



MEGEP / SVET

Meslekî Eğitim ve Öğretim Sisteminin Güçlendirilmesi Projesi
Strengthening the Vocational Education and Training System in Turkey

Driving Force for the Success of Turkey

Lifelong Learning Policy Paper

Labour Market Team SVET

assisted by

Derya **Buyuktanir**, Chris **Duke**, Niyazi **Karasar**, Alaeddin **Tileylioglu**, Janos Sz. **Toth**

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Preface

This Policy Paper is about the meaning and importance of lifelong learning (LLL) for Turkey. It has been drafted in the context of the MEGEP/SVET work plan. The purpose is to assess the current role of lifelong learning in Turkey and to make recommendations for policy-makers in stakeholder organisations on how to improve lifelong learning policies.

The paper is drafted on the basis of four expert missions implemented by EU and Turkish experts in the period June 2005-June 2006, and on a review of international and Turkish documents, literature and statistics, as well as knowledge of LLL practices elsewhere. The authors are grateful for the assistance given by all persons and organisations interviewed during these expert missions. They especially wish to thank the members of the Lifelong Learning Working Group who commented on previous drafts of this paper.

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Executive Summary

Lifelong Learning Concepts and European Systems of Lifelong Learning

In this policy paper lifelong learning (LLL) is defined as “all learning activities undertaken throughout life with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competencies, within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective.” It encompasses formal learning, non-formal and informal learning and there are no restrictions in terms of age, socio-economic status or educational level. LLL is *lifelong* and *life-wide*, as learning not only takes place at schools, but also in other areas of life, for example at work, and in civic and political, cultural and recreational life.

The idea of LLL was introduced by UNESCO 40 years ago. It first came to fruition in concrete educational policies when the European Council launched the Lisbon Strategy in 2000. In the same year, the European Commission issued a Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, which formed the basis of a European-wide consultation. This memorandum held six key messages that should serve as pillars for the long term:

1. New basic skills for all	Guarantee universal and continuing access to learning to combat social exclusion and promote active citizenship
2. More investment in human resources	Visibly raise levels of investment of money and time in learning
3. Innovation in teaching and learning	Develop effective teaching and learning methods and contexts for the continuum of lifelong and life-wide learning.
4. Valuing Learning	Significantly improve the ways in which learning, participation and outcomes are understood and appreciated, particularly non-formal and informal learning.
5. Rethinking guidance and counselling	Ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities, throughout Europe and throughout their lives.
6. Bringing learning closer to home	Provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to the learners as possible, in their own communities, and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate.

Since the launch of the Lisbon strategy and the EC memorandum, LLL became a guiding principle for the new Community education, training and youth action programmes. The key messages from the memorandum formed a basis for determining priorities in the regular calls for project proposals.

In 2002, the Concrete Objective Work Programme became the main means of implementing lifelong learning development in Europe. This programme has set three aims: (1) to improve the quality and effectiveness of EU education and training systems, (2) to ensure that they are accessible to all and (3) to open up education and training to the wider world.

Based on evaluations and consultations on previous programmes, a new Integrated Action Programme for 2007-2013 has been approved in the field of lifelong learning. It comprises sectoral programmes on school education, higher education, vocational training and adult education, completed by transversal measures and an additional programme focusing on European integration. Participation of Turkey in these programmes has been arranged in a Memorandum of Understanding between the Republic of Turkey and the European Community.

This policy paper illustrates the central importance given to LLL in the Community. It suggests the possibilities open to Turkey to take part in the mutual benefits of cooperation, and also the necessity to develop a strong lifelong learning policy and practical strategy as part of the accession process.

Lifelong Learning in Turkey

A LLL policy tailored to Turkey's population, educational attainment and labour market should take into account the present situation in these areas. As for the *population*, it is expected that by 2020 almost 70% of Turkey's population will be of working age. This could be a unique opportunity for Turkey in terms of economic and social development, provided that there is a substantial increase in human resource development through adequate investment in education and training. The *educational attainments* in Turkey are below the levels desired and planned targets. As far as initial education and

training for literacy, employment and average educational attainments are concerned, all figures show that there is significant room for LLL interventions at all levels. Characteristic for Turkey's *labour market* is the relatively low labour force participation rate (compared to the OECD and European Area countries). The share of the labour force employed in agriculture is decreasing, but remains considerably higher than in EU countries.

Another important feature of Turkey's present situation is the difference between the more developed regions in the West and the least developed provinces in the East. This accounts for some of the biggest problems in Turkey's education and employment. In the Eastern provinces, this effect is enhanced by the gender gap in terms of educational attainment.

In addition to a good understanding of the current situation in Turkey, a successful introduction of LLL requires cognitive readiness of the stakeholders. This calls for a well-designed strategy and strong and firm academic and administrative leadership at all levels.

The legal foundation for LLL in Turkey is found in the constitution and in several laws and decrees on the basic principles of education and on vocational and non-formal education. Apart from the Turkish government, many other stakeholders are involved in LLL, such as NGOs, civil society providers and employers' and Trade Union organisations.

As mentioned before, Turkey needs to invest in human resources development through adequate investment in education and training. A strong career guidance system for employed and unemployed is essential as well. LLL should give an incentive to entrepreneurship and the private sector should be encouraged to invest in good training activities.

Assessment of Lifelong Learning practices and Prospects

Turkey's labour market is characterised by high unemployment, very little investment in human resources and by newly created jobs being mostly low skilled and low paid in SMEs or the informal sector. In addition, the labour force participation rate is low, especially for women in urban areas, but is very high for women in the informal rural-family economy. Child labour occurs regularly and substantial part of the workforce is employed in the informal economy, and therefore falls outside the scope of social security. A last characteristic is that 70% of the rural workforce works in the declining agricultural sector. As a result, Turkey will face employment difficulties of emerging urban regions in the short run, and in the mid term those of change in the low educated rural region.

A lack of satisfactorily educated labour force participants inhibits the dynamic development of the economy. Also, Turkey lacks suitable and comprehensive learning and training incentives to address high structural unemployment and low labour force participation. Close co-operation between the Ministries of Labour and Education, as well as between the two Ministries and the social partners, should result in an improved fit between the education and the economy. In addition, a strengthened VET system will bring more jobs to the unemployed (as they acquire new skills) and better jobs to the under-employed, resulting in an optimistic spiral of growth. However, in the short term up and down swings in the general economy will affect the labour market, driving well qualified people into low paid jobs in a downturn, and increasing the skills demand when things are buoyant.

A strong civil society sector with non-governmental organisations (NGOs) that are not afraid of local or central government is very important as an environment in which lifelong learning can flourish. Many countries have a strong tradition of such NGOs or Civil Society Organisations (CSOs). In Turkey, there is also widespread commitment to the principle of an active civil society, but the NGO sector appears rather weak and likely to take some time to grow in strength and confidence.

At the moment, co-ordination between key stakeholders does not appear to be good enough, despite frequent assertions on the contrary. Trust and confidence in the social partners by government departments do not seem to be very high and employers and employees did not reach the desired level

of co-operation in the lifelong learning field, even though they are the main beneficiaries. A self-confident and self-motivating lifelong learning society requires all parties and partners not just to take responsibility for their own learning, but also to take whatever initiative and responsibility they can, and play an active public-interest role. Though good practices are emerging, pre-employment and institution-based training is still considered to be a government responsibility, while financing of continuing training and education is left to the social partners. It is obvious that all stakeholders need to put in more effort to make lifelong learning in Turkey a success.

Several activities have been undertaken and tangible progress in the field of education has been realised. Key issues and areas that need policy attention and development in terms of the lifelong learning concept include learner-centeredness, accessibility and flexibility, regionalisation, partnership and quality assurance. Self-directed distance (e-learning) delivery methods may be appealing for a large country with limited resources. Also, curriculum renewal is an important area, together with creating an effective national credit framework which offers opportunities for modularity, and the collecting and transfer of credit for learning in a new qualifications system so that more personalised learning becomes possible across the lifetime. Lastly, it is very important for effective comparison, monitoring and development to have good international comparators, indicators and benchmarking.

Devolution of some control and many of the smaller decisions and modest or even major resources to more local areas is an increasingly common feature of successful modern societies and economies around the EU and beyond. The major benefits of a less centralised system include redefinition of structures, procedures and practices of governance; provision of more relevant responses to locally expressed needs; increase in efficiency and effectiveness as well as quality and flexibility of services; and ensured accountability and transparency of local governance. Yet, when decentralising control and resources, it is important to provide proper training on good administration and planning to local administrations at municipal and institution level.

It will be important to break a pattern of central control over all the details that causes long delays and is really not feasible in a country of 80 million people at a time of fierce global competition. It is urgent to move to a more vigorous 'client-oriented' service (or: citizen-oriented) public administration, in order to enable LLL to grow successfully in a reasonably short while.

Proactive policies to rapidly improve public service quality are required. Transferring large service and spending responsibilities to sub-central layers of governmental and local levels, private providers and NGOs are basic preconditions of developing lifelong learning provisions. The government's decision on introducing an ambitious decentralisation reform transferring major spending powers to special provincial administrations gains importance in this respect.

In line with this, the MoNE attempts to restructure the central and local administrative set-up, as the present structure is not able to meet the challenges ahead. Quite innovative programmes are already in operation. For example, open education offered at almost all levels; year-round and round-the-clock (all-day) education concepts and limited practices; using varying length of semester; applied school-industry relations (dual system); local needs assessments, planning and implementation together with stakeholders; widespread practices of sponsorship, and protocols for delivering non-formal education programme. Also, it is possible to establish service protocols at local and national levels in order to meet the training needs of various institutions and enterprises and trainees in vocational courses are provided with similar supports given to Apprentices trainees.

The development of a national VET system and framework of vocational qualifications, institutionalised in the new Vocational Qualification Authority, is another promising step towards a more flexible system of lifelong learning. Once in working order, it will enable the workforce to be more adaptable, better at adding to skills and qualifications that relate to new labour market needs.

Currently National Agencies, regional bodies and Government Departments promote different programmes and initiatives separately. Few attempts have been made to provide potential beneficiaries

with a complete picture that enables them to understand and access the range of opportunities. Comprehensive promotion and information campaigns that cover the full range of funding schemes to support lifelong learning should be introduced.

Governments can and will not finance lifelong learning single-handedly, as lifelong learning is costly at macro and micro level. Also, it is not equitable to use society's resources for an investment of which the individual is the main beneficiary. A rational approach to the question of who should pay for lifelong learning is that it should be financed by those who benefit: the individual, employers and the state, who represents the interests of the society. These parties should share the costs and co-finance lifelong learning. Financing policies may influence the education market and the labour market, and this should be taken into account in developing a financing policy for lifelong learning for Turkey.

As part of the accession process, and for its own good governance and ability to monitor developments anyway, it is very important for Turkey to be able fully to join in the Detailed Work Programme on the Follow-up of the Objectives of Education and Training Systems in Europe indicator and benchmark activity. How the 29 indicators so far approved for monitoring performance and the progress of education and training systems in Europe could be applied properly in Turkey needs to be the subject of further professional meetings and projects.

Recommendations and Suggestions for the future

Seven key areas for the development of a lifelong learning policy in Turkey:

1. System, Infrastructure and Funding of Lifelong Learning

Developing and reforming the institutional system and infrastructure means better cooperation and integration between governmental sectors, as well as better collaboration with social partners. Also, the role of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) should be redefined away from direct operation of and relationships to individual schools and educational programmes, and towards increased emphasis on establishing national standards and policy frameworks.

Specific actions that are needed are:

- Set up an *inter-ministerial time-limited working group* that includes civil society members. It would make a review of and greatly simplify the legal rules of the current system, from the point of view of desirable LLL legal regulation. Also, a LLL framework law is recommended.
- Establish a *Lifelong Learning Council* and a *Lifelong Learning Centre*. Both should hold representatives of the government as well as civil society and social partners. The council would play the role of counsellor and policy development advisory body, promoting the standpoints of civil society and the social partners, as well as fostering co-ordination and agreement. The Lifelong learning Centre would provide national level services in fields such as surveys, publications, evaluation, accreditation of providers, quality assurance in close co-operation to the relevant national, province and regional level institutes.
- Consideration should be given to a *mixed government and civil society mission* visiting these bodies and looking at their work, and to inviting them to visit and give advice on developing such a body in Turkey.
- A *feasibility study* is recommended to analyse investments and costs from the perspective of lifelong learning.

2. The Collection and Use of Data for Monitoring and Decision-Making

Ministries should harmonise data-collecting activities and methods for lifelong learning with that of Eurostat and EU Concrete Objectives of the Education and Training Systems in Europe. The common educational, training, analysis, research and survey methods used by the EU, OECD, ETF, UNESCO and the World Bank should be consistently applied as planning cannot be effective, nor benchmarking compatible without these. Following the elimination of deficiencies occurring in the data service methodology and in the data themselves, benchmarks must be set for

Turkey in the fields of education and training.

3. **Decentralisation and Devolution, Civil Society and Collaboration**

Division of responsibilities between national, regional and local authorities and schools should be altered for educational policy in the direction of decentralisation. The development of regional and local educational and training infrastructure has to be connected to the reform of regional and local administration and especially to decentralisation. Accreditation and quality assurance have to be built in, along with the operation of local and regional co-operation and a development tender system.

The proportion of GDP invested in education and training needs to be increased and resources should be used more efficiently. Financial rules and other legal regulations should be designed to attract more investment and ensure the growth of supply in response to rising demand. Regulations, initiatives and incentives that motivate institutional autonomy, entrepreneurial educational investment and individual educational investment should be strengthened within the rather slow governmental support system.

Other actions that are needed are: (i) Increase the autonomy of LLL providers and commit them to the principle of co-ordination and co-operation as a precondition of attracting finances and (ii) create opportunities for closer co-operation of different stakeholders so as to reach the widest possible population, especially the low skilled.

4. **Information, Advice and Guidance to Learners, and a Culture of Learning**

Turkey urgently needs to nurture a culture of lifelong learning where learning of all kinds of people is a normal lifestyle, right and practice. The media as well as government and the social partners all have a part to play. Secondly, Turkey needs to develop much stronger systems of individualised information, advice and guidance (IAG) counselling for all kinds of learners.

In line with the objective of LLL policies, particular attention should be paid to these more vulnerable people. As for adult education, the aim is to prevent and fight social exclusion and to boost the employability of the groups targeted. Action should be concentrated primarily on literacy, numeracy, personal empowerment and development, guidance and counselling.

Social dialogue is an essential parameter for successful economic and social reform. Social partners should take advantage of the EC funded programmes, with a view to strengthening their capacities and their impact on making and carrying out policy. Despite of being engaged in short-term projects, financing sources for NGOs are limited. Both long and short-term sources for funding should be open to NGOs on a more sustainable basis.

5. **The Development of Staff Capacity**

Managerial demands, professional staff requirements, demands on teachers, and competency demands of future LLL policy should be assessed. Training of staff, national public authority experts, regional and local administration leaders, including regional labour office managers, should each be planned separately and with respect to one another, with an eye to compatibility.

Separate and special effort is required to build Turkey's research into LLL. Priority subjects should include those to do with LLL policy development, using international participation. Turkey should join the objectives of the European Research Area programme if possible.

6. **International Co-operation**

Turkey should take advantage of the experience acquired in European programmes such as Structural Funds, Education and Training Programmes. It should also make extensive use of the international mobility opportunities such as are provided by Socrates, Leonardo and Youth for Europe, and of the experience of organisations getting involved in co-operation projects at national, regional and local levels. Other European initiatives that can be introduced are Adult

Learning Week, Corporate Social Responsibility, Learning Organisations, Learning Regions and Learning Cities.

7. Quality Assurance and Accreditation

The new Vocational Qualification Authority will act as a coordination institute for the development of occupational standards, and will have accreditation and certification functions for the wide area of education and training. In the long run this should include the whole sphere of LLL training and learning.

In the policy paper it is suggested to use a combined method based on three factors for developing a lifelong learning programme for Turkey. These factors are the 15 lifelong learning quality indicators, the Lisbon education and training indicators and time planning. The lifelong learning quality indicators can be used to select appropriate priority areas of a lifelong learning programme for Turkey. The Lisbon education and training indicators should be decide which benchmarks have the highest priority and which are of less importance. As for the last factor, time planning: there is an immediate need to develop short-, mid- and long-term programmes. These programmes need to be worked out according to a transparent system of aims, the attainment of which can be identified by quantitative and qualitative data. Lastly, it is recommended that study visits on lifelong learning be organised for Turkish MEPs, high level officers and clerks of the different national authorities and ministries. Bilateral exchanges and twinning of local and province level institutions and bodies with counterparts in other countries should be encouraged.

It is suggested that Turkey collect the experiences of the national agencies of the 25 member countries. From international experiences it is known that beyond the activities of national agencies there is much to do to use optimally opportunities for trans-national development co-operation in education and training, for example (i) awareness-raising activities among different stakeholders at local and regional level to draw attention to opportunities for co-operation between Turkey and EU member countries, (ii) learning partnerships of education and training staff to help the development of foreign language capacity-building in Turkey (iii) regular surveys and local and regional consultation forums to explore demands of education and training staff, tutors and the needs of the learners to take part in international activities and (iv) capacity-building activities to introduce interested stakeholders to project monitoring, evaluation, reporting, and dissemination of results.

Turkey can also use its experience with initiatives and projects that focused on isolated segments of the society, economy or education. One of the most significant suggestions to implement lifelong learning is to link isolated activities, learn from success, and secure the opportunities for permeability, co-operation and joint utilisation. The aim is to promote isolated good practices into the mainstream, making them known in other sectors, extend them in the territorial sense, and use them in training professionals.

Nine programme areas are considered to be the priority of lifelong learning stakeholders in general and of the new Lifelong Learning Council in particular. These are:

1. Basic life skills and literacy training for adults

Turkey needs a fully integrated programme to eradicate illiteracy among its nearly 7 million illiterates. As illiteracy can be a barrier to employment in the formal sector of the economy, integrating literacy training within a lifelong learning strategy could contribute to reducing the number of employees in the informal sector. HRD Policy should create literacy and numeracy training, employment opportunities for adults, and develop a certification system that recognises their skills previously acquired, facilitating their move into the formal economy.

2. Rural development programmes for lifelong learning

A rural development programme is urgently needed, especially for the southeastern and other comparatively underdeveloped regions. Such programmes will include social economic initiatives, the establishment of co-operatives, rural and community development and initiatives for modernisation, all with training for key competencies and tools and activities of lifelong learning.

Such programmes would thus combine economic, social, infrastructure and educational development. Significant development of various forms of social economy is needed. Social economy allows for the development of new forms of employment, which can secure a longer transitional period for integration into the existing market economy.

3. **A comprehensive basic skills and key competencies development strategy**

On the one hand new skills are needed in computing, foreign languages, entrepreneurship etc; on the other hand, beyond formal school requirements skills are needed that enable individuals to function in community life, the labour market and modern information society. Turkey needs to carry out a test survey of the IALS (OECD) as soon as possible, and to develop and implement a basic skills/key competencies strategy using the survey outcome. As a result of the OECD survey in more developed EU member states, significant national basic skills/key competencies development programmes have been launched since the mid-90s, and it is believed that this is a factor fundamentally determining Turkey's competitiveness.

4. **Involving and supporting civil society in implementing of lifelong learning**

The need to support civil society is pressing, given the complex tasks and problems emerging in modern times that cannot be solved exclusively by the market or the state. Public administration should encourage the private sphere to take social responsibility, creating frameworks to encourage and support social, training and learning initiatives started by individuals or groups in the non-profit sector, and monitoring performance. Faster and more efficient development can be achieved if the government hands over a number of training services to the private sector or to market-oriented providers, within the framework of unified and differentiated accreditation and quality assurance.

5. **Enterprise training**

If lifelong learning is to succeed, learning in the workplace must greatly develop. Continuous skill development programmes for own employees by business firms should become normal. In addition, the lack of vocational guidance and counselling services should be targeted

6. **Standardisation and certification of skill levels, and wider provision**

Existing occupations, skills and skill levels should be re-defined and standardised, and a Certification System introduced. Particularly for youngsters without formal education and for adults who had no opportunity for further education after a certain level, opportunities are needed to convert skills acquired through non-formal education into a certificate or a document that is accepted in working life. Parliament recently accepted the Vocational Qualification Authority Law.

For the success of lifelong learning, social dialogue should enable all stakeholders to discuss, consult and exchange information among one another as well as having an equal voice in planning and implementing lifelong learning, forming the legal framework, in policy-making and decision-making processes, to expand training to urban and rural areas, and in quality assessment. Also, social partners should create regional education funds.

7. **Comprehensive training and retraining of practitioners**

A detailed and comprehensive training and retraining programme is needed for practitioners to implement lifelong learning. The policy paper holds a list of major target groups.

8. **Information and awareness campaign**

Widespread and efficient communication of lifelong learning objectives throughout society is essential. A budget within education and training is needed for creating a culture of learning through the assistance of the media, and through civil society. Also, internationally well-known practices such as Adult Learning Weeks and other promotional activities popularising all kind of learning can be introduced. Special attention should be paid to target groups such as social partners'

employees. In addition, co-operation with the most important EU level organisations dealing with lifelong learning is important, as well as the training of professionals and experts in lifelong learning at higher education level.

9. Media and lifelong learning

Co-ordinated long-term and regular programmes encouraging learning should be launched and broadcast on public television. These programmes would be aimed at the wider public, educational practitioners and/or political decision-makers in the field.

Chapter 1.

Lifelong Learning Concepts and European Systems of Lifelong Learning

1.1 The Scope of this Chapter

This chapter provides an introduction to and a broad overview of lifelong learning. It foreshadows practical questions that Turkey needs to answer in developing a robust, useful and long-serving lifelong learning policy. These are taken up throughout the Paper, with specific recommendations at the end.

Here we consider the broad concept of lifelong learning: how and why it has grown up, and the way its use has changed with changing circumstances. It is a source of some serious confusion. Key issues and tensions have to be addressed in order to make LLL work as a guiding and ordering principle for developing education, training and broader learner support, in a vigorous and balanced learning and knowledge society.

The first part of the chapter then looks at the use of the concept as a major policy principle in the European Union (EU), and particularly at its main applications and uses within the EU as these have developed since the Lisbon meeting and determinations of 2000.

1.2 Lifelong Learning Concepts

1.2.1 The Meaning of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning (LLL) is defined as all learning activities undertaken throughout life with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competencies, within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective. Lifelong learning therefore includes all education, training and learning activities promoting the development of knowledge and competencies. It is intended to enable all citizens to adapt to the knowledge-based society and to participate actively in all spheres of social and economic life, thereby being enabled to take more control of their lives.

Lifelong learning includes formal learning, informal learning, courses leading to the acquisition of technical training and skills, vocational skills acquired at the work-place, and learning leading to the acquisition of other knowledge, understanding and skills. In Turkish, *örgün eğitim* is used for formal education and *yaygın eğitim* is used for both nonformal education and informal education.

Lifelong learning, therefore, can be achieved at schools, at universities, at home, at work and in any other place in society. It is unrestricted in terms of age, socio-economic status and education level. In this way, lifelong learning should be viewed as a continuous and planned activity that supports the acquisition of knowledge, understanding and skills, and so the occupational and broader social success of individuals, their communities and the whole society.

The modern concept of lifelong learning is relatively new in Turkey, although the basic idea is ancient, predating the formal education system. Nevertheless, all parties agree that people need to acquire, extend, renew or replace their skills continuously in order to compete in the labour market, and to cope well and learn fully in different fields of their lives. Lifelong learning, as an important learning activity undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence, however, does not yet serve as an integrating part of the changing patterns of learning, living and working in Turkey. The concept is not yet understood as a common guiding principle in current Turkish educational and labour market policy (Rolla, Altın and Ülker, year of publication unknown).

Nowadays each and every individual needs to be able to adapt to changing life conditions, and practise continuous learning in order to improve his or her personal abilities, job-related skills and competencies. It is proving essential in modern fast-changing and competitive global society to keep undertaking education and training in line for both personal objectives and labour market requirements. Lifelong learning is therefore an essential tool to raise the quality of life in Turkey.

First we need to understand why this concept has acquired such wide acceptance. What is the impetus, and what are the drivers, that make it so much taken-for-granted in policy discourse?

We need also to understand its full significance and scope as a long-term guiding principle. Otherwise it is too easy to take just one small but important part and concentrate on this alone. Indeed, this is the commonest response by busy policy-makers and administrators: the overall idea and ‘ordering principle’ is shrunk down to one or two specific innovations. The larger and more vital but difficult challenges are conveniently forgotten.

Thirdly, however, it is only in the different *practical* policies that the concept becomes useful. So we need to consider the different main elements of a lifelong learning approach. Where do these take us – for example in terms of being learner-centred in all that we do; in making the whole ‘provider system’ more diverse, open and accessible or user-friendly; and in terms of freeing up a wider range of learning supports and resources while ensuring important principles of quality, high standards and equity?

Many of these policy questions involve difficult choices between desirable purposes. They require the ability to set and act on priorities and at the same time to keep a long and ambitious view. So a Lifelong Learning Policy Paper such as this one, and like the EU 2000 *Memorandum* (European Commission, 2000), inevitably takes us into general questions; about the nature and quality of Government and its decision-making; about public administration: questions, for example, to do with the strengthening of civil society to mobilise and motivate people’s capacity and desire to learn; and about decentralisation, to get closer to these very diverse learning needs and energies.

1.2.2 Why Lifelong Learning Has Become Important

Why has LLL become such a widely accepted concept in recent times? One can find its antecedents in the wisdom of many pre-modern societies, including Turkey, where *cradle-to-grave learning* has been known for many centuries. However, the concept in its present form is less than fifty years old. It grew up mainly through European studies and discussions early in the 2nd half of the 20th century, in the context of what we often call advanced modern or post-industrial societies. The idea attracted much enthusiasm in the early seventies, still mainly in the European context. It was a large and noble concept, yet to be tested in the world of practical politics, as for example in Unesco’s 1972 Fauré Report, *Learning To Be* (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, 1997). Then it was rather left to one side for about 20 years except in specialised educational literature.

More recently, over the past ten years, LLL has become more central and important than ever before. Now it is in the context not just of late industrial society or post-industrialism but also of the new information (ICT) revolution, and especially globalisation and what we now call the knowledge society. It is because of this new context and the new imperatives of ‘globalism’ that LLL has come back to the very centre of the policy stage, not just in Education but across many Ministries and portfolios including such most senior portfolios as the Prime Minister’s, and the Treasury or Finance Ministry.

At the same time its focus is often greatly narrowed: from total social and human development to the attainment of workplace skills. The transformation of the workplace, the short life expectation and disappearance of many kinds of jobs and the creation of others, the uncertainty and labour market instability that this causes, the migration of both jobs and workers all over the world, above all the endless technological revolution fuelled by new computing technologies: these are imperatives that keep the idea of learning throughout life at the centre of policy, but also give most attention to the economic and often the short-term.

Much has been written about the need to learn and to change continuously, and to be able to equip citizens and the economy to produce (and consume) more rapidly and efficiently. We have to go faster, innovate more successfully, or fall behind. A particular driver for LLL now is comparative international data about education, training and learning especially among the more wealthy nations. In a context of approaching accession to the EU these competitive comparators, especially those

produced by the EU and by OECD, have become very important for Turkey; so LLL appears in many of Turkey's EU-supported projects, not only SVET – Strengthening Vocational Education and Training; see www.megep.meb.gov.tr, to which project this Policy Paper belongs. This means that it is very important for Turkey to be able to collect and use good reliable data. We refer to this again later.

1.2.3 The Widening Policy Impact

At first lifelong learning as a policy concept belonged only to the wealthiest advanced economies. More recently it has been taken up in middle income and developing country contexts, for example by the World Bank. For a middle income country like Turkey, which sits between and straddles the traditional and the modern worlds, the larger concept that includes social as well as economic development, and the transformation of society as well as the skills of individuals, is especially important. OECD, despite its name and charter about *economic* development, takes a keen practical and applied interest in these wider social inclusion, social capital and equity dimensions. Often they have direct economic impact.

As the term makes clear, lifelong learning includes all phases of life: from early childhood family learning and learning at pre-school or kindergarten, through all the stages of formal initial education and on throughout life into the post-retirement third age, and into what is now sometimes called a fourth age of later old age.

We are used to thinking of life in three stages: early and school years; the 'productive phase' of working life; and retirement or old age. It is essential that LLL policies take account of the full lifespan. The curriculum of early years and school education should be designed and carried out with an eye to working and later life. Learning to learn and the formation of character and skills for all of life are as important as the basic 'three Rs plus computing' of modern primary education, for example. LLL does not just mean non-formal, updating and second chance education for adults: it is a way of seeing every part of education and learning, formal, non-formal and informal.

Not only that. The idea that life falls into three stages of school, work, and retirement is also misleading. The idea of recurrent education developed by the OECD over thirty years ago suggests the mixing up of this sequence, with different kinds of formal as well as non-formal education throughout life, rather than making initial schooling longer and longer and then forgetting about learning for ever more. Now even 'three stages' is becoming out of date with changing demography and work patterns, especially longer life and an older population.

All this points to the need for flexible systems, where credit can be accumulated and degrees do not qualify and privilege their holders for life. It also invites us to think about learning, and sometimes using, work skills and habits in the secondary school years. We must think too about going back to school in new ways, even in the third age, to continue working, if the labour market allows and needs this; or to contribute to other essential needs of society which are not just inside the labour market sector. Because of the *new demography* of the most 'advanced' societies, the familiar three stages are rapidly becoming four, with a new phase of extended working life before full 'retirement' caused by a combined skills shortage and pension crisis. Turkey must be aware of these new trends, but concentrate on its own demographic and economic profile, not simply copy others in an untimely way.

This underlines the point that LLL is not just *lifelong*. It is also *life-wide*. It means learning in the workplace, and finding out more about how to do this successfully – combining the resources and responsibilities of Ministries of Education and Employment. It means looking at the needs of the society in its community, civic and political, cultural and recreational life. It means enabling people to learn in these arenas and in new ways, so that we have a vigorous working and sustainable democracy.

1.2.4 Making it a Practical Reality

These words are easy to write. Carrying them out means changing many attitudes and habits of a lifetime, and longer, of whole administrations as well as their officers. Later in this Policy Paper we

will consider the difficulties of bringing about change and overcoming such resistances in Turkey. A key word is *trust*.

In referring to civic and social life and to democracy we enter a third vital and difficult area of Lifelong Learning. LLL means life-wide as well as all through life. It also means life-wide in the sense of *social* as well as *economic* goals. The language of social capital and social inclusion, and of equity and equal opportunity according to gender, social classes, ethnic groups and different regions, is part of the subject. Skills for work are often the main focus of LLL policies, but the concept is about more than narrow and short-term economic success. It is about whether the society is strong and sustainable into an unknown future.

Turkey is a mixture of the old and the new. Lifelong learning is a key to its development in both dimensions and in all settings, from modern Ankara and Istanbul to the eastern borders. Although LLL is centrally about modernisation it is also about more than this – it is also about self-renewing capacity-building and sustainability.

One really serious practical problem that this presents has to do with the way that Government works. LLL involves virtually every Ministry, Department and portfolio of Government. It cannot be consigned to policies and budgets just within a Ministry of Education and Training. It is therefore about *joining up* different parts of the administration, just as learning occurs all through life and in all places and stages of life and family, work and leisure. The connections are most immediately important with the world of work, and so with Ministries of Labour or Employment, to connect with the availability of different kinds of jobs, and the need for different kinds of skills. This calls for striking a practical and moving balance between need, demand and supply for jobs and skills. But connections are also essential with social welfare related and many other portfolios.

Competitive comparisons with other countries, for example in terms of numbers of graduates, and numbers of women in employment, can be hazardous and damaging, if they are taken out of context. There must be *fitness for purpose*. This applies to the range of policies and indicators to do with access, equity and participation which are often fiercely contested. Good in themselves, they must be used wisely to achieve a rich and balanced life, in a sustainable and socially inclusive way.

The question *who pays* is a matter for both economics and politics – that is to say it is a matter of political economy. Partly, the changes in many countries arise from the sheer scale of the provision – the shift to mass education at all levels, especially tertiary and higher. It is also a reflection of the current political and economic ideology – ‘social Europe’ versus ‘liberal’ economics in particular. We need to recognise this *ideological* dimension and be clear what the choices are and where we stand, as well as being practical about what can be afforded and how.

How can Turkey afford the widest access to necessary learning opportunities for as many people as possible? How can it ensure that priority is given to the most important knowledge and skills?

Much of the effort will have to come from local knowledge, commitment and local ‘community’ endeavours, using local ingenuity. This is why *decentralisation and devolution* matter so much, throughout and beyond the EU. It is also why ideas of *learning regions and learning communities* have taken such a strong hold in even the most wealthy countries and advanced economies. Not even the most rich and clever central government bureaucracy can do it alone.

In summary, lifelong learning is a universally recognised, key overarching concept for modern societies and economies, and for their education systems. This makes it difficult and contested, as it cuts across all traditional boundaries of public administration, management and control.

A Lifelong Learning Policy Paper for Turkey today inevitably raises many questions that have to be asked and answered time and again. Practical answers have to be found in the particular conditions of Turkey in this decade. They cannot be flown in ready-made from elsewhere. Preparing rapidly for

accession to the European Union runs the risk of trying to make changes out of time, and even in destructive ways. It takes time for this far-reaching concept to be understood and applied in practice in each different country.

These questions raised by the concept of lifelong learning will however not go away. Nor is it possible to answer them all just through generalised European or global strategies. Taking specific decisions about lifelong learning in Turkey is also about deciding what kind of country and society Turkey wishes to become.

1.3 European Systems of Lifelong Learning.

1.3.1 A Short History, the Third Generation, and the EU Idea of Lifelong Learning

Kjell Rubensson (The National Agency for Education, 2000) draws a distinction between two generations of lifelong learning with different meanings which have developed in different contexts. The idea of lifelong learning was first introduced over 40 years ago by Unesco. Over a short period lifelong learning, closely related ideas on recurrent education from the OECD, and *éducation permanente* from the Council of Europe, made a great impact on the debate on educational policy. The idea was grounded in a humanistic tradition and linked to the expectation of a better society and higher quality of life.

The ideas did not come to fruition in concrete educational policies. Rubensson explains this by arguing that the vision remained on a vague, utopian level and was never transformed into strategies that could be implemented. As explained above, a comparison between the first and second generations of lifelong learning shows that the ideological contents of the LLL concept were replaced by a narrower interpretation, centring around the needs of the economy for skilled labour with the necessary competence. Lifelong learning was merged with elements of economic human capital theory.

We can therefore say that lifelong learning was transformed from idealism and became more limited in its second iteration. There is something to be gained from both generations of the concept. Economic reality cannot be disregarded. Lifelong learning is also important for the development of democracy and from a humanistic educational perspective. The more integrated approach of the third generation of the concept is related to the fact that a concrete programme for its implementation was developed from 2000 onwards.

The European Council (Lisbon, March 2000) launched a programme since called the Lisbon Strategy. This states that the Union must become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs, and greater social cohesion. To achieve this ambitious goal, Heads of States and Government asked for ‘not only a radical transformation of the European economy, but also a challenging programme for the modernisation of social welfare and education systems’. In 2002, they went on to say that by 2010 Europe should be the world leader in terms of the quality of its education and training systems.

In November 2000, based on the conclusions of the 1996 European Year of Lifelong Learning and subsequent experience gained at European and national levels, the Commission issued A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning. This formed the basis for a European-wide consultation, organised as close to the citizens as possible, in accordance with the Commission’s aim of reforming European governance. The Member States and candidate countries each conducted their own inclusive and wide-ranging consultation involving relevant national bodies. Based on this the Commission issued the plan of action entitled “Communication from the Commission - Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality” in November 2001 (European Commission, 2001).

1.3.2 The Six Key Messages of the EU Memorandum

The key messages of the Memorandum in terms of its six objectives are guidelines which are likely to serve as valid pillars for the long term. Politicians, educational experts, practitioners, and researchers will come back to these themes and keep them on the agenda.

Key Message 1: New basic skills for all

Guarantee universal and continuing access to learning for gaining and renewing the skills needed for sustained participation in the knowledge society. This means that lifelong learning is about combating social exclusion and promoting active citizenship

Key Message 2: More investment in human resources

Visibly raise levels of investment in human resources in order to give priority to Europe's most important asset - its people. This means that lifelong learning is about investing money and time in learning.

