private organizations that enter in networks aimed at make more “organized” the learning market. Further, there are also several examples of horizontal collaborations between the institutions at all the national levels in order to successful implementing Lifelong Learning policies. This leads to the development of “platforms” of collaboration at the regional and at local level (see for example the case of Germany and Italy).

## Guidance

The passage to a system of learning demand-driven suggests the reinforcement of the policies of guidance.<sup>5</sup> Many organizations provide guidance for a variety of target groups both in public and in private sectors. The delivery of those services, in that field, allows focusing again the already mentioned problems of vertical and horizontal coordination (see above paragraphs). Further, in that case, the problem of guidance is to find a way to promoting employability along the life course.

In UK, Estonia and Italy there are not national system of guidance, yet adults that need intervention of guidance have a mix of possibilities to get services on that. In UK, the Jobcentre Plus is an important provider of guidance for individuals especially designed for long-term employment. By contrast, in Estonia, adults in search of guidance and particularly of relevant information about how to get a job have few possibilities to find it. In Italy, the implementation of the new policies of activation in labour market leads to the setting up of new establishments (Servizi per l'impiego) that offer guidance to many target groups and for adults too.

## Certification of learning and quality assurance

The most important reference for certification of learning is the national frameworks of qualification (for example, KSE in Netherlands; NVQ in UK; the qualifications structure of the dual system of Germany). However, these frameworks seem to pay particular attention to the recognition to skills and competencies acquired from formal schooling.

Further, a variety of arrangements and bodies across the countries intervenes in the quality assurance both the recognition of the individual skills and for the accreditation of institutions. In UK, the final responsibility for evaluation of policies of lifelong learning is the Department of Learning and Skills, even if there are some more specific programmes of assessment at the local level carried out by regional body. In Estonia, there are the Adult Education Council and the Department of Vocational and Adult Education of the Ministry of Education and Research. Similarly, in Bulgaria for formal education the responsibility is in charge to schools, universities and ultimately to the Ministry of Education and Science. Yet there is not a system of evaluation for informal adult education and training.

In Italy, the most important responsibilities for quality assurance are taken by the Ministry of Education, Research and University and of Labour and Social Policies. Here, the decentralization leads to the setting up of a National Agency for Evaluation and of new responsibility for the Regioni. However, this is a recent started policy.

Finally, in Germany the system of quality assurance follows the structure of the federal state. Thus, the carrying out of lifelong policies has national and local bodies that take

---

<sup>5</sup> This transition usually receives a lot of emphasis in the official documents of EU and of the most influential transnational organizations on education and training, namely OCDE, UNESCO, World Bank, see for instance World Bank, 2003)

responsibilities on evaluation of trainees and trainers. BIBB and a special department for education and training test at the federal level are relevant for subject surveys. Still, in that case, important bodies for monitoring the quality of training are the regional chambers.

## Funding Lifelong Learning

A key question in lifelong learning is how to finance education and training. In making a list of the options available, it is useful to focus on those who finances lifelong strategies in the point of use, i.e. who provide the immediate funds for the financing of providers: the *adult learner*, the *private sector*, the *state*.<sup>6</sup> The answers to the questionnaire allow describing a notable range of solutions across the countries. However, not always it is possible to know the distribution of financing among the diverse sources.

The state and, in particular their different units at the different levels, represents an important source. In Bulgaria, financial resources for public schools and for employed and unemployed come from the state budget and from the municipalities. Further, schools in VET collect some resources form sponsorships, national and international programmes. In Netherlands, the government funds adult education via indirect or direct way. In case of vocational education the state funds directly the courses, while the central adult education funds is allocated to the municipalities according some parameters, then municipalities concluding some contracts with the Rocs for the concrete deliveries of the courses. In Italy, in particular, the state plays a major role in financing lifelong learning strategy by means of a plurality of policies, where it is relevant the co-financing of EU structural funds for disadvantaged regions.