Key Message 3: Innovation in teaching and learning

Develop effective teaching and learning methods and contexts for the continuum of lifelong and life-wide learning. Lifelong learning is about innovations in all areas including new structures

Key Message 4: Valuing learning

Significantly improve the ways in which learning, participation and outcomes are understood and appreciated, particularly non-formal and informal learning. Lifelong learning is about valuing all kind and forms of learning, and the new roles of the different actors in the field of lifelong learning

Key Message 5: Rethinking guidance and counselling

Ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities, throughout Europe and throughout their lives. Lifelong learning is about supporting the learner.

Key Message 6: Bringing learning closer to home

Provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to the learners as possible, in their own communities, and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate. Lifelong learning is about providing opportunities for everybody to learn.

1.3.3 The Main Elements of an Integrated Approach

Avoiding simplification of the idea in the direction of either idealism or reductionism. In the last six years, a regularly recurring term used in all kinds of documents dealing with lifelong learning has been *the integrated approach*. What is the force of an *integrated approach for lifelong learning*?

- Putting the learner at the centre
- Consonance between mutually supporting objectives such as personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social inclusion and employability/adaptability
- A coherent and comprehensive lifelong learning strategy
- Inter- linked development programmes

Putting the learner at the centre means taking into consideration the value of all forms of learning - formal, non-formal, informal. The EU *Communication* document used a new definition of lifelong learning: *all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competencies within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective*. The breadth of this definition draws attention to the full range of learning forms. Also, the *Memorandum* emphasised a balance between learning activities for employability, and learning activities for active citizenship.

After the EU consultation process, an overall consensus can be surmised around the following four broad and mutually supporting objectives: personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social inclusion and employability/adaptability. Keeping an interlinked balance among these priorities has attracted most debates in the Member Countries recently. Agreement on the principle is widely shared. At the same time there are many defects and contradictions in the implementation of these principles.

Coherent and comprehensive lifelong learning strategies mean links to other policy measures. In concrete terms, this means that the Member States must develop and implement coherent and comprehensive strategies for lifelong learning, requiring concerted action initiated at a European level, in accordance with agreed priorities.

It also implies a major shift towards user-oriented learning systems with permeable boundaries across sectors and levels. In a wider sense it means consonance with other policy measures such as:

- Reconstruction of the whole educational and training systems put down in the working programme on the Concrete Future Objectives of Education and Training Systems
- The European Employment Strategy, featuring a horizontal objective for lifelong learning, and specific guidelines that focus on the employment- and labour market-related aspects of lifelong learning
- The European Social Agenda, aiming to reduce inequalities and promote social cohesion, including through lifelong learning
- The Skills and Mobility Action Plan, aiming to ensure that European labour markets are open and accessible to all
- The eLearning initiative, part of the eEurope Action Plan, seeking to promote a digital culture and wider use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in education and training
- The White Paper on Youth, providing the Community with a framework for co-operation in the field of youth policy, focusing on participation of young people, their education, employment and social inclusion
- The European Research Area in relation to the Communication on a mobility strategy. An important component of this strategy for developing human capital could be fostering trans-European networks for knowledge and science.

While each of these strands has its own specificity and objectives, taken together they will contribute to the realisation of a European area of lifelong learning. To facilitate this development, it is intended that education and training will be brought together within a lifelong learning framework, in synergy with the relevant elements of the other processes, strategies and plans.

The EU started a set of educational and training development programmes in the period 1995-2000 - SOCRATES, LEONARDO DA VINCI II and YOUTH. Lifelong learning became a guiding principle for the new Community education, training and youth action programmes, coming into effect in 2000. The funded activities - networks and partnerships, pilot projects and action research, exchange and mobility activities, Community sources of reference - were therefore prime tools for developing the European dimension of lifelong learning. The *Memorandum's* key messages provided a basis for determining priorities in the regular calls for project proposals.

Following several evaluation studies and public consultations on the achievements and experiences of the 2000-2006 educational programmes, the concept of a new Integrated Action Programme for 2007-2013 has been approved in the field of lifelong learning. This comprises sectoral programmes on school education (Comenius), higher education (Erasmus), vocational training (Leonardo da Vinci) and adult education (Grundtvig), and is completed by transversal measures and an additional Jean Monnet programme focusing on European integration. A Memorandum of Understanding has been signed between the European Community and the Republic of Turkey on the participation of the Republic of Turkey in the Community programmes Leonardo da Vinci II, Socrates II and Youth, 2004.¹

¹ Memorandum of Understanding between the European Community and the Republic of Turkey on the participation of the Republic of Turkey in the Community Programmes Leonardo da Vinci II, Socrates II and Youth.

This means that all kinds of providers in education and training of Turkey can attend the above-mentioned educational programmes and the Youth exchange (Socrates II covers: Comenius, Erasmus and Grundtvig).

In summary, the *Integrated Programme for Lifelong Learning* comprises:

1. Comenius: School education
2. Erasmus: Higher education & advanced training
3. Leonardo da Vinci: Initial and continuing vocational education and training
4. Grundtvig: Adult education
5. Transversal programme: 4 key activities – Policy development; Language learning; ICT; Dissemination
6. Jean Monnet programme: 3 key activities – Jean Monnet Action; European Institutions; European Associations

1.3.4 The EU Working Programme on the Concrete Future Objectives of Education and Training Systems

Following the Conclusions of the Heads of State and Governments in Lisbon in 2000, and their endorsement of the common objectives for education and training in Europe in Barcelona in 2002 (European Council, 2002), a radically new process of co-operation was launched in this area, with the overall objective of making education and training systems in Europe a world quality reference point by 2010. From 2002 the Concrete Objective Work Programme became the main means of implementing lifelong learning development in Europe. This section deals with some key aspects of the Concrete Objective Work Programme.

The Programme has set three main aims:

- to improve the quality and effectiveness of EU education and training systems
- to ensure that they are accessible to all
- to open up education and training to the wider world.

Open method of co-ordination

While respecting the breakdown of responsibilities envisaged in the treaties under the principle of subsidiarity, this method provides a new co-operation framework for the Member States with a view to convergence of national policies and the attainment of certain objectives shared by everyone. It is based essentially on the Open Method of Co-ordination which consists of these main elements:

- Identifying and defining jointly the objectives to be attained
- Commonly-defined yardsticks (statistics, indicators) enabling Member States to know where they stand and to assess progress towards the objectives set
- Comparative co-operation tools to stimulate innovation, and the quality and relevance of teaching and training programmes (dissemination of best practice, pilot projects, etc).

Indicators and benchmarks

The Council set five European benchmarks in 2003 for the improvement of education and training systems in Europe by 2010 (European Commission, 2003a):

- An EU average rate of no more than 10% early schools leavers
- The total number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology in the European Union should increase by at least 15% by 2010, while at the same time the gender imbalance should decrease
- At least 85% of 22 year olds in the European Union should have completed upper secondary education.
- The percentage of low-achieving 15 years olds in reading literacy in the European Union should have decreased by at least 20% compared to the year 2000.

- The average European Union level of participation in lifelong learning should be at least 12.5% of the adult working age population (25-64 age group).
- e population (25-64 age group)

Maastricht Communiqué on Vocational Education and Training (VET)

In the framework of the overall Lisbon Strategy, the Copenhagen Declaration of the ministers of the Member Countries on the development of vocational education and training was launched in 2002. In 2004 the ministers of 32 countries responsible for VET, and the European social partners, agreed to strengthen their co-operation with a view to modernising their VET systems in order for Europe to become the most competitive economy, offering all Europeans, whether young people or older workers, unemployed or disadvantaged, the qualifications and competencies they need to be fully integrated into the emerging knowledge-based society, contributing to more and better jobs (European Council, 2004).

The document known as the *Maastricht Communiqué* and issued in 2004, emphasises that the necessary reforms and investment should be focused particularly on:

- The image and attractiveness of the vocational route for employers and individuals, in order to increase participation in VET
- Achieving high levels of quality and innovation in VET systems in order to benefit all learners and make European VET globally competitive
- Linking VET with the labour market requirements of the knowledge economy for a highly skilled workforce, and especially, due to the strong impact of demographic change, the upgrading and competence development of older workers
- The needs of the low-skilled (about 80 million persons aged between 25-64 years in the EU) and disadvantaged groups for the purpose of achieving social cohesion and increasing labour market participation.

These aspirations could all have consequences and specific emphases in Turkey, especially in relation to the MEGEP/SVET project which deals with strengthening VET.

Working Groups on the Concrete Objectives

In the process of the Open Method of Co-ordination, a number of working groups of experts have been set up in which representatives of the ministries, social partners and European level stakeholders of 32 countries are taking part. Most of them have published their reports on the work of 2002-03 (European Commission 2005), covering the following:

- Education and Training of Teachers and Trainers
- Key Competencies
- Language Learning
- Information and Communication Technologies
- Mathematics, Science and Technology
- Making the Best Use of Resources
- Mobility and European Co-operation
- Open Learning Environment
- Making Learning Attractive, Strengthening Links with Working Life and Society
- Active Citizenship and Social Cohesion
- Reforming Guidance and Counselling
- Recognising Non-formal and Informal Learning
- Measuring Progress through Indicators and Benchmarks.

In 2004 a Council/Commission first Joint Interim Report, *Education & Training 2010*, set the overall strategic direction for the work programme in 2005-2006. It identified priority levers for future action which should be given priority, requesting also the incorporation of actions at European level relating to vocational education and training (priorities and follow-up to the Maastricht Communiqué), lifelong

learning (follow-up to the Council Resolution) and mobility (implementation of the Mobility Recommendation and Action Plan).

In further work in 2005-06 its focus will be on

- The necessary reforms in the key priority areas in each country, with public and private investment in human resources both raised and deployed more efficiently
- Coherent and comprehensive strategies for lifelong learning to be in place in all Member States by 2006
- A true European area of education and training to be created, where free movement of knowledge and skills will contribute to the creation of a genuine European labour market.

Summing up, this review of European approaches and Commission actions in recent years shows the central importance given to third generation lifelong learning in the Community. It suggests the possibilities open to Turkey to take part in the mutual benefits of cooperation, and also the necessity to develop a strong lifelong learning policy and practical strategy as part of the accession process.

Meanwhile we turn in the next part to the present Turkish situation, then look at the likely impact of various changes already under way in Turkey, before returning to the ways that the evolving European situation may helpfully connect with developments in Turkey.

Chapter 2.

Lifelong Learning in Turkey

2.1 *The Scope of this Chapter*

This chapter presents and assesses Turkey's lifelong learning capacity and practices. The LLL capacity and practices of various units of the MoNE, formal and non-formal institutions, social partners and NGOs, governmental bodies, private sector and NGO's offering non-formal training and education in the form of lifelong learning in Turkey are described, and an assessment is made of the strengths and weaknesses of current LLL activities, and of the administrative arrangements for implementing and promoting LLL.

The chapter is based on statistical data from different sources. These include the Ministry of National Education, the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), OECD, World Bank, UNDP and UNESCO, as well as articles, research papers by independent researchers and reports prepared by different governmental bodies, employment services officers, labour market authorities, NGOs and social partners.

2.2 *Current Situation: Population, Education, Labour Market and Employment*

In order to gain an overall view of and assess the development of LLL activities, we need to understand the present situation of Turkey in terms of population, education and labour market.

2.2.1 **Population**

Understanding the demographic composition of the population can identify the key challenge for Turkey (see Table 1 in Appendix 2). Of 73 million Turkish citizens, 20 million fall within the age cohort of 0-14 years. According to projections made by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), 40 million persons will fall within the working age group 14-44 and 10 million within the age cohort of 45-64 years by 2020. This implies that almost 70% of the population will be of working age (European Training Foundation, 2004b), representing a unique opportunity for Turkey in terms of both economic and social development, provided that there is a substantial increase in human resource development through adequate investment in education and training (European Training Foundation, 2004a).

Turkey's population at the beginning of 2006 is approximately 73 million, an increase of 20 million since the mid-1980s. The rate of population increase slowed down from 2.5% in the 1980s to 1.5% in the 1990s. It is now 1.4%, and is expected to decline further during the first decade of the twenty-first century². However, given the nature of past demographic trends, both the share in total population and the rate of growth of working age people will remain high.

The share of the agricultural sector in total employment, which was 46% in 1988, is currently 34%. This decline in agricultural employment has been especially rapid after 1999, in part reflecting changes in agricultural support policies undertaken in the context of the structural adjustment programme (Buğra, 2005).

The major population changes over the next decade and beyond are projected as follows: a decline in the relative share of the population in the younger age groups; an increase in the working-age population; and a continuing urbanisation of the population. The trend in Turkey's school-age population follows the patterns described above: the rate of growth of the younger population at the primary school (grades 1-8) is projected to slow down and the share of the population in that age group will decrease. The population at the upper secondary level will remain stable and the major increase will be at the tertiary level. The urban population continues to grow, but at a slower rate than in the late 1980s: 43.9% from 1985 to 1990, but only 32.6% from 1990 to 2000 (OECD, 2005b).

² TURKSTAT, www.die.gov.tr

2.2.2 Education

Educational attainments in Turkey are much below the levels desired, and planned targets. Figures 1-5 in Appendix 2 give net ratios for literacy, elementary and secondary schooling in different years obtained from TURKSTAT (2005) Figure 6 (in the same appendix) presents total enrolment by school levels and types (Ministry of National Education, 2005).

As far as initial education and training for literacy, employment and average educational attainments are concerned, all figures show that there is significant room for LLL interventions at all levels. For example, even in 2000 approximately 22% of women were still illiterate. Over 10% of boys and girls were still out of school at primary education level. Schooling at secondary education level was below 50% with approximately 10% difference between boys (49%) and girls (39%), which eliminates chances for higher education for half of the young population from the start. Average educational attainment in years is low and for women it seems to be much lower (4.96 years) than for men (7.01 years).

The reported schooling rates for girls in less developed parts of the country may be misleading: it may be less than what is reported. In a beneficiary assessment survey carried out through participant observation by a well trained group of researchers, it was found that, parents send their daughters to school at later ages and that they withdraw or are pulled out at early stages. Usually attendance begins to be a serious problem after third grade, parallel to the changes in the female body; but, somehow, a higher official graduation³ is obtained (Karasar, 1991).

2.2.3 Labour Market and Employment

Turkey's labour force participation rate in 2004 was 50.5%³. This is the lowest among OECD countries. It is significantly below the OECD average (69.3%) and the Euro Area average (70.9%). The labour force participation of women (28%) is markedly lower than the EU average (67%). The percentage of the labour force employed in agriculture (33.9%) is decreasing, but remains considerably higher than in EU countries. A marked difference exists between the employment of men and women in Turkey, as 8.5% of men are employed in agriculture, compared to 24.4% of women. 80% of women in agriculture are employed in the form of unpaid family labour. Women employed in agriculture have markedly low levels of education attainment: 28.5% are illiterate and only 4.2% have an education beyond primary school⁴.

The other relevant statistics are:

- Unemployment threatens particularly the younger segment of the population (26% in the 15-24 age group);
- The incidence of child labour is 948,000 in the age cohort 12-17, of which 59% are employed in agriculture, 35% are located in urban areas and 56 % are males⁵;
- 90% of those employed are high school graduates, or with lower education level or no education;
- Nearly 60% of the labour force is composed of people with basic education or who are barely literate;
- Significant disparities are registered between urban and rural areas, as well as between Western and Eastern parts of the country;
- The unemployment rate in the non-agricultural sector is 14.6% while unemployment for educated youth (having completed secondary education) is 25.4%.

2.2.4 Regional disparities

One of the biggest problems in Turkey's education and employment is directly attributable to regional disparity. According to the data on basic Human Development Indicators (HDI), the gap between the most developed regions in the West and the least developed in the East is indeed very high.

Additionally, there is severe disparity between genders with regard to the level of education attained in many Eastern provinces (Buğra, 2005).

³ TURKSTAT, Household Labour Force Survey, 3rd quarter 2003

⁴ State Institute of Statistics (2004), Labour Force Database

⁵ TURKSTAT, Household Labour Force Survey, 3rd quarter 2003

There are also disparities among the least developed cities in the East. For example, adult literacy rates and combined school enrolment ratios are 73.2 and 83.7% for Iğdir and 67.4 and 77.3% for Batman, respectively, while they are only 52.7 and 62.3% for Şırnak (Buğra, 2005).

2.3 Lifelong Learning Practices and the Ministry of Education

In this section, the legal foundations, the existing national education/training delivery system in Turkey, and the basic issues in LLL in the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE), are examined.

2.3.1 Basic Issues in LLL in MoNE

A number of issues need to be addressed and problems tackled, to make LLL policy a success. Three issues in particular represent serious bottlenecks to all other activities, and need to be dealt with properly.

The first and maybe the most important issue is the *cognitive readiness* of the stakeholders at all levels and corners about the concept and implementation of lifelong learning. The term LLL seems to be very attractive and somewhat familiar. Almost all relevant parties use already use expressions and terms such as “education from birth to death”, “non-formal education”, “yaygın education”. In spite of this attractiveness and familiarity, no consensus exists as to the real meaning of the term, let alone the organisational set-up, practices required, and individual readiness to carry-out such tasks.

In many cases, the existing system, while being operated in traditional lines, tends to give an impression that it is moving towards a LLL system. For example, while attempts have been made to end the vocational-general education differentiation and this has been discussed in the various National Educational Conventions, no strategy has yet been developed and implemented yet. Multi-programme secondary schools have been established with little or no success toward this end. The effectiveness and efficiency of the Centres for Vocational and Technical Education established in 2002-03 providing formal diploma and non-formal certificate programs in VOTET areas need to be studied. The movement of students/trainees among the programmes is supported by many, but it is limited to exceptional cases only. Strong barriers still exist between programmes even within the same directorates, and even between programmes in the same institutions. Such easy movements within and among the educational and/or employment sectors are still a desire no more than a dream.

The second significant issue is the *strategy* to be followed. There needs to be a well designed strategy for the implementation of LLL on a short, medium and long-term basis. For example, some of the innovations are being introduced to the system without enough developmental backing; instead, official decrees are still the main method used. The modular programming system is an example in this respect as it had no National Qualification backing, no field testing and no comprehensive orientation of educational personnel. It seems that until now it is only a change of name from the traditional *chapter* to the new *module*. However, it needs to be mentioned that the process is somewhat better in primary education.

The third issue which needs to be addressed is that of *leadership*. To enable the Turkish educational system to operate on a LLL basis, strong and firm academic and administrative leadership is needed at all levels.

There are also statistical, organisational, quality control, legal foundations and a number of other issues that are related to the three issues mentioned above. To take just one example, the Ministry of Finance does not pay retired people over 65 years of age to become trainers in non-formal training activities, thus risking waste of valuable and needed talent.

2.3.2 Legal Foundations for LLL in Turkey

In Turkey, education and training activities are designed and implemented mainly on the basis of the Constitution, Educational Acts and Ministry of National Education decrees.

The Constitution

According to the Constitution (Article 42) everyone has right to be educated; *no one shall be deprived of the right of learning and education*. The scope of the right to education is to be defined and regulated by Act.

Primary education is compulsory for all citizens of both sexes, and is free of charge in state schools. Secondary education is also free.

The principles governing the functioning of private primary and secondary schools are to be regulated by Act in keeping with the standards set for state schools.

The state is to provide scholarships and other means of assistance to enable students of merit lacking financial means to continue their education. The state must take necessary measures to rehabilitate those in need of special training so as to render such people useful to society.

National Education Basic Act (1739 LN)

The education system in Turkey is governed mainly by the National Education Basic Act, which came into effect in June 1973 (*Official Gazette*). Since then there have been some minor modifications.

Basic Principles are:

- The right to be educated: Educational institutions are open to all (Article 4); everyone has a right to be educated (Article 7); education is to be provided based on equal opportunity; for the needy, appropriate mechanisms are to be created for individuals at all levels of education to be able to succeed without allowing their economic condition to be a barrier. Also, special measures are to be taken for pupils with special needs (Article 8).
- Education is to meet individual and national needs (Article 5); Individuals, through guidance programmes, are to be guided to different programmes and schools according to their interests and capabilities (Article 6).
- Each individual has a right to primary education right is free of charge; beyond that, they may get educated according to their desires and abilities (Article 7).
- Continuous education: It is essential that general and vocational education be provided lifelong for all individuals. It is to provide *continuous education* for adults to adapt to life and work (Article 9)
- Education everywhere: National educational objectives should be striven for everywhere - not only at state and private educational institutions, but everywhere – at home, at work, and throughout society - and on every possible occasion (Article 9).
- The educational activities of all public, private and voluntary educational institutions are to be in line with the national educational objectives. To ascertain this, they are to be inspected by the Ministry of National Education (Article 17).

Legislation and regulations dealing with the training of employees

New standards have been established from 2001 for the creation of practical training opportunities. According to these arrangements, small enterprises with less than 20 employees may provide skills training to vocational students if they so desire. Additionally, larger enterprises with 20 or more employees that operate in fields covered under Law No. 4702 have to provide practical training in the ratio of 5%-10% on the basis of the total number of the employees. In addition, enterprises employing more than 200 people must establish a unit for practical training, and appoint training personnel to the unit for this purpose (European Training Foundation, 2004b). TOBB and TISK are expected to raise awareness of their members that match these requirements (see below).

The law covers 130 occupational branches, and the certification of these occupations is the responsibility of MoNE. Certification for other vocations (that are not covered by the law) is the responsibility of the concerned vocational institutions. For example, training, examination and certification of vocations in the field of TESK (Turkish Confederation of Trades and Craftsmen), are the responsibility of the concerned chambers of craftsmen and tradesmen.

The Labour Code, which came into force in 2003, provides for the involvement of social partners in the preparation of new legislation in the employment and social affairs field, through the establishment of a permanent tripartite structure with a key role in this process. The law requires social partners to be represented on both the general and national executive Boards of ISKUR (see below) (European Training Foundation, 2004b).

Financing

The financing of education comes mainly from Turkey's general budget, the largest part of it being distributed among the MoNE, Higher Education Credit and Pensions Institutions (YURT-KUR).

In addition to the work of the Ministry of National Education, educational services for SMEs (Small and Medium Enterprises) have been implemented and supported by KOSGEB (Small and Medium Industry Development Organisation) which was founded by Law no 3624 and by TEKS, founded by Law no 5362

TESK, tradesmen and craftsmen chambers, association and federations affiliated with it, should allocate 5% of their gross income to a training budget for vocational training. TESK established a Vocational Training Fund to support such training activities. Both the training budget and the Vocational Training Fund are used for the vocational training needs of tradesmen and craftsmen, as well as the affiliated vocational organisations.

No specific resources are allocated from the general budget approved annually by the Turkish Grand National Assembly to ISKUR to be used specifically for training services. Therefore, these expenditures on services and staff are met from ISKUR's own resources (Akkök, 2003). The concept of student-centred education is being piloted within the Project for Laboratory Schools established under the World Bank program for support to basic education. (See Appendix 7 for a full discussion of financing.)

2.3.3 Education Structure

The Turkish national education system is composed of two basic parts: formal (*örgün*) and non-formal (*yaygın*) education (Article 18). Formal and non-formal education activities are to be organised in close collaboration and coordination, utilising each other's available resources to the fullest extent.

Formal education covers pre-school, primary, secondary and higher education institutions.

Pre-school education is voluntary for the age group three to five years. They may be attached to a primary school as a nursery class, or established as an independent school.

Primary education is of eight years' duration; it is compulsory for all children between the ages 6 and 14; and free of charge at state-run schools (Article 22). Primary education prepares pupils both for life and for the next level of educational institutions. To accomplish a healthy transition, vocational guidance programmes are provided during the last (16th) semester of primary education.

Secondary education includes all general, vocational and technical educational institutions after primary (Article 26). Starting from 2005-06, the duration increased from three to four years, starting with the newcomers. State-provided secondary education is free.

According to individual preferences, abilities and national needs, secondary education prepares individuals to enter higher education and/or employment (Article 28).

Secondary education institutions are called lycees, technical lysces, vocational lycees, health lycees, agricultural lycees, teacher's lycees, multi-programme lycees etc (Article 29). Those with instruction in a foreign language have the word Anatolian added to their names; thus Anatolian Lycees, Anatolian Technical Lycees" etc.

Guidance programmes continue at secondary education to help pupils to make appropriate decisions as to selecting higher education programmes or employment options (Article 30).

Secondary education graduates become eligible to be candidates for higher education programmes (Article 31). Entrance to higher educational programmes is regulated by the Higher Educational Council in cooperation with the Ministry of National Education

Higher education is composed of two-year associate, four-year BS, and two-to-five year graduate (MS and PhD) degree programmes. Vertical and horizontal paths are meant to be kept open, depending on the abilities (successes) of the students (Article 37). Higher education is not free, but successful candidates/students are provided with loans, scholarships and other means (Article 38).

Non-formal Education: covers all educational activities which are carried out near to and/or outside of the formal education belong to the non-formal education category.

Non-formal (*yaygın*) education is also provided in line with the objectives and basic principles of national education. It thus provides educational services to people who have never been in the formal education system, or have been at some stage of this system, or have left the system altogether. The services are to include different programmes, starting from literacy to high tech and/or cultural, civic, health and such-like areas, with the basic objective of increasing individuals' productivity, health and happiness (Article 40).

Non-formal education has two basic sections, general and vocational education, which are organised to support each other (Article 41).

2.3.4 Coordination

The Ministry of National Education provides coordination among the public, private and voluntary institutions providing general, vocational and technical education (Article 42). The nature and principles of the coordination to be provided by the Ministry of National Education, among the Ministries, and by the public, private and voluntary educational institutions providing vocational and technical education, are to be set by an Act (Article 42).

Vocational Education Act (3308 LN; 4702 LN)

The first comprehensive act was enacted in the apprenticeship and vocational and technical education system in Turkey in 1986. It was called the Apprenticeship and Vocational Education Act (Resmi Gazete Nr. 19139, 1986), commonly known as act number 3308 LN. It set out the rules and regulations for the education and training of apprentices (*çirak*), skilled worker (*kalfa*; or assistant master) and master (*usta*), to be carried out in schools and enterprises. With this Act, local committees have been formed representing almost all stakeholders to help the functioning of the system.

There have been many changes in the Act, the most comprehensive one being act no. 4702. This act changed the name of the name of the “Apprenticeship and Vocational Education Act” to “Vocational Education Act”. In addition, act number 4702 changed many existing laws and brought further organisational and conceptual changes in the education system in Turkey. It changed some of the articles of the Higher Education Act (2547 LN), the Apprenticeship and Vocational Education Act (3308 LN), the Uninterrupted Compulsory Primary Education Act (4306 LN), and the Organisational Structure of the Ministry of National Education (3797 LN). It also introduced new concepts and implementation procedures in Vocational and Technical Education. It has opened-up routes between and within general and vocational and technical education programmes, leading towards diplomas and/or certificates, with the basic objective of improving the efficiency and effectiveness as well as the quality of the end products.

Professional organisations of employers, such as TOBB, TISK and TESK (see section 2.5 below) have been given new planning and implementation responsibilities in training activities; trade unions are required to spend 10% of their resources for training.

The 2006 Decree - Non-Formal Educational Institutions Regulations

A Non-formal Educational Institutions Decree (Resmi Gazete Nr. 26080, 2006) has recently been approved by the Ministry of National Education to regulate the activities of the non-formal educational institutions attached to The Directorate General of Apprenticeship and Non-Formal Education of MONE ... (Article 1). This covers the establishment, administration, education, production, counselling, inspection and coordination activities of all courses to be opened by Public Education Centres (PEC) and Educational Rooms (ER), or by any other institution in cooperation or with the approval of PECs, outside of private educational institutions. (Article 2). This new regulation matches Turkey's needs better than the 1979 regulation on non-formal education centres. It is more flexible and arranges that, if possible, powers are transferred to a local level. It also regulates the participation of volunteers (which can be persons and institutions).

Courses are conducted mainly in three categories: literacy and making-up of unfinished programmes; vocational and technical programmes; and social and cultural programmes (Articles 7 and 46). The courses, conducted by the schools themselves, are mostly evening courses organised and carried out locally to meet the training needs of their locality. No statistical information is available about these at the Central administration.

The most common non-formal educational form is provided through **Folk Education Centres**. In 2005, there were 924 such centres in provinces and towns around the country, with a total participation of more than one million people (from: Education Statistics of Turkey 2005/'06 from the Ministry of National Education). More figures on non-formal education institutions in Turkey is presented in Table 2 of Appendix 2. The courses opened and people attended to these centres in 2004 are presented in Table 3 in Appendix 2.

The courses offered are open in three basic areas: vocational, social-cultural and literacy. Almost half of the courses are opened in vocational education, aimed at imparting vocational skills and knowledge for home and/or employment uses. In all courses, female participation is higher than male.

According to a survey on Turkey's labour market and skill needs (SVET labour market team and İŞKUR Employment Department, 2006 draft report), about 1,5 million employees (33% of all employees, working with 39% of all companies) were involved in one or more training courses in the 12 months before the survey took place. Most courses focused on technical training related to a specific subject or occupation, followed by sales and marketing, courses for coaching and training, ICT, management and personnel management.

Most companies prefer to use their own training centre or a training centre of another company. They also use private institutes, consultancy firms or private instructors or tutors. The share of the ministry of education in the training market, including the PECs, is rather small. However, PECs *can* play an important role in meeting the training needs in the local labour market, if they have a clear idea about the training needs of local employers and employees and respond by offering courses that correspond with these training needs. In other words, PECs should not be supply-driven organisations, but demand-driven organisation.

To get an idea of these training needs, PECs need methods to measure the type and size of the local training needs with local enterprises. Readers who are interested in methods to measure training needs, should consult the report on the aforementioned survey⁶. One of the annexes of the report holds the questionnaire, which may be used to develop a questionnaire that suits the local circumstances.

The aforementioned survey revealed that only 2% of the companies have organised language-training courses for their employees or allowed employees to participate in these courses, whereas 19% of the

⁶ The report can be downloaded from www.megep.meb.gov.tr as soon as the final report is published. Until then, the SVET staff can send a copy of the draft report at your request.

companies report that they face foreign language skill problems. Two-third of the language-training courses are on the English language, and German and French rank second. Considering the difference between the foreign language skill problems and the number of courses that is currently offered, PECs may discover that enterprises need foreign language courses (mostly in English, but also in German and French) when they conduct a training needs assessment.

The EU-project “Support to Basic Education Programme (SBEP)” ordered an evaluation of the effectiveness of PECs (Ayas et al). Appendix 6 holds a summary of the report. The participants in the evaluation mention several problems related to insufficient public information about the PECs. Lack of knowledge of the general public gives PECs a negative image, and little is known about their services. It seems worthwhile for PECs to invest heavily in public information to make themselves known as high-quality training providers and to present their courses on offer to the general public. However, if PECs start to operate in the same areas as private training providers, they will need to introduce a course fee, to be paid by employers or individual participants, in order to avoid unfair competition.

In short, though their current share in the training market is rather small, PECs can play an important role in the local training market. They should assess the current training demand and offer good quality courses that match the actual training needs in their province. Subjects on high demand are technical training courses, sales and marketing courses, coaching and training courses, ICT courses, management courses and language courses. Investing in public information is necessary, not only to correct the negative image and present themselves as high-quality training providers, but also to familiarise the general public with their course offerings. If PECs start to operate in the same areas as private training providers, they will need to introduce a course fee.

Another common way of providing non-formal education is through specific national campaigns, such as literacy programmes. Other non-formal educational arrangements are, for example, Vocational and Technical Open Education, the Learning Centres, Centre for Information Links, World Links for Development. The general composition of trainees in non-formal education by age, educational background, and gender participating in MoNE’s non-formal VOTET educational activities are summarised here (Yıldırım, year of publication unknown). The age distribution of trainees attending non-formal programs was reported to be 10.83% in the 7-14 years age range, 67.25% aged 15-22, 20.72% aged 23-44 and 1.20% 45+ years of age.

2.3.5 Finance

It is not easy to clarify and make any meaningful assessment of financing in the education sector, nor is it easy to know what proportion is assigned to LLL. There are many conceptual and statistical limitations, making the attempt almost useless.

One can however look at such macro indicators as the ratio of educational budget compared with GNP and the national consolidated budget. Figure 7 in Appendix 2 provides such an insight.

It is seen here that, in terms of both GDP and the consolidated budget ratios, the education budget has increased significantly within the last ten years. Certainly more is needed, but it is also very important that what is available is used more effectively and more efficiently.

2.4 Other Providers and Stakeholders

2.4.1 Public and Private Sector Institutions and Organisations and NGO’s offering Lifelong Learning through Non-formal Education and Training

Turkey has many providers of non-formal education, some coming under direct government regulation, others outside or partly outside the regulated system. Managing this diversity especially of civil society providers, and deciding how much regulation is needed, is useful and works to be effective and to achieve the best results, is an important policy matter. An overview of larger organisations, working at a nationwide scale and involved in providing education and training is

presented in this section. The selection is to some extent arbitrary as it could not be based to the scope of LLL activities of these organisations..

Early Innovations in Civic NFE

The first and most important non-formal education and training institution and instrument of public education in Turkey began with *People-houses*, first established in 1928 under the title of *Nation Schools*. These Nation Schools or Public-houses were designed and organised to undertake the teaching of the Latin alphabet to the whole population. It was the first and unique - mass training attempt in the history of Turkish Republic, lasting over 40 years. All men and women between the ages 16 and 45 attended four months of training, two months for literacy training and another two months for basic school education, in subjects such as mathematics, history, geography, and citizenship. School buildings, mosques, governmental buildings, coffee-houses and clubs, as well as other available meeting places, were used in the undertaking of this mass training.

In 1932, National-Schools were reorganised under the new name of People-Houses. Broad functions were assigned that were aimed at creating a classless and egalitarian society from the ruins of the dispersed Ottoman society. Subjects included a variety of sporting, educational, occupational, cultural, and leisure activities taught in both long- and short-term courses at each of the 478 People Houses and 4,332 training units/schools during the establishment years of the democracy until 1951.

People-houses were reopened in 1963 with a heavier emphasis on adult and non-formal education and training, community affairs and development, and local community activities. At the same time, they renounced their close association with political parties, and became a truly civil service organisation focusing on cultural enlightenment, on the one hand and fighting poverty, injustice and inhuman living conditions in the country on the other.

Public or People- houses were once again closed in September 1980, but reopened in 1987. However, after this period, the public houses - which had been operating actively, previously as a part of non-formal education in Turkey - began operating solely as places for cultural and leisure activities.

Village Institutes (*Köy Enstitüleri*) also played an important role in the development of formal and non-formal education in Turkey. Village Institutes officially began offering activities in 1942. This project was one of the most revolutionary social programmes ever attempted by a developing country, with the aim of training the peasant masses in literacy, practical skills and basic education. The idea was to animate and invigorate the Turkish villages "from inside out", by bringing up a new generation of well-educated villagers who were well versed in critical thinking and the world classics, as well as in the practical technologies of the day directly applicable to the needs of their own villages.

In 1935, 42% of Turkish men and only 17% of Turkish women were literate. 82% of the population lived in rural areas. The Village Institutes made sure that students were not isolated from the world around them. They would study mathematics and grammar in the morning, then undertake some practical work in the afternoon, for example. The curriculum included regular reading, writing and science courses, as well as practical hands-on workshops such as construction techniques, electronics and agriculture. In 1948, the Institutes were transformed into regular schools by eliminating the outside work and practice requirements. All twenty Institutes were shut down altogether in 1953 on the order of the Democrat Party.

MEKSA Foundation VET

The Vocational Education and Small Scale Industries Foundation (MEKSA)⁷ was established in 1985 and has been working since as a non-profit, public interest foundation to promote the vocational training and small industry in Turkey. MEKSA has been successful in gathering together all the social partners involved in vocational training: Management of MEKSA foundation is composed of public

⁷ Web Page: www.meksa.org.tr

and private institutions and organisations that are active in education and employment. Leading institutions and organizations include; TESK, TOBB, TISK, TÜRK-İŞ, KOSGEP, HALKBANK, MoNE and İŞKUR.

After the Council of Ministers gave permission, MEKSA has undertaken international cooperation in order to keep the vocational training parallel to recent developments all over the world. The MEKSA Foundation has initiated fruitful partnerships and cooperation with foreign partners such as the Berlin Institute for Economic Cooperation (BGZ), the Germany Technical Cooperation Institute (GTZ) and the, Development Policies and Cooperation Institute (DEZA) in Switzerland. These three institutes also provide external support. Lastly, local chambers of tradesmen and craftsmen, local chambers of commerce and industry as well as managements of industry zones support activities of MEKSA. Since its establishment, MEKSA has provided training and support services. It wishes to contribute to more effective orientation of vocational training in Turkey, and to disseminate it across the country. It provides the support necessary to increase technological structure and production of small enterprises at a contemporary level sufficient for contribution to Turkish economy. Long-term training activities are provided via “Supra Training Centres”, whereas short-term training activities are provided via “Training Centres for Service Vocations”.

Currently, MEKSA offers practical vocational education to apprentices, experienced apprentice workmen/-women and master workmen/-women in 22 training centres in 13 provinces. The projects are financed from abroad, and have provided educational opportunities to many people including women, children, and young people. The main training activities are on:

- Basic vocational education
- Career development
- Changing profession /career

Meksa Foundation offers different types of training in different fields. All of these fall within the concept of LLL. The training for career development is an especially good example of LLL practice.

Other Civil Society Providers.

The Association in Support of Contemporary Living was established in 1989, and since then has organised many activities to support the development of LLL in Turkey. The projects of the Association for non-formal education include centres for culture and society and children, computer courses, human rights education (children rights and women rights), projects for the children living in the streets, language courses, and courses for women to improve themselves.

The Quality Association of Turkey (KalDer) was established in 1991 in order to spread the understanding and the implications of ‘The Total Quality Management’ (TQM) in Turkey. With the mission of achieving a stronger position in the competing world market, the Quality Association of Turkey was founded as a voluntary civil societal organisation. In order to increase the quality consciousness among people, the association organises a National Quality Congress every year.

The Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV) is another foundation providing non-formal educational opportunities for children and youth in need since 1995, and currently serving the non-formal educational needs of over 150,000 children and young people (aged 6-16) throughout Turkey. This organisation works with up to 2,780 volunteers annually.

2.4.2 Occupational Guidance and Counselling NGOs

According to the European Commission the fundamental principles of LLL are: the centrality of the learner, equality of opportunity and the importance of high quality and relevance (EC, 2001). Career guidance can be a tool to live up to these principles. For example, to properly manage their own learning activities, learners need information about themselves, the society and the economy. Career guidance services can provide the link between these information sources and people’s abilities and interests. Also, career guidance can promote equal access to learning and labour market opportunities:

it can raise the aspiration of the disadvantaged by making them aware of the opportunities and supporting them in securing entry to such opportunities (World Bank, 2003).

LLL approaches promote substantial individual control over what is learned, as well as over the timing, location and mode of learning. In addition, students should not only achieve formal skills and qualifications, but also develop the motivation to learn and the skills to manage their own learning (OECD, 2004a). As a result LLL requires adjustments to the education systems: the system needs to be “learner driven”, or in other words, the learner is put at the centre of the education system.

Traditionally, career guidance is delivered in two main settings, i.e. schools and public employment services. In schools, the focus is on young people that are about to leave school, and need to decide on which occupation or which tertiary education course to choose. Career guidance in public employment services focuses on unemployed with immediate job decisions. In both cases, the career guidance services are dominated by information services and immediate decisions, and do not encourage learners to develop the motivation to learn and the skills to manage their own learning. Hence we can conclude that the traditional career guidance services do not match the demands of lifelong learning. What’s more, there are relatively few career guidance services for other groups than the traditional ones, such as students in tertiary education or employed adults (OECD, 2004a). That’s why the OECD (2004a) believes that “... career guidance services need to broaden from largely providing assistance with *decisions* at limited and selected points in people’s lives to an approach which also encompasses the development of career management *skills*”. In addition, access to career guidance should be widened greatly, so as to make it available to everybody throughout their lives and not only to selected groups. To control the increase of the costs and to meet the needs of the wider range of clients, career guidance services need to adopt a wider range of delivery methods and the delivery of the services needs to be more flexible in time and space.

Appendix 8 describes possible career guidance services and how they support successful lifelong learning.

Many occupational guidance and counselling studies have been carried out nationally and internationally and translated into Turkish (Sultana and Zelloth, 2003). One of the latest, *Vocational Information, Guidance and Counselling Services: Turkey Country Report* (Akkök and Watts, 2003), is one the most detailed and up-to-date reports available in the sector.

However, in Turkey, there are a limited number of non-governmental organisations to which Career Information Guidance and Counselling Services (MBRD service) providers can belong. Memur-Sen Eğitimciler Birliği Sendikası have been organising training and other activities in terms of LLL for civil servants and other people who work especially in the education sector. Teachers can join a number of trade unions, such as Eğitim-Sen, Türk Eğitim-Sen, Eğitim-Bir Sen, Ulusal Eğitim Sen. Three of the NGOs that work for the guidance and counselling are listed below (Akkök and Watts, 2003) as an illustrative example:

The Turkish Psychological Counselling and Guidance Association (PDRDER) aims at creating professional solidarity among school guidance counsellors and others working in the field of psychological counselling and guidance; ensuring the development of psychological counselling and guidance in Turkey; helping the social, scientific, professional and cultural development of practitioners in the field; and protecting and defending the rights of practitioners.

The Turkish Psychologists Association was established in 1976 to create unity and solidarity among psychologists; to ensure that psychology as a branch of science and as a career is promoted, improved and used to the benefit of the community; to enhance the contributions of psychology to health, education, industry, management, justice, the military and security forces, mass communication, publication services, religion, language, communication, social services, art and other fields of application related to psychology; and to ensure the protection of the standards and rights of psychologists.

The YÖRET Foundation (Foundation for Introducing Guidance and Training Guidance Practitioners in Higher Education) aims to make careers in guidance and psychological counselling known among the public; to run short courses for guidance practitioners; and to find solutions to the orientation and adjustment problems which students experience at university, linked to the work of the Guidance and Psychological Counselling Centres. The Foundation invites foreign specialists to Turkey and performs awareness- raising activities.

2.4.3 Employers' organisations and Trade Union Federations

The most important non-governmental stakeholders in training and lifelong learning activities are employers' associations (TOBB, TISK, TESK and TÜSIAD), and workers' and civil servants' trade union confederations (TURK-İŞ, HAK-İŞ, DISK and KESK). Each of these is described briefly below.

Employers' Organisations

TOBB, the Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey, is an important representative of the private sector. It has 364 members at local level, including chambers of commerce, industry, commerce and industry, maritime trade and commodity exchanges. Well over a million member companies of various size and from many sectors are registered with the chambers and commodity exchanges all over the country.

TOBB participates in a wide range of social dialogue committees, as the representative of the private sector in the afore mentioned areas. The Vocational Education Act gives it the authority to open vocational training courses in the areas of its competence, and to issue training certificates for training provided to its members on subjects that are not within the scope of the Vocational Education Act..

Moreover, TOBB has the responsibility to contribute to the strengthening of vocational training. TOBB provides demand-driven training on a range of topics to its members. Training in general is not provided on the basis of systematically identified needs, with the exception of few chambers such as Ankara Industrial Chamber⁸.

Also, TOBB is authorised to be active in fields related to vocational education, such as vocational guidance provided by the chambers, establishing vocational education institutes and curriculum development, thus assuring qualified workforce for the industry. The majority of the chambers provide educational activities such as courses and seminars for their members.

Lastly, TOBB allocates 2% of its revenues to KOSGEB in order to support training of SMEs.

TISK, the Turkish Confederation of Employer Associations, is an umbrella organisation authorised to represent Turkish employers. It includes 22 sectoral employer's unions, representing 8.300 enterprises with 1,2 million employees. As an official "social partner" TISK represents employers in several platforms and organisations.

TISK's member-unions offer in-service training in workplaces on several subjects, for example on vocational education, work health and safety, environment, total quality management, first aid, family planning, and industrial relationships. Employer unions in the metal, textile and construction sector are particularly active in this field: MESS, the Turkish Employers' Association of Metal Industries, has begun a Joint Education project with another employers union in 2000. By now they have trained more than 33 thousand employees, and intend to train many more. TÜTSİS, the Turkish Textile Employers' Association, was established in 1991 to meet the Textile industry's need for a well trained workforce and started to introduce vocational standards and a certification system for the textile sector. INTES, Employers' Association of Construction Industries, founded the Training Foundation

⁸ Web Page: www.tobb.org.tr

of Construction and Installation Workers (İNİŞEV), whose activities are discussed [below](#). Several companies (or their corresponding foundations) contribute directly to national education.

Lastly, TISK is involved training and consultancy aiming to reduce child labour, and implemented the “Pilot Project to Enhance Efficiency in Education and Employment” with TÜRK-İŞ within the scope of the EU-financed Strengthening Vocational Education and Training System in Turkey Project (SVET)

The Training Foundation of Construction and Installation Workers (İNİŞEV) provides training for workers in the construction sector. The Foundation made protocols with Money⁹, İŞKUR and MEKSA in terms of qualitative developments in education. Prior to 2005, more than 1,500 workers were trained. Certification is the most important part of this training. However, according to statistics provided to this study, most workers in the construction sector are not willing to obtain training even though certificates are valid at the international level.

The reason for this lack of demand is that the certification is not a statutory obligation. Not only in the construction and installation sector, but also for the other sectors, certification is a problem. For this reason, the quality and the quantity of the training are not satisfactory. The certificates and training of İNİŞEV could be a model for other foundations and institutions that organise similar trainings. Within the framework of LLL, such training has crucial importance, introducing a mutual benefit and promoting collaboration as well as possible joint use of the trained labour among social partners.

TESK¹⁰, the Turkish Confederation of Trades and Craftsmen, is a non-profit vocational organisation and for trades- and craftsmen, it constitutes the highest level of professional representation. With 1,7 million members, it is considered to be the main representative of the small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the country. In total 3.174 vocational chambers at district level, 82 unions of chambers of tradesmen and craftsmen at province level and 13 vocational federations organised on vocational basis fall under TESK. Although small in size, these enterprises represent 99.8 % of the total number of enterprises throughout Turkey. Bearing in mind that they represent 26.5% of national production, 76.7% of employment and 38% of the investments, the important role that this segment of tradesmen, craftsmen, and small-scale enterprises is playing in the economy of the country can clearly be seen.

TESK is active in the field of vocational training and especially in apprenticeship training. It provides vocational training programmes and vocational certificates to its member enterprises for vocations not covered by the Vocational Education Act, and it provides financial support from its Vocational Training Fund. Furthermore, TESK has vocational training centres and workplace supervision to properly train young people. Its advisory groups at chamber and union levels advise on the apprenticeship training in the enterprises and organisations affiliated with the confederation.

TÜSIAD¹¹, the Turkish Industrialists’ and businessmen’s association, is a non-governmental voluntary association composed of individual members and structured in compliance with the Turkish Law on Associations. TÜSIAD membership is composed of owners and managers of individual firms, groups of companies and holding companies operating in the Turkish manufacturing and service sectors. As of December 2005, it had 545 members, representing some 1.300 companies.

TÜSIAD is the member of the Turkish Enterprise and Business Confederation (TÜRKONFED), which is established by one sectoral and five regional federations, with 7400 business people in total. TÜSIAD is not an official social partner in the industrial relations arena since it is not a negotiating institution, but comprises high ranking chief executives and owners of the major companies,

⁹ www.meb.gov.tr/stats/apk2001ing/Section_6/7Protocols.htm

¹⁰ www.tesk.org.tr

¹¹ www.tusiad.org.tr

apparently representing 37% of total exports and % 44 of total value added in Turkey. TÜSIAD plays an important role in platforms between industrialists' and businessmen's organisations; it also has a seat on the Economic and Social Committee by the invitation of the Prime Minister.

Trade Union Federations

Türk-İş¹², Confederation of Trade Unions of Turkey, is the largest central organization of trade unions. According to the latest statistics of the Ministry of Labour, the Confederation represents more than 1,9 million individual members from the public and the private sector.

TURK-IS has more resources for training and more collaboration with MoNE than other confederations. Despite limited co-operation with employers' associations, Turk-İş appears to undertake more training activities with employers than do other trade union confederations. They have no interaction with other trade union confederations in organising training. Their training targets mainly their own member workers in a wide range of subjects and issues.

HAK- İŞ¹³, **Confederation of Right Trade Unions** was set up in 1976. Today, HAK-İŞ has 8-affiliate trade unions and 400 members. The private sector and the municipalities are its pioneer sectors. HAK-İŞ has very wide and good relations with trade union organisations in various countries, and with international trade union organisations such as International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), International labour Organisation (ILO), International Industrial Relations Association (IIRA) and the EU-Turkey Joint Consultative Economic and Social Committee.

HAK-İŞ has implemented the following projects:

- The Turkey-MEDA Civil Society, Democracy and Trade Unions Dialogue Project with DISK and KESK between 2001-2003
- An 18-month project in Kayseri to establish a centre for vocational guidance and consultancy, financed with EU support to develop the social partners in vocational education. At the end of this project it is aimed to reach 10,000 workers, 1,500 enterprises, and 5,000 students
- An EU-supported project for training residential technicians: at the end of the project 250 technicians obtained certificates
- A project to develop awareness for reproductive health: 1000 people are planning to be trained during this project
- Several projects for street children since 1995, and is planning to organise 100 courses for the parents of these children.

DISK, Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Turkey, provides different types of training and information seminars to their members. HAK-İŞ and DISK have recently increased their training activities through EU funded projects. Individual training activities undertaken by trade union confederations such as DISK which is not involved in a close working relationship with public authorities, are implemented in an isolated manner.

In addition to the afore-mentioned trade unions, there are three civil servant confederations, i.e. **Kamu-Sen**¹⁴ (Confederation of Unions of Public Employees of Turkey), **Memur-Sen**¹⁵ (Confederation of Unions of Civil Servants) and **KESK**¹⁶ (the Civil Servants' Trade Union Confederation). The three corresponding teacher syndicates, Türk Eğitim-Sen, Eğitim-Bir-Sen and Eğitim-Sen, are likely to be involved in the implementation of lifelong learning initiatives, as their members may well become actively involved in this field.

¹² www.turkis.org.tr

¹³ www.hakis.org.tr

¹⁴ www.kesk.org.tr

¹⁵ www.memursen.org.tr

¹⁶ www.kesk.org.tr

2.4.4 Other Institutions

KOSGEB¹⁷, the Small and Medium Industry Development Organisation, is a non-profit, semi-autonomous organisation linked to the Ministry of Industry and Trade. KOSGEB has been established for the purpose of supporting SMEs' development. It offers consultancy and training services to contribute to the creation of self-employment through business start-up training to SMEs, in order to increase their competitiveness both in the internal and in the international market. KOSGEB's general assembly and executive board have a tripartite structure. KOSGEB, through its 25 enterprises development centres, 12 technology development centres and 10 laboratories spread throughout the country, is one of the major providers of consultancy and training services to SMEs and potential entrepreneurs.

KOSGEB is also implementing the *Developing Young Entrepreneurs Programme* (DYEOP) under the World Bank Privatisation/Social Support Project. The objective of this programme is to promote an entrepreneurship culture at university level by presenting it as an option for young people in planning their future career. Candidate entrepreneurs who complete this programme may obtain financial support to start up their business.

KOSGEB also has European Commission-funded SME Support Programmes & Projects. Some of these projects include the Establishment of European-Turkish Business Development Centres (BCs) Project, a pilot project to set up a network of Business and Innovation Centres (BICs) in Turkey.

By law, **municipalities** are responsible for organising courses aimed at assisting individuals in acquiring skills and finding employment. The example of the Ankara Municipality in organising courses especially for housewives is a case highlighting the merits of wide partnerships. Municipalities in good financial condition carry out activities similar to those of the Vocational Education Centres and Public Education Centres (European Commission, 2003a).

For example, the Municipality of Greater Ankara has launched, on its own initiative, two considerable skills development programmes (European Training Foundation, 2004b): In addition, other projects have been put into effect for enhancing the educational success of these children and ensuring children's school attendance by providing awareness training to their families. Additionally, an effort is being made to support students psychologically, rehabilitate them, and train teachers in approaching working children more sensitively (European Commission, 2003a).

The Turkish Employment Agency (ISKUR) is the only public employment agency in the country. It is responsible for dealing with (i) employment and unemployment issues, (ii) job brokering in both the public and the private sector, (iii) active employment measures and (iv) accreditation of private employment services.

To implement active labour market programmes (in addition to the usual training and employment services); provincial employment councils and the Career Information Guidance and Counselling Services (MBRD) play important roles in the implementation of LLL activities all over the country.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Security is the primary Government institution responsible for policy and administrative issues related to employment and labour market. The Labour Law enacted in 2003 provides for the establishment of a permanent tripartite structure, including employer and employee representatives within the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, to draft legislation in the area of social affairs and employment.

The Council of Higher Education administers the post-secondary system (European Training Foundation, 2004a).

¹⁷ www.kosgeb.gov.tr

Education Research and Development Department (EARGED), the successor of METARGEM, originally established in 1986, provides educational planning, research, and development services to MoNE. A tripartite board governs EARGED, Its responsibilities cover research and planning, curriculum development, the design of projects, testing and evaluation, educational technology and technical publications.

A number of other ministries contribute to LLL through their institutes and activities. The authors of the present study had no opportunity to explore the training and education activities of for example the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Culture and the Ministry of Agriculture. In the concept of a whole-of-government approach, these other ministries and their institutes have also to be involved in the planning, coordination and implementation of the joint aims of Turkey's LLL policy.

The other ministries such as the Ministry of Industry and Trade, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Culture and Ministry of Agriculture should all be actively involved in LLL. For example the Ministry of Health should inform people about health education, as prevention is more economic than treating people. The Ministry of Agriculture should inform farmers about the role of the agriculture and increase awareness about the techniques in agriculture.

Among public institutions, the Turkey-Middle East Public Affairs Administration Institute (TODAIE), the Turkish Industrial Management Institute under MoNE, the Turkish Scientific and Technical Research Institution, the National Productivity Centre (MPM), the Directorate for Developing and Supporting Small and Medium Scale Industrial Enterprises (KOSGEB), and the Continuous Education Centres (SEM), in cooperation with MoNE, provide non-formal education services to their employees to help their career development. These services currently do not include significant career guidance components (Akkök and Watts, 2003).

2.4.5 New Roles, Opportunities and Needs

This report considers gaps, and the need for new forms of provision in later sections. As noted earlier, the demographic feature of the population represents the key challenge for Turkey as regards human resources development. The increasing size of the working age population represents a unique opportunity for Turkey both for its economic and social developments, provided that there is a substantial increase in human resources development through adequate investment in education and training.

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) provide 64 % of employment in Turkey. The quality of this potential workforce should be increased by applying the philosophy of lifelong learning. A strong lifelong guidance system appears essential, providing counselling and training services to both unemployed and employed people. Lifelong learning should also give incentive to entrepreneurship, with entrepreneurship trainings offered widely.

Certified entrepreneurship courses should be organised in various provinces through the co-operation of universities with Entrepreneurship Centres and Continuous Education Centres and KOSGEB. Individuals should be encouraged to start their own business. Additionally, entrepreneurship courses should be included in the curriculum of all secondary vocational schools. Such help should be offered to job seekers as well. Enterprise training could also be offered both inside and outside the enterprise, in the form of both on-the-job and off-the-job training. In this sense, continuous skill development programmes for their own employees by business firms should be institutionalised. These programmes should comprise:

- basic education and skills, ensuring the participation to technical trainings
- initial technical training, providing job entry level skills
- further training, providing job-specific training by employers
- employment training, providing training and re-training as part of active labour market policies

Re-training, providing the labour force with the necessary competence, skill level and updated qualifications related to their profession, or to a new job in higher demand.

Turkey lacks institutions providing vocational counselling services. In order to overcome this problem, enterprises should employ qualified training officers at their training units, and have enough opportunities for the training of training officers. They should also encourage the private sector to support good training and human resource development consultants, and provide enterprises with incentives such as tax exemption for employers who spend a certain amount of money per person on training activities annually.

One of the objectives of the aforementioned **Labour Market and Skill Needs Survey** (SVET labour market team and İŞKUR employment department, 2006) was to gain insight in the problems companies face with the skills of their staff. 44% of the companies indicated that they face problems with “key or core” skills. Most mentioned are social and communication skills (27% of all answers), management skills (13%), elementary and basic skills (13%), work planning skills (11%) and ICT skills (10%). Company size hardly influences the skill problems. In addition to problems with key competences, 17% of the companies face technical skill problems. Most of these problems refer to skills required by the content of an occupation or to “theoretical competencies”, implying that employees do not have enough knowledge to carry out their job.

The problems with technical skills differ between occupational groups: occupations at intermediate educational level (for which a VET education is required) face most skill problems, high skilled or lower skilled occupations hardly face any. The same holds for problems with key competences.

19% of all companies expressed that they face language skill problems. Two thirds of the problems refer to the English language, German ranks second (14%) and Russian and French rank third (with 5% each). It is clear that upgrading of the English language skills is necessary, and to a lesser extent German, French and Russian language skills.

In the 12 months before the survey, employees from 39% of all companies participated in training activities. The main focus was on technical training courses related to a specific subject or occupation (27%), followed by courses on sales and marketing (15%), coaching & training (15%), ICT (11%), management (10%) and personnel management (7%). Though 19% of the companies report language training, employees of only 2% of the companies participated in a language course.

2.5 EU Assistance in the Employment Field

The prospect of membership of the EU offers Turkey possibilities to support the long-term development of its human resources and to compare these with best practice in other Member Countries, as was indicated in the first part of this paper.

Since 1996, the EU has provided substantial financial assistance to Turkey in the field of education and vocational education and training. This represents the most significant EU support to one specific sector (European Training Foundation, 2004a). The EU-funded programme for *Strengthening of Vocational Education and Training (SVET)* began in September 2002, to help the process of modernisation and adaptation of the VET system to the socio-economic needs of the country and to the principles of lifelong learning. The programme will end in September 2007.

The programme for *The Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training (MVET)* began in July 2003 and will end in September 2007

EU 2002 pre-accession financial assistance included a programme for an *Active Labour Market*, which started in October 2003 with the objective of strengthening the capacity of İSKUR in order to become a modern and efficient provider of employment services throughout Turkey. As regards the institution-building component, İSKUR has received assistance for the elaboration of the first National Action

Plan for Employment. The social partners participate in the management of the programme as members of Iskur's Executive Board and, together with other key public institutions, in the Steering Committee of the program. Unfortunately, both bodies are very large in size; as a result, their effectiveness is doubtful.

At present, the *Centre for European Union Education and Youth Programmes* functions under the under the Secretariat of State Planning Organisation. (SPO) It is organised in three general coordination offices (Socrates, Leonardo and Youth) and in eight programme coordination offices¹⁸. In 2004, there were 428 project proposals to the Turkish National Agency for the Leonardo da Vinci programme, with 1,839 project beneficiaries.

Distance learning is now widely seen as a means of increasing the reach, efficiency and possibly at times also the economy of providing lifelong learning. It is defined as any form of study not under the continuous or immediate supervision of tutors, but which nevertheless benefits from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organisation. Distance learning requires by its very nature independent or autonomous learning. The main elements of distance learning are accessibility, flexibility, special educational methods, independent or autonomous learning and availability of tutoring (European Commission, 1996). MoNE conducts planning, research and strategy work for e-learning, which encompasses a wide range of applications and methods, such as web-based and computer-based learning, virtual classes and digital co-operation (European Commission, 2003a).

For **foreign language teaching**, Learning Centres and Support Service Units have been established and opened in many cities in Turkey. The Project on *Teaching Foreign Language at International Standards Through Distance Education* is aimed at providing suitable educational environments and materials for increasing the quality of foreign language education. Language teaching programmes are provided at 700 private courses operating within the scope of Law on Private Educational Institutions.

We now turn in the next part of this review to an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of Turkish education and learning opportunities from a lifelong learning perspective, before moving in the concluding part to proposals for strengthening the system.

¹⁸ www.ua.gov.tr

Chapter 3.

Assessment of Lifelong Learning Practices and Prospects

3.1 The Scope of this Chapter

This part of the policy paper takes in turn the major issues raised in the first two parts. Those parts explain the meaning of lifelong learning, and the policy questions raised by attempts to put it into effect, as experienced in Europe generally and in Turkey specifically. We now consider progress, problems and prospects, by combining the perspectives and impressions of the team of Turkish and foreign experts who together with SVET are jointly responsible for this report. We are both frank and constructive, recognising the particular strengths and characteristics and also the difficulties that Turkey faces in becoming a knowledge society in the global 21st century, and preparing itself for accession to the European Union.

We faced a problem in deciding how to order the issues to be addressed here. Because this project is part of the major EU-supported SVET we have decided to begin with the obvious focus of both SVET and many modern governments – the shape and quality of the labour market and its preparedness for work in the global economy. In doing this we do not imply that the broader, deeper and ‘softer’ issues about culture and society are less important. We look to Turkey becoming a stronger, more prosperous and happy knowledge society as well as at economic growth prospects. To put this another way, we are looking for long-term and sustainable progress, not a superficial quick fix.

We then look at the progress made and the prospects that this suggests for the next few years, and at what appear to be persisting problems that Turkey needs to address in moving towards a lifelong learning system. Prominent among these are issues to do with culture, tradition and the management of change; and issues to do with devolution and decentralisation, and more broadly governance and administration. We then consider two specific and tangible problems: the scarcity of resources and so questions about financing LLL; and the lack of adequate statistics to govern well, judge progress, and benefit fully from prospective membership of the EU. Finally we ask briefly how Turkey moves in this arena beyond the end of the SVET project, as a prelude to considering specific recommendations in part 4.

3.2 The Labour Market

Despite extensive efforts through legislation, regulations and institutional arrangements for social policy, the labour market, and employment and training, statistics reveal several structural weaknesses of the Turkish labour market. According to current figures, Turkey is far from being an inclusive society where a majority of people have equal access to social security, employment and training.

The main labour market problems are
High unemployment, particularly among youth and women;
A majority of new jobs being low skilled, low paid in SMEs and/or the informal sector;
Very little investment in human resources.

A special survey undertaken by the State Statistics Institute in 2002 estimated that 1.34 million people work in the urban informal sector. Based on this statistic, it was estimated that 13.4% of the male and 7.9% of the female workforce outside agriculture are employed in the informal economy. These workers fall outside the scope of social security, and are, therefore, provided with no social protection nor any possibility for trade union membership.

The employment rate of the working population is the lowest among OECD countries at 46%. Within this, female employment is lower than male, and the long term unemployment of women is higher than that of men. The female labour force participation rate is dramatically low in urban areas, and very high in the informal rural-family economy.

There is high unemployment of the 15-24 age group of educated youth (20% in 2004) and the estimated figure for hidden employment varies between 25 and 35%. Only 20% of the paid workforce is covered by the collective bargaining agreements (2000).

The rate of child labour is high at 13.9% in the age group 12-17 (2001). There is unemployment of mid-career individuals of 7% in the 35-54 age group (2004). 70% of the rural workforce is employed in the declining agricultural sector. In the short term the country faces the employment difficulties of emerging urban regions, and in the mid-term those of change in the low educated rural regions.

The lack of a satisfactorily educated labour force inhibits the dynamic development of the economy. Education and the economy are out of balance. Turkey lacks suitable and comprehensive learning and training incentives to address high structural unemployment and low labour force participation. Many important issues of detail have to be taken into consideration from the perspective of lifelong learning.

The closer that the Ministries of Labour (including especially ISKUR) and Education can cooperate, and the more they can learn to work with the social partners, the better this fit will become. The more quickly a strengthened VET system brings jobs to the unemployed as they acquire new skills, and better jobs to the under-employed, the stronger will be an optimistic spiral of growth. In the short term up and down swings in the general economy will affect the labour market, driving well qualified people into low paid jobs in a downturn, and increasing the skills demand when things are buoyant.

Over the medium term the widely recognised return on investment in higher qualifications and skills for the individual (documented for example by the OECD's *Education at a Glance* in 2004) tends to create more sustained growth of training and learning. A measure of success will be whether competition becomes keen for higher vocational qualifications similar to the demand that now exists for traditional university places. This is however circular. There will not be 'consumer' – employer or student – demand for vocational qualifications that do not exist and are not part of the repertoire of skills production for the current, let alone the emergent higher skills, economy and labour market. Leadership and vision on the planning and 'supply side' are needed here.

Especially promising and important is the MEGEP/SVET-supported initiative to develop a national VET system and framework of vocational qualifications. If this can be expedited and, most important, if an intelligent, flexible and responsive system of recognition and validation can quickly be brought into being through the new Agency, so that providers and employers come to see its practicality and utility, a major step will have been taken towards creating the conditions for a more flexible system of lifelong learning. This, when successfully completed and in working order, will enable individuals to build personal portfolios more efficiently and confidently, and enable the workforce to be more adaptable, better at adding to skills and qualifications that relate to new labour market needs.

Turkey already has a good basis, in its long-established and evolving apprenticeship system, for work-based learning, including the recognition of working experience and learning in the workplace, that many countries are trying to find or recreate. There are good applied learning principles embedded in this that can be supported by new curriculum developments and use of new learning technologies. Success depends essentially on the social partners.

The system is however easily abused. Some employers may refuse to retain fully qualified apprentices and pay them the higher wages that their qualifications deserve, preferring instead to use the system to get in more cheap subsidised labour during training, or hire unskilled or low-skill labour instead. This will tend to drive down skill levels, holding back productivity and competitive high quality, at high cost to the nation. Effective partnership is a cultural matter, not one that can be very well enforced by regulations that are then simply ignored.

Knowledge about the labour market will be helped by efforts under way to collect better labour market data more locally, data collected closer to the needs of the present and emergent labour market. This will allow for the provision of more relevant and required skill training. Relevant skill levels can then

rise, perhaps reducing unemployment and under-employment, and improving productivity. Of course there are big questions here about whether enough resources can be made available, about who will contribute in what shares, and especially about employers' attitudes. Will they contribute to the costs of training as social partners? Will they even employ more skilled workers at higher wages to support the spiral of growth to a higher skills economy, or will they take a short-term view and only pay the lowest wages possible?

A new approach has started to getting labour market information at provincial and local levels, creating an ongoing information base about the labour market that will inform VET planning decentralisation. This approach will include the training of expertise at local and regional levels to do this work in the future, the collaborative taking of a major initiative between ISKUR and Education with a strategy to make this ongoing and nation-wide.

Changes like this that are planned and on the way are promising. The issue of effective wider participation and initiative from municipalities and localities is very important, like the National Qualifications Framework, but it is important in an even more far-reaching way.

3.3 Prospects for Lifelong Learning Trends in the EU and in Turkey

3.3.1 Labour force participation by level of educational attainment

The gap in male employment ratios is particularly wide between those with and those without an upper secondary qualification. The gender gap in employment decreases with increasing educational attainment. The general position is that those with low educational attainment are less likely to be labour force participants and more likely to be unemployed. The upper secondary level is considered to be the minimum level allowing a satisfactory position in the labour market. Completing upper secondary education does not offer a reduced risk of being unemployed – labour market attainment is still not always guaranteed. This is the case for Turkey too.

3.3.2 The outcomes of learning

The baseline qualification for successful labour market entry is completed upper secondary education. In 17 of the 20 OECD countries with comparable data the ratio of upper secondary graduates to the population at the typical age of graduation exceeds 70%. In some countries it exceeds 90%. Rising skill demands in EU and OECD countries have made upper secondary diplomas a minimum requirement for successful entry into the labour market, and a basis for further participation in lifelong learning. Young people with low qualifications may run an increased risk of long-term unemployment or of unstable, unfulfilling employment, which can have other negative consequences such as social exclusion. Early drop-out has become one of the most important educational policy problems for many EU countries.

3.3.3 Education and the work status of the youth population

The OECD defines a young adult with a low level of education *as a person aged 20 to 24 years who has not attained upper secondary education and who is not enrolled in education or in a work-study programme*. Traditional unemployment measures overestimate unemployment in the transition period, and are insensitive to different systems of combining education and work in the transition period. The ratio of unemployed people who have not completed upper secondary education to the total youth population is 1.5 times higher on average than for upper secondary graduates. Upper secondary education and even more tertiary level education significantly increase the chance of being employed.

In 24 of the 30 OECD countries, more than 60% of the population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education. In Turkey less than 50% of the population has completed secondary education. On average, in the OECD countries, 75% of the 25-34 year olds have attained upper secondary education, compared with only 61% of those 45-54 years old. In Turkey the comparable figures are 32% of the 25-34 group and 20% of the 45-54 group, according to 2002 data. Participation in education tends to be high until the end of compulsory education, but in a number of OECD countries, more than 10% of students never finish compulsory education.

3.3.4 Scenarios for future policy development

If we look at the changing trends of the last ten years in educational attainment within the 25-64 year old population, we see that the OECD country mean average of below upper secondary education has reduced by 12% last year, whereas the reduction in Turkey was 7% during this time. The mean average of upper secondary education attainment in the same age group in the OECD countries increased by 7% between 1991 and 2001, and by 5% in Turkey. Tertiary education attainment during the same period and in the same age group for the OECD mean increased by 5% and by 3% in Turkey.

Upper secondary education attainment should be extending in Turkey, as is now under way. This will be of key importance in Turkey in coming years. The 5% increase in upper secondary education attainment meant a 0.5% increase per year over the last 10 years. If Turkey is to reach the OECD country mean of 44% upper secondary education attainment in the age group of 25-64 by 2014, then it will have to increase the upper secondary education attainment ratio by 28% over ten years, that is, 2.8% per year instead of the present 0.5%. This means a rate about five times more than is being achieved at the moment.

Turkey is characterised by numerous activities and tangible progress in the field of education and training and employment. At the same time, there have been many further development programmes launched over the last couple of years, especially since the EU accession talks and related development programmes began.

The SVET Project has already brought in new dimensions conducive to LLL in general. For example, modular programming has been introduced into the system to ease the accumulation of skills and knowledge earned in different programmes which will also be helpful in vertical and horizontal passages of trainees in various programmes. Available evidence confirms a significant offer of continuing vocational education and training (CVET) with the involvement of numerous public, private and non-governmental institutions. However, this CVET supply is not framed or underpinned by a comprehensive policy and a related institutional framework, both of which are missing. This gap helps explain also the lack of a systematic social partnership in the field of CVET.

MEGEP/SVET has sought to decentralise operations, with centres in a number of provinces. In this sense it is mirroring and supporting an important, but hesitant, national Government tendency towards passing some decision-making and control from the centre to regional and especially local levels (see below also, section 6). The delay in carrying through legislation in favour of administrative decentralisation shows an understandable anxiety about loss of control in terms of security – a problem for many countries at this time.

There is a long way to go in devolving control, but much could be done in the education and training area, and in terms of nurturing different kinds of informal community learning, without raising problems to do with full political devolution. On the other hand, there are examples of successful innovation and the taking of initiatives within the rather small spaces allowed even under centralised conditions, at the local school or centre level.

A good example of promising change where several things come together is something that MEGEP/SVET did midway through the project in August 2005. Sixty-seven participants, half from ISKUR and half from Education, came together for two days of seminar training in survey methods, prior to conducting a major survey of labour market and skill needs in the pilot provinces. From this the survey work will be rolled out by ISKUR, eventually to all 81 provinces, and by MEGEP/SVET with the Ministry of Education not only to other provinces but down to the local areas of the different VET schools. This is specifically about labour market needs identification as a basis for relevant VET, but it also includes several key features of wider relevance to LLL.

Key issues and areas for policy attention and development in terms of the LLL concept include learner-centeredness, accessibility and flexibility, regionalisation, partnership and quality assurance. There are also possibilities for new self-directed distance (e-learning) delivery methods that

may especially appeal in a large country with limited resources. Curriculum renewal is another important area, together with creating an effective national credit framework which offers opportunities for modularity, and the collecting and transfer of credit for learning in a new qualifications system so that more personalised learning becomes possible across the lifetime. Also very important for effective comparison, monitoring and development are good international comparators, indicators and benchmarking (see section 3.9).

3.4 Persisting Problems and Challenges

Changes already intended to increase participation at all levels of the formal education system will contribute to building a stronger system of lifelong learning, helping Turkey along the road to becoming a learning society. In particular, the increased length of secondary education from three to four years, and efforts to modernise the general as well as the vocational secondary curriculum, to develop the curriculum connection between upper secondary and higher education, to enhance quality, to introduce modern ICT throughout all schools, and to improve retention rates, will all provide essential underpinnings for lifelong learning.