In some cases, the learner contributes to the expenses through the payment of a fee. In Netherlands, adult learners have to pay fees for taking full course or part time. In some cases, adult learners can be eligible for student finance, a loan for example. In UK, this can assume the solution of a *carrier development loan*. The participation at the financing of learners can be, as in case of Estonia, very significant with the respect to other sources of funds. Sometimes, the fees have been partly paid by employers who can pay directly the fees, or can be refunded partly by the state through a percentage of coverage. Further, the states can decide tax benefits to take into account a particular employer's attention to education and training initiatives (see the case of the Act 383/01 in Italy).

In any case, the financing to the providers of adult education and training tends to be increasingly the results as a combination of resources. This seems to suggest the opportunity of multiplying the options for financing in order to devise flexible solutions for lifecycles less and less standardized. In addressing that problem, the Federal Government of Germany, for instance, has organized a commission of experts for deepening the understanding about the financial constraints and alternatives for putting lifelong learning perspective in practice.

---

<sup>6</sup> A more exhaustive classification can be found in Palacios (2002) who distinguish between those who ultimately pays for education, those who finances education in the point of use and those who collect (private or public) funds.



## **Managers of Learning**

One of the sections of the questionnaire was intended to focus attention on the label “Managers of Learning” in order to grasp the different understandings of that role and to describe the different profiles of managers of learning in the educational and training for adults in practice across the countries.

We have grouped the answers in three tables (see Table 5, 6 and 7) paying attention to the national names of these managers, to the prevailing role in the organizational hierarchies, to the way of recruitment and to the kind of formal or informal requirement for performing that role. A successive provisional figure (see fig. 1) has been aimed at describing common skills and competencies. In reading the tables about the managers of learning, it is important to consider that not always there is a one-to-one correspondence between the closest cells.

Basically, the role of manager is more differentiated in formal organization (schools, enterprises etc.) where there are clear references and precise name to point out as answers to the question. It can be noted how the less differentiated, the more difficult is to name that role and the corresponding activity. A particular difficulty has been reported by UK document where it is explicitly stated that “There are no ‘managers of learning’ as such” and consequently no clearly identifiable group can be refer to that term.

With the respect to the general position of that role, it is clear that for most of the countries we are talking about a profile of top managers of their organization or middle managers. In some cases reported in UK and Estonia that role has a location in administrative realm.

By contrast, the reading of the different ways of recruitment as well as of the pathways for becoming “managers of learning” suggests the relevance of the situated knowledge of the working practices. Here, working in an organization and accumulating experiences and learning on its major activities represent an important requirement for applying for that job. This usually occurs by means of formal and informal recruitment tools (advertising, personal contacts, recognition by peers in a professional communities etc.).

The role of “experience” for the managers of learning brings to mind that the difference top/middle management should not be exaggerated, since it draws on an image of the organizational hierarchy taken from the concept of “formal organization” difficult to apply in case of the educational organizations and to the contemporary organizations. In such situations, the fluidity of the organising processes contrasts with the sharpness of the contours that the notion of the roles of top or middle managers would imply.

<b>Table 5. Managers of Learning</b>					
<i>Countries</i>	<i>Organizations</i>	<i>National Name</i>	<i>Role</i>	<i>Recruitment</i>	<i>Formal Qualification</i>
Bulgaria	Professional schools  Universities– departments for further education  Private firms for training and human resource development  NGO's  Licensed centers for vocational education	?  ?  Human Resource Managers  Training managers	Middle management	Recommendation Jobs advertisement	Not particularly Required experience in the field
Estonia	Gymnasiums for adults Open Universities  Vocational education institutions High schools  Training Centres  Study Circles  Non-formal Adult Education Centres and Folk High Schools	School principals Vice-rectors or department managers  Head of department  Managing director  Leaders  Heads	Top Management Middle Management  Middle management  Top Management  Administrator and teaching  Management and teaching	Election in Council Traditional recruitment tools	Formal requirements Previous experience

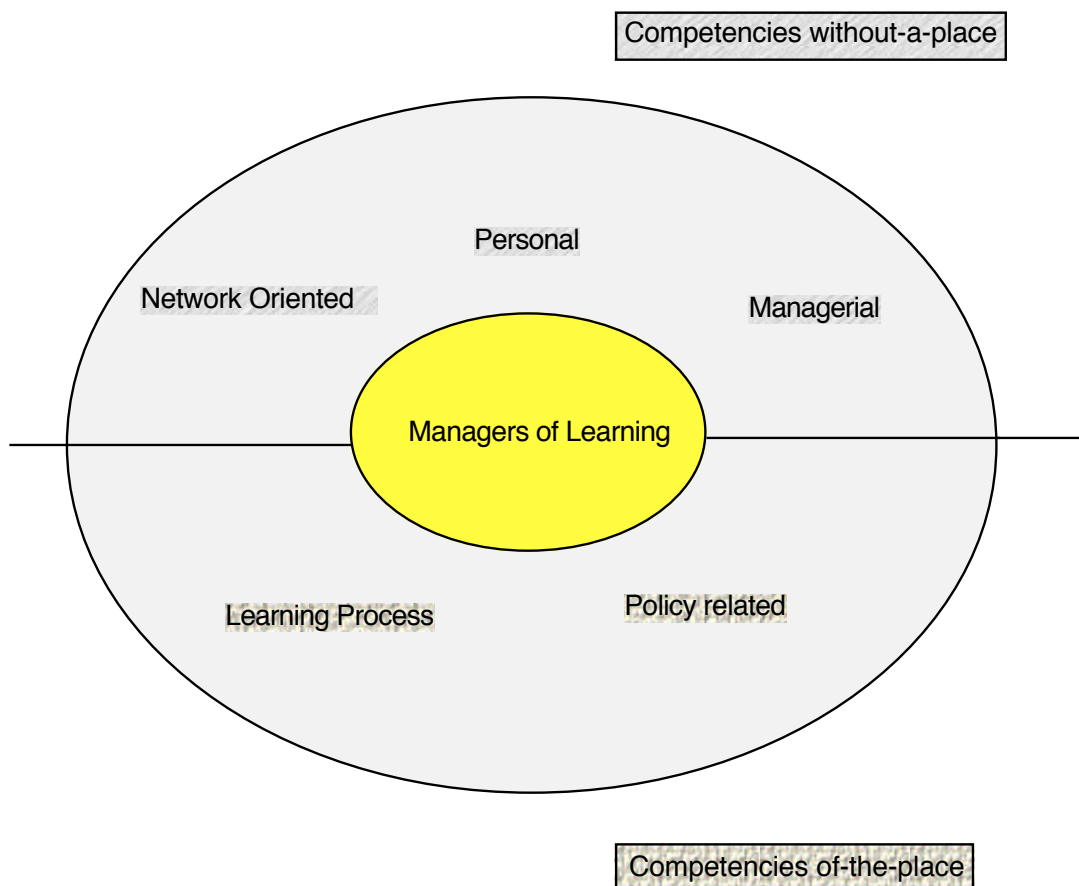
<b>Table 6. Managers of Learning</b>					
<i>Countries</i>	<i>Organizations</i>	<i>National Name</i>	<i>Role</i>	<i>Recruitment</i>	<i>Formal Qualification</i>
Germany	General education In-company training Vocational Training Higher Education	Headmaster Human Resource Manager Head of Training Department Vice-Chancellor, Dean	Top Management or Middle Management	By professional career Traditional recruitment tool	Formal requirement Required experience
Italy	Schools, CTP  In service companies  No profit organizations, Agencies  Universities	Headmaster (Dirigenti Scolastici) Headteachers (Funzioni strumentali)  HRM (Human resource managers, especially in big enterprises)  Educatori, Formatori (Senior Trainees)  Dean of Faculty (Preside della Facoltà)	Top Management and Middle Management  Middle Management  Middle Management  Top Management	Examinations (“Concorso”) By professional career  Traditional tools of recruitment  Traditional tools of recruitment  By elections	Formal requirements and experience