If they are successful, the different efforts to build closer partnership between the government and the main social partners, *and* between different Ministries, especially Education and Labour, *and* within the key Ministries themselves, notably the different Directorates within Education, should enable senior administrators and their partners to understand better, and better to develop, the VET system, both for young people and for older learners.

As to the Qualification System and Occupational Guidance and Counselling, one can say that, sound certification and a well-designed occupational guidance and counselling systems are the backbone of the LLL system. Both need improvement in Turkey. In fact, it has already been made compulsory with the Vocational Education Act of 4702 that employment will be allowed only with proper education/training in the field, but little or no implementation has yet followed.

Attempts have been made to establish a national qualification system in Turkey. The Employment and VOTET sectors representing public and private sectors and NGOs have got together and prepared different proposals. At present, such a proposal is before the Turkish National Assembly to be enacted. A new independent agency is planned to be established in 2006 and linked to the Ministry of Labour. Its design and the law regulating its establishment have been strongly supported by the SVET project. It may play a key role for the promotion of LLL in the sphere of accreditation, certification and quality control in the near future.

Only limited flexibilities are however introduced into the educational system compared with what is needed in LLL. One is in the area of entrance to and passage allowed among various programmes. Movement of students and trainees among the programmes is limited only to exceptional cases; there still exist strong barriers between programmes even within the same Directorate.

The majority of training is claimed to be demand driven. There is, however, no systematic and regular identification of sectoral needs. Co-operation among social partners could also enhance and reduce the cost of identification of needs methodologically. There is no feedback mechanism established to monitor the effects of such training. Training is not a subject covered by collective bargaining in Turkey. Workplace representatives are not strong and sufficiently protected by law; therefore they cannot function as mediators to identify the training needs of workers and communicate them to employers.

The main social dialogue mechanism is the Vocational Education Board at the central level, and Provincial Education Boards at the provincial level, consisting of social partners that play only a consultative role. However, the necessary trust and working relationships within those bodies have not been established. Social partners do not know the impact of consultation, since there is no feedback

provided with regard to their contribution. The Board also lacks a monitoring or evaluation mechanism to be able to follow up and assess the impact of decisions and policies.

There is an increasing role of social partners in the design of the VET study programmes; however, currently the Vocational Board of Education drives the process, where the presence of general educationalists is dominant.

There are children who face the risk of exclusion from the education system. Children working in the agriculture and industry and living and working on the streets are included in this group. Some of these children do not attend school although they have been enrolled, and they run the risk of leaving school. Several projects have been implemented in co-operation with the International Labour Organization, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and NGOs, in order to catch the attention of working children and children at risk of leaving primary education. Also legislation regulating the labour market in Turkey excludes most of the agriculture sector workers, leaving them in a more disadvantaged position with regard to their social protection and self development.

The system of legally licensing professional associations in the field of education or guidance in Turkey is not well developed in Turkey. Therefore, the qualifications required are determined by formal employment institutions like MONE, functioning in the area of services concerned such as education, health, and social services. TESK has made arrangements to implement article 10 of Law 3308 for issuing vocational certificates on experienced craftsman, master craftsman and tradesman. These certificates are equivalent to certificates issued by the MoNE. It is not yet possible to say that the government encourages private organisations to provide guidance and counselling services.

In summary, main challenges for VET in Turkey are from the low skill of workers, demographic changes, the need to increase skill levels and to promote LLL for all, rapidly changing technology and the increasing role of innovation, the role of VET in raising the quality at work, and increasing motivation and enhancing productivity (Masson, 2005). In this sense, special attention should be paid to VET within the concept of LLL in Turkey. Not only governmental bodies but also non-governmental bodies and social actors should play effective roles in improving the LLL in Turkey. Currently National Agencies, regional bodies and Government Departments promote different programmes and initiatives separately. There is little synergy, and few attempts to provide potential beneficiaries or organisations representing their interests, such as NGOs, with a complete picture or route map to enable them to understand and access the range of opportunities. Comprehensive promotion and information campaigns that cover the full range of funding schemes to support lifelong learning should be introduced.

3.5 Culture and Change

Some countries have a much stronger tradition of non-governmental or voluntary ‘civil society’ organisations (NGOs or CSOs) than others. It is not a tradition that can be created overnight. These bodies offer both partnership and a counterpoise to governments that tend to be too centralised. They are the bedrock of what we now call civil society. We use the term *third sector* to emphasise their importance alongside the public and private sectors. In Turkey as in the EC we refer to all these parties as the social partners, but in Turkey the NGO side is rather weak. It will take time to grow up in its own way. Turkey needs time for this build onto its existing rich traditions.

Organisations differ greatly in their understanding of lifelong learning. Generally, understanding appears to be limited and rather problematic, which is partly due to cultural differences.

Does Turkish society, culturally and politically speaking, encourage, allow or discourage independent learning? The kind of learning that is possible may be severely limited, as much by the nature of the society and the political process as by shortcomings and lack of resources for education and training. On the other hand new, more and better learning may help to develop and reshape the society itself. A sense of the past, and an honest recognition of the realities of the present, as well as firm and clear ambition for the future, are all required.

3.5.1 Culture of collaboration

Employers' associations nor trade union confederations could not yet develop a culture of collaboration or co-operation at desired level. However, in the last decade good practices can be seen emerging in educational activities. As social partners - employers, workers - are actual beneficiaries of lifelong learning, one would expect this type of collaboration and dialogue to become more developed.

On the other hand, in Turkey, pre-employment and institution-based training is still considered to be a government responsibility, while financing of continuing training and education is left to the social partners. The operations and implementations of MoNE continue to be administrative and programme-centred instead of student-centred.

A self-confident and self-motivating lifelong learning society requires all parties and partners not just to take responsibility for their own learning, but also to take whatever initiative and responsibility they can, and play an active public-interest role. Even the social partners may tend from habit to favour tight central control, with only token participation and feedback from the provinces and municipalities. NGO and civil action can take many forms.

A strong civil society sector with NGOs not afraid of local or central government is very important as an environment in which lifelong learning can flourish, and is able to nurture and support an innovative economic and social order. Looking to its roots, Turkey may need a Nasreddin Hodja in every municipality – an unafraid folk philosopher who is the voice of the people, and who expresses the common-sense truths and paradoxes that powerful administrators sometimes forget. Turkey could seek help here, for example from NIACE in the United Kingdom (see Appendix 9) and DVV in Germany, in developing strong NGO systems and networks for working with government and communities to promote and develop lifelong learning.

3.6 Decentralisation and Devolution

An important factor in managing educational policy is the division of responsibilities among national, regional, and local authorities, as well as with the schools. Placing more decision-making authority at lower levels of the education system has been a key aim in educational restructuring and systemic reform in many countries since the early 1980s. Freeing of process and financial regulations may however be accompanied by an increase in the control of output from the centre, and by national curriculum frameworks.

Between 1998 and 2003, decision-making in most OECD countries including Turkey became more decentralised. Motives for changing patterns of centralisation vary country by country. The most common goals are:

- Increased efficiency;
- Improved financial control;
- Reduction of bureaucracy;
- Increased responsiveness of local communities;
- Creative management of the human resources;
- Improved potential for innovation;
- Creation of conditions that provide more incentives for improving the quality of schooling;
- Measures of accountability and equity.

The lifelong learning review mission met many people who said they were calling for greater devolution to allow for the essential localised identification and meeting of diverse needs. Some said that progress was quite good, but more suggested that 'the centre' was not prepared to let go, other than in a few limited ways.

Devolution of some control and many of the smaller decisions and modest or even major resources to more local areas is an increasingly common feature of successful modern societies and economies around the EU and beyond. This is why we hear so much about learning neighbourhoods, communities and regions, as well as about more individual learner autonomy - self-directed learning,

self-assessment, ‘personalised learning’. Things are too complicated and varied for detail to be best decided centrally. Resources are best used in the different localities where particular needs are best known. It is not possible to know and cater for all this efficiently from a central command. Local knowledge, and local professional autonomy, are essential to avoid waste and get good results. Resources for LLL will remain scarce for as far ahead as can be seen. The more that resources can be mobilised from individuals and all the partners, the better will the current changes lead to a continuous cycle of improvement.

A proper concern is whether – even because of the long tradition of hierarchical control and passive compliance without taking responsibility – local administrations at municipal and institution level are capable of undertaking good administration and planning of integrity. Here is an immediate learning and training task which when tackled could remove an important obstacle to devolution. It needs a spiral of successful devolution and high quality results from the first successful pilots in devolution to encourage others and increase confidence all round. SVET is strongly involved in preparation of VET institutions to take up new roles under a decentralised educational system through training of school management and new supporting staff of the institutions.

The major benefits of a less centralised system include redefinition of structures, procedures and practices of governance; provision of more relevant responses to locally expressed needs; increase in efficiency and effectiveness as well as quality and flexibility of services; and ensured accountability and transparency of local governance. Decentralisation of services by definition carries an expectation of some devolution of power, and a shift of responsibility from the central administrative level to the lower level in the hierarchy (Rolla, Altin and Ülker, year of publication unknown).

The Basic Law of Public Management now under consideration apparently provides for thorough administrative decentralisation across the government, and transfers a significant share of the central government spending authority to special provincial administrations and municipalities. The (envisaged) new laws on Public Administration Reform, on Metropolitan Municipalities and on Municipalities, refer to the inclusion of local authorities in providing vocational training services and facilities with an aim to boost local employment. However, it is suggested that this simply means cooperation by using the facilities of local governments while providing training. Their participation is then confined only to the form of material contribution to training activities.

It should be noted that the extent of decentralisation differs among stakeholders extensively. For instance, by de-concentrating some of the administrative tasks, such as identifying the compatibility of diplomas or co-operating more with municipalities in providing vocational training, the Ministry of National Education already considers itself to have started the process of decentralisation. It does not appear to anticipate further decentralisation within the framework of the Public Administration Draft Law or Metropolitan Municipalities and Local Governments Law. On the other hand, social partners, especially employers’ associations, support further devolution or decentralisation to the extent that the institutional capacity of local administrations permits.

In the early years of the Republic, Turkey already had some decentralisation experience, by providing a significant local authority role in both the finance and management of primary education and vocational training. Authority for policy-making and implementation now lies solely with the Ministry of National Education at central level. Despite strong support for decentralisation by social partners, it is not likely to take place in the near future. However, a new and comprehensive attempt has recently been undertaken through projects financed by the World Bank and European Union with a special focus on strengthening the decentralisation of secondary general and vocational and technical education.

With the enactments of the latest Vocational Education Act and approval of the Non-Formal Education Decree, decentralisation may gain a new momentum. It is expected that there will be significant shifts in authority in areas like staff selection, financial control, curriculum development etc. which are all handled centrally in the present system. Not only the Provincial Directorates, but

also schools and centres will be empowered to carry out some of the activities traditionally under the National Bodies' responsibilities. In the new approach, a collaborative network with employment services, key employers, municipalities, government authorities and related NGOs will be established at national, regional and local levels. The system should work bottom-up, enabling a demand-driven policy framework and also making LLL accessible and affordable to the poor and vulnerable all over the country

Note, in concluding this section, that school autonomy can be seen as the focal point for decentralisation policies. School autonomy is believed to foster responsiveness to local requirements. Setting centrally determined frameworks within which individual schools make decisions is a possible counterbalance against complete school autonomy. This can free up all kinds of creative energies.

3.7 Other Aspects of Administration and Governance

We have been considering government control as a key feature of capacity to change in the direction of lifelong learning. There are some important conditions, some important '*ifs*', in all of this. Deep in the history of Turkey, there is a tradition for tight bureaucratic control from the centre. There is also competition over who is in control between different parts and sections of Government. Also there is a tradition of mutual distrust between Government and other parties.

It is not very effective to develop the larger policies for education in isolation from other policies, and without considering the nature of the society which its education is meant to serve. It is still less effective to try to do this for Lifelong Learning. LLL requires a broad understanding of the present and likely future condition of the society. It requires us to think about learning in many ways and places throughout society, including the workplace, not just within the regular education system. It therefore means looking at policy-making and its execution across a wider front than all or part of the Ministry of National Education.

We were often told during our missions (a) that lifelong learning was now widely acknowledged to be very important. We were also told however (b) that once people started talking about LLL they quickly came to talk about, and really meant, only non-formal education (NFE). In other words, for many people LLL is still no more than a way of making up for inadequate formal schooling and compensating those who missed out or dropped out, with another kind of provision. NFE is important. It needs strengthening, extending and further diversifying; but is not the same thing as LLL, only one part of it.

It will be important to break a pattern of central control over all the details that causes long delays and is really not feasible in a country of 80 million people at a time of fierce global competition. It is urgent to move to a more vigorous 'client-oriented' service (or: citizen-oriented) public administration, in order to enable LLL to grow successfully in a reasonably short while. If this is successful it will open the way for other important developments, possibly at an increasingly rapid rate. In this context, the gradual approach towards a date of EU accession, and the connection of Turkish framework qualifications to common qualifications frameworks across the Community, will add weight to the process. It is important to remain clear about the purposes and long-term direction, and to make sure that reforms are well grounded and genuine, not just superficial gestures.

Turkey's legal regulation and the continuous changes to the complex system of institutions of education and training are hard to see through and judge from the viewpoint of the outsider. There is on the one hand a need to reconsider regulation in the different educational fields, based on a full grasp of lifelong learning. On the other hand, there is a need for a whole-government approach. The legal regulation of the Turkish educational and training system raises a number of issues. There is a lack of feedback that would strengthen both parties and make for consistency between the particular legal actions. The practical implementation of legal rules is problematic. We agree with the expert opinions that say that the incomplete implementation may not be a surprise; but it is a major problem. Many reforms remain incomplete for a variety of reasons. They include a mixture of deliberate

obstructionism from low to high levels of bureaucracy and the administrative establishment – including sections of the civil service, the judiciary etc. - and other problems such as the time that is necessary to establish appropriate institutional structures and change organisation cultures.

Coordination between key stakeholders does not appear to be good enough, despite frequent assertions on the contrary: coordination between different DGs within the Ministry of Education, between lifelong learning working groups and the ministries, between different the Task Forces of different ministries and agencies. There is not a close enough effective working co-ordination, especially between the Ministries of Education and Labour

Trust and confidence in the social partners by government departments do not appear to be very high in this strong culture of rather authoritarian hierarchy. Public expenditures and government employment areas traditionally suffer from suspicions of favouritism, so the authorities should ensure that the highest possible degree of transparency is provided during the implementation process. Likewise (see previous section) devolution from the central to regional and local levels looks likely to be quite difficult, even though there is widespread verbal commitment to the idea.

Proactive policies to rapidly improve service quality are required. Transferring large service and spending responsibilities to sub-central layers of governmental and local levels, private providers and NGOs are basic preconditions of developing lifelong learning provisions. The government's decision on introducing an ambitious decentralisation reform transferring major spending powers to special provincial administrations gains importance in this respect. There is also widespread commitment to the principle of an active civil society; but the NGO sector appears rather weak and likely to take some time to grow in strength and confidence.

The Turkish Education System is managed through a centralised structure under the responsibility of the Ministry of National Education. Various other governmental structures that administer lifelong learning-related activities from different features, such as ISKUR, KOSGEB, differ widely in their understanding of lifelong learning and do not work together for a complimentary approach.

Most policies are determined in Ankara and transmitted to the provincial MoNE structure, and then on to individual schools. The Turkish educational system is centralised, bureaucratic, and fragmented, possibly lacking basic capacity for long-term, systemic education reform. Improving education attainment, improving student learning for all students, narrowing disparities in equity, or responding to the changing labour market can all take longer in a centralised education system than in a decentralised system. Ironically, the centralised and bureaucratic structure has not helped in promoting national unity, or in reducing the disparities in participation by gender, region and socio-economic status (OECD, 2005b).

The National Board of Education has however been working hard to introduce the educational practices that would lead individuals and the institutions to be able to participate in LLL activities. Most of the programme elements have been embedded in the primary and ninth year of secondary education programmes. In this sense, the Board seems to have been taking the lead in introducing LLL concepts and practices into the system. The work is as yet at the beginning stage. It needs to be detailed and popularised throughout the system.

There seems now to be a serious, long overdue, re-structuring attempt by MoNE in terms of central and local administrative set-up. The present structure is not able to meet the challenges ahead. Duplication and difficulties in coordination makes the system inefficient and ineffective. The Ministry of National Education used to have, and to a large extent still has, final authority almost in all matters in education and training sector.

There are quite innovative programmes already in operation within the related DGs. For example, open education offered at almost all levels; year-round and round-the-clock (all-day) education concepts and limited practices; using varying length of semester; applied school-industry relations

(dual system); local needs assessments, planning and implementation together with stakeholders; widespread practices of sponsorship, and protocols for delivering non-formal education programme.

To meet the training needs of various institutions and enterprises, service protocols can be established at local and national levels. Local protocols are put into effect upon the approval of the Governor; the national protocols are signed by the Minister of Education. Trainees in vocational courses are provided with similar supports given to Apprentices trainees. The Provincial Directorates and schools or centres have been used to coordinate and monitor activities in their regions, schools and centres, but only in line with the national policies and practiced decided in Ankara.

Courses are conducted according to the protocols. Public and private institutions and NGOs in need of training sign protocols with MoNE to get training help. The protocols are prepared by the General Directorates, and signed by the Minister and the highest authority from the respective institution. Lately, some local protocols are being drafted and signed by the Highest Local Government Authority and carried out by the local schools and/or centres. Through the protocols, the institutions usually provide training facilities as well as financial and administrative support.

Some previous initiatives, arrangements and intended reforms have sat on the rulebook and been ignored, or not really put into effect. A trade union educator told us that he did not favour compelling employers to provide training or be charged a levy by Government if they did not: not because it was a bad idea, but because it would simply be ignored. How well these new initiatives go will determine whether and how fast progress is made towards good lifelong learning.

It will certainly be necessary to make some more laws, rules and regulations. It is however no use if these just sit on the book looking nice from a European accession perspective, but not really connecting with and making practical improvements. Perhaps instead of rushing into many more rules and laws it will help to step back a little and ask what the history and character of modern-day Turkey suggests about what will happen. What changes will occur, what will work, why and how fast? Why have earlier decisions, laws and regulations had no practical effect and been ignored?

3.8 Resources and Finance

3.8.1 Investment and return in lifelong learning

Lifelong learning is likely to be costly at all levels. Because initial education is the basis for further education, countries with lower levels of educational attainment will need more investment in lifelong learning than those with a higher level. The costs of training are not the most important: foregone earnings are the biggest part of the costs of lifelong learning. In line with this, lack of time is most often a barrier, followed well behind by the direct costs of the training.

Governments can and will not finance lifelong learning single-handedly. Nor is this equitable where society's resources are used for an investment of which the individual is the main beneficiary. Lifelong learning can even weaken social cohesion because of its strong correlation with the level of initial education, widening the gap between those with and those without solid educational and vocational qualifications. State funding is necessary to attract disadvantaged groups to education in general and lifelong learning.

A rational approach to the question of who should pay for lifelong learning is that it should be financed by those who benefit: the beneficiaries should share the costs and co-finance lifelong learning. Contributions should reflect respective rates of return. The actual division of the costs is likely to be a matter of debate and may vary between countries, sectors, etc.

Who ultimately pays for lifelong learning, is different from who provides immediate funding. Students are more likely to have problems paying for education while studying, whereas their income is expected to rise after finishing. Hence the idea of deferred payment; otherwise only students who have resources before studying are able to participate.

Policy debates about financing lifelong learning have focused on finding enough resources, and distributing these equitably so as to permit participation of poorly qualified and disadvantaged adults. Policies should also be evaluated with respect to their impact on the education and labour markets.

There is broad agreement nowadays that greater reliance on market forces could strengthen the incentives both for learners to seek more efficient learning options and for providers to achieve higher levels of efficiency (OECD, 2004b). Particular repayment methods may influence decisions on where to work, or whether to work or not. Income-contingent repayments could turn out to be a disincentive for some individuals to work.

In summary, lifelong learning is likely to be costly and should be financed by those who benefit from it. Financing policies may influence the education market and the labour market, and this should be taken into account in developing a financing policy for lifelong learning for Turkey. Appendix 7 provides a full discussion of these issues, with examples of different methods used in a range of countries including Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, South Korea, Sweden, the UK and USA.

3.8.2 Individual's costs and general returns on investment in education

We have established above that education and earnings are positively linked in all socio-economic systems at all levels of economic development. Data from surveys show a strong positive relationship between educational attainment and earnings. High rates of return exist for individuals who obtain education early and reap the benefits of education across the life cycle. The benefits to society of additional education can be assessed in economic terms on the basis of a social internal rate of return. Indirect benefits also have economic repercussions: lower crime, better health, lower social welfare benefit costs, more social cohesion, and more informed and effective citizens.

However, we encountered strong differences in Turkey over what education people can afford. At present, the financial burden of public education on poor families can be strenuous, and it is arguably necessary to eliminate these costs and make public schools truly free of charge so poor people can benefit. However some in authority assert that people can fully afford the costs that they now have to incur. Comparative data from EU and OECD sources do not appear to bear out this optimistic view.

3.8.3 Human capital, economic growth and investments in education

The estimated long-run effect on economic output of one additional year of education in the OECD generally comes out at between 3 and 6%. The knowledge and skills embodied in workers have been critical to renewed thinking about growth. Rising labour productivity accounted for at least half of GDP per capita growth in most OECD countries over the 1990s.

Productivity gains were achieved in part by dismissals or by not employing workers with low skills. Skills and competencies are critical to the development, diffusion and effective adoption of new technologies. During the 90s, in the OECD countries the increasing proportion of knowledge workers (scientists, engineers, and others such as ICT specialists and technicians who generate knowledge) accounted for nearly 30% of recorded net employment growth. Because physical and human capital complement each other, regions lacking physical capital may face difficulties in attracting additional physical capital if their human capital base is relatively underdeveloped. With perfect capital mobility, changes in the stock of human capital are seen to drive the accumulation of physical capital across provinces.

OECD countries as a whole spend on average US\$ 6,821 per student across the full cycle between primary and tertiary education. Expenditure on education per student consistently rises with the level of education.

On average, OECD countries spend 2.2 times as much on education per student at tertiary level as at the primary level. On average 41% of all expenditure on educational institutions is allocated to

secondary education, while 39% of students are enrolled at this level of education. Also on average, among the 24 OECD countries for which data are available, 26% and 24% of all expenditure on educational institutions is allocated respectively to primary and tertiary education, whereas 35% of students are enrolled in primary education and only 14% in tertiary education. OECD countries spend an average of 20% of GDP per capita on each primary student, and 42% per tertiary education.

For the OECD as a whole, expenditure on education per student averages 20% of GDP per capita at primary level, 26% at the secondary level, and 42% at tertiary level. Expenditure per primary, secondary, and post secondary non-tertiary student increased between 1995 and 2001 by 29% or more, in a number of countries, including Turkey.

3.8.4 Expenditure and investments relative to GDP

In 17 out of 18 OECD countries that have the information, public and private spending on educational institutions increased by more than 5% between 1995 and 2001. In terms of providing a wider range of learning opportunities without creating barriers to the participation of students from low-income families, public funding transfers to households and/or students are more prevalent at the tertiary level than at other levels. On average, some 18% of public funds at tertiary level are transferred to households/students. Typically, public expenditure on education grew faster than total public spending, but not as fast as national income, from 1995 to 2001 throughout the OECD countries.

OECD countries spend an average of around 0.4% of GDP on public subsidies to households and other private entities for education. A key question in many countries is whether financial subsidies for households should be provided primarily in the form of grants or loans. A variety of methods and mixes are employed. Public subsidies to households include the following categories: grants and scholarships; public student loans; family or child allowances contingent on student status; public subsidies in cash or kind for housing, transportation, medical expenses, books, supplies, social and recreational purposes; interest-related subsidies for private loans.

How spending is apportioned between different categories of expenditures can affect the quality of services. Student welfare services are integrated functions of schools. Expenditure on ancillary services at primary, secondary and post secondary non-tertiary levels represents 5% of total spending on educational institutions. OECD countries with relatively small education budgets - Turkey belongs to this category - tend to devote a larger proportion of current expenditure to the compensation of personnel within the civil service itself, and a smaller proportion to services that are subcontracted out.

Overall, OECD countries spend 6.2% of their combined GDP on their educational provision. For Turkey and three other countries, the level is only between 3.5% and 4.1% (derived from OECD and EU data).

At the same time, expenditure per primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary student increased between 1995-2001 by 29% or more in a number of countries, as also in Turkey. Turkey was among five OECD countries with the highest increase in the aggregated number of primary, secondary, and post-secondary non-tertiary students between 1995 and 2001. The educational attainment of the adult population in the OECD countries corresponds on average to 11.8 years. For the 18 countries ranking above the OECD average, average schooling range from 11.8 to 13.8 years. In the remaining 12 countries the duration is from 7.4 to 11.8 years. For Turkey it is relatively low, at 9.6 years.

Will the planned increase in investment in education be sufficient for the next 5-10 years? Does the European trend, supported by research, that an increase in schooling results in a 3-6% economic growth, apply to Turkey as well? If this evidence continues to be supported by further research, the number of years spent in school should be increased, making the increased investment of GDP necessary in Turkey. How much sense does it make, though, to increase this, and in which ratios would which areas and levels of education have to be taken into account? Only further analysis may help us to find a decisive answer to these questions.

If Turkey wants to reach the approximate 5.5-5.65 GDP ratio of EU countries by 2014 it will have to produce an increase of 2.1%. In fact expenditure on educational institutions increased by 0.7% between 1991 and 2001, an average 0.07% increase per year. This means an additional 0.21% investment of GDP per year as compared with 2002, a pace of growth three times that which has been achieved in the past 10 years.

If we examine expenditure by institutional level it also becomes clear that upper secondary institutional investment will have to increase as a priority in the next period.

Another important element in lifelong learning policy development and financing is to increase direct and indirect public expenditure on private institutions, alongside the dominating governmental support. This does not mean developing a governmental system of institutions and training services, but government support and motivation of the corporate and private sector to provide training services.

3.9 Statistics for Monitoring, Benchmarking and Evaluation

Current data highlight the inadequacy of statistics on lifelong learning. There is no database developed in relation to lifelong learning-related activities. For instance, most of Directorates General cannot provide figures for their local training. This is a problem that should indeed be tackled at national level. The lack of regularly collected internationally compatible statistics makes analysis of non-formal education difficult; it is impossible to identify critical areas and weaknesses, and from these to set priorities and monitor progress. No internationally compatible statistics for lifelong learning activities are available, making for difficulties in designing lifelong learning policies and benchmarking. Statistics in various international sources differ from each other due to a lack of reliable national statistics.

Turkey has not got fully involved in the work of the Concrete Objectives of Education and Training Systems in Europe after 2000, so it lacks survey materials or data on the educational and training situation in Turkey to serve for benchmarking. This is very clear in the EU's and Eurostat's comparative data service, and in the ETF, OECD, UNESCO, World Bank and ILO data on Turkey. They are somewhat different as to their methodology, and use some of the EU's elements or focus on other factors. Based on the EU data, one can get an exaggerated picture of lifelong learning in Turkey and the message 'no data available' for some of the measures. The education and training indicator and benchmark system developed in 2002-04 based on the Lisbon Strategy 2010 needs further development even in the 25-27 EU countries, but there does exist there a new frame methodology for policy development that makes possible comparative measurement, planning strengths and weaknesses, priorities and results that can be expressed as numbers and monitoring.

Based on the data services listed above, let us look at a few important connections and data that draw attention to the need for urgent development of a data service methodology and system:

- **Rate of public education expenditure to GDP**
Turkey: 3.9%
EU average: 5.6 % (2001)
- **Share of education in total public expenditure**
Turkey: 9.2%
EU: 11.7% (2003)
- **Literacy rate among the adults**
Turkey: 87.5%
EU: 100% (2002)
- **IALLS survey on the literacy skills of adults**
Turkey: no data available
OECD 25-75% of adults unsatisfactory at the ISCED 3 level (2000)
- **Pre-school attendance**
Turkey: No data available

EU: more than 70% of the 3 to 4 year olds are enrolled in either pre-primary or primary programmes.

- **Primary school attendance**
Turkey: 52.8%
OECD: to the end of compulsory education over 90%
- **Secondary school attendance**
Turkey: 25%
EU 25: completion of upper secondary education: 78.4 %
- **Tertiary school attendance**
Turkey: 10%
In 12 of the 30 OECD countries: more than 36% of 25-34 attain tertiary education
- **IT Education within the school system**
Turkey: no data available
EU 25: more than 70-80% of school computers are connected to the internet.
- **Second language teaching within the school system**
Turkey: no data available
EU 25: average number of foreign languages learned per pupil in general /upper secondary education is 1.3 in 2002.
- **Proportion of participation in civil organisations**
Turkey: no data available
EU 15: 50-70% of the adult population in general
- **Proportion of support given to civil organisations**
Turkey: no data available
EU 25: around 30-60% of the income of NGO-s comes from public subsidy

As a part of formulating a long-term lifelong learning policy strategy, benchmarks for Turkish lifelong learning development and the fields in Turkey has to accelerate development to reach EU average values have to be specified. The systematic handling of this complex task-system may only be implemented in a progressive and practical way. At the moment, even political will does not exist; this needs wide-ranging public communication and dialogue. Before all that though, further surveys and research are necessary as bases for decisions.

3.9.1 Data collections, surveys

As part of the accession process, and for its own good governance and ability to monitor developments anyway, it is very important for Turkey to be able fully to join in the *Detailed Work Programme on the Follow-up of the Objectives of Education and Training Systems in Europe* indicator and benchmark activity. How the 29 indicators so far approved for monitoring performance and the progress of education and training systems in Europe could be applied properly in Turkey needs to be the subject of further professional meetings and projects.

Is the definition of tasks of lifelong learning policy development in Turkey in the coming 4-5 years, as given by the approach to the five benchmarks and the targets specified, as decided by the European Community in 2003, to be reached by 2010? The European Commission in 2003 set five European benchmarks for improving education and training systems in Europe by 2010:

- There should be an EU average rate of no more than 10% early schools leavers.
- The total number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology in the European Union should increase by at least 15%, while at the same time the level of gender imbalance should decrease.
- At least 85% of 22 years old in European Union should have completed upper secondary education.
- The percentage of low achieving 15-year-olds in reading literacy in the European Union should have decreased by at least 20% compared to 2000.

- The European Union average level of participation in lifelong learning should be at least 12.5% of the adult working age population aged 25-64.

To take these benchmarks into account in Turkey's development policy is one thing. Being able to monitor progress and achieve accountability is another. One pre-requisite is that Turkey should take part in the Eurostat, National Labour Force Surveys and Eurydice data collection as an equal partner and as a sub-activity of lifelong learning. When collecting lifelong learning policy development data, the most important surveys that have recently defined development and led to new processes from the point of view of methodology should be taken into account, such as:

- Civic Education Study, 1999 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievements IEA);
- IEA Trends in Reading Literacy Study 2001 (since 70's literacy performance of students at the 4th grade) International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS);
- Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) www.pisa.oecd.org;
- International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97);
- National Labour Force Surveys;
- Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS);
- International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) from 1994;
- Adult Literacy and Life Skills survey International Assessment of Adult Competencies (OECD);
- Collection of data on non-vocational adult education and learning in Europe (DG EAC);

For data on educational attainment, Eurostat database, compiled from National Labour Force Surveys, see www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004.

3.10 After SVET

No magic crystal ball will provide answers about the future. However, a continuous succession of small changes and initiatives if brought together may create a momentum and a spirit for further change. It may be that a number of quite small 'local' links between different institutions and partners, with each other and with similar bodies in other countries, will build up a rolling lifelong learning momentum that accelerates the necessary cultural change, perhaps in a combined 'top-down- bottom-up' way. A rolling stone can gain momentum with many small but sustained pushes. Turkey appears to have a genius even from before the Revolution for making changes and getting stronger in its own distinctive way.

In the next part we make practical suggestions and recommendations for Turkey to move closer to a system of lifelong learning that will suit a successful 'new economy' knowledge society, irrespective of the timing and outcome of talks about accession. In the longer sweep of history, modernisation and selective 'westernisation' are likely to continue, especially under the global conditions of the 21st century.

A Non Formal Education (NFE) Department or Directorate may guide, encourage and stimulate; but it cannot create and control all NFE, let alone all informal and lifelong learning. Any such restrictive thinking will make it harder to develop a full vision and policy framework for lifelong learning.

A second difficulty, especially as this task sits within the time-bound MEGEP/SVET Project, is the tendency to look only at VET, which is more limited and manageable as well as being urgent. LLL is wider and more diffuse, with lessons for the reform of the whole education system at all levels, general as well as vocational.

There can be little doubt that the five-year MEGEP/SVET Project is making important changes and helping Turkey on its pathway to strengthening VET in some key ways. In this Policy Paper, however, we have to look wider, beyond the life of this Project and project period, and see VET within the bigger picture of lifelong learning, of which non-formal education is also only a part. Just as LLL is not simply NFE, nor is it simply VET. The SVET Project however should not just benefit from a wide LLL framing. It can also in turn help a benevolent spiral of development in favour of lifelong learning

that reaches out well beyond what is usually thought of as vocational education and training – into the family, the schools and civil society, as well as into the workplace.

It is indeed difficult for anyone to see how far current changes in Turkish educational reform will impact a few years ahead, especially at a time of so much uncertainty over big and important political issues. MEGEP/SVET, like many other European-supported projects, is part of the process of preparing Turkey for accession to the European Community, a prospect under daily review for political reasons at the highest level: in Turkey itself, within the Community, and between Turkey and other parts of Europe. Regional devolution is high on the policy agenda in many countries, and is strongly interwoven with developments in LLL in terms of learning communities, cities and regions. Also Turkey will need to come to terms with regional devolution to manage the transition to lifelong learning in which issues of diversity and local active participation are central. Meanwhile it must be recognised that this represents a real and formidable political task that will take time to resolve.

In the end all these things will be resolved. But they muddy the picture in the short term, and confuse the timetable. Turkey will almost certainly continue to modernise and strengthen its economy, infrastructure and human resources, probably helped by many different particular programmes and projects. There appears to be a certain dynamic inevitability that is evident as one looks back through modern Turkish history.

Chapter 4.

Recommendations and Suggestions for the Future

4.1 Introduction – Giving Advice and Getting Results

Achieving real results...

The wish list of necessary and potential things to do is endless, and easy to put together. How is it possible to create a network plan that makes real results achievable? Strategic planning, while it starts from a good knowledge of the present situation, has to focus away from everyday issues and onto the most important goals. The relationship among the many tasks should be kept in mind; constant attention to one sub-task can prevent the success of the whole process or even stop it altogether. An imagined and expected future cannot be based solely on scientific research, governmental authorities' data, a politician's will or the experience of more developed countries.

Extensive understanding and inclusion...

One can however plan realistically through consultation and discussion based on extensive inclusion of the different actors in society. The more extensive and adequate publicity, inclusion, understanding and discovery are, the more correct will be the shared picture of the present situation, leading to a more realistic future plan to be built upon it. What is needed is an ambitious but realistic work programme.

A good plan is only the starting point...

A good plan is only a starting point. It presupposes the creation and operation of a complex and efficient mechanism for realisation. Monitoring, evaluation, assessment and review can provide effective tools for continuous amendment. Beyond all this, the project as an activity that covers the whole of society should use the methods of social debate, feedback and reassurance in the wider sense.

It has to be born inside...

Outsider experts cannot fulfil this task, only contribute to it. The plan, serving the purposes of the country, has to be born out of the motivation and activity within that country.

More than one challenge at a time...

Setting up priorities can be a result of long and regular discussions, but LLL policy development for Turkey faces many simultaneous challenges and contradictions. Learning for economic competitiveness should not be given absolute priority while social inclusion, democracy and citizenship are neglected.

Successfulness and persistent results...

A realistic ambition full of promise is the emergence dynamic generations in Turkey with modern labour market knowledge and skills. But there are real problems that can threaten development if not handled correctly. One example is the challenge set by the insufficient participation of women in training and employment. Then there is the inappropriateness of school qualifications and education to contemporary needs, the inadequacy of key competencies and citizenship competencies, the dramatic rate of youth unemployment, the big proportion of grey economy, and the difficulty in stopping child labour. Future social change and progress will bring further contradictions to the surface. Other problems will loom large, sometimes dramatically, such as the condition of rural society and its out-of-date employment and training, the lack of efficient employment, social and political institutional systems at regional level, and the lack of an effective, operating, de-centralised educational and training institution system.