<b>Table 7. Managers of Learning</b>					
<i>Countries</i>	<i>Organizations</i>	<i>National Name</i>	<i>Role</i>	<i>Recruitment</i>	<i>Formal Qualification</i>
The Netherlands	Rocs ?  Private training institutes	Members of central boards,  Unit managers,  Educational managers,  Training managers	Top Management and Middle Management	Internally (teachers with coordinating tasks) Externally (advertising, networking)	No
UK	Learning and skills Councils  FE colleges  Private companies	Staff  Managers  HR/training managers	Administrative, Top Management Middle Management	No answer	No answer

As to the question of the set of the competencies for that role, the answers are varied. Here, the process of de-differentiation has the effect of “stretching the working practices” in unexpected directions. This holds for the educational organizations as such as well as for the private companies. The formers are expected to expand their practices in order to include the management side of the work (becoming “more managerial” so to speak), the latter are expected to expand their practices for including the learning and the educational side of the work (becoming “learning organizations” to quote an important and influential stream of literature see among others Easterby-Smith, Araujo and Burgoyne, 1999). An additional point regards, the acquisition of a “reflexive” attitude in performing their activities (in that respect, the idea of the “reflexive practitioners is becoming quite popular, see Schon, 1983; Edwards, 1997).

A possible underlying framework of competencies of the manager of learning (see for an exemplary sketch, Figure 1), confronting and combining the lists provided to the question “what is the stock of competencies of that role”, should depict a *multiskilled profile* characterized by five areas of knowledge/competence: policy-related, managerial, network-oriented, educational and personal.

**Figure 1: The Knowledge/Competence Milieu**



Basically, these areas of competencies distinguish *competencies without-place* and *competencies of-the-place* (Lanzara, 1993). The former are, in some way, meta-

competencies; the latter are clearly depending on the particularities of the field of activity. While it is suggested from the country report that the *competencies without-place* are the most important area of novelty at the least for adult formal education and training, the scope of change regards in a wide extension the competencies of the places intended to be profoundly restructured by the implementation of lifelong learning strategy.

The *policy-related knowledge* concerns the legislative as well as the content of the main policies regarding lifelong learning policies at the international and at the national level. This means, in particular, knowing and understanding what is the regulative framework in which Lifelong Learning policies are embedded.

There is an agreement across the countries report that the *managerial knowledge* is the novelty for the field of adult education, while the educational area represents the most traditional one (the report of Estonia is particularly detailed about the diverse figure of *andragogues*). Nevertheless, the *competencies of the processes of learning* for most of the reports are usually the “root” or the background for the other competencies for most of the managers of that field.

The *managerial knowledge* includes: marketing, human resource development, organizational development, management (Bulgaria); staff activation, leadership, quality assurance (Italy); organizing ability and management skills (Germany); the project management (Estonia). The *pedagogical knowledge* instead concerns the practices of adult education and training as such.

The *network-oriented knowledge* is the area of competence devoted to understand the rationalities of other organizations, to negotiate with people coming from a diversity of organizational logic and to make decisions in a context of multilevel governance. The reflections about the requirement of partnership convincingly describe the emergent knowledge appropriate in that field of activity. Finally, the more comprehensive description of *personal knowledge* has been provided by the Estonian report where it has been describe the different profile of andragogues that present sharp similarity with the well-known key-skills sometimes at the centre of the debate about the flexibility and the employability. Here, a list normally includes commitment, tolerance, self-control, adaptability and the like.

## Debates and future challenges

The implementation of Lifelong Learning Policies is not a *straightforward* process. In that respect, the answers to our last sections to the questionnaire allow to address some specific debates and controversies. Yet, it may be noted that the implementation processes develop across the countries by means of national documents including the main strategies for the carrying out of the lifelong learning claims. Usually, the starting point for those strategies are the documents about of the European Commission. In 2001, a working group of experts discussed about the national strategies for lifelong learning drawing on a wide collection of suggestions and reflection coming from the different counties. That work, after additional revisions and contributions leads to a strategy, not approved by the Parliament yet. Similarly, in Germany the Bund-Länder Commission for Educational Planning and Research Promotion devised an action programme for the learning society and in 2003 UK elaborated the Skills Strategy White paper.

Drawing on those debates, on the researches on the topic as well as on the direct experience of the field, it is possible to identify some issues as themes of discussion. In that respect, the key dimensions in putting lifelong learning in practice are for the sample of our countries:

- The *financing of lifelong learning*, i.e. how to develop a mix of financing schemes that can sustain the plurality of needs emerging alongside the multiplication of lifecycles;
- The *circulation of best practices* in adult education and training;
- The *partnership* among those who work in adults' education and training, i.e. the practice of "horizontal" governance where it is possible to let emerge non-hierarchical mode of organizing while at the same time not excluding the market regulation. An important dilemma, in that respect, is the alternatives: supply or demand policies, and between market or state regulation;
- The *recognition of informal learning*, i.e. how to recognize and possibly certificate competencies emerging from everyday life. Here, the additional problem is how to coordinate the formal, the non-formal and the informal pathways such as to permit cross the borders between institutions and organizations.
- The *motivation to learn*. That dimension implies to undertake the responsibility for adult learners to take care of their own learning along the life. Putting "learning" constantly on the agenda of adults, private and public organizations, can support this problem. Here, it is interesting the policy of the "trade unions learning representatives" in UK. Indeed, that issue suggests, in some way, to design modes of learning completely different from the traditional ones. In that respect, the modularization of the courses can be a viable solution.
- The growing importance of *distance education*, and in particular, *e-learning* seen as way for handling the de-differentiation of the "living worlds";
- The *policies of guidance*. We have seen beforehand that the passage to a decentralized educational and training provision can have effects of fragmentation

and, consequently, of “mismatching” among supplies and beneficiaries of the policies. This dilemma seems to point out the relevance of guidance for the information on one hand and for the individual recognition of the competencies on the other hand. Here, it is suggested that the process of individualization needs “new” services of support.

- The *problem of equity*. The learning society can diminish the level of equity because of the focus on moving towards “higher skills”. This passage can be easier to complete in regions where the economic growth is strong, but difficult to sustain in less developed areas. Consequently, the risks to increase the gaps between those who *have* the competencies and those who *have not* can be higher.



## References

- CEDEFOP, *Key Figures on Vocational Education and Training*, 2003
- Edwards, R. (1997), *Changing Places? Flexibility, Lifelong Learning and a Learning Society*, London: Routledge
- Easterby-Smith M., Araujo L., and Burgoyne J. (1999) *Organizational learning and the learning organization: developments in theory and practice*, London: Sage Publications
- Esping-Andersen, G., *The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism*, Polity Press, Cambridge, 1990
- Ferrera, M., *Le trappole del welfare*, Il Mulino, Bologna, 1998
- Kuhn Michael and Sultana R. (2005), *The Learning Society in Europe and beyond* Frankfurt: Peter Lang, forthcoming
- Lanzara, G. F. (1993), *Competenze Negative*, Bologna: Il Mulino
- Palacios, M. (2002), *Options for Financing Lifelong Learning*, paper submitted at Education Group, Human Development Network at the World Bank
- Ragatt, P. Edwards, R. and Small, N. (eds.) (1996), *The Learning Society: Challenges and Trends*, London: Routledge
- Schon, D. (1983), *The Reflexive Practitioner: How Professional Think in Action*, London: TempleSmith
- World Bank (2003), *Lifelong Learning in Global Knowledge Economy: Challenges for Developing Countries*, Paper

## Appendix

### Best Practices

In the following box we have reported some of the best practices in Adults' Education and Training across the countries involved in the project. That list includes references to institute that have developed significant experiences in that field as well as particular projects or practice worth to mentioning. Of course, the list is merely exemplary, since many others from the countries should have to be referred to.