Labour market-oriented training offered...

In line with the demands of the labour market, trainings will be offered to everyone without any discrimination, particularly to those who have no literacy and numeracy skills, who are unemployed and who want to improve their skills and competencies. Training courses should link the content of

training programmes with the existing job opportunities; be based on a certification system (via diploma, certificate or a document) and should bear quality control and supervision.

Only a guide...

All in all, then, the recommendations and suggestions that follow can only serve as a guideline to further and deeper planning work and practical policy development.

4.2 Seven Key Areas for Change

The following areas are considered to be key areas for the development of a lifelong learning policy in Turkey:

1. System, Infrastructure and Funding of Lifelong Learning
2. The Collection and Use of Data for Monitoring and Decision-Making
3. Decentralisation and Devolution, Civil Society and Collaboration
4. Information, Advice and Guidance to Learners, and a Culture of Learning
5. The Development of Staff Capacity
6. International Co-operation
7. Quality Assurance and Accreditation

4.2.1 System, infrastructure and funding of LLL

Developing and reforming the institutional system and infrastructure means changes at the horizontal level: better cooperation and integration between governmental sectors, as well as better collaboration with social partners. It requires an integrated institutional framework and its continuing and co-ordinated operation, based on further development of the current institution system as necessary, in a cycle of continuous improvement.

This means an institution system that holds together a wide circle of partners including formal and non-formal providers, the labour market, civil and cultural areas at the same time. The number and role of non-governmental institutions should grow within this system, with special regard to the number and participation of private and non-profit education providers in growing educational and training supply. It is necessary to develop useful and effective regulations, quality assurance and a wide range of governmental motivations, incentives and other supports to increase the diversity of training courses, for good output-oriented education and training.

The role of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) should be redefined away from direct operation of and relationships to individual schools and educational programmes, and towards increased emphasis on establishing national standards and policy frameworks. MoNE should ensure unity across the diversity of the nation, advocate within the Government the essential link between education and the major social and economic challenges facing Turkey, carry out essential centralised services such as data collection and analysis, research, technical assistance to the bodies at local level, and maintain fund accounting and control procedures consistent with national policy (OECD, 2005b).

What specific actions are needed?

- A. Many laws in Turkey have never been enforced and applied consistently. Instead of just making more rules that are ignored, it is time to reconsider and reassess laws and rules promoting LLL, along with new simple framing of the too numerous and too complicated educational sub-regulations.

We recommend setting up an inter-ministerial time-limited working group which could include civil society members. Its job would be to make a review of and greatly to simplify the legal rules of the current system, from the point of view of desirable LLL legal regulation. We also suggest creating a LLL framework law that will harmonise legal regulations concerning employment, social policy, enterprise, education and administration. This might be called the *LLL Rule Rationalisation Working Group*.

- B. A new Lifelong Learning Council and a Lifelong Learning Centre should be created:

- The new *Turkish National Council of Lifelong Learning (TNCLL)* should be set up alongside the governmental organisations belonging to the state minister. It should include civil society and social partners. Its operations should be based on its own constitution, not built from top to bottom and its autonomy should be secured. The council should be concerned not only with the two main aspects of LLL, i.e. economic competitiveness and social cohesion, but with all other aspects of lifelong learning as well.

The Council would consist of representatives of numerous ministries based on a whole-of-government approach within which the Education and Employment Ministries have a leading co-ordination role. The Council would play the role of counsellor and policy development advisory body, promoting the standpoints of civil society and the social partners, as well as fostering co-ordination and agreement. It would make suggestions about the development of institutions, laws and reforms, order surveys and researches, and monitor and assess performance against agreed activity plans.

- A *Lifelong Learning Centre of Turkey (LLCT)* is also proposed, as a publicly subsidised, semi-governmental institute having its own constitution based on law. Its governing body might have 50% governmental representatives, for example MONE, ISKUR, SIS, TUBITAK, Higher Education Council, and the National Socrates Agency, with the other 50% representatives from civil society and the social partners.

The LLCT would provide national level services in fields such as surveys, publications, evaluation, accreditation of providers, quality assurance in close co-operation to the national, province and regional level institutional network of labour agencies, NQF (National Qualification Framework) agencies, associations of economy, businesses, social partners and civil society networks to co-ordinate activities. The operation of LLCT could be partly based on state budget support, and partly obliged to operate on the educational market, in co-operation with any private provider, or universities.

- C. This review has stressed the importance of the NGO or civil society sector for delivering and representing high quality lifelong learning. Whatever government or quasi-governmental bodies are in place, there is need for a strong broad-based NGO to promote and nurture the delivery especially of non-formal education to groups that are hard to reach. Good examples of a strongly civil society-based national network NGO are provided by NIACE in the United Kingdom and the German DVV. It is recommended that consideration be given to a mixed government and civil society mission visiting these bodies and looking at their work, and to inviting them to visit and give advice on developing such a body in Turkey.
- D. A feasibility study is recommended to analyse investments and costs from the perspective of lifelong learning. New regulations are needed to increase investment and improve the efficiency of investments into education and training. Co-financing mechanisms, and different measures as individual learning accounts, vouchers, learning loans and schemes must be considered. The share of benefits and responsibilities between government, business and the individual, as well as financial initiatives regarding the involvement of marginal groups of society have yet to be worked out.

Government incentives for corporations to invest in training are urgently needed. Strong pro-active financial regulations should pay attention to lifelong learning and raising the motivation to participate in non-formal and informal learning. In order to encourage the private sector to invest more and lessen the public burden, new arrangements are needed for tax exemption, tax refunds, low interest credit, investment allowances, cheap land allocation, and state support to universities during their establishment phase (European Commission, 2003a).

However, funding for continuing education should be based on tripartite mechanisms, which include government, individuals and employers (Atchoarena, 2003). The social partners have an

important role to play in negotiating agreements for the co-funding of learning by employees, and more flexible working arrangements that make participation in learning practically feasible.

To move Turkey closer to the average of EU and OECD countries in education funding as a percentage of GDP and as a percentage of the national budget, the government should significantly increase government budgetary support for formal and non-formal education. According to EU recommendations the proportion allocated to education from public resources should be at least 10% of GDP and 25% of the consolidated budget in the 2000–10 periods, and the share allocated to VET should also be increased (European Training Foundation, 2004a).

4.2.2 The Collection and Use of Data for Monitoring and Decision-Making

Ministries should harmonise for lifelong learning the data-collecting activities and methods carried out by the National Statistical Office with that of Eurostat and EU Concrete Objectives of the Education and Training Systems in Europe (indicators, benchmarks in the field of education and training), as soon as possible. The common educational, training, analysis, research and survey methods used by the EU, OECD, ETF, UNESCO and the World Bank should be consistently applied. Planning cannot be effective, nor benchmarking compatible, without these, and no previous data service can give an adequate answer to what progress has been made, what further things to concentrate on, and what are the critical elements. Following the elimination of deficiencies occurring in the data service methodology and in the data themselves, benchmarks must be set for Turkey in the fields of education and training if it wants to keep to a proportionate and adequately paced rate of catch-up.

This review therefore recommends:

- The introduction of the EU indicator and benchmark system into the daily practice of the national and province level institutes
- Using the monitoring and evaluation system and methods in all sectors, as well as at national, regional, local level.

4.2.3 Decentralisation, Devolution, and Collaboration

Division of responsibilities between national, regional and local authorities as well as schools should be altered for educational policy in the direction of decentralisation. Placing more decision-making authority at lower levels of the educational system is a key factor. The greater autonomy of educational and training institutes, and motivation to co-operate at regional and local levels, make necessary the development of a new management and funding system.

Planning for the regional and local labour market and for expanding employment, along with local socio-political planning, then become possible. This has to be started and harmonised with plans for lifelong learning. Preparatory training of regional and local institution staff is required. The development of regional and local educational and training infrastructure has to be connected to the reform of regional and local administration and especially to decentralisation. Accreditation and quality assurance have to be built in, along with the operation of local and regional co-operation and a development tender system (see below).

A cost-effective and efficient approach to reforming the institutional system from a socio-economic point of view is using a system of objectives and indicators for the regional level, with competitive calls for public support to develop such a system at the portfolio level. Within this frame,

- the public services should be complemented by market services,
- co-operation between professional organisations as consortia that cover more than one sector is needed, and
- education and training providers should be held together by unified and differentiated accreditation and quality assurance systems.

Based on the terms and conditions defined, institutions ranging through public education, adult education, labour market, specialised training, non-governmental, and market enterprise organisations could win the support via tenders. It is important that they integrate the necessary functions and

cooperatively operate a feedback system with the economy, the market, social partners, and civil organisations at the levels of localities, areas, regions and the nation.

The proportion of GDP invested in education and training needs to be increased, as well as its more efficient use, and the rate of growth increased. Financial rules and other legal regulations should be designed to attract more investment and ensure the growth of supply in response to rising demand. Regulations, initiatives and incentives that motivate institutional autonomy, entrepreneurial educational investment and individual educational investment should be strengthened within the rather slow governmental support system.

The function of the public service and the realisation of co-financing in a market regulation system (corporations, arms of government, and individuals to a certain limit) should together ensure the effectiveness of public support. Openness to the market and public social functions related to disadvantaged groups can thus be realised all at the same time.

MoNE should delegate responsibility and authority for implementing policies that respond to the unique needs of individual students, schools, and provinces to the appropriate level (OECD, 2005b). Decisions on decentralisation and how it is implemented will affect the feasibility of activities such as training of civil servants, curriculum development, empowerment of schools, and decentralised governance.

In summary, these actions are needed:

- delegate functions and services to bodies regulated by the government decrees and laws
- increase the autonomy of LLL providers such as institutes, and commit them to the principle of co-ordination and co-operation as a precondition of attracting finances
- create opportunities for the closer co-operation of different stakeholders (learning region initiatives, learning city movements etc.) so as to reach the widest possible population, especially the low skilled.

4.2.4 Information, Advice and Guidance to Learners, and a Culture of Learning

Turkey urgently needs to nurture a culture of lifelong learning where learning of all kinds of people is a normal lifestyle, right and practice. The media as well as government and the social partners all have a part to play. Secondly, Turkey needs to develop much stronger systems of individualised information, advice and guidance (IAG) counselling for all kinds of learners.

All kinds of policies and activities aimed at creating a learning culture in the media, civil organisations and corporations should be supported and contributions should be made in order to ensure a better understanding of training and education by the society.

Social dialogue is an essential parameter for successful economic and social reform. The EU Lisbon strategy emphasises its role in addressing key challenges facing Europe, such as enhancing skills and qualifications, modernising work organisation, promoting equal opportunities, and developing active ageing policies. Social partners should take advantage of the EC funded programmes, with a view to strengthening their capacities and their impact on making and carrying out policy.

NGOs seeking to meet the learning needs of hard to reach groups believe that they would benefit from a more sustainable resource base. Many are engaged in short-term projects. Successful approaches cannot be embedded because of time-limited funding regimes. Both long and short term sources for funding should be open to NGOs on a more sustainable basis.

LLL policies are designed especially for the benefit of the more vulnerable. Children, the elderly, the disabled, internally displaced people, minorities, the unemployed, persons on low income, workers with low skills levels, people who live far away from learning centres, handicapped people and disadvantaged society groups: these make up the primary focus of lifelong learning policy and resources, although everyone needs to go on learning. In this sense, particular attention should be paid to these more vulnerable people (European Commission, 2002b).

Adult education in basic skills should involve the development of rehabilitation initiatives geared to the needs of people in general, as well as to particular social groups. The aim is to prevent and fight social exclusion and to boost the employability of the groups targeted. Action should be concentrated primarily on literacy, numeracy, personal empowerment and development, guidance and counselling (European Commission, 1996).

A service is needed to eradicate adult illiteracy especially in the south eastern and eastern parts of Turkey. In addition, courses for vocational preparation and training should be arranged. It is important to offer a very wide variety of subjects, such as business studies, computer science, electronics, sport, leisure industry and tourism studies, catering, child care, community care, telecommunications and similar services, the arts and craft sectors and drama.

The following actions are needed.

1. An information provision and awareness campaign is urgently needed to make known the concept and objectives of lifelong learning in Turkey. Its efficient communication is essential. A separate budget item should be allocated for creating a *culture of learning* using the media, and through civil society. Various internationally well-known practices such as an annual Adult Learning or Learners' Week and other promotional activities popularising all kind of learning should be introduced and widely supported.

Attention must also be paid to employees in their work organisations by means of

- Motivation especially of the low skilled, through different methods
- Continuing counselling and career guidance for all
- Regulations for the public media, with incentives for the commercial media

2. A comprehensive basic skills and key competencies development strategy is also needed. The *Basic Education Programme* (SBEP – EU Turkey Support to Basic Education Programme) should be evaluated to see beyond the renovation of school buildings and working with school age children. How can it become a true starting point? How can the programme itself be made suitable for taking on more and wider lifelong learning aims and target groups? It is anyhow necessary to review traditional literacy courses and to evaluate their achievements. It should also be taken into consideration that new aims and new methods have appeared in the field of basic skills and key competencies since the nineties.
3. For the sake of involving and supporting civil society in implementing LLL through mass programmes for active citizenship, the voluntary contribution of citizens and their communities is indispensable. How can the tools of lifelong learning contribute to the faster development of self-control of the public administration and the state apparatus, so that they refrain from constant intervention, and learn how to allow initiatives to evolve without trying to influence and control all the activities? Authorities should learn how to designate frameworks and monitor performance within these agreed purposes. Organisations have to be involved from all fields including youth, women, minorities and environment groups. (See paragraph 4.4.8 on the information and awareness campaign.)

4.2.5 The Development of Staff Capacity

Lifelong learning includes the training of civil servants. A person working full-time may find it difficult to take advantage of learning opportunities because of time constraints. Employers, trade unions and national and local authorities have an important role to play in increasing their learning opportunities.⁶¹ Teacher training and tutor training are also important, including nowadays in particular competency-based training, distance learning and ICT training, and foreign language teaching.

Managerial demands, professional staff requirements, demands on teachers, and competency demands of future LLL policy should be assessed. The training of staff, national public authority experts,

regional and local administration leaders, including regional labour office managers, should each be planned separately and with respect to one another, with an eye to compatibility. There is a need for special but compatible training leaders in every sector of education and training, such as universities, secondary schools, vocational schools and other non-formal and adult education institution leaders.

This means creating training programmes combining at all levels and in sectors cognitive readiness with increase of knowledge and practical skill development.

Separate and special effort is required to build Turkey's research into LLL, using training by LLL experts, and EU co-operation in research. Priority subjects should include those to do with LLL policy development, using international participation. Turkey should join the objectives of the European Research Area programme if possible.

4.2.6 International Co-operation

Turkey should take advantage of the experience acquired in European programmes. The opportunities to use a variety of European resources, including Structural Funds, Education and Training Programmes, etc, for lifelong learning, should be made more public.

A programme should be formed so that Turkish institutions, organisations, and individuals can be involved in education and training programmes. Turkey should make extensive use of the international mobility opportunities such as are provided by Socrates, Leonardo and Youth for Europe, and of the experience of organisations getting involved in co-operation projects at national, regional and local levels.

Various European initiatives are important from the viewpoint of LLL. They should be introduced in an accessible and understandable way and used according to the distinctive needs of Turkey. Such initiatives and approaches include: Adult Learning Week, Corporate Social Responsibility, Learning Organisations, Learning Regions and Learning Cities.

Turkey should, then, innovate and develop through international co-operation programmes like Socrates, Grundtvig, and Leonardo, and use experimental approaches such as pilot projects, assessing the outputs, disseminating the products, and extending good practice to all kind of providers of the LLL.

4.2.7 Quality Assurance and Accreditation

The SVET project has contributed to enhancing quality assurance in the education system. On 21 September 2006, Turkey's Parliament approved law 5544 on the Vocational Qualification Authority(VQA). The VQA will act as a coordination institute for the development of occupational standards, and will have accreditation and certification functions for the wide area of education and training. In the long run this should include the whole sphere of LLL training and learning. The regulations in Law 5544 will enter into force within six months after the approval of the Parliament (SVET training team, 2006).

The following regulatory aspects are relevant for quality assurance from a LLL perspective:

1. Appropriate laws and regulations for educational development:
Laws and regulations should give flexibility at regional and provincial level whilst being national; promote decentralised decision-making mechanisms; and provide more opportunity for the private sector. Instead of detailed laws, framework laws should be issued; these laws and regulations should promote the involvement of all stakeholders.
2. The National HRD Committee:
This Committee should also oversee and advise on the optimal use of available resources, promoting consensus among all stakeholders on the development of human resources.
3. National Qualification Framework (NQF):
This is expected to create an objective system that will qualify employees learning formally and

non-formally with qualifications in accordance with the criteria approved by employers.

4. Through the NQF, quality assurance, and accreditation of institutes and programmes
 - Recognition of competencies gained by any form of learning
 - Linked to the European Qualification Framework (EQF)
 - Using European Credit for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET)

4.3 Other Steps to be Taken

4.3.1 Rationale

The value of an approved policy strategy can be measured by how well it is implemented in practice. A policy paper may be very abstract. It seeks to sum up general relations within a complex subject. Due to differences of culture and languages it cannot always and immediately be fully understood and applied in detail. A policy strategy is not a set of recipes, or a practical guide but a general formulation. At the worst it may lead to just a war of words - rhetoric instead of efficient actions. We therefore attempt to continue translating general suggestions into practical steps.

4.3.2 Method for developing a lifelong learning programme for Turkey

A combined method based on three factors is suggested for developing a lifelong learning programme for Turkey: 15 lifelong learning quality indicators, the Lisbon education and training indicators and time planning.

The 15 lifelong learning quality indicators in four main areas have been identified by a working group with representatives of 34 countries in the European area and a number of international organisations (European Commission, 2002a). The appropriate priority areas and indicators need to be selected when planning the implementation of the lifelong learning programme. This seems sensible because the areas of the 15 indicators form a coherent system. Within this Turkey can set its own priorities.

The system of 15 indicators and the four main areas is presented below:

Skills, Competencies and Attitudes

Literacy and numeracy

New skills for the learning society

Learning to learn skills

Active citizenship, cultural and social skills

Labour market related outcomes

Access and participation

Access

Participation

Resources for lifelong learning

Investment in lifelong learning

Educators and learning

ICT in learning

Lifelong Learning: Strategies and System Development

Strategies

Coherence of supply

Quality assurance

Accreditation and certification

Counselling and guidance

It is evident that the same improvement cannot be set and the same results cannot be achieved in all four main areas and within each of these 15 indicators. In our opinion the quality indicators printed in bold should be of highest and continuous priority in the short-, mid- and long-term programmes alike.

The second factor relevant for developing a lifelong learning programme for Turkey is the system of education and training indicators set in the Lisbon Strategy, in accordance with setting and fulfilling benchmarks. Comparability with international standards is in the foreground here. Turkey could realistically plan which benchmarks are to be fulfilled as having the highest priority, and which are of less importance.

We consider it necessary to apply the indicators currently accepted in the EU so that Turkey can draw closer to the Lisbon process as a whole, now, until 2010, and subsequently, in order to see where the gravest insufficiencies are and to be able to continuously monitor what has been planned and what changes have been achieved. Benchmarks that are of priority to Turkey should be selected from the list of indicators, as tasks to be attained in the short-, mid-, and long-term programmes.

We propose the following indicators to be considered as of high priority benchmarks in the short-, mid- and long-term strategies:

Skills for the Knowledge Society

1. Percentage of those aged 22 who have successfully completed at least upper secondary education (ISCED 3).
2. Percentage of adults with less than upper secondary education who have participated in any form of education or training in the last 4 weeks by age group (25-34, 35-54 and 55-64).

Mathematics, Science and Technology

3. Number of tertiary graduates in mathematics, science and technology per 1000 inhabitants aged 20-29, broken down by ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6.

Investments in Education and Training

4. Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP
5. Private expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP
6. Enterprise expenditure on continuing vocational training courses as a percentage of total labour costs.

Open Learning Environment

7. Percentage of population aged 25-64 participating in education and training in 4 weeks prior to the survey by level of educational attainment.

Making Learning more Attractive

8. Hours in continuing vocational training (CVT) courses per 1,000 working hours worked (only enterprises with CVT courses), by NACE.

Foreign Language Learning

9. Distribution of lower/ upper secondary pupils learning foreign languages.

Mobility

10. Inward and outward mobility of teachers and trainers within the Socrates (Erasmus, Comenius, Lingua and Grundtvig) and Leonardo da Vinci programmes
11. Percentage of students (ISCED 5-6) of the country of origin enrolled abroad (in a European country or other countries)

The third factor relevant for developing a lifelong learning programme for Turkey is time planning. There is an immediate need to develop a short-term programme (2006-2007), a mid-term programme (2007-2010) and a long-term programme (2007- 2015). It is advisable to work out each programme according to a transparent system of aims, the attainment of which can be identified by quantitative and qualitative data. One obvious task (see section 3.9) is standardisation of data provision and measurement, as well as establishing a uniform system of concepts used.

4.3.3 High Level European Exchanges

Visits should be organised of groups of Turkish MEPs to meet with members of the Committees of the European Parliament, especially the Committee of Education and Culture and the Committee of Employment and Social Affairs, to exchange views on the subject of lifelong learning policy in Europe

Groups of high level officers, clerks of the different national authorities and ministries, should arrange study trips to EU member countries to exchange experiences of national level lifelong learning policy

in practice. It is highly advisable to have mixed groups from at least three or four ministries including as a minimum both education and labour. New member countries of the EU should be chosen to enhance peer learning.

In the framework of different exchange programmes it is crucial to strengthen learning partnership projects and study trips between EU and Turkey at provincial and local level, that is to say, of educational and training administrative staff of the municipalities and regional governments. Bilateral exchanges and twinning of local and province level institutions and bodies with counterparts in other countries should be encouraged.

It would be wise to use the experience of the development activities of the European Institute of Public Administration gained in different member countries for this work.

4.3.4 Making Turkey Known and Valued in Europe

Embedding, preserving and transforming culture and society happens in an informal way, often most efficiently shaped mainly in the family and non-formal communities. These exert powerful influence through the generations. Among all social institutions, education is the most efficient in terms of passing on heritage and renewal.

A number of influences impacting in several waves have contributed to creating present-day Turkey. The Turkish population, bringing all its history along, settled in the area of the present country a thousand years ago, while the influence of former societies existing there goes back 3000 years. The outside observer's first impression is of a mixture of the Ottoman (1299-1920) and the Republican (from 1920 on) eras having had an overwhelming impact on the profile and mentality of society, compared to other periods. It is no illusion that the heritage of Turkish nomad age, Sumerian, Assyrian, Hittite, Hellenic, Roman, early Islamic and Christian civilisations, many elements of which over time became a determining and integral part of European development, should be strengthened in the awareness and conventions of the population.

Special attention should be paid to the period of emergence and adoption of Christianity and Islam, when a lot of initial features common in both Turkey and Europe took shape. This historic heritage should be made better known to current public opinion in the EU. When it comes to accession, relevant knowledge in segments of Western public opinion is rather low, while prejudice, fear and uneasiness are quite dominant. Apart from and alongside Turkey's fulfilment of accession requirements, political decision-makers may be significantly influenced by EU public opinion as well. In addition to tourism, cultural programmes, PR activities and the contribution of the media, there is a need for wide-ranging non-formal dissemination of knowledge of Turkey's history in the EU member states as well. Such programmes have already been launched in the EU countries (see for example *Building Bridges for Dialogue and Understanding. Results from the EU-Socrates Project Tolerance and Understanding of our Muslim Neighbours – 2002-2004* ed. Beate Schmidt-Behlau IIZ/DVV, 2005).

Changes and challenges may come so fast in the next decade that many individuals and even the majority of Turkish society may find it impossible to follow and cope with them. This may even provoke a crisis in identity. This risk can be significantly reduced through strengthening the solidarity and action of smaller communities, confirming cultural identity and a sense of belonging. The aim is modernisation and the development of knowledge, skills and behaviour according to the requirements of the knowledge society. This does not imply the loss of national or local identity, or of religious heritage. Problems arise where there is a lack of higher level cultural identity. Turkish cultural identity is well able to cope with both global and European challenges and EU requirements. The global world and Europe will be poorer if these distinctive Turkish features are lost. Turkey must be confident that its distinctive identity does not imply under-development.

An example is craftsmanship traditions. Craftsmanship is alive in Turkey today. There are many small shops and workshops on the ground floor of newly built blocks of flats, and even in housing estates.

At the same time modernisation and market demands for mass production threaten to undermine true craftsmanship. The preservation of authentic craft traditions is important not only nationally and culturally but also in terms of social policy and the economy - such social-economic initiatives should be supported. In many of the less developed provinces, craftsmanship could be one strong form of rural employment in the face of the radical decrease in agricultural activities that is to be expected as a result of economic transformation. Silver-work and carpet-making for example can sit alongside other activities and be successful in business and market terms.

4.3.5 Managing Change and Preparing for Europe

Size is a critical factor. Smaller countries are sometimes more flexible and have more cultural sensitivity towards the outside world, while larger countries are hindered among other things by awareness of their own significance. Larger countries pay more attention to their own weight and direction of movement than to outside factors forcing rapid changes. These factors may be relevant to Turkey's EU accession and integration processes. Apart from its European future-awareness and its aspiration to take a role, Turkey, by virtue of its size, does indeed need to go a level lower than national, and to put more of the onus for development and change onto the regional and province levels. This will influence the dynamics and power of this stage of Turkey's national development.

The SVET initiatives to analyse labour market needs, and to promote a national qualification system and institutional framework, is at the heart of the changes needed. Linking relevant, sporadic, isolated regional projects and extending them to all regions and levels, and making efforts to turn them into mainstream practice, is crucial. So is extending a counselling and guidance service, and implementing the National Qualification System, as referred to earlier in this chapter. The role of public training centres is not well recognised. Many more public training centres need to be involved in piloting projects and implementing the whole programme of lifelong learning in Turkey.

EU programmes can be used as an efficient lift-off. Since Turkey has attended the programmes in 2004 covering the period 2000-2006, the Agreement Report enabled it to participate in such programmes in that period. 18.353 million Euros was proposed to allocate to country-based projects for a 9 months period in 2004, with the suggestion to raise this amount to 39.143 million Euros in 2006.

Turkey needs to collect the experiences of the national agencies of the 25 member countries. From international experiences it is known that beyond the activities of national agencies there is much to do, to use optimally opportunities for trans-national development co-operation in education and training,

- Awareness-raising activities among different stakeholders at very local and regional level to make transparent opportunities for Turkish-EU member countries co-operation.
- Specific focus to learning partnerships of education and training staff, which helps the development of foreign language capacity-building in Turkey.
- Regular surveys, local and regional consultation forums to explore demands of education and training staff, tutors and the needs of the learners to take part in international activities.
- Contact seminars and peer learning training seminars are needed to introduce the standards and develop the skills for international project management, to learn about finance management, to cope with difficulties and problems in project planning, and for such practices as team-building, meetings, organisation, and financial administration. These capacity-building activities are necessary to introduce interested stakeholders to project monitoring, evaluation, reporting, and dissemination of results.

4.3.6 Linking, Building on and Multiplying Efforts

Different Turkish domestic and international initiatives and projects dealt with a certain segment of the society, economy or education, but in an isolated way. Turkey is full of committed professionals and community leaders willing to take initiatives, and it has many talented and enthusiastic citizens. Initiatives are however limited or abandoned because of the slow-moving bureaucracy of social, public administration and governance systems. Authorities do not do enough to encourage and reward results beneficial to society, or to support the wider social utilisation of achievements. This discourages wider circles from taking initiatives.

One of the most significant suggestions to implement lifelong learning is to link isolated activities, learn from success, and secure the opportunities for permeability, co-operation and joint utilisation. The aim is to promote isolated good practices into the mainstream, making them known in other sectors, extend them in the territorial sense, and use them in training professionals.

Examples of initiatives that need to be brought into mainstream practice include

- Piloting institutes initiatives in SVET
- Guidance and counselling with the support of ISKUR
- Non-formal education activities in public training centres
- Government incentives to use the good practices such as OSTIM industrial village of Ankara. The methods of good practices of NGOs, foundations, VET schools have to be spread wider
- Systematic collection and assessment of all kinds of often internationally financed projects carried out in the country in the past 5-8 years in order to use their outputs and tools in the systematic development of lifelong learning.

Local and specific features should be built upon in strengthening the access and attractiveness of learning and training. Participation in social and cultural activities, and increased individual and joint action, significantly contribute to motivation and improved ability to learn and undertake training. Programmes are needed that promote a conscious link between schools, training and cultural activities.

4.4 Priority Programme Areas

The previous sections of this chapter focused on the identification of key areas of change and on other steps to be taken when developing a lifelong learning policy. This section lists 9 programme areas that should be the priority of lifelong learning stakeholders in general and of the new Lifelong Learning Council in particular.

4.4.1 Basic life skills and literacy training for adults

Turkey needs a fully integrated programme to eradicate illiteracy among its nearly 7 million illiterates. It is essential to make these courses attractive particularly to adults who find it very difficult to enter employment in the formal sector of the economy because of illiteracy. There has been significant expansion in the informal sector in the last 30 years in Turkey and many illiterates are employed in this sector. Integrating literacy training within a lifelong learning strategy could contribute to reducing the number of employees in the informal sector. Millions of illiterates, as the main labour force of this sector, and their activities should be fully integrated in registered economic life. Effort should therefore be made to help these people become literate first. HRD Policy in this area should create literacy and numeracy training and employment opportunities for adults, and develop a certification system that recognises their skills previously acquired, facilitating their move into the formal economy.

Each of the following elements is important:

- Literacy and numeracy courses
- Skills training
- Seminars on better use of existing resources
- Ensuring that training is provided to a large number of participants
- Interactive training methods
- Awareness-raising for public and private sector organisations and local training units on the training needs of the informal sector workers
- Training for informal sector workers scheduled to be accessible for them
- Training in the nature and operation of the informal economy to trainers
- Using multiple methods to address these needs effectively.

4.4.2 Rural development programmes for lifelong learning

There is an urgent need to start working out a rural development programme, especially for the south-eastern and other comparatively underdeveloped regions of the country. A comprehensive rural

development programme will include social economic initiatives, the establishment of co-operatives based on local traditions, rural and community development, and initiatives for modernisation based on traditions, all with training for key competencies and tools and activities of lifelong learning.

The programmes should thus combine economic, social, infrastructure and educational development. Significant development of various forms of social economy is needed. Social economy allows for the development of new forms of employment, which can secure a longer transitional period for integration into the existing market economy. Turkey has a mobile social group, growing in size, which has learnt to aim at efficiency and competitiveness. But major change will come as a shock and an upset to the traditional rural community as a whole.

4.4.3 c. A comprehensive basic skills and key competencies development strategy

More is needed beyond just literacy and numeracy (see above and also earlier reference to the Basic Education Programme), and obtaining compulsory school certificates. On the one hand new skills are needed in computing, foreign languages, entrepreneurship etc; on the other hand, beyond formal school requirements skills are needed that enable individuals to function in community life, the labour market and modern information society. Turkey needs to carry out a test survey of the IALS (OECD) as soon as possible, and to develop and implement a basic skills/key competencies strategy using the survey outcome.

This is a factor fundamentally determining Turkey's competitiveness. As a result of the OECD surveys, significant national basic skills/key competencies development programmes have been launched in more developed EU member states since the mid-90s. This programme would require manifold efforts, but it can be implemented if primary school teachers are retrained and adult learning practitioners are trained. The programme could be linked to military service, active employment policy measures, initiatives for the long-term unemployed and social employment, rural development programmes and preparatory, integration programmes for entering VET.

4.4.4 Involving and supporting civil society in implementing of lifelong learning

Lifelong learning development documents mention the stock exchange organisation, organisations of employers, and trade unions as NGOs, but these represent only one segment of civil society, and are negligible from the point of view of the wider population. Youth, women, and minority organisations that conduct actual co-operation with communities, are almost completely unrecognised, unsupported and disregarded in lifelong learning thinking.

Obviously it is impossible to create civil society in a couple of decades, where there are no traditions going back a few hundred years, just to copy others. But the need to support civil society is pressing, given the complex tasks and problems emerging in modern times that cannot be solved exclusively by the market or the state. The public sector cannot cope with all social issues. Public administration should encourage the private sphere to take social responsibility, creating frameworks to encourage and support social, training and learning initiatives started by individuals or groups in the non-profit sector, and monitoring performance (see key area 3 above). On the other hand citizens now expect everything from the state, which is another obstacle.

Faster and more efficient development can be achieved if the government hands over a number of training services to the private sector or to market-oriented providers, within the framework of unified and differentiated accreditation and quality assurance (note the establishment of a National Quality System in SVET). Such training services include business management and marketing training for small and medium size firms, ICT training, and foreign language teaching. This may result in the middle social strata attaining faster and more extensive development. At the same time it is necessary to develop large-scale subsidised programmes for the wider society. These programmes, aimed at social inclusion and integration, may prevent the gap widening between different groups in society.

4.4.5 Enterprise training

If lifelong learning is to succeed, learning in the workplace must greatly develop. Enterprise training is training organised by an enterprise for its own employees. It may be offered both inside and outside the enterprise, in the form of on-the-job and off-the-job training.

Continuous skill development programmes for own employees by business firms should become normal. These programmes should comprise:

- basic education and skills, ensuring the participation to technical training;
- initial technical training, providing job entry level skills;
- further training, providing job-specific training by employers;
- employment training, providing training and re-training as part of active labour market policies;
- re-training, providing the labour force competence, skills and updated qualifications related to their profession or for a new job in higher demand.

We made recommendations above about lack of guidance and counselling. Turkey lacks institutions providing sufficient vocational counselling services. In order to overcome this problem, enterprises should:

employ qualified training officers at their training units

have enough opportunities for the training of training officers

encourage the private sector to support good training and human resources development

provide enterprises with incentives such as tax exemption for employers who can show spending of a certain budget on per-person training activities annually.

4.4.6 Standardisation and certification of skill levels, and wider provision

In relationship to the National Qualification Framework (see Key Area 7 above) existing occupations, skills and skill levels should be re-defined and standardised, and a Certification System introduced.

Particularly for youngsters who have no formal education or who left school, and for adults who had no opportunity for further education after a certain level, opportunities are needed to convert skills acquired through non-formal education into a certificate or a document that is accepted in working life. A draft law on the 'National System for Qualifications', which is in line with this recommendation, has been introduced to the Parliament..

The process may be organised as follows:

- A National Committee for Occupational and Skill Standards should be created.
- 'National Skill Standards' should be defined.
- Competence-based training programmes benchmarked at international best practices should be developed.
- A Vocational Qualification Authority should be formed to link the National System for Occupational Competencies to the National Qualification Framework.
- Apprenticeship education as well as formal and non-formal education should be modernised through the participation of private sector employers.
- The strategic role of technical trainings should be stressed.
- All stakeholders should be given an equal say in designing and programming practical training.

Entrepreneurship training should be widely offered and integrated into the formal educational system as follows:

- Certified entrepreneurship courses should be organised in various provinces through the co-operation of universities with Entrepreneurship Centres and/or Continuous Education Centres and KOSGEB.
- Individuals should be encouraged to start their own business.
- Entrepreneurship courses should be included in the curriculum of all secondary vocational schools.
- The courses could also be offered to job-seekers.
- Provision should be made to help disadvantaged people, including those disadvantaged by gender, to have easy access to lifelong learning activities.

- Low-skilled people should be given equal opportunities in this regard.

All social partners should create sectoral and regional education funds. Additionally, regional employment disparities should be reduced by providing tax, other incentives and exemptions for lifelong learning programmes.

For the success of lifelong learning, social dialogue among all institutions and organisations is vital, including representatives of public and private enterprises, worker representatives and non-governmental organisations. This social dialogue should enable all stakeholders to discuss, consult and exchange information one another as well as having an equal voice in planning and implementing lifelong learning, forming the legal framework, in policy-making and decision-making processes, to expand training to urban and rural areas, and in quality assessment.

Skills acquired through distance learning and online education should be rewarded with certificates accepted by enterprises, and a system therefore introduced to have these certificates approved by institutions.

Distance learning certificate programmes should be developed for those who want to improve themselves in their present occupations or who aim to change jobs. Certificate programmes can be designed especially for enterprises using on-line programmes in management, accounting, finance, and human resource management. These programmes and certificates could be offered through online courses and by universities' Continuous Education Centres.

ICT workshops should be organised in all provinces and made available to all for a small fee. They should be reinforced through trainers who provide counselling. For registered unemployed job-seekers, ISKUR should finance the fee through active labour policies.

4.4.7 Comprehensive training and retraining of practitioners

A detailed and comprehensive training and retraining programme is needed for practitioners to implement lifelong learning. Major target groups include:

- Teacher training and further training for nursery level and at all levels, primary, secondary, VET and higher education;
- Leadership training, school and educational management training for principals and leaders;
- Quality management training for all types of teachers and trainers in formal, non-formal, informal, market-oriented, non-profit, vocational and non-vocational institutions;
- Capacity-building for public administration staff at national, provincial and local government levels for top, middle and basic level officials;
- Capacity-building for staff of the labour offices dealing with active unemployment policy and practice;
- Training for the leadership and experts of firms on human resource development;
- Higher education training on labour market expertise and adult learning expertise at college and university level;
- Training for NGO managers, and for full-time, part-time and volunteer staff;
- PhD courses for top experts and researchers in lifelong learning.

4.4.8 Information and awareness campaign

Widespread and efficient communication of lifelong learning objectives throughout society is essential (see also key area 4 above). A budget within education and training is needed for creating a culture of learning through the assistance of the media, and through civil society.

Different, internationally well-known practices such as Adult Learning Weeks and other promotional activities popularising all kind of learning should be introduced and supported.

There should be special attention to such target groups as social partners' employees. Trade unions learning representatives and a Union Learning Fund (as in the UK) are ways to raise the awareness of unions for the challenges of the knowledge economy. Through the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Group of Europe,

a number of corporations from Turkey could get experience in how corporations promoting the lifelong learning of their employees and the neighbourhood where they are.

All professionals must be involved in the information flow about lifelong learning activities in Europe. Efforts should be made to create civic society bodies and organisations of the different education and training sectors. The LLL Coordination Centre could maintain a joint service providing regularly most relevant professional information on LLL from the EU in the Turkish language.

Well structured cooperation with the most important EU level organisations which are dealing with lifelong learning activity is needed. This could fulfil the following:

- Information and communication on all issues of learning and lifelong learning.
- Involvement of Turkish partner institutions in facilitating policy formation and influence on EU and national level.
- More systematic knowledge creation through applications and contact-building in partnerships.
- Consultative services and dissemination of good practices, dissemination of project results, and training for staff development.

The European Association for the Education for Adults (EAEA) is a most suitable organisation, to facilitate this. (It is currently co-ordinating the European Civil Society Platform for Lifelong Learning, a joint platform of EU wide NGOs in the field of lifelong learning.)

Co-operation with EU organisations could result in a series of books to make known the most relevant update lifelong learning literature of EU member countries, universities, research institutes. A Turkish language series of books could serve to instruct policy-makers, researchers, all kind of teacher trainers, tutors and teachers. In the framework of the European Research Area a new generation of Turkish researchers needs to be grown via scholarships in order to meet the tremendous agenda of future research needs on learning and lifelong learning.

The training of professionals and experts in lifelong learning at higher education level is essential to meet the challenge of the learning demands of Turkish society, providing skilled researchers, practitioners, teachers, labour market experts, learning counsellors, and all kind of professionals.

4.4.9 Media and lifelong learning

Co-ordinated long-term and regular programmes encouraging learning should be launched and broadcast on public television. They could be selected through public competition and start the productions of private media workshops. These programmes, independent or integrated into other types of programmes, would be aimed at three important target groups: the wider public, educational practitioners, and political decision-makers in the field.

Within the wider public, low-educated rural groups should be particularly targeted to encourage their learning through presentation of domestic and foreign good practice. Programmes for practitioners should address all sectors - formal schools, the labour market, non-formal education, learning and training at all levels - and feature the best practice that can be found in the country. Programmes for political decision-makers should target politicians irrespective of their political party and conviction, to agree on a minimum set of criteria, according to which investment into training and learning should be increased. This is of vital importance to Turkey and in the impartial interest of everyone.

Appendices

[Appendix 1 References](#)

[Appendix 2 Tables and Figures](#)

[Appendix 3 List of Abbreviations](#)

[Appendix 4 Mini glossary of terms of lifelong learning](#)

[Appendix 5 Guidance to Further Resources for Readers](#)

[Appendix 6 Summary of the evaluation report on the effectiveness of Public Education Centres](#)

[Appendix 7 Financing of Lifelong Learning](#)

[Appendix 8 Career Guidance and lifelong learning](#)

[Appendix 9 Lifelong Learning and VET – Ten Years in the UK](#)

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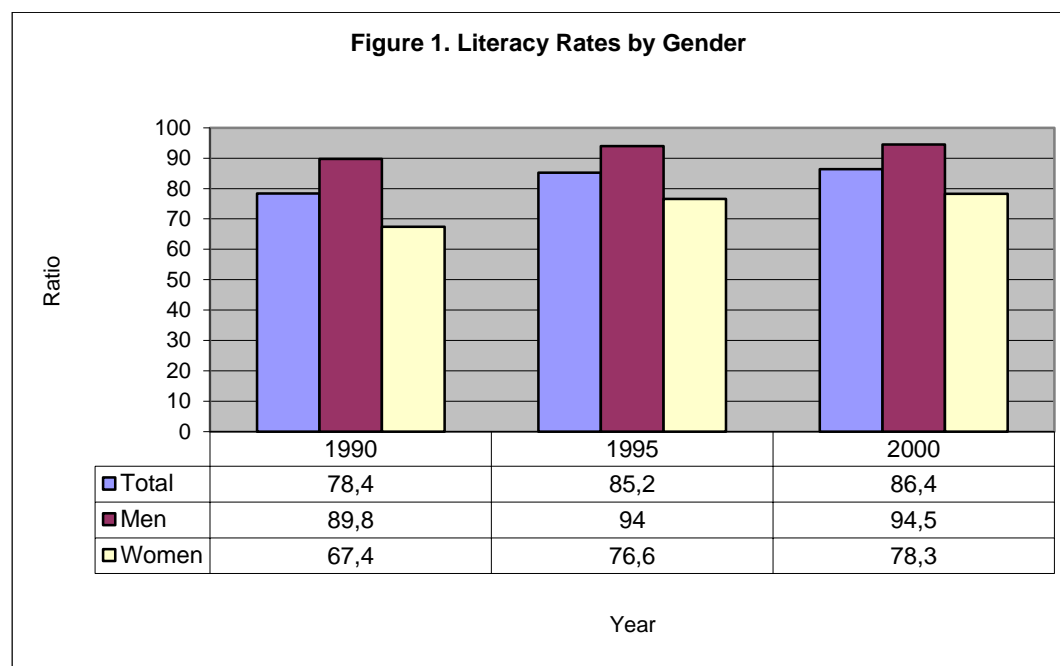
Appendix 2. Tables and Figures

Table 1. The Percent of Population According To the Age Groups

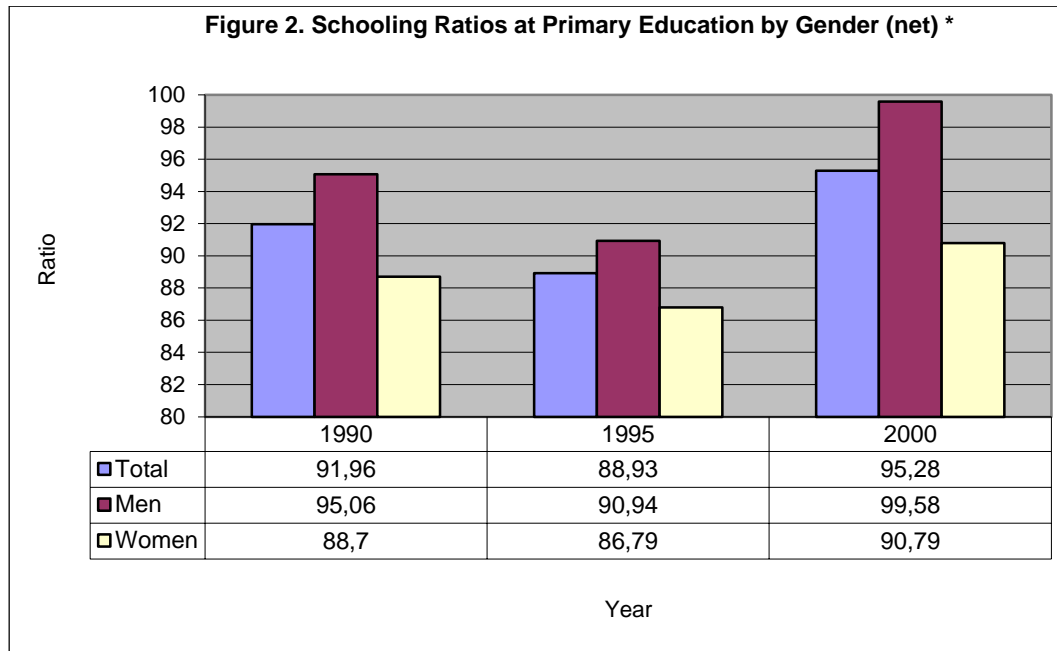
Age groups	Percent in 1999	Percent in 2023
0 - 14	31	23
15 - 64	64	69
65 and over	5	8

Source: Republic of Turkey (2001).

Long-Term Strategy and Eighth Five-Year Development Plan, Ankara, p.23

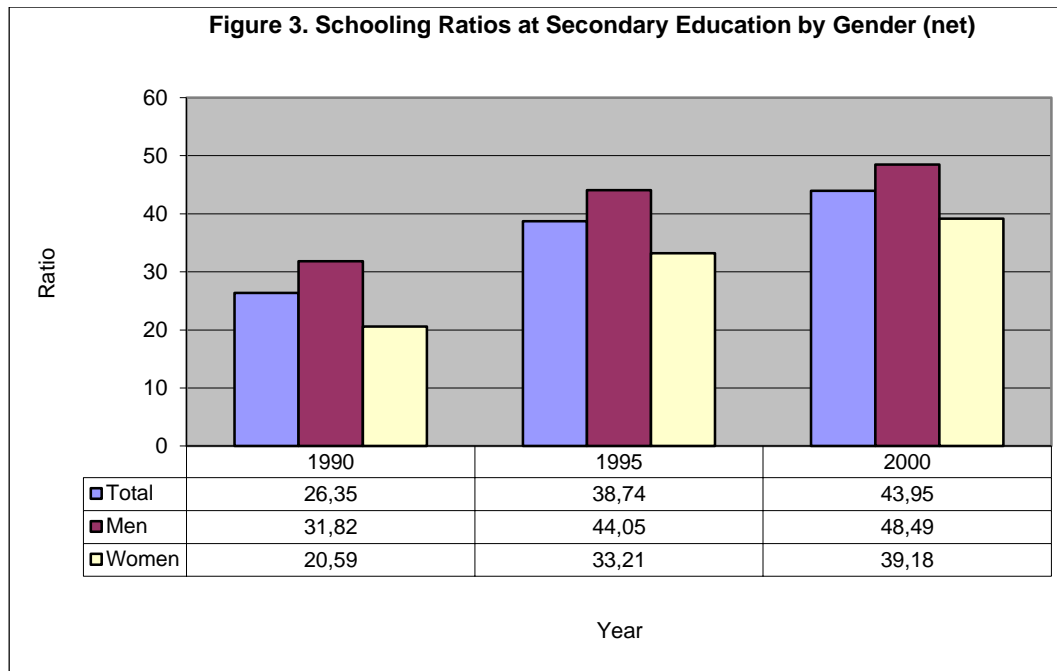


Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), <http://nkg.die.gov.tr/en/goster.asp?aile=3>

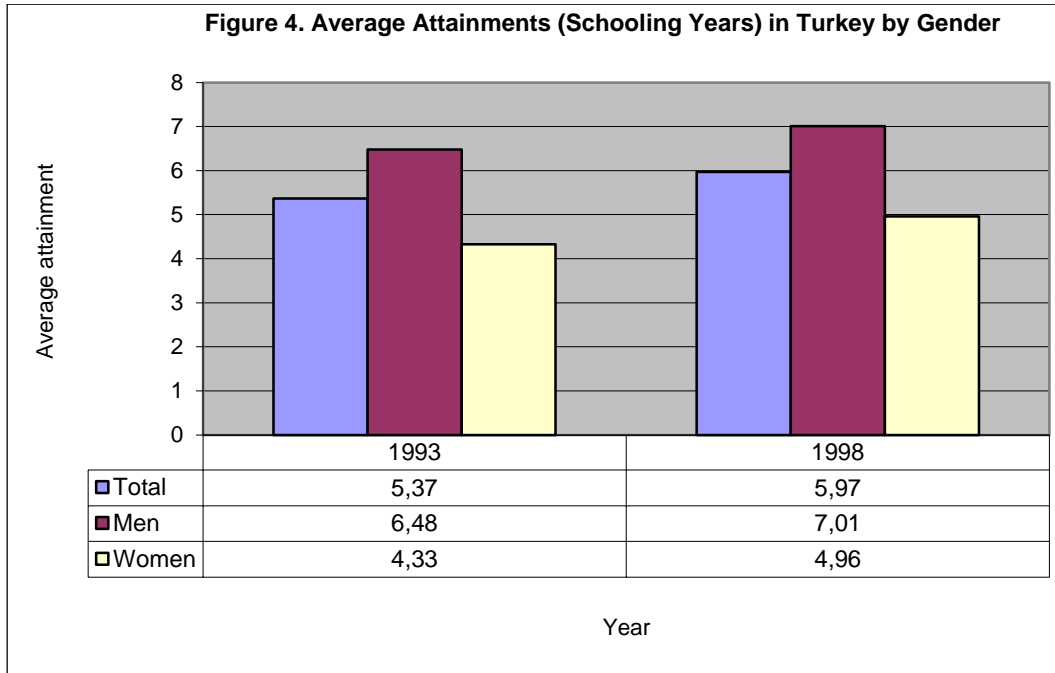


* In the school year 1997/1998 the new Basic Education Law became active. The law extends the duration of compulsory schooling from five years to eight years. Obviously this change influences the primary education enrolment ratio.

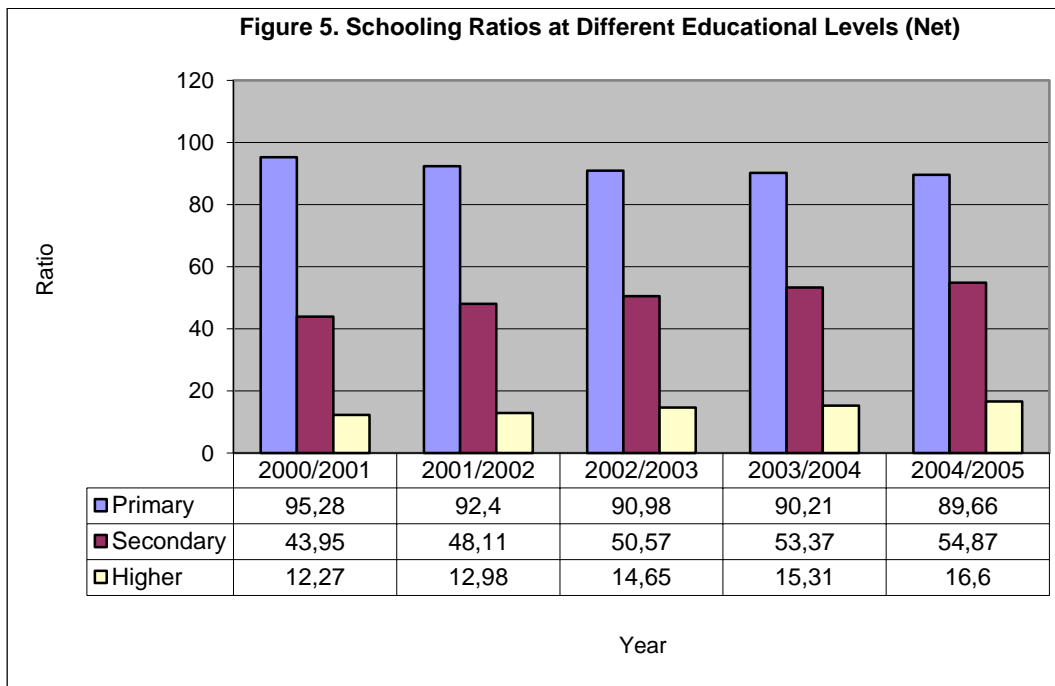
Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), <http://nkg.die.gov.tr/en/goster.asp?aile=3>



Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), <http://nkg.die.gov.tr/en/goster.asp?aile=3>

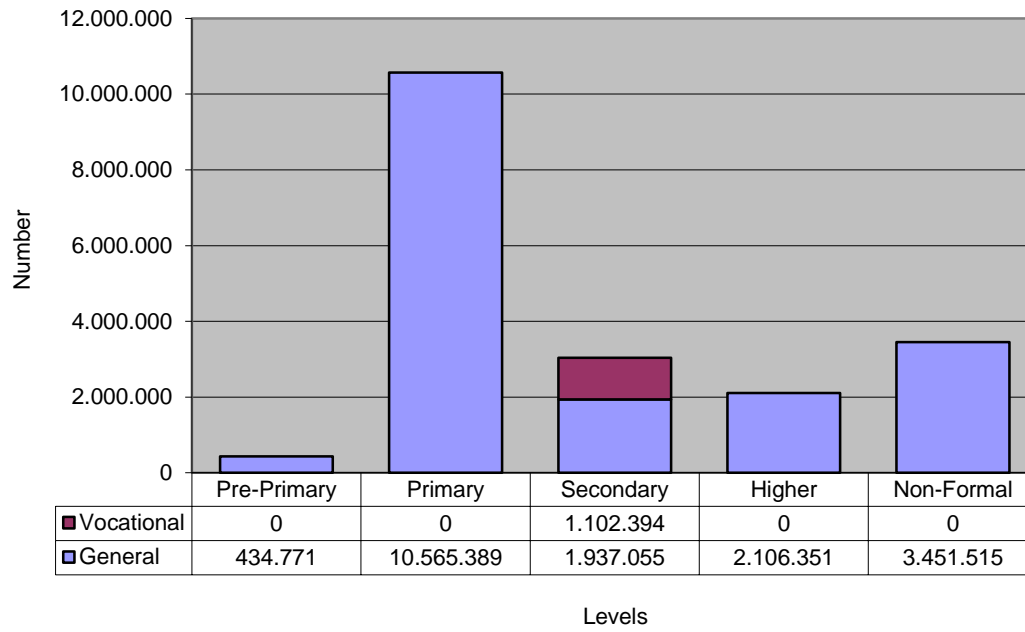


Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), <http://nkg.die.gov.tr/en/goster.asp?aile=3>



Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), <http://www.die.gov.tr/ENGLISH/yillik.pdf>

Figure 6. Enrollment at Different Educational Levels (Net) in 2004/2005



Source: *National Education Statistics 2004-2005 from the Ministry of National Education and ÖSYM (www.osym.gov.tr)*

Table 2. Non-formal Education institutions (final of the 2004/'05 Education Season)

A.Toplam- Total		B.Erkek -Male	C.Kadın - Female					
Kurum / Merkez Türü Institution /Center Type	Kurum Sayısı Institution	Öğrenci Student			Öğretmen Teacher			
		A	B	C	A	B	C	
Yaygın Eğitim Toplamı Non-formal Education Institutions Total		9 630	3 886 638	2 216 081	1 670 557	69 530	43 089	26 441
Resmi Yaygın Eğitim Toplamı Non-formal Education Total	Formal	1 984	1 770 088	890 140	879 948	11 839	7 151	4 688
Halk Eğitimi Merkezi Center of Folk Education		924	1 312 818	574 937	737 881	4 724	2 213	2 511
Mesleki Eğitim Merkezi ⁽³⁾ Center of Vocational Education (Apprenticeship and non- formal Education Head Office) ⁽³⁾		351	309 962	262 605	47 357	4 532	3 840	692
Kız Teknik Genel Müdürlüğü Top. General Director of Technical Education for Girls		366	74 428	4 751	69 677	477	45	432
Pratik Kız Sanat Okulu Practical Art School For Girls		354	72 913	4 751	68 162	188	7	181
Olgunlaşma Enstitüsü Maturation Institute		12	1 515	-	1 515	289	38	251
Erkek Teknik Genel Müdürlüğü⁽¹⁾ General Director of Technical Education for Boys ⁽¹⁾		22	1 186	325	861	-	-	-
Pratik Kız Sanat Okulu Practical Art School For Girls		10	743	-	743	-	-	-
Yetişkinler Teknik Eğitim Merkezi Technical Education Center For Adults		12	443	325	118	-	-	-
Özel Eğitim Genel Müdürlüğü General Director of Special Education		321	10 062	6 532	3 520	2 106	1 053	1 053
Öğretilebilir Zihinsel Engelliler For the Mentally Retarded		108	4 799	3 052	1 747	1 278	621	657
Eğitilebilir Zihinsel Engelliler (İş Okulu) For the Mentally Retarded (work school)		58	1 276	977	299	239	129	110
Öğretilebilir Zihinsel Engelliler (Bağımsız) For the Mentally Retarded (independent)		112	1 913	1 327	586	45	19	26
Otistik Çocuklar - Autistic children		15	388	329	59	189	82	107
Üstün veya Özel Yetenekliler Dominant or special capable children		28	1 676	847	829	355	202	153
Meslek Kursları (3308 sayılı yasaya göre)⁽²⁾ Vocational Courses (By Law of 3308) ⁽²⁾		-	61 842	40 990	20 852	-	-	-
Özel Yaygın Eğitim Toplamı Private Non-formal Education Total		7 646	2 116 560	1 325 941	790 809	57 691	35 938	21 753
Muhtelif Kurslar Various Courses		2 048	220 636	113 230	107 406	4 450	1 817	2 633
Motorlu Taşıt Sürücü Kursları Motor Vehicles Drivers Course		2 028	970 615	721 303	249 312	12 210	10 394	1 816
Özel Dersaneler Private teaching institution		3 570	925 299	491 408	433 891	41 031	23 727	17 304

⁽¹⁾Öğretmen sayıları bağlı bulundukları meslek lisesinde gösterilmiştir.

⁽²⁾ Number of teacher is shown in their vocational high schools.

⁽³⁾ Mesleki ve Teknik okullar ile yaygın eğitim kurumlarının açıldığından kurum ve öğretmen sayısı verilmemiştir

⁽²⁾ Institution and teachers numbers that are opened by vocational high schools and non formal institutions are not shown

⁽³⁾ Mesleki Eğitim Merkezleri bağımsız olarak gösterilmiştir.

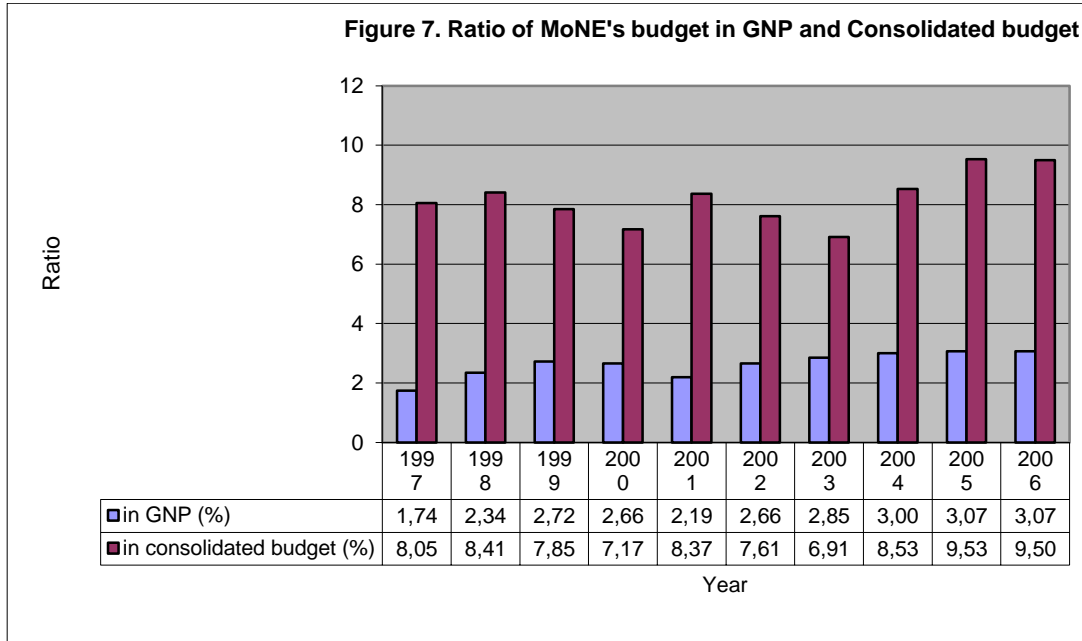
⁽²⁾ Vocational Education Centers are shown independently

Source: Education Statistics of Turkey 2005- '06 from the Ministry of National Education

Table 3. Number of participants and courses opened by Centres of Folk Education in 2004.

Type of Programmes / Courses	Number of Courses opened	Number of Participants		
		Total	Male	Female
Total	20 571	1 126 103	473 171	570 519
Vocational Courses	12 379	577 073	226 393	350 680
Social and Cultural Courses	6 017	398 897	188 215	210 682
Literacy Courses	2 175	150 133	58 563	9 157

Source: National Education Statistics 2004-2005 from the Ministry of National Education



Source: Education Statistics of Turkey 2005-2006 from the Ministry of National Education

Appendix 3. List of abbreviations

AÇEV	Mother and Child Education Foundation
CVET	Continuing Vocational Education And Training
DISK	Workers Trade Union Confederations
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
HAK-İŞ	HAK-IS Trade Union Confederation
HDI	Human Development Indicators
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ISKUR	The Turkish Employment Agency
KalDer	Quality Association of Turkey
KESK	Civil Servants' Trade Union Confederation
KOSGEB	Small and Medium Industry Development Organization
METARGEM	The Vocational and Technical Education Research and Development Centre
MEKSA	Vocational Education and Small Scale Industries Foundation
MESS	The Turkish Employers' Association of Metal Industries
MoNE	Ministry of Education
MPM	National Productivity Centre
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
ÖSYM	The Student Selection and Placement Center
SBEP	Support for Basic Education Project
SIS	Turkish State Institute of Statistics
SME	Small And Medium Sized Enterprises
TISK	The Turkish Confederation of Employer Associations
TOBB	The Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey
TUBITAK	Scientific and Technical Research Council
Türk-İs	Public Workers Dominant Trade Union Confederation
TUTSIS	Turkish Textile Employers' Association
VET	Vocational Education and Training
YÖRET	Foundation for Introducing Guidance and Training Guidance Practitioners in Higher Education

Appendix 4. Mini glossary of terms of lifelong learning

This glossary is based on two sources¹⁹, both documents of the European Commission.

Accreditation (of programmes, institutions)

Process of accrediting an institution of education or training, a programme of study, or a service, showing it has been approved by the relevant legislative and professional authorities by having met predetermined standards.

Active citizenship

The cultural, economic, political/democratic and/or social participation of citizens in society as a whole and in their community

Adaptability

The capacity to adapt to new technologies, new market conditions and new work patterns of both enterprises and of those employed in enterprises

Assessment

The sum of methods and processes used to evaluate the attainments (knowledge, know-how, skills and competences) of an individual, and typically leading to certification.

Awarding body

A body issuing qualifications (certificates or diplomas) formally recognising the achievements of an individual, following a standard assessment procedure.

Basic skills (key competences)

The skills and competences needed to function in contemporary society, e.g. listening, speaking, reading, writing and mathematics.

Certificate/diploma

An official document, which formally records the achievements of an individual

Certification

The process of issuing certificates or diplomas, which formally recognise the achievements of an individual (i.e. knowledge, know-how and/or skills and competences), following an assessment procedure. Certificates or diplomas are issued by accredited awarding bodies.

Civil society

A 'third sector' of society alongside the state and the market, which embraces institutions, groups, and associations (either structured or informal), and which may act as mediator between the public authorities and citizens.

(Statistical) Classification for Learning Activities (CLA)

Learning activities are defined as: „any activities of an individual organised with the intention to improve his/her knowledge, skills, and competence”. Single learning activity: „characterised by unity of method and subject” „This means that each time there is a change in method of learning or subject of learning you have a different single learning activity”. (Eurostat, 2005)

Comparability of qualifications

¹⁹ Sources:

1. European Commission (2005). Towards a European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning. Commission Staff Working Document. Brussels: European Commission, SEC(2005) 957.
2. European Commission (2001). Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality. Brussels: European Commission Communication, COM(2001) 678 final.

The extent to which it is possible to establish equivalence between the level and content of formal qualifications (certificates or diplomas) at sectoral, regional, national or international levels.

Compensatory learning

The provision of learning which should have been acquired during compulsory schooling.

Competence

The capacity to use effectively experience, knowledge and qualifications

Continuing education and training

Education or training after initial education or entry into working life, aimed at helping individuals to:

- improve or update their knowledge and/or skills;
- acquire new skills for a career move or retraining;
- continue their personal or professional development.

Corporate social responsibility

The commitment of a corporate organisation to operate in a socially, economically and environmentally sustainable manner, while acknowledging the interests of internal and external stakeholders

Curriculum

A set of actions followed when setting up a training course: it includes defining training goals, content, methods (including assessment) and material, as well as arrangements for training teachers and trainers.

Digital divide

The gap between those who can access and use information and communication technologies (ICT) effectively, and those who cannot

Digital literacy

The ability to use ICT proficiently.

ELearning

Learning that is aided by ICT.

Employability

The capacity for people to be employed: it relates not only to the adequacy of their knowledge and competences but also to the incentives and opportunities offered to individuals to seek employment.

Empowerment

The process of granting people the power to take responsible initiatives to shape their own life and that of their community or society in economic, social and political terms

European governance

The administration of European affairs through the interaction of the traditional political authorities and 'civil society', private stakeholders, public organisations, citizens.

Formal learning

Learning typically provided by an education or training institution, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and leading to certification. Formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective

Guidance

A range of activities designed to assist people to make decisions about their lives (educational, vocational, personal) and to implement those decisions

Identification (of competences)

The process of specifying and defining the boundaries and nature of competences.

Informal learning

Learning resulting from daily life activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and typically does not lead to certification. Informal learning may be intentional but in most cases it is non-intentional (or “incidental”/random)

Initial education/training

General or vocational education carried out in the initial education system, usually before entering working life.

Comments:

- Some training undertaken after entry into working life may be considered as initial training (e.g. retraining).
- Initial education and training can be carried out at any level in general or vocational education (full-time school-based or alternance training) pathways or apprenticeship.

Intergenerational learning

Learning that occurs through the transfer of experience, knowledge or competences from one generation to another.

Knowledge

The facts, feelings or experiences known by a person or a group of people

Knowledge-based society (or knowledge society)

A society whose processes and practices are based on the production, distribution, and use of knowledge.

Learning community

A community that widely promotes a culture of learning by developing effective local partnerships between all sectors of the community and supports and motivates individuals and organisations to participate in learning

Learning facilitator

Anyone who facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and competences by establishing a favourable learning environment, including those exercising a teaching, training or guidance function. The facilitator orientates the learner by giving guidelines, feedback and advice throughout the learning process, in addition to assisting the development of knowledge and competences.

Learning organisation

An organisation that encourages learning at all levels (individually and collectively) and continually transforms itself as a result

Learning region

A region in which all stakeholders collaborate to meet specific local learning needs and implement joint solutions to common problems

Lifelong learning

All learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective

Lifewide learning

All learning activity whether formal, non-formal or informal. Lifewide learning is one dimension of lifelong learning as defined in this Communication.

Non-formal learning

Learning that is not provided by an education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification. It is, however, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support). Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective.

Programme (of education and training)

An inventory of activities, learning content and/or methods implemented to achieve education or training objectives (acquiring knowledge, skills or competences), organised in a logical sequence over a specified period of time.

Recognition

(a) *Formal recognition*: the process of granting official status to skills and competences either

- formally through the award of certificates or
- in a non-formal or informal setting by granting equivalence, credit units, validation of gained competences

and/or

(b) *Social recognition*: the acknowledgement of the value of skills and/or competences by economic and social stakeholders.

Regulated profession

Professional activity or group of professional activities access to which, and the practice of which (or to one of its forms) is directly or indirectly subject to legislative, regulatory or administrative provisions concerning the possession of specific professional qualifications.

Sector

The term sector is used either to define a category of companies on the basis of their main economic activity, product or technology (for example chemistry, tourism) or as a transversal/horizontal occupational category (like ICT, marketing or Human resources).

Comment:

The following distinctions are common:

1. Between public sector (government at various levels and government-controlled bodies) and private sector (private businesses)
2. Between primary sector (agriculture, forestry, fishing, hunting, mining and quarrying), secondary sector (manufacturing industry, gas and electricity, water supply, construction) and tertiary sector (services, e.g. transport, storage, communication, trade, financing and insurance, as well as the public sector).

Sectoral qualification

A qualification implemented by a group of companies belonging to the same sector in order to meet common training needs.

Skill

The knowledge and experience needed to perform a specific task or job.

Social inclusion

When people can participate fully in economic, social and civil life, when their access to income and other resources (personal, family, social and cultural) is sufficient to enable them to enjoy a standard of living and quality of life that is regarded as acceptable by the society in which they live and when they are able fully to access their fundamental rights.

Transparency of qualification

The degree to which the value of qualifications can be identified and compared on the (sectoral, regional, national or international) labour and training markets.

Validation (of non formal and informal learning)

The process of assessing and recognising a wide range of knowledge, know-how, skills and competences, which people develop throughout their lives within different environments, for example through education, work and leisure activities.

Valuing learning

The process of recognising participation in and outcomes of (formal, non-formal or informal) learning, so as to raise awareness of its intrinsic worth and to reward learning

Appendix 5. Guidance to Further Resources for Readers

Readers of this policy paper should be able to access information on relevant subject areas, which will assist them to understand and act better in implementing lifelong learning practice. This appendix is addressed both to professionals in Turkey and to EU member country professionals who may co-operate with Turkey. Note: The information below was accurate in July 2006, but websites may have been changed over time.

Policy development on lifelong learning in Europe

European Commission and member state's lifelong learning

Directorate General for Education and Culture

http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/index_en.html

Education and Training 2010

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html

National Reports 2003:

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/nll_en.html

Biannual Joint Reports - 2005

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/nationalreport_en.html

The best resources are the reports of the specific working groups of 2003, 2004

http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/objectives_en.html. This website gives access to the reports of the following working groups:

- [Education and Training of Teachers and Trainers](#)
- [Key Competences](#)
- [Language Learning](#)
- [Information and Communication Technologies](#)
- [Maths, Science and Technology](#)
- [Making the best use of resources](#)
- [Mobility and European cooperation](#)
- [Open Learning Environment; Making Learning Attractive, Strengthening Links with Working Life and Society](#)
- [Active citizenship and social cohesion](#)
- [Reforming guidance and counselling](#)
- [Recognising non-formal and informal learning](#)
- [Measuring progress through indicators and benchmarks](#)

Vocational Education and Training (Copenhagen Process):

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/vocational_en.html

Social partners and civil society documents on lifelong learning

Since 2001 (Europe-wide consultation on the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning), six trans-national association (CSR EUROPE, EAEA, EfVET, EVTA, EURO-WEA and SOLIDAR) have decided to establish a new platform related to "Education and Training 2010". This platform is currently giving its contribution to the debate on the *Future objectives of education and training systems in Europe*. In particular, the platform has developed a consultation basis open to all interested actors from the civil society, dedicated to the debate on LLL and on the creation of a Europe of knowledge.

See: <http://www.eucis.net>

European employment policy and lifelong learning

The Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities has the task of contributing to the development of a modern, innovative and sustainable European Social Model with more and better jobs in an inclusive society based on equal opportunities.

See: http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/employment_social/index_en.htm

Social policy, social inclusion and lifelong learning

The Lisbon European Council of March 2000 asked Member States and the European Commission to make a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty by 2010. Building a more inclusive European Union is an essential element in achieving the Union's ten year strategic goal of sustained economic growth, more and better jobs and greater social cohesion.