#### **Best Practices in Adult Education and Training**

1. Bulgaria
  - Training Center with the Foundation for Local Government Reform
  - Chitalishta
  - JOBS Centers
  - IPAEI – Institute of Public Administration and European Integration
  - Professional Training Center with the Bulgarian Industrial Association
2. Estonia
  - Central Estonia Development Centre
3. Germany
  - Programme “Learning Regions”
  - Regional Networks of Further Education in Schleswig-Holstein
4. Italy
  - Projects Chirone and EBNT
  - Initiative of Adult Education in Tuscany (Mugello)
5. The Netherlands
  - Managers providing their teams a lot of autonomy in organising their own work within an organisational framework
6. UK
  - Training managers fostering a culture of learning. “Learning needs to be beneficial to both the organisation and the employee”.

## Annex

**Table A.1 – Social Expenditure (% of GDP)**

Country	1996	2000
Belgium	27.0	25.3
Denmark	30.6	28.0
France	29.4	28.3
<b>Germany</b>	<b>28.8</b>	<b>28.5</b>
Greece	22.1	25.5
Ireland	17.1	13.4
<b>Italy</b>	<b>23.9</b>	<b>24.3</b>
Luxembourg	23.1	20.2
<b>The Netherlands</b>	<b>28.4</b>	<b>25.7</b>
Portugal	19.0	20.2
<b>United Kingdom</b>	<b>26.9</b>	<b>25.8</b>
Spain	21.4	19.6
Austria	28.6	27.9
Finland	30.7	24.4
Sweden	34.2	31.7
Czech Republic	17.4	19.5
<b>Estonia</b>	<b>14.7 (*)</b>	<b>15.2</b>
Hungary	24.8	23.2
Latvia	17.5	17.8
Lithuania	14.2	15.8
Malta	19.3	19.8
Cyprus	11.9	12.8 (*)
Poland	25.5	24.0
Slovakia	23.2	21.7
Slovenia	25.5	26.1 (*)
<b>Bulgaria</b>	<b>12.1</b>	<b>17.9</b>
Romania	10.6	13.9

(\*) = 1998

Source: Eurostat. Inpdap

**Table B.1 – Employment Rate (%)**

Country	Total Employment Rate		Employment Rate: Males		Employment Rate: Females	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	65.6	65.1	72.9	71.0	58.1	59.1
Estonia	60.4	62.9	64.3	67.2	56.9	59.0
Italy	53.7	56.1	68.0	69.6	39.6	42.7
Netherlands	72.9	73.5	82.1	80.9	63.5	65.8
United Kingdom	71.5	71.8	78.1	78.1	64.8	65.3
Bulgaria	50.4	52.5	54.7	56.0	46.3	49.0
EU 15	63.4	64.4	72.8	72.7	54.1	56.1
EU 25	62.4	63.0	71.3	70.9	53.6	55.1
Highest Value (EU25)	76.3 (DK)	75.1 (DK)	82.1 (NL)	80.9 (NL)	71.6 (DK)	71.5 (S)
Lowest Value (EU25)	53.7 (I)	51.2 (PL)	60.5 (LT)	56.5 (PL)	33.1 (MT)	33.6 (MT)

Source: Eurostat

**Table B.2 – Employment Rate of Older Workers (%) – Pop. 55-64 in employment/Total Pop. 55-64**

Country	Total Employment Rate		Employment Rate: Males		Employment Rate: Females	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	37.6	39.5	46.4	47.8	29.0	31.2
Estonia	46.3	52.3	55.9	58.9	39.0	47.3
Italy	27.7	30.3	40.9	42.8	15.3	18.5
Netherlands	38.2	44.8	50.2	57.3	26.1	32.1
United Kingdom	50.8	55.5	60.1	64.8	41.7	46.4
Bulgaria	20.8	30.0	33.2	40.5	10.3	21.0
EU 15	37.8	41.7	48.0	51.6	28.0	32.1
EU 25	36.6	40.2	46.9	50.3	26.9	30.7
Highest Value (EU25)	64.9 (S)	68.6 (S)	67.8 (S)	70.8 (S)	62.1 (S)	66.3 (S)
Lowest Value (EU25)	21.3 (SK)	23.5 (SI)	32.3 (SI)	33.2 (SI)	8.4 (MT)	11.2 (SK)