See: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/social_inclusion/index_en.htm

Research on and Measuring Lifelong Learning

European Commission

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/objectives_en.html

Opportunities of the 7th research framework programme and lifelong learning

http://ec.europa.eu/research/future/index_en.cfm

University and other research networks and projects

www.eucen.org

<http://www.eucen.org/projects/>

Relevant trans-national institutions and their activities

European Training Foundation (ETF)

The European Training Foundation is an agency of the European Commission based in Turin, Italy. It was established by Council Regulation No. 1360 in 1990 to contribute to the development of the education and training systems of the EU partner countries. Its mission is to assist [the partner countries](#) in developing quality education and training systems and in putting them into practice. Working on behalf of the EU, it helps these countries to develop people's skills and knowledge to promote better living conditions, active citizenship and democratic societies that respect human rights and cultural diversity.

See: <http://www.etf.europa.eu/>

Contact:

ETF - European Training Foundation

Villa Gualino

Viale Settimio Severo 65

I - 10133 Torino - Italy

Tel.: +39.011.630.2222

Fax: +39.011.630.2200

E-mail: info@etf.europa.eu

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)

The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, established in 1975 (2), is a European agency that helps promote and develop vocational education and training in the European Union (EU). It is the EU's reference centre for vocational education and training.

Cedefop works to promote a European area of lifelong learning throughout an enlarged EU. It does this by providing information on and analyses of vocational education and training systems, policies, research and practice.

See: <http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/>

Contact:

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
Europe 123, GR-57001 Thessaloniki (Pylea)
Postal address:
PO Box 22427, Finikas
GR-55102 Thessaloniki
Tel. (30) 23 10 49 01 11
Fax (30) 23 10 49 00 49

Liaison office in Brussels:
20 Av. d'Auderghem
B-1040 Brussels
Tel. (32-2) 230 19 78
Fax (32-2) 230 58 24

E-mail: info@cedefop.europa.eu

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Education

The OECD groups 30 member countries sharing a commitment to democratic government and the market economy. With active relationships with some 70 other countries, NGOs and civil society, it has a global reach. Best known for its publications and its statistics, its work covers economic and social issues from macroeconomics, to trade, education, development and science and innovation.

Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI): www.oecd.org/edu/ceri

See: <http://www.oecd.org/education>

Contact:
OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
2, rue André Pascal
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16
France
Tel.: +33 1 45 24 82 00
Fax: +33 1 45 24 85 00

Unesco Institute for Education (UIE), from 1 July Unesco Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL)

UIE/UIL, one of six educational institutes of Unesco, is a non-profit international research, training, information, documentation and publishing centre on literacy, non-formal education, adult and lifelong learning. By drawing on its long and unique experience linking educational research, policy and practice in these areas and by using its competence, influence and resources, UIE makes a special contribution in enhancing access to learning, and improving the environment and quality of learning for all in all regions of the world.

See: <http://www.unesco.org/education/uie/>

Contact:
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
Institute for Education/ Institute for Lifelong Learning
Feldbrunnenstr. 58
20148 Hamburg
Germany
Tel.: +49-40-448041-0
Fax: +49-40-4107723
E-mail: uie@unesco.org

International Labour Office (ILO)

The International Labour Organisation is the UN specialized agency which seeks the promotion of social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. It was founded in 1919 and is the only surviving major creation of the Treaty of Versailles, which brought the League of Nations into being and it became the first specialized agency of the UN in 1946.

See: <http://www.ilo.org/>

Contact:

International Labour Office

4, route des Morillons

CH-1211 Geneva 22

Switzerland

Tel.: +41.22.799.6111

Fax: +41.22.798.8685

E-mail: ilo@ilo.org

The World Bank and Education

The World Bank is a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world. It is not a bank in the common sense. It is made up of two unique development institutions owned by 184 member countries—the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Association (IDA). Each institution plays a different but supportive role in the World Bank's mission of global poverty reduction and the improvement of living standards. The IBRD focuses on middle income and creditworthy poor countries, while IDA focuses on the poorest countries in the world. Together they provide low-interest loans, interest-free credit and grants to developing countries for education, health, infrastructure, communications and many other purposes.

See: <http://www.worldbank.org/education>

Contact:

The World Bank

1818 H Street, NW

Washington, DC 20433 USA

Tel.: (202) 473-1000

Fax: (202) 477-6391

Important national institutes

Instituut voor Publiek en Politiek - Dutch Centre for Political Participation (IPP)

Prinsengracht 911-915

1017 KD Amsterdam

Tel.: 020 5217600

Fax: 020 6383118

Web Page: <http://www.publiek-politiek.nl>

NIACE – The National Institute for Adult Continuing Education, England and Wales

21 De Montfort Street

Leicester

LE1 6TP

United Kingdom

Tel.: +44 (0)116 204 4200

Fax: +44 (0)116 204 4201

Web Page: <http://www.niace.org.uk>

The Basic Skills Agency

Commonwealth House
1–19 New Oxford Street
London WC1A 1NU
United Kingdom
Tel: +44 (0)20 7405 4017
Fax: +44 (0)20 7440 6626
Web Page: <http://www.basic-skills.co.uk/>

IIZ/DVV – Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association

Obere Wilhelmstraße 32
53225 Bonn
Tel.: 0228/97569-0
Fax: 0228/97569-55
Web Page: <http://www.iiz-dvv.de/englisch>

DIE - The German Institute for Adult Education

Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 38
53113 Bonn
Tel.: +49 (0)228 3294-110
Fax: +49 (0)228 3294-4110
Web Page: <http://www.die-bonn.de>

Fédération des Centres Sociaux et Socio-Culturels de France

10, rue Montcalm
BP 379
75869 PARIS Cedex 18
Tél. : 01 53 09 96 16
Fax : 01 53 09 96 00
Web Page: <http://www.centres-sociaux.asso.fr>

Key European level professional organisations and networks

European Association for Education of Adults (EAEA)

Main Office
Rue de la Concorde 60
B-1050 Brussels
Belgium
Tel: +32-2-513 5205
Fax: +32-2-513 5734
Email: eaea-main@eaea.org
Web Page: <http://www.eaea.org>

The European Forum of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (EfVET)

Central Office
Rue de la Concorde, 60
B-1050 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: +32 2 511 0740
Fax: +32 2 511 0756
Email: efvet@efvet.org
Web Page: <http://www.efvet.org>

The European University Association (EUA)

Rue d'Egmont, 13
B-1000 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: +32 2 230 55 44
Fax: +32 2 230 57 51
E-mail: info@eua.be
Web Page: <http://www.eua.be/>

The European Vocational Training Association (EVTA)

Rue de la Loi, 93-97
B-1040 Brussels
Belgium
Tel: +32 2 644 58 91
Fax: +32 2 640 71 39
E-mail: info@evta.net
Web Page: <http://www.evta.net/>

Platform of European Social NGOs (social platform)

Square de Meeûs 18
B-1050 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: +32 2 511 37 14
Fax: +32 2 511 19 09
E-mail: platform@socialplatform.org
Web Page: www.socialplatform.org

European Youth Forum

Rue Joseph II straat 120
B-1000 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: + 32 2 230 64 90
Fax: + 32 2 230 21 23
Email: youthforum@youthforum.org
Web Page: <http://www.youthforum.org/en/>

CSR Europe

(A non-profit organisation, business network for corporate social responsibility /CSR/)
Rue Defacqz, 78-80
Brussels 1060
Belgium
tel + 32 2 541 1610
fax +32 2 502 8458
email info@csreurope.org
Web Page: <http://www.csreurope.org/>

Trans-national Project Cooperation

Turkish National Agency (TNA)

<http://www.ua.gov.tr>

The Centre for European Union Education and Youth Programmes

Hüseyin Rahmi Sok. No:2
Çankaya - Ankara
TURKEY
Tel: +90 312 409 60 00
Fax: +90 312 409 60 09

e-mail: bilgi@ua.gov.tr
www.na.gov.tr

SVET – Strengthening Vocational Education and Training

<http://www.megep.meb.gov.tr/>

Different programmes dealing with lifelong learning

http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/socrates_en.html

Leonardo da Vinci (Initial and continuing vocational education and training)

http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/leonardo/index_en.html

Grundtvig (adult education)

http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/grundtvig/index_en.html

The former projects treasury (compendiums):

- Leonardo da Vinci
http://leonardo.cec.eu.int/pdb/recherche_En95.cfm
- Socrates, Grundtvig
http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/grundtvig/info_en.html
- Youth for Europe
http://ec.europa.eu/youth/program/examples_en.html

Lifelong learning initiatives, networks, movements on European level

Adult Learners' Week

International Learners' Weeks and Festivals

<http://www.unesco.org/education/uie/InternationalALW/>

Learning cities and learning region initiative

Learning organisations initiative

http://www.see.ed.ac.uk/~gerard/MENG/MEAB/lo_index.html

European Consortium for the Learning Organisation

<http://www.eclo.org/>

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) group and initiative

<http://www.csreurope.org/>

Other Websites

- Mother Child Education Foundation : <http://www.acev.org>
- Public Workers Dominant Trade Union Confederation: <http://www.turkis.org.tr>
- Quality Association of Turkey (Kalder) : <http://www.kalder.org>
- Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education: www.meb.gov.tr
- Small and Medium Industry Development Organization: <http://www.kosgeb.gov.tr/>
- Republic of Turkey, Prime Ministry Turkish Statistical Institute, (TURKSTAT): <http://www.die.gov.tr/>
- The Turkish Employment Agency (Türkiye İş Kurumu): <http://www.iskur.gov.tr/>
- The Association in Support of Contemporary Living (Çağdaş Yaşamı Destekleme Derneği): <http://www.cydd.org.tr/>
- The Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV), <http://www.tegv.org>
- The Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey: <http://www.tobb.org.tr/>
- The Turkish Confederation of Employer Associations (TISK): www.tisk.org.tr

- The Turkish Confederation of Trades and Craftsmen: <http://www.tesk.org.tr/>
- Turkish National Agency: www.ua.gov.tr
- The Turkish Employers' Association of Construction Industries: <http://www.intes.org.tr>

Appendix 6. Summary of the evaluation report on the effectiveness of Public Education Centres

Introduction

The EU-project “Support to Basic Education Programme (SBEP)” ordered an evaluation of the effectiveness of Public Education Centres (PECs). The evaluation was conducted by a team of experts and researchers in 20 PECs in 9 provinces, chosen by the Ministry of National Education. The researchers interviewed several principles, teachers, students and graduates and observed a number of courses. The following instruments were used during the evaluation:

1. PECs Monitoring Form to register 21 indicators of the PEC, to be filled in by the head teachers;
2. Lesson Observation Form used by the researchers to observe and evaluate the lessons;
3. A Student Questionnaire;
4. A Graduate Questionnaire.

Also, the researchers interviewed head teachers, teachers and students and analysed relevant documents.

The study has some limitations. First, it is not clear according to which criteria the centres, respondents and the observed courses were selected. Furthermore, data were collected during weekdays and from morning courses only, so the selection of students and teachers to be interviewed, as well as the selection of classes to be observed may well be not representative of the students, teachers and courses in other PECs. That’s why the results of this evaluation can only be generalised carefully.

Description of the participants

The 20 **head teachers** in the sample are mostly male and have a lot of work experience inside and outside the PECs. Most have a teacher background, but none of them have had formal training in adult education or public education. The 47 **teachers** in the sample are mostly female. They vary a lot in terms of work experience (1 to 37 years) and education background (from primary education to university education). The majority were “master instructors” and none of them have had formal training in adult education.

The majority of the 666 **students** in the sample are female and relatively young: about two-thirds were younger than 29 years. A big share finished secondary school (38%), primary school (24%) or middle school (17%); only a small group was illiterate (4%). More than half of the PECs students were unemployed, and a fifth was student. In total, 258 **graduates** responded and filled out a questionnaire. They have completed a course at least three months before the data for the evaluation were collected. The graduates more-or-less resemble current PECs students with regard to gender and age.

Students’ preferences for courses

The most popular courses among the 666 students are (i) ready-made clothing, (ii) machine embroidery, (iii) hairdressing, (iv) computer and (v) English. Preferences varied according to the educational background of the students: students with a secondary education find all five aforementioned courses equally interesting, but students with a primary or middle school education prefer ready-made clothing, machine embroidery and hairdressing courses. University graduates are very interested in English courses, and to a lesser extend in computer and ready-made clothing courses. Many of the illiterate PECs students participate in literacy courses, but also in ready-made clothing or machine embroidery courses.

Supply of and demand for courses

There is a high demand for computer courses and English language courses, especially among job seekers. Also, the requirement to follow a computer course of 160 hours to be appointed as teacher increases the demand for computer courses. Unfortunately some centres can’t meet the demand for

computer courses because of a lack of equipment and qualified teachers. Likewise, in 3 PECs the lack of equipment was mentioned as the main reason for a decreased popularity of a machine embroidery course. Students attend this course to meet their own needs or to earn money by producing and selling products from home. The researchers conclude that courses that will provide income or on high demand, but the demand cannot always be met because of a lack of equipment and qualified teachers. In line with this, the report mentions several courses that could not be offered, some of which (like furniture courses) could even have a positive effect on the local economy. The main reason for courses that could not be offered was a lack of qualified teachers.

The demand for courses varies according to the educational and social status of the provinces' inhabitants. For example, in Çankaya (Ankara) and Kartal (Istanbul) hobby courses are popular, whereas in Diyarbakır the demand for literacy courses is high. Likewise cultural characteristics of the provinces influence the course demand: for example, in Nallıhan (Ankara) the needle lace course is popular and in Diyarbakır the folk dance course.

Impact of the training

Employment among graduates slightly increased after the training, and the number of graduates running their own business increased significantly, and the number of students increased as well. The graduate questionnaire reveals that the majority of the graduates are satisfied with the course and believe that it helped them to find a job. A fifth said that they were economically better off after the course. All graduates that attended a course for social enjoyment report that they have reached their aims.

General perceptions of the PECs

In general, students were satisfied with the **quality of the lessons**, but worry about shortage of course materials such as machines and computers. They also mention that the PECs have a negative image with the general public. Head teachers are aware of this negative image, and point out that the public know too little about the services of the PECs and believe that the quality of the education is low. This might be explained by the fact that PECs cannot advertise their programmes and services due to bureaucratic constraints.

Another common concern among head teachers is that their main **buildings** are too small. As a result, they are forced to use other public buildings such as schools. These buildings can only be used outside working hours, which is not convenient for potential students, resulting in a decreased demand. Also, it is hard to find support staff for weekends or the evenings, and heating the building outside working hours can be problematic. Lastly, the distance between the main building and course locations can be big, making it difficult for head teachers to monitor the courses. Teachers also have problems with the small size of the building as they sometimes have to look for places outside the main building to organise the courses. Students worry about the size of the classrooms and about the absence of facilities such as a canteen and library.

Head teachers report a shortage of permanent **teaching and support staff**. Because of this, they need to hire temporary staff, but they worry about pedagogical and subject knowledge of those temporary teachers. Students, on the other hand, are rather satisfied with the quality of the teachers.

Other topics covered in the evaluation

Self evaluation of PECs

All of the PECs evaluate the performance of teachers and quality of courses. However, the usefulness of such evaluations is questionable, as head teachers indicated that they did not think that such evaluation processes were necessary at all. Also, courses in villages far from the main building were not evaluated, because it was hard for the head teacher or his team to visit them.

New courses as part of SBEB project

The MoNE offers new courses to the PECs as part of the SBEB project. The evaluation shows that little is known about these courses. However, many head teachers are positive about the flexible modular system and believe that more students will subscribe. Others worry about a negative effect on the quality of the courses. An increase in the number of courses on offer is not considered useful, as PECs are free to start any course if there is enough demand. The PEC principles emphasize that whether or not a course is offered, depends on demand, and that advertising the existence and content of the course can increase demand. In line with this, they believe that the image of PECs can benefit from advertising the variety and richness of PEC courses.

Conclusions and suggestions

Based on the above-mentioned results, the researchers formulated the following suggestions.

Suggestions to improve the current situation of the PECs

1. PEC head teachers should be provided with pre-service and in-service trainings to prepare them for the post;
2. PEC teachers should be provided with pre-service and in-service courses as and when required, in order to improve the quality of education at the PECs.
3. PECs could administer questionnaires during registration to get to know the students at the beginning and offer some extra courses to help them develop themselves. Teaching and learning can then be more effective.
4. A. Each PEC should have its own building. It should be large enough to meet the needs and include facilities such as canteens, a chess room and study room for students to socialise and spend time together.
B. In some cities, the number of PECs should be increased to meet the high demand and provide more effective services.
5. MoNE needs to take the PECs' actual needs into account when appointing staff. Also, the number of support staff at PECs should be increased.
6. Work conditions of temporary teachers should be improved and the problems temporary staff experiences in relation to the social security system should be solved. This will attract more people to be master instructors at the PECs and will increase the motivation.
7. PECs have limited budgets, which is an important constraint for buying new equipment. The researchers propose two measures to improve the financial situation of the PECs:
A. Regulations are needed that allow PECs to use revolving money²⁰, which they can use to meet their needs.
B. Some of the most demanded courses and hobby courses could be made paid courses, except for those who are unemployed, students or those with a low income. This may help generate income for PECs.
8. PECs should be able to reach more people. In order to increase the demand for the courses offered by PECs the legal restrictions related to the advertisement of PEC courses should be lifted.
9. As Turkey is in the process of joining EU, PECs should be given a new mission to adapt to global world conditions. Topics such as European Citizenship, Democratic Participation, Human Rights, Respect to other Cultures should be taught to the public. Although some PECs organise seminars and conferences for public, it is not common. Such activities should be organised by all centres to enlighten the society.

Awareness and acceptance of the new MoNE/SBEB courses

10. Information and training on the details of new programmes and practices should be provided prior to asking PECs to implement them.

²⁰ In a revolving fund system PECs could sell the goods produced at courses and had a certain amount of extra income.

Improve self evaluation of PECs

11. PECs should improve the communication with graduates. The graduate questionnaire used in this project can be used to get feedback from their graduates. In addition, PEC staff could contact graduates at least one year after the graduation to conduct interviews and get more in-depth information about their situation.
12. All PECs should establish a performance evaluation centre, and create a database with information on current activities of the PEC, income and expenses, and all detailed information on students and graduates. The performance evaluation centre should be responsible for analysing the data collected at the centre to make further recommendations.
13. There is a need for in-service courses, prepared by experts, for head teachers to be trained in the application and use of such evaluation methods. The researchers also suggest a model for PECs to monitor and evaluate their own performance.

Appendix 7. Financing of Lifelong Learning

Introduction

Lifelong learning is likely to be costly at both macro and micro level. The macro costs depend on a number of factors, of which one is the level of the initial education. Because initial education is the basis for further education, countries with a relatively low level of educational attainment will need more investment in lifelong learning than countries with a higher level of educational attainment (OECD, 2004). The costs at micro level are substantial as well, but the direct costs of the training are not the most important. According to the OECD report *Co-financing lifelong learning. Towards a systematic approach*, the foregone earnings are the biggest share of the costs of lifelong learning. In line with this, studies on the barriers for lifelong learning find that lack of time is mentioned most often as a barrier, followed at great distance by the direct costs of the training.

Though primary and secondary education are traditionally (wholly or partly) state-financed, governments are not able or willing to finance lifelong learning single-handedly. Besides, theory suggests that a system that is completely or predominantly funded by the state is not equitable, because society's resources are used for an investment where the individual is the main beneficiary (Palacios, 2002). This view is supported by the assertion in the 2004 OECD report on this subject, that lifelong learning can even weaken social cohesion, because of its strong positive correlation with the level of initial education, thus amplifying the gap between those who have solid educational and vocational qualifications and those who have not. Nevertheless, in order to attract disadvantaged groups to education in general and lifelong learning in particular, some state funding is necessary.

As full state funding does not seem to be the answer, a rational approach towards the question 'who should then pay for lifelong learning?' is that it should be financed by those who benefit (Atchoarena, 2003). In other words, the beneficiaries of lifelong learning (who are identified in the next section) should share costs or co-finance lifelong learning. The contributions of the beneficiaries should reflect their respective rate of return, which is not easy to quantify. Therefore, the actual division of the costs is likely to be a matter of debate and may vary between countries, sectors, etc.

Palacios (2002) points out that the question who *ultimately* pays for lifelong learning, is different from the question who provides *immediate* funding. This distinction is especially important for students, as they are more likely to have problems paying for education while studying, whereas their income is expected to rise after finishing the education programme. That is why he believes that education should not require payments at the point of use, this would mean that only students who have resources before studying would be able to participate.

Policy debates about financing lifelong learning have focused on (1) achieving sufficient financial resources and (2) an equitable distribution of these resources, so as to permit participation of poorly qualified and disadvantaged adults (OECD, 2004). Yet, apart from achieving these two goals, policies should also be evaluated with respect to their impact on the education market and on the labour market (Palacios, 2002).

According to Palacios, common economic theories imply that policies financing education should aim to enhance the choices available to potential students, increase the information available to help them decide on what course to take and what institutions to attend, and increase competition between educational institutions. Likewise, the OECD (2004) is of the opinion that there is broad agreement that 'greater reliance on market forces could strengthen the incentives both for learners to seek more efficient learning options, and for providers to achieve higher levels of efficiency'. As for the effect on the labour market, Palacios underlines that particular repayment methods may influence the decisions of individuals on where to work, or even whether to work or not. Especially income-contingent repayments may turn out to be a disincentive for individuals to work (this is explained under 'cover risks' below). Similarly, the 2004-OECD report discusses the evident relation between lifelong learning policies and labour mobility, like the portability of credentials and financing vehicles.

Summarising, lifelong learning is likely to be costly, and should be financed by those who benefit from it. As financing policies may well influence the education market and the labour market, effects on these markets should be taken into account when developing a financing policy for lifelong learning for Turkey.

In this appendix different financing alternatives for lifelong learning are presented. The structure is as follows. The next section holds an explanation of the benefits of lifelong learning for each of the involved parties. Then, a number of financing alternatives are discussed, illustrated by examples from different countries. Some final remarks are to be found in the fourth section before the list of literature in the final paragraph.

Beneficiaries of lifelong learning

Who benefits from lifelong learning? The authors of the OECD report distinguish three parties: the individual, employers and the state, which represents the interests of the society.

The first and most obvious beneficiary of lifelong learning is the individual participant. Boshara, Cramer and Parrish (2003) even regard lifelong learning as a process of asset accumulation. Though individuals do not need to be sure about the form and amount of the return on the investment in lifelong learning, he or she may receive one or more of the following (CAEL. *Lifelong Learning Accounts. Needs and Benefits*):

1. Enhanced employability / career flexibility;
The 'lifetime job' has become scarce and employees will change jobs and careers several times during the course of their life. Competences and skills acquired by education can play an important role in facilitating the transition from one job/career to another.
2. Higher earnings;
Education is positively correlated with salary levels. According to the CAEL, in 1999 in the US, an individual with a high school diploma could expect to earn 34% more than someone who had not finalised high school. Likewise, a college degree boosted the wage of a high school graduate by 74%.
3. Increased skills;
It is to be expected that the skill requirements for many positions will increase in both the short- and long-term. (CAEL)
4. Personal satisfaction.

Employers profit from lifelong learning activities as well. In the same publication, CAEL points out that employers can expect (1) increased productivity and (2) increased retention. The CAEL supports these claims by referring to studies that positively link worker productivity to skill development. Also, it is mentioned that employer's support for educational activities is considered to be an important fringe benefit for employees. The OECD report on co-financing lifelong learning mentions a third advantage of lifelong learning for employers, i.e. increased adaptability. Obviously, when employees acquire other skills and their employability increases, they are employable in more positions than before.

The last beneficiary is the state, representing the interests of the society. The most obvious benefits for the state are the fiscal returns in the form of greater tax revenues from higher earnings and as a result of reduced economic dependency, a diminished demand for unemployment benefits. Also, enhanced social cohesion may well be one of the benefits for states. However, at this moment lifelong learning is more likely to undermine social cohesion, as lifelong learning facilities are more likely to be used by individuals with a relatively high level of initial education, thus increasing the assets of those who least need it.

Lastly, a highly educated labour force is advantageous for the economic development of a country. All three above-mentioned parties will benefit from an improved national economy.

Financing mechanisms

In co-operation with the OECD, the European Learning Account Partners Network (E-LAP) and research institute Ikei have summarised 39 examples of lifelong learning co-financing initiatives. Several of these examples will be discussed as an illustration of the financing instruments that are discussed below²¹.

The 2004 OECD report on co-financing lifelong learning distinguishes three objectives of financing instruments of lifelong learning. The instruments are intended to (1) pay direct costs of learning such as fees and books, (2) cover foregone earnings or cost of living during the training period, and/or (3) reduce investment risks of individuals. The financing instruments that are discussed in this paragraph are arranged according to the above categorisation.

Policies to cover the direct costs of learning

According to the aforementioned report, most co-financing initiatives have the objective to ‘leverage the resources that individuals put into learning (in cash or time) with a matching contribution and/or eligibility for reduced fees’ (OECD, 2004). Examples are vouchers and subsidies, loans, individual learning accounts, tax policies and training funds.

Voucher schemes and subsidies vary with regard to their target groups (employees, unemployed), types of costs they cover (direct or indirect costs of learning), the amount of money involved and their administrative arrangements. Several countries have voucher schemes. This paragraph holds examples from Austria, Belgium and Denmark.

Learning Voucher of the Chamber of Labour in Vienna, Austria

The Austrian Chamber of Labour is the legal representation of employees and workers in Austria. The Chamber of Labour used to finance or subsidised several courses on several subjects. Due to external circumstances, the chamber was forced in 2002 to shift its attention from the supply to the demand side and introduced the “Learning Voucher”.

The Learning Voucher scheme is open to employees as well as the unemployed (who are members of the Chamber of Labour as well), and guarantees a place in a training course against a reduced fee. Special consideration is given to lowly educated employees, because research shows that the involvement of this group in company-based training is below average, as well as to employees in parental leave. Childcare is available free of charge.

As the Lisbon European Council identified foreign language skills and ICT skills as new basic skills, the voucher initially covered training on these subjects by selected training providers. In 2003 courses that lead to the development of social skills and courses that lead to a formal higher qualification were included in the scheme, as well as courses in more foreign languages.

Each individual chamber runs its own Learning Voucher. However, they all point in the same direction, and represent (more or less) the same value. The vouchers are completely financed by the Chamber of Labour, but can be used in combination with co-financing initiatives of the government.

The Chamber of Labour hands out a number of vouchers to individuals, for example in 2004 individuals received 1 x EUR 50, 2 x EUR 20 and 1 x EUR 10. The individuals use the vouchers to pay the participation fees, and the provider then sends the voucher to the Chamber of Labour for reimbursement.

²¹ The interested reader can download the publication from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/30/14/33856089.pdf> to study the other examples.

Since the introduction, the Learning Voucher has been used 100,000 times. An evaluation of the scheme revealed that:

- 18% of the participants took part in a course for the first time
- 45% would not have participated without the Learning Voucher
- 12% of all employees in parental leave participated
- 71% of the participants will for sure take part in another course, and 23% will probably take part in another course.

Training voucher schemes for employers in Belgium

In Belgium a training voucher scheme for employers was introduced in 1998 in Wallonia and in 2002 in Flanders. Traditional training incentives are usually designed for larger enterprises and are often too bureaucratic and slow in decision-making to meet the needs of small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). Therefore, the objective of the training voucher scheme for employers is to stimulate training in SMEs, and to inform smaller enterprises of training opportunities in a transparent way ensuring the quality of the training on offer. However, the voucher scheme is open for all enterprises, including the large ones.

Both general and specific training can be followed during working hours only (Wallonia Voucher scheme) or during and/or after working hours (Flanders voucher scheme). The vouchers may only be used for training by authorised training providers, so as to guarantee the quality of the training.

The layout of the voucher scheme is as follows. Via the Internet, employers purchase vouchers worth EUR 30, but they pay only EUR 15: the regional government pays the difference. This way, the employers and the government each pay 50%.

Each voucher corresponds to the value of one training hour. In Flanders companies can purchase at most 200 vouchers per year, in Wallonia the maximum is 400 vouchers per company per year. Employers are obliged to inform the work councils or the trade unions about the number and value of the vouchers purchased, and the training needs to be mentioned in the overview of social measures.

In addition to the above-mentioned voucher scheme for employers, the Flemish government introduced a voucher scheme in 2003 for *employees* as well. Both general training, to improve the general employability of employees and specific training, directly geared towards the employees' position, can be followed after working hours with authorised training providers. Employees use vouchers to pay for training, career guidance or competency measuring. An individual can annually buy vouchers for at most EUR 250. He or she pays half himself, and the Flemish government pays the other half.

Taximeter system for funding of education and training programmes in Denmark

Contrary to the two previous examples that focus on the demand side, the Danish 'taximeter system' is an example of a subsidy scheme for training providers. The objective of the taximeter scheme is to increase the quality and efficiency of training provision. It targets funding to training by a wide range of institutions, varying from open universities to folk high schools, for all types of prospective students. Curricula and examination need to be approved by the government and the supply of certain courses is subject to government control to get a minimum of geographical variation.

The set-up of the taximeter scheme is as follows: education and training providers receive a per capita grant from the national or local government for each full-time equivalent enrolment. The amount of the grant varies according to the study programme in which a person is enrolled. After an initial partial payment, the balance of the grant is paid upon successful completion. Though initially some courses were free of charge, students are now required to pay a user fee.

As the payments depend on the number of students, the taximeter scheme increases the competition between training providers. The underlying rationale of the scheme is that this will force the training

institutions to increase the quality of training in order to attract more students. Furthermore, it will motivate them to work more efficiently as the efficiency gains can provide extra resources for programme improvement.

The system has two weaknesses. First, as the demand for adult education is difficult to predict, forecasting the enrolment of students and thus forecasting the costs is complicated. In order to minimise the budget uncertainty, the Danish government developed methods for improved forecasting of student enrolment in adult education. Another potential weakness is that the provided training does not always meet the actual needs of individuals. Individuals could then decide to enrol in a training that does not match their education needs, but seems advantageous because of the relatively low costs.

A major advantage of the scheme is that the government's contribution to the education institutes depends on uniform and objective criteria. Furthermore, as the rates for each activity are politically determined, the taximeter system is a powerful tool to influence the supply of courses according to government priorities and policies. Lastly, the institutes are relatively free in their financial and administrative management.

In Denmark, the scheme is regarded as highly successful as it has led to an increased efficiency in the use of resources.

Another way to cover the direct costs of learning is by providing students with **loans**. An example from South Korea will be presented.

Loan support for Students of Private Technical Institutions, South Korea

The Korean government provides loans to students enrolled in private technical institutions and pays some of the interest. That is how the government wishes to (1) reduce the financial burden on students, (2) encourage the employment of high-school graduates who did not attend university and (3) ensure the efficient allocation of human resources across society.

The set-up of the programme is as follows. The annual tuition fee is covered by a loan provided by the National Co-operative Federation. Half of the interest (set at 10.5% in 2002) is paid by the government, and the other half by the student. Repayment of the loan is deferred during the entire duration of the course. After the course, students pay equal monthly instalments over two years, regardless of the size of the loan.

Individual Learning Accounts or Individual Development Accounts are saving accounts of individuals that are to be used for learning initiatives. The accounts are usually filled by contributions of the individuals, the government and/or employers. Here, three examples are discussed, an experiment with learning accounts in the Netherlands, Individual learning Accounts in the UK and Individual Development Accounts and Individual Training Accounts in the United States.

Regulation for experiments with learning accounts, the Netherlands

The Netherlands Ministry of Education designed a regulation for representatives of the business world, knowledge institutions and training intermediaries, inviting them to submit applications for an experiment with individual learning accounts (ILA), defined as a savings account for employees and job seekers that can only be used for training purposes. In this way, the Ministry wanted to develop models for implementing an ILA system. Eight proposals were selected: three by sector-based training funds, three by regional education bureaux and two by regional education colleges.

Both employees and unemployed were targeted, and in the second year of the programme the Ministry required that at least 35% of the account holders were unemployed. Most training was organised in collective courses, which were either bought in by companies for groups of employees, or employees with similar interests come together. There was a wide range of subjects, yet almost two thirds of the courses were skill related, and computer courses counted for 15% of the total.

Most accounts were opened when the company and employee agreed on a Personal Development Plan. The government deposits EUR 454 and the company or the sector based training fund complements this with an average contribution of EUR 235. Contributions by individuals are few and small (EUR 50), and are tax deductible. The funds were managed by independent project organisations, individuals via a bank or through a voucher system made available by the project organisations.

In the first year of the programme, 120 companies participated, mostly SMEs, contributing between EUR 150 and EUR 450. In total 1,100 accounts were opened. Opening of accounts by employees was successful, but for the unemployed it was less satisfactory. Possible explanations are that ILAs are little known, the existence of other available training instruments and slow decision-making by local authorities. The majority of the participants are male and two-fifths are younger than 36 years. Furthermore, 86% of them have an educational level not higher than secondary vocational education. Employees are equally distributed over all company sizes.

The project is regarded as fairly successful. An evaluation after the first year led to the conclusion that the project had successfully created a social basis for social learning accounts and ILAs are likely to work well if counselling is available. However, it is not clear if companies will use ILAs if government support is not available.

Individual Learning Accounts, United Kingdom

The aim of the UK's Individual Learning Accounts (ILAs) was to increase participation in learning and to help overcome financial barriers to learning faced by individuals. Furthermore, the programme should bring in new learners and providers.

The programme targeted all members of the labour force not involved in full-time education or training already publicly supported. There was special attention for women returnees, low skilled younger workers, self-employed and non-teaching school staff. Also some pilot projects were implemented, particularly with trade unions and community groups.

The set-up of the ILAs was that an individual's deposit of GBP 25 was matched by a government contribution of GBP 150. In addition, all account holders received an 80% discount on a number of basic ICT and maths courses, and a 20% discount on the costs of a wide range of eligible learning.

As ILAs aim at the development of a wider choice and innovation in the delivery of training and to attract new providers, the government did not impose any restrictions on the type of training. Higher education courses, professional qualification and leisure courses were excluded from the programme.

The programme attracted 2.5 million account holders. ILAs definitely succeeded in making learning more affordable and accessible. However, the programme was susceptible to fraud because of its non-bureaucratic nature: some companies were abusing the system by offering low value, poor quality training, which is why the programme was eventually closed. The concept of ILAs is considered to be valid though, and it is quite likely that new project proposals will follow.

Individual Development Accounts, United States

The scope of the Individual Development Accounts (IDAs) programmes in the US was much wider than the scope of Individual Learning Accounts. IDAs could be used for the acquisition of the purchase or building of a first home, capitalisation of a business or the (direct and indirect) costs of post-secondary education. The dollars deposited by participants were matched by a contribution of the federal and non-federal government with up to eight dollars for every dollar saved.

Targets of the programmes were low-income families: the participants were encouraged to develop and reinforce strong habits for saving money. Through the programmes, the government tried to uncover:

- the social, civic, psychological and economic effects of the incentive to acquire assets by saving a portion of earned income by low-income participants,
- the extent to which an asset-based policy that promotes saving for post-secondary education, home ownership and micro-enterprise development helps participants to increase their economic self-sufficiency, and
- the extent to which an asset-based policy stabilises and improves families and their communities.

The ‘American Dream Demonstration’ (ADD) was a multi-year, multi-site demonstration of IDA programmes across US. The ADD was studied systematically and it was found that programme participants saved an average of \$19 a month in accounts that are typically matched two-to-one, with an average accumulation of \$700 per year. Savings withdrawals included home purchase (28%), business investment (23%), post-secondary education (21%), and home repair (18%) (Boshara et al., 2003).

Older examples of **tax policies** come from the 1970s and 1980s. Through tax policies, governments tried to increase the supply of and demand for training. Increasing the supply was realised by revenue-generating levies that raised money by payroll taxes imposed by government or collective agreements. The resources funded the establishment of new or expansion of existing training organisations. A similar tax policy was used to realise an increase in demand. A French law in 1971 illustrates the principle of levy exemption schemes. It imposes a tax on enterprises, equal to a fixed percent of the payroll. The tax is reduced by the amount that enterprises spend on training activities. Such a train-or-pay scheme not only secured resources for training, but also battled ‘free rider’ behaviour by securing revenues from firms that did not train, to help finance training supply (OECD, 2004). The principle is illustrated by an example from Belgium, where “... the Ministry of Employment and Labour examines collective agreements and verifies whether obligatory training and financial efforts have been fulfilled. If not, a corresponding amount of money must be paid by enterprises into the National Employment Fund.” (International Labour Organisation, 2002)

In this document two examples of tax policies to finance lifelong learning are presented, both from Austria: one for individuals and one for enterprises.