Source: Eurostat

**Table C.1 – Unemployment Rate (%)**

Country	Total Unemployment Rate		Unemployment Rate: Males		Unemployment Rate: Females	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	7.8	9.6	7.5	10.0	8.1	9.2
Estonia	12.5	10.2	13.4	10.5	11.5	9.9
Italy	9.4	8.6	8.0	6.7	14.3	11.6
Netherlands	2.9	3.8	2.2	3.6	3.8	4.0
United Kingdom	5.4	4.9	5.9	5.5	4.8	4.3
Bulgaria	16.4	13.6	16.7	13.9	16.2	13.2
EU 15	7.8	8.1	6.7	7.4	9.2	9.0
EU 25	8.8	9.1	7.7	8.3	10.2	10.0
Highest Value (EU25)	18.7 (SK)	19.2 (PL)	18.9 (SK)	18.6 (PL)	18.6 (PL)	20.0 (PL)
Lowest Value (EU25)	2.3 (L)	3.7 (L)	1.8 (L)	3.0 (L)	3.1 (L)	4.0 (NL)

Source: Eurostat

**Table C.2 – Unemployment Rate of Population aged less 25. Annual Average (%)**

Country	Total Unemployment Rate		
	1997	2000	2003
Germany	10.4	8.5	11.1
Estonia	17.0	23.6	23.4
Italy	33.5	30.7	26.7
Netherlands	9.1	5.9	6.6
United Kingdom	13.7	12.3	12.3
Bulgaria		33.7	27.1
EU 15	20.0	15.5	15.9
EU 25		17.7	18.4
Highest Value (EU25)	34.5 (E)	37.1 (SK)	41.2 (PL)
Lowest Value (EU25)	6.7 (A)	5.3 (A)	6.6 (NL)

Source: Eurostat

**Table C.3 – Long-term Unemployment Rate (12 months or more) as % of Tot. Active Pop.**

Country	Total L-T Unemp. Rate		L-T Unemp. Rate: Males		L-T Unemp. Rate: Females	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	3.9	4.7	3.6	4.8	4.2	4.7
Estonia	5.7	4.6	6.5	4.8	4.9	4.4
Italy	6.4	4.9	4.9	3.9	8.8	6.7
Netherlands	0.8	1.0	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1
United Kingdom	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.4	0.9	0.7
Bulgaria	9.3	8.9	9.5	9.1	9.1	8.6
EU 15	3.5	3.3	2.9	2.9	4.2	3.7
EU 25	4.0	4.0	3.4	3.6	4.7	4.5
Highest Value (EU25)	10.1 (SK)	11.1 (SK)	10.1 (SK)	10.9 (SK)	10.1 (SK)	11.5 (PL)
Lowest Value (EU25)	0.6 (L)	0.9 (L)	0.5 (CY, L)	0.8 (CY)	0.6 (L)	0.7 (UK)

Source: Eurostat



**Table C.4 – Unemployed Rate By Level of Education, Pop. Aged 25-59 (%), ISCED Levels**

Country	Unemp. Rate: Levels 0-2		Unemp. Rate: Levels 3-4		Unemp. Rate: Levels 5-6	
	2000	2003	2000	2003	2000	2003
Germany	14.0	18.0	8.0	10.0	4.2	4.9
Estonia	22.4	12.9	14.8	11.5	4.6	5.4
Italy	10.0	9.0	7.5	5.9	6.1	5.7
Netherlands	3.5	3.0*	1.9	1.9*	1.6	1.7*
United Kingdom	9.0	7.2	4.4	3.5	2.1	2.3
Bulgaria	23.9	24.7	13.8	11.2	6.4	6.4
EU 15	10.9	10.4	6.8	7.0	4.4	4.7
EU 25	11.7	11.4	8.0	8.3	4.4	4.7
Highest Value (EU25)	37.3 (SK)	44.6 (SK)	19.7 (LT)	17.2 (PL)	9.3 (E)	7.3 (E)
Lowest Value (EU25)	3.2 (L)	3.3 (L)	1.6 (L)	2.6 (L)	1.3 (HU)	1.2 (HU)

Source: Eurostat

\* = Year 2002

**Table D.1 – Total Public Expenditure on Education by Level of Education (% of GDP) – Year 2001**

Country	Primary (ISCED 1)	Secondary (ISCED 2-4)	Tertiary (ISCED 5-6)	ISCED 0 or not allocated	Total
Germany	0.7	2.3	1.1	0.4	4.5
Estonia	1.6	2.4	1.1	0.4	5.5
Italy	1.2	2.5	0.8	0.5	5.0
Netherlands	1.3	2.0	1.3	0.4	5.0
United Kingdom	1.2	2.3	0.8	0.4	4.7
Bulgaria	0.7	1.7	0.6	0.6	3.6
EU 15	1.1	2.4	1.1	0.5	5.1
EU 25	1.2	2.4	1.1	0.5	5.2

Source: Eurostat

**Table D.2 – Population aged 25-64 with at least upper secondary education**

Country	1998	2000	2002
Germany	80.4*	81.3	83.0
Estonia	83.9	84.7	87.5
Italy	41.5	45.2	44.3
Netherlands	64.4	66.1	67.6
United Kingdom	54.7*	80.7	81.7
Bulgaria		67.1	71.5
EU 15		60.0	61.0
EU 25		63.4	64.6
Highest Value (EU25)	85.6 (CZ)	86.1 (CZ)	87.8 (CZ)
Lowest Value (EU25)	19.9 (P)	19.6 (P)	20.6 (P)

Source: Eurostat

\* = Year 1997

**Table D. 3 – 18-years in education. Participation Rates. Any kind of Schools.**

Country	1998	2000	2002
Germany	85.7	85.8	85.7
Estonia	60.1*	73.8	77.0
Italy	67.7	67.1	73.2
Netherlands	78.6	78.4	76.8
United Kingdom	49.2	55.5	56.9
Bulgaria	47.8	46.2	50.6
EU 15	52.7	74.6	74.7
EU 25			76.1
Highest Value (EU25)	96.0 (S)	95.5 (S)	93.6 (S)
Lowest Value (EU25)	29.6** (CY)	24.1 (CY)	23.2 (CY)

Source: Eurostat

\* = Year 1997

\*\* = Year 1999

**Table D.4 – Annual Expenditure on Public Education per pupil and by level of education.  
PPS, Year 2001**

Country	Primary (ISCED 1)	Secondary (ISCED 2-4)	Tertiary (ISCED 5-6)
Germany	3.869	4.561	9.807
Estonia	1.668	2.331	5.143
Italy	6.250	7.608	7.690
Netherlands			
United Kingdom	3.836	5.616	
Bulgaria	953	1.130	2.381
EU 15	4.459	6.088	8.426
EU 25	3.911	5.376	7.733

Source: Eurostat

**Table D. 5 – Students in Tertiary Education. Year 2002**

Country	Total number (1.000)	Total Population (1.000)	% of Total Population
Germany	2,159.7	82,440.3	2.62
Estonia	60.6	1,361.2	4.45
Italy	1,854.2	57,321.1	3.23
Netherlands	516.8	16,192.6	3.19
United Kingdom	2,240.7	59,328.9	3.78
Bulgaria	228.4	7,845.8	2.91
EU 15	13,191.0	378,354.1	3.49
EU 25	16,328.7	453,023.6	3.60

Source: Eurostat