Tax reduction of expenses for training as income related expenses, Austria

With this tax reduction, the Austrian government wishes to make it easier for individuals to invest in training. The programme targets people that are working, and is therefore open to both employees and self-employed.

The training should be related to the occupation or should be necessary to allow a job change or to start in a new area. Direct and indirect costs of learning are deducted from the tax base.

Tax allowance for training / training credit, Austria

Through this initiative the Austrian government tries to stimulate companies’ investment in human capital to increase the national and international competitiveness of Austrian companies. Austrian employers are allowed to deduct 120% of training costs from profits as an operating cost. A special regulation is in place for companies that do not make enough profit: they receive a tax credit of 6%. The tax reduction can be used for all internal and external training that increases the vocational skills of the company’s employees.

In several countries, sector or community **training funds** are created to finance training. Resources for these funds are provided by employers, often a fixed percentage of the payroll or as a fixed amount per working hour (ILO, 2002). The resources are used to pay for the costs of learning of employees. Frequently, special attention is given to vulnerable groups in the labour market, such as lowly educated employees.

Employers’ and employees’ representatives typically manage the funds together. The line of policy of the fund is often agreed upon in a separate collective agreement. Training courses can be directly

related to employees' current position, but can also aim at increasing the general employability of employees.

Cover foregone earnings

The 2004 OECD report on co-financing lifelong learning distinguishes two general approaches to replacing income for individuals that pursue training. One is to save earnings in a financial account, which should be used during the training period. The other is to set aside working hours in a time account that can be used to continue earnings while the individual is learning.

In this paragraph a number of instruments are discussed - direct income support, Individual Learning Accounts, loans and collective agreements. Most take the financial approach, but the collective agreement example involves time accounts.

Direct income support is defined as direct payment by the government to help support the cost of living to education or training (OECD, 2004). In this document an example from Sweden is discussed.

Adult Education Recruitment Grant, Sweden

The Adult Education Recruitment Grant is designed to help certain groups of adults finance their studies, thus increasing the flexibility of adult education. The aim of the government was to give all adults the possibility to extend their knowledge and develop their skills. A broader goal is to promote personal development, democracy, gender equality, economic growth, employment and fair distribution of wealth.

The programme targeted individuals between 25 and 50 years old, that are poorly educated and unemployed or at risk of becoming unemployed. Poorly educated adults of the same age and with functional disabilities who need extra time to achieve educational targets were also targeted. Local authorities decided on the eligibility of participants.

The recruitment grant is designed to cover the student's living costs during the study period, as well as the direct costs of learning. Students who used to have a minimum income receive a higher grant. The grant is pensionable and tax-free, and is awarded for a maximum of 50 weeks.

The recruitment grant was used for basic and upper secondary education. The courses should provide knowledge required for everyday and professional life and for further studies. A final certificate equal to compulsory school level is held in at least four core subjects, i.e. Swedish, English, mathematics and social studies, but other subjects can also be included.

Local authorities are obliged to offer basic education to adults who did not complete compulsory school. Forms and lengths of the courses vary, and are organised by three course providers. The grants are only rewarded for certain courses at schools under state supervision.

The costs of the reform are expected to be more than SEK 2 billion a year (well over EUR 200 million), and the government expected that local authorities would recruit the equivalent of 30.000 full-time students.

The principle of **Individual Learning Accounts** has been described in the paragraph on policies to cover the direct costs of learning. Obviously, this instrument can be used to cover not only direct cost of learning, but also indirect costs such as income replacement. Again, a good example from Sweden is presented.

Competences Accounts, Sweden

The Competences Accounts were developed in a private financial institution (insurance company) named Skandia. The purpose of the scheme is to facilitate employees to acquire new knowledge that can be applied towards future work duties and employability. Employers, on the other hand, have a tool to ensure long-term knowledge development and improve profitability.

The scheme has three components: a personal development plan, a competence savings plan and a competence exchange, which is a web-based service that complements the savings' programmes. This interface gives access to the latest knowledge, and lets employees choose everything from ready-to-run software to customised solutions.

The competence account is a voluntary measure that allows employees and the employer to set aside money for competence development and is based on equal funding. The individual is allowed to save 5% of gross (before tax) salary, which is matched by the employer with the same amount. This money can be used to finance time for learning. The saving is stopped when the account holds enough to finance 12 months of studying. Because the saving was accumulated pre-tax, tax is paid the normal way when money is withdrawn from the account.

The programme is open for all employees, but for employees with only primary school, who were 45 years or older and had worked at least 15 years, Skandia tripled the employees' own savings.

The money in the competence account can also be used for the related cost of learning as well. However, as tax needs to be paid over money taken from the account, employees and employers often negotiate about who should pay the related costs. If the training is clearly in the interest of the employer, the company pays. Sharing the costs is also possible. As both employees and employers contributed to the account, they have to agree on the field of study. The financial vehicle is in the form of a life assurance account.

The scheme was very successful, which is illustrated by the fact that Skandia offered the concept of competence accounts as a product for other companies. In total, there are about 120 different agreements with external companies resulting in about 6.000 competence accounts. About 35% of Skandia Group's staff in Sweden opened an account. Three years after the introduction, a survey revealed that about 5% to 10% had begun to withdraw money from the account. Half of them spent the money on studying languages; the rest was evenly distributed over studies in law, economics, marketing and specific courses on these subjects. The initiative was recognised as best practice on several occasions.

In the previous section the South-Korean example of loan support for students of private technical institutions was presented. This programme focused on the annual tuition fee, but **loans** can also be used as income replacement during the training period. A good example was a programme from the United Kingdom.

Career Development Loans, United Kingdom

Career Development Loans (CDLs) are deferred repayment bank loans, run in partnership of the Government and certain high street banks. The aim is to increase the amount of vocational training, encourage individuals to take responsibility for their own learning, and encourage financial institutions to view learning as an investment worthy of a loan.

Everyone older than 17 years can apply for a CDL varying from GBP 300 to GBP 8.000. If endorsed by the local Learning and Skills Council, the loan is to be used to fund any full-time, part-time or distance learning course. It can be used for a wide range of vocational courses with a wide range of institutions that last no longer than two years (plus at most one year of practical experience if this is part of the course). Courses longer than two years can be partially funded by CDLs.

CDLs can cover up to 80% of the course fees, and up to 100% for people who have been out of work for three months or longer. Additionally, the full costs of books, materials and other related expenses such as travel expenses, child-care and for full-time courses living expenses.

The government pays the interest on the loan for the period of the course and up to one month afterwards. Unemployed applicants or applicants receiving certain state benefits upon completion of

the course may apply to have the repayment period deferred by up to a maximum of 17 months. Receiving a CDL may affect state benefit entitlement of students.

Each year 18.000 loans are taken out. A survey revealed that well over 50% of the learning financed by CDLs would otherwise not have taken place. Also, the median income of CDL recipients increased from GBP 185 to GBP 253 per week, and there was a move towards employment and into higher levels of employment.

In **collective agreements** employers and employees can agree upon measures to cover foregone earnings during the training period of employees. Two initiatives from Germany are presented in this document.

Deutsche Shell AG collective agreement, Germany

This 1988 collective agreement holds a clause that employees can use free time resulting from a reduction of working hours to continue learning and enhance their personal and work-related skills, without an urgent need for such skills in their current work place.

A continuing training programme was agreed between the enterprise and the work council. The programme includes a broad range of topics and subjects.

The idea is that lifelong learning is a joint investment by the company and the staff: The company investing money, employees investing time. Employees can save time in time accounts, for example reduction in working hours, additional paid non-work shifts and compensation for overtime hours. This is done voluntarily. The company bears all the costs of the training measures and awards grants for privately purchased learning materials.

For quite some time, the agreement was unique in Germany. Both the works council and the human resources executives consider the programme a common asset to be preserved.

Fraport Q-card, Germany

Fraport AG operates the Frankfurt am Main Airport, Germany's largest commercial airport. To meet new occupational demands, the Fraport Q-card (quality card) was introduced for all employees of the company. The Q-card is a cost- and time-sharing instrument for lifelong learning.

The Q-card is a bonus card that the company loads with a virtual account of EUR 600 per year. Employees use the card to enrol in training offered by the company's education services, that is not directly required for their current positions. In return, employees invest their free time or flexitime credits from their working time accounts.

The programme focuses on four areas - information technology, media skills, behaviour training and work techniques, and business administration. In the first half of 2002, about 85 courses were on offer. In addition to the above courses, training courses continue to be offered that are required for the performance of employees' tasks: these courses are held during working hours.

The Q-card won an award for training and further education in 2002. In addition to this initiative, Fraport offers its employees an intranet based platform that included a so called skill and aptitude test, practical forms of guidance for inter-company²² training and development opportunities, temporary employee exchange programmes, a joint job market and up-to-date information on labour market trends.

²² Members of this "Job Alliance" are Fraport AG, Degussa AG, Deutsch Bank AG and Deutsche Lufthansa AG.

Cover risks

A final approach to co-financing strategies focuses on reducing the risk for individuals to invest in training, by sharing it with others. The ELAP/Ikei publication provides us with an example: a model of tuition loans for which repayment is income-contingent.

Higher Education Contribution Scheme, Australia

The main goal of the Higher Education Contribution Scheme is to ensure that all students contribute to the costs of higher education in a fair and equitable way. It targets Australian and New Zealand citizens and holders of Australian permanent visas who undertake higher education award courses funded by the Commonwealth.

The idea is that students can take a loan to pay their tuition fees. Students repay the loans in the form of a 3% tax on income, once their incomes reach a certain threshold. This way, the government assumes the investment risks of individuals whose post-graduate returns are exceptionally low. In 2002, the government extended the logic of the income-contingent repayment loans to lifelong learning by establishing the Postgraduate Education Loans Scheme (POLS).

In the OECD report on co-financing lifelong learning, the investment risks of employers are discussed as well, especially the risk of low returns on investment in education of employees due to poaching: companies that try to hire employees after they are trained by another company. According to the OECD, the United Kingdom Learning and Skills Council is considering launching a pilot with transferable training loans. Such a loan would be tied to the individual during the repayment period. If the individual continues to work for the company, the company repays the loan. If the individual starts working for another company, the new employer would pick up the debt. The rationale behind these transferable loans is that it is cheaper to pay the debt, than to poaching a decreasing volume of skills in the open market. (OECD, 2004)

Palacios (2002) discusses two additional schemes that reduce the investment risk for individuals, i.e. Human Capital Contracts and the graduate tax.

Human Capital Contracts

A Human Capital Contract (HCC) is a contract in which the student commits part of his future earnings for a fixed period of time in exchange for capital for financing education. The main parameters required to design a HCC are the percentage of income and the repayment period. The instrument works best when market forces determine the parameters of the contract (Palacios, 2002).

The idea of Human Capital Contract was first proposed in 1945 and 1955 (Palacios, 2002) and formed the basis of the income-contingent loans described above. Human Capital Contracts were not considered again until the early 1990s. A recent example is the company MyRichUncle (www.myrichuncle.com) that started financing students in the USA through HCCs in 2001.

The advantages of a HCC are obvious: it decreases the investment risks for the individual and guarantees equitable access to education. In addition, it would be a valuable instrument to measure the expected value of education, appreciated by students and authorities.

The system has some weaknesses as well. First, the system depends on a proper determination of a student's income and on the capacity of the investor to collect payments from the student. Therefore, there is a clear incentive for (former) students to hide their income in order to decrease payments. This can be resolved if there is a well functioning tax collection agency (or social insurance or pension fund) that can assist the investor. Palacios calls such arrangements between the investors and tax agencies, social insurance funds or pension funds Institutionalised Human Capital Contracts.

Determining the income is even more difficult if the (former) student leaves the country. This can be resolved by adding a condition to the contract demanding immediate repayment in case of emigration.

A second problem is ‘adverse selection’. Adverse selection occurs if investors are not able to discriminate between future high earners and low earners. Future high earners will then feel that a HCC is very expensive, whereas future low earners will see it as very cheap. As a result future high earners will not join the system, and future low earners will. As a result, investors will raise the percentage of income that is agreed upon in the contract, thus worsening the problem, and the markets for HCCs will eventually collapse.

Assuming that it is possible to distinguish future high earners and low earners, the problem of adverse selection can be resolved by offering different rates to different individuals. That’s how both high earners and low earners will perceive the HCC as ‘fair’ and are equally willing to join the system. The above-mentioned company MyRichUncle claims that its model can distinguish future high earners and future low earners. Besides, if more students finance their education through HCCs, more information about the future earning capacity are available.

A third and final problem is that the HCCs may prove a disincentive for working. Palacios (2002) explains this: “Because individuals perceive a lower income for whatever job they accept, they have a lower incentive to search high paying jobs and a lower overall incentive to work.” Whether the social loss equals the gain of reducing the investment risk for students should be determined through additional research on this subject.

Graduate Tax

A graduate tax taxes each graduate for attending college throughout later productive life. Though the graduate tax is very similar to HCCs, there are three major differences. First, HCCs are organised by private investors, whereas graduate tax is arranged by the government. Second, taking out a HCC is voluntarily, yet every graduate is obliged to pay the graduate tax. Lastly, the term of the contract is different: in HCCs, payments of the student to the investor are limited to a fixed period of time, while the graduate tax is paid throughout the graduate’s productive life.

The advantages of the graduate tax are apparent: it lowers the investment risks for individuals, as well as the risk of defaulting on payments due to financial distress. Also, it guarantees equitable access to education.

On the other hand, Palacios (2002) mentions several weaknesses. First, a well-functioning agency needs to be able to determine the graduate’s income and collect the tax. If such an agency is absent, the amount that can be recovered is probably very low.

A second problem occurs when the graduate emigrates: then the tax cannot be collected. What’s more, the tax might even be an incentive for the highly educated to leave the country, thus contributing to a brain drain. This can be resolved through agreements between nations to levy the amount of tax and pay it to the country of origin.

Third, the tax does not discriminate between individuals with different levels of abilities. Earning due to additional education or other factors, such as special abilities, are taxed as well. In this respect, the tax may even be a disincentive to pursue additional education. The solution could be to tax returns that were obtained because of the (in this case) college education, for example by developing models similar to the ones that HCC-investors use to determine future earning capacity of students.

Another weakness is that a graduate tax does not provide immediate resources to the government to fund education, thus forcing the government to fund education in other ways until it can start collecting the graduate tax. Palacios describes two alternatives for this problem: the interested reader can download the report from http://www1.worldbank.org/education/lifelong_learning/pdf/Miguel-final.pdf to read them.

Lastly, as politicians will determine the percentage of income, this results from a political process and will not reflect the actual value of learning. That is why the author believes that the scheme misses a

very attractive feature, contrary to income-contingent loans and HCCs: it does not convey the value of education to the market.

Final remarks

As discussed in the introduction, a financing mechanism for lifelong learning should

- Secure sufficient financial resources;
- Guarantee equitable access to funding in order to permit disadvantaged adults to participate.

Also, when developing a financing policy for lifelong learning the effects on the education market and on the labour market should be taken into consideration.

To secure sufficient financial resources, the OECD (2004) proposes a whole of government approach to policy development. The idea is that if more than one ministry finances lifelong learning, it may be sensible to combine funds and make the different policies on financing lifelong learning complementary to and consistent with each other. Not only will this increase efficiency and effectiveness, financing lifelong learning activities by different ministries may even be necessary as the required investment often exceeds the available resources of a single ministry.

Equitable access to resources should be realised by empowerment strategies, strategies that would convince disadvantaged people to join in education or training activities (OECD, 2004). Several of the examples in the previous paragraph target this group. The OECD (2004) reports a growing attention for the question whether financial support should be ‘active’ or ‘passive’: does a financing strategy just change the scale of the investment for individuals or does it have a more profound effect? Some of the financing instruments discussed in the previous paragraph (grants, tuition-free study) can reduce ‘ownership’ and diminish the responsibility of individuals for their own development. In contrast, other financing strategies, such as the individual learning account or the working time accounts, increase the sense of ownership and make individuals responsible for their own development.

Developing a financing mechanism for lifelong learning in Turkey needs to be done by its beneficiaries: employees, employers and the government. As the differences across the country, between sectors and between companies are large, a mix of the above-mentioned mechanisms may be needed.

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Appendix 8. Career Guidance and Lifelong Learning

Introduction

Lifelong learning requires individuals to regularly make choices about their education and employment. To choose what suits them best, individuals need to be well informed about educational possibilities and (corresponding) career prospects. If necessary they should be able to find guidance to help them find the information and make the right decisions. Such career information and guidance systems are the key to successful lifelong learning.

Several institutes have studied and reported on the relation between lifelong learning and career guidance. In 2001, the European Commission reported on the outcomes of a consultation of EU citizens on lifelong learning (EC, 2001). In the report “Making a European area of lifelong learning a reality” the objectives of lifelong learning are highlighted: active citizenship, personal fulfilment, social inclusion and employability / adaptability. Furthermore, it goes into the fundamental principles underpinning lifelong learning: a key characteristic is the *centrality of the learner*. This view is supported by the OECD (2004) that signals a need for learner-driven education systems to increase the scope for individual choice in learning. A second principle identified by the EC is the *equality of opportunity*, both by gender mainstreaming and by making learning genuinely available for all. Lastly, the EC mentions that the consultation responses stressed the importance of *high quality and relevance*, “...as investments of time and money in learning are fully effective only if the learning conditions and the underlying policy planning and systems are of high quality.” (EC, 2001)

The implication of learner-driven education is that learners need to manage their learning activities. To do this properly, learners need information about themselves, the society and the economy. Career guidance services can provide the link between these sources of information and people’s abilities and interests (World Bank, 2003). Also, career guidance can promote equal access to learning and labour market opportunities: it can raise the aspiration of the disadvantaged by making them aware of the opportunities and supporting them in securing entry to such opportunities. Such services promote individual liberty and choice and emphasize the active individual (World Bank, 2003).

Career guidance includes a broad range of activities, and targets a wide range of individuals in different life phases. The detailed definition in “Career Guidance: a Handbook for Policy Makers” (OECD & EC, 2004) captures the scope of the phenomenon. They define career guidance as:

“... services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers. Such services may be found in schools, universities and colleges, in training institutions, in public employment services, in the workplace, in the voluntary or community sector and in the private sector. The activities may take place on an individual or group basis, and may be face-to-face or at a distance (including help lines and web-based services). They include career information provision (in print, ICT-based and other forms), assessment and self-assessment tools, counselling interviews, career education programmes (to help individuals develop their self awareness, opportunity awareness, and career management skills), taster programmes (to sample options before choosing them), work search programmes, and transition services.”

In short, there is support for the idea that career guidance services can give an important contribution to successful lifelong learning. This appendix is to describe possible career guidance services and how they support successful lifelong learning. It is not a policy paper on career guidance though: developing a career guidance policy needs more extensive research.

The structure of the appendix is as follows: in the next section policy makers' objectives of the introduction of career guidance services are discussed. Then, the question whether career guidance is effective or not is answered, followed by a section in which we discuss the challenges of lifelong learning for career guidance. The next section holds examples of "best practices" of career guidance, and the last section before the list of literature focuses on the benefits of career guidance in transition economies and on career guidance in Turkey.

Policy makers' objectives of career guidance

Countries that introduced career guidance services hope to achieve many goals, also other goals than lifelong learning. In the 2004 publication of the OECD "Career Guidance and Public Policy: Bridging the Gap", the career guidance experiences of 14 OECD countries²³ are discussed. The countries that participated in the OECD review reported several career guidance objectives. Apart from the obvious benefits for the individual, such as increasing personal development and personal satisfaction, all countries think that career guidance should also serve a number of public objectives. These objectives can be categorised in three categories: (1) learning goals, (2) labour market goals, and (3) social equity goals, though the latter is mentioned less often than learning and labour market goals.

Learning goals

Many countries see career guidance as an important part of their lifelong learning initiatives. Some want to improve the basic skills of the population or support the attainment of high rates of educational qualification by youth and adults. Yet the OECD review also defined other goals that were not directly related to lifelong learning. First, career guidance can be introduced to enhance the efficiency of the educational system, for example by improving the permeability and effectiveness of educational pathways or by reducing dropout rates and improving graduation rates. Second, career guidance can be seen as a necessary response to the growing individualisation and diversification of school programmes. Another goal of career guidance is to improve the match between the education and the labour market: career guidance would improve school-to-work transition on the one hand and support qualifications upgrading in response to labour market change on the other hand. Lastly, the increased internationalisation of education is a reason for career guidance services, for example by providing information on international study opportunities. The Ploteus web site of the EC with information on learning opportunities throughout Europe illustrates this line of thinking.

Labour Market goals

Obviously, career guidance is of importance to the labour market as well. In the OECD report (2004), three general goals of career guidance are identified: improving the labour market efficiency, reducing the effects of labour market destabilisation and reducing or preventing unemployment. Other more specific labour market goals are a better match between supply and demand, increased labour market mobility and supporting so called "active" labour market policies by helping to reduce individual dependency upon income support.

Many countries see career guidance as part of policies that support adjustment to broad changes that occur in labour markets. For example, it can help to deal with the effects of an aging society or reduction of early retirement. Also, it supports the notion of a lifelong career instead of a lifelong job. Lastly, career guidance can support the internationalisation of the labour market, and helps to address the impact of migration on the labour market.

Social equity goals

Less frequently as the afore-mentioned goals, the last category of purposes of career guidance was what the OECD refers to as "social equity goals". These goals may be within the education and the labour market, but in other areas as well. For example, some countries want career guidance to support the integration of the disadvantaged and the poorly qualified in education and in employment, or to address growing polarisation in the labour market. Other countries focus on gender: they want career

23 Australia, Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Korea, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain and the United Kingdom

guidance to support the rising female labour force participation or address gender segmentation in the labour market.

Is career guidance effective?

Evaluating the effectiveness of career guidance is complex as the clients and the nature of the provided services vary greatly. What's more, measuring impact in terms of behaviour change or long-term success and satisfaction is difficult and costly, as isolating the effect of career guidance from other factors that may have influenced clients requires large-scale and lengthy studies. Despite these limitations, career guidance policies have been evaluated (in a limited number of studies) and the general conclusion is that career guidance services are key features of effective policy approaches in a number of areas, such as labour market programmes, secondary schooling and the transition from school to work (OECD, 2004).

The immediate result of career guidance is attitudinal change and an increase in knowledge. Most evaluation studies concentrated on these results, and reported that career guidance generally had a very positive impact in terms of these "learning outcomes". The intermediate effects are behavioural changes, and they are more difficult to measure. It requires follow-up studies as behavioural effects may not be visible for some time, isolating the effect of career guidance from the other influences gets more difficult as time goes by, and studies with control groups are difficult in the long run because of ethical and methodological problems: contact with the participants can not be extended indefinitely, nor can guidance be denied indefinitely. In spite of this, some studies for the intermediate effects of career guidance have been conducted, and reported positive effects: participation in learning increased, welfare payment receipt decreased and reports on educational achievement show a modest but positive effect. Lastly, there is little evidence of the longer-term impact of career guidance services (OECD, 2004).

We can safely conclude that the career guidance has positive immediate effects in terms of learning outcomes and attitudinal changes. Though the OECD is less confident about the intermediate effects because of the limited number of studies on this subject, there is some proof of behavioural change.

Challenges of lifelong learning for career guidance²⁴

Lifelong learning approaches promote substantial individual control over what is learned, and over the timing, location and mode of learning. Furthermore, it is strongly emphasised that students not only achieve formal skills and qualifications, but also develop the motivation to learn and the skills to manage their own learning (OECD, 2004). That's why introducing lifelong learning needs to come with adjustments to the education systems: the system needs to be "learner driven", or in other words, the learner is put at the centre of the education system. The OECD (2004) points out that it is difficult to see how the learning systems that have been adjusted to the requirements of lifelong learning can operate without highly developed systems of information and advice. Such career guidance services are needed within initial education, further education and training and at the interface of education and the labour market.

Traditionally, career guidance is delivered in two main settings, i.e. schools and public employment services. In schools, the focus is on young people that are about to leave school, and need to decide on which occupation or which tertiary education course to choose. Career guidance in public employment services focuses on unemployed with immediate job decisions. In both cases, the career guidance services are dominated by information services and immediate decisions, and do not encourage learners to develop the motivation to learn and the skills to manage their own learning. We can safely

²⁴ Recent developments in labour market policies of the countries that participated in the OECD review also influence the nature of career guidance. In the OECD report (2004) three are mentioned: active, mutual obligation approaches to the payment of unemployment benefits and to welfare dependency, employability as a tool of labour market policy and employment implications of ageing societies. These subjects go beyond the scope of this document, but are well worth investigating before the development and implementation of a career guidance policy.

conclude that the traditional career guidance services do not match the demands of lifelong learning. Furthermore, the OECD (2004) reports that there are relatively few career guidance services for other groups than the traditional ones, such as students in tertiary education or employed adults.

In view of the above, "...career guidance services need to broaden from largely providing assistance with *decisions* at limited and selected points in people's lives to an approach which also encompasses the development of career management *skills*" (OECD, 2004). It is further recommended that access to career guidance is greatly widened, so as to make it available to everybody throughout their lives and not only to selected groups. To control the increase of the costs, and to meet the needs of the wider range of clients, career guidance services need to adopt a wider range of delivery methods (for example by finding alternatives for face-to-face interviews) and the delivery of the services needs to be more flexible in time and space.

The OECD (2004) recommends countries to establish lifelong guidance systems as part of their lifelong learning (and active labour market) policies. It considers the following features to be of importance for such systems:

- *Transparency and ease of access* over the lifespan, including a capacity to meet the needs of a diverse range of clients;
- Particular attention to *key transition points* over the lifespan;
- *Flexibility and innovation in service delivery* to reflect the differing needs and circumstances of diverse client groups;
- Processes to stimulate *regular review* and planning;
- Access to *individual guidance by appropriately qualified practitioners* for those who need such help, at times when they need it;
- Programmes to *develop career-management skills*;
- Opportunities to *investigate and experience learning and work options* before choosing them;
- Assured access to *service delivery that is independent* of the interests of particular institutions or enterprises;
- Access to *comprehensive and integrated* educational, occupational and labour market *information*;
- Involvement of *relevant stakeholders*.

Best practices of career guidance services

In this paragraph we will discuss some best practices of career guidance. The examples come from a handbook for policy makers developed by the OECD and EC (2004) with useful information on career guidance policies. It points at several policy issues that need to be considered when developing a career guidance policy, and a number of policy options are formulated as well. The examples of effective responses that are discussed below come from this handbook, but can be found on Cedefop's web pages on career guidance²⁵ as well. As these pages are developed progressively, one can also find other (more recent) examples on this website.

Before getting into more detail, it is good to realise that guidance of young people requires a different approach than guidance of adults. The reason is obvious: most of the youth is still in (full time) training, has little work experience and can change to another professional area relatively easy. On the other hand, most of the adults already have a career and are to a greater or lesser extent estranged from the education market. That's why guidance systems for these two major groups will be discussed separately. Information on the professional requirements for career guidance practitioners is included in the last part of this paragraph.

Career guidance services for young people

Three important situations or groups will be discussed in this paragraph: career guidance services in schools, for young people at risk and in tertiary education.

²⁵ www.trainingvillage.gr/etv/Projects_Networks/Guidance/policy_practice_examples.asp

Career guidance services in schools

Traditionally, career guidance in schools is a personal service, delivered through face-to-face interviews by staff (that usually lacks specialised training) when students are about to make educational and/or occupational decisions. It is not part of the curriculum, and the link between career guidance services and the labour market is weak.

There are some obvious shortcomings of these career guidance services: it focuses on a limited number of students, and it is assist students with an immediate educational or occupational decision instead of providing students with skills to manage their education and career. The OECD (2004) formulates two further constraints: First, personal career guidance services in schools tend to be on educational decision making, and often give little attention to the occupational and long-term career choices that accompany certain educational pathways. In other words, links with the labour market are weak. Second, students who plan to enter tertiary education tend to receive more attention than students who plan to enter into the labour market, especially in upper secondary education.

The problems get even worse if career guidance is combined with personal, social, educational and vocational guidance. According to the OECD (2004), “...the universal experience appears to be that attention to the educational and vocational guidance needs of all students tends to get squeezed by attention to the personal and social guidance needs of those few students with particular difficulties”.

Another constraint occurs when school funding depends on the number of students and schools need to compete for students. Guidance staff can then be pressured to serve the interests of the school rather than the interests of the students. In some countries an attempt was made to solve this by using career guidance agencies outside the schools, but the experiences are not purely positive. That’s why the OECD recommends that career guidance services from external agencies should not replace the school based career guidance services, but supplement them.

In short, schools have to make a lot of changes to have their career guidance services meet the requirements of lifelong learning (see page 120). They need to ensure that all students have access to career guidance and not just specific groups. They need to change career guidance services from a personal service focusing on immediate decisions on occupation or education, to help students develop skills to manage the educational and occupational choices individuals have to make throughout their lives. Lastly, the career guidance needs to be incorporated in the curriculum, and a link to the “world of work” is necessary.

Successful examples of (elements of) career guidance services in schools are:

1. The guidance-oriented school across primary and secondary education levels

Schools in the province Quebec (Canada) are being encouraged to develop the concept of the guidance-oriented school (l’école orientante). Personal and career planning is regarded as one of the broad areas of learning throughout schooling, thus providing support for students’ identity development in primary school and guidance in career planning throughout secondary school. Students need to understand the usefulness of their studies (in languages, mathematics, sciences and so on) and why they are studying them.

To realise the above-mentioned concept, the number of qualified guidance specialists is increased, and stakeholders are encouraged to be involved. First by promoting collaboration between teachers and guidance staff, and then by building partnerships with parents and the community. Schools are being permitted considerable flexibility in determining what a guidance-oriented school is, within the broad parameters provided.

2. Portfolio systems

Portfolio systems are strategies to help students integrate the knowledge, skills and attitudes concerning work that they have learnt from different teachers. The idea is that students use portfolios to record their career-related learning and experiences. Such a portfolio is named ‘job passport’, ‘education log’ or ‘career-choice passport’, and can help students to manage their own

learning and see its relationship with their career plans.

An example from the OECD & EC handbook (2004) illustrates the use of portfolios:

In Denmark, students must develop individual education plans from grade 6, in preparation for choice of subject options. As part of this, they are expected to see the guidance counsellor for one individual session in grades 6 and 7, and for two sessions in grades 8 and 9. The process is supported by an education book: a personal document in which pupils record their achievements and their developing interests and aims. The plans themselves have to be signed by the pupil, a parent and the guidance counsellor. This system offers a clear entitlement: an assurance that each pupil will be seen singly on a number of occasions. It is also a way to involve parents in career guidance.

Profiling or portfolio arrangements seem to assume higher importance as the curriculum becomes more flexible, modular and individualized.

3. Building bridges with the world of work

A broad range of activities like ‘work experience’, ‘work tasters’, ‘work shadowing’ and/or ‘work visit’ initiatives can be organised to help students develop insights into the world of work and their own occupational orientations. In Germany, visits to enterprises are an integral part of career guidance, and generally involve an element of work experience. Companies value this form of contact with schools. Placements of a student with a company typically last between one and three weeks, and teaching guides and support materials have been developed to support the placements and also the preparation and follow-up processes in schools. There are extensive health and safety provisions for legal and insurance-related reasons. In some cases, practical placements can also be spent in other European countries.

Another example is the SCOOPS project in Malta that establishes links between schools and the world of work by “teaching for entrepreneurship” (from the web site of Cedefop²⁶). The project was launched in 1995 and teaches secondary school students about work in an experimental manner, complementing other aspects of work education provided across the curriculum. The three aims of the Scoops project are to:

- promote awareness about cooperatives and the local cooperatives movement;
- build entrepreneurship skills among students, and
- enhance students’ personal and social skills.

Groups of at least five students between 13 and 15 years old start an activity with the aid of teachers and parents and the support of mentors that are trained in setting up and running cooperatives. The initiative provides students with an opportunity to organise themselves into cooperative units to run, manage and market their own creative projects, and develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes to help them identify their occupational strengths and their potential contribution to the local labour market, and create for themselves a viable self-employment option.

4. Career guidance as a cross-curricular responsibility of all school staff members

”In Finland, teachers and other partners have an operational description of their respective activities so that delivery of services is guaranteed. This ensures an improvement of the minimum-level service provision, while at the same time promoting institutional responsibility for career education and guidance at the school level.” (OECD & EC, 2004)

²⁶ www.trainingvillage.gr/etv/upload/Projects_Networks/Guidance/policy_practice_examples/teaching_for_entrepreneurship_in_malta.pdf

5. Ensuring that career guidance personnel use people who know about the world of work
In some countries, partnerships of schools with significant stakeholders²⁷ are promoted. The stakeholders are invited to contribute to the career education programme. Some of the schools hand over some of the responsibility for career guidance to an external agency, which it considers to be closer to the world of work, but it is recommended that career guidance services from external agencies do not replace the school based career guidance services, but supplement them

Guidance for young people at risk of dropping out of school at an early age

Since school completion rates have risen in all OECD countries, more and more attention is paid to early school leavers. Many countries developed programmes targeting early school leavers that drift in and out of unemployment, labour market inactivity and marginal unskilled work, aiming to bring them back to (school based or work based) formal learning. Other programmes aim at preventing youth from leaving school early.

Both of these programme types involve a substantial amount of guidance. However the programme is set up, the OECD (2004) believes that successful strategies involve a highly individualised approach, taking young people's personal and social needs into account, as well as their educational and vocational needs. This can be done by having career guidance staff work with youth workers or alternatively by having someone take a single generic "first-in-line" role, supported by a range of specialists that can assist whenever necessary.

In the handbook for policy makers (OECD & EC, 2004), three successful examples of career guidance for youth at-risk and school dropouts are presented:

1. Integrated service delivery in Scandinavia

The OECD regards the programmes in Scandinavia as most successful, though elements of the approach are used in other European countries as well. Important feature of policies for youth at risk and school dropouts is that they combine an individualised approach to personal, educational and occupational guidance with a range of other personal, educational and employment services²⁸, which requires that career guidance staff work closely with a wide range of other workers. A typical feature of the programmes for school dropouts is the combination of early intervention, mutual obligation and individual action planning. Guidance is an important element.

2. Proactive municipalities in Denmark

In Denmark, municipalities are obliged to contact young school dropouts (up to the age of 19) at least twice a year. This can be done by either school guidance counsellors or by youth guidance counsellors. As from the age of 18, the dropouts are entitled to limited income support if they develop and implement action plans in consultation with the youth guidance service. Important feature of this approach is the mutual obligation and the focus on helping these young people to participate in education and training again.

3. The Youthreach programme in Ireland

The Youthreach programme in Ireland focuses on unemployed youth, including many early school-leavers. Those who teach in the individual programmes often provide advice, guidance and counselling, because of the personal, social, educational and vocational problems of the programme participants. Pilot programmes have been set-up to train them in guidance skills. Furthermore, qualified personnel provide a guidance service to each programme (on a limited part-time basis). These include staff from the Training and Employment Agency.

²⁷ Such as parents, alumni, and representatives from the business community, trade unions and non-government organisations

²⁸ Examples are: "...help with health or housing, courses in basic literacy, job-seeking skills training, self-confidence building, learning-by-doing, or short periods of subsidised employment." (OECD, 2004a)

Guidance in tertiary education

Since 1990, participation in tertiary education has increased substantially in the OECD countries, and at the same time tertiary education has become more diverse. New institutions are established, competition between institutions has increased, attendance patterns have become more flexible and the range of courses on offer is wider. The relation ship between some fields of study and the community and the labour market have become closer and became more diffuse for others. All of these changes have created new career guidance challenges (OECD, 2004).

As the number of institutions and courses becomes more differentiated and the differences between institutions (and the courses) increase, more information and advice is needed to help people decide what to study and with which institute. Also, the growing competition between institutions will increase the need for independent information and advice ensuring that it focuses on the interests of the students.

Furthermore, the labour market outcomes of graduates become more important because of the increased competition for students. The success of graduates on the labour market is useful information for institutions to market themselves to potential students and employers.

Lastly, as institutions and courses become more diverse, and as more and more students enrol into courses that do not have narrow links to specific professional qualifications, the connection between tertiary education and the labour market becomes more complex. As a result more advanced ways to link graduates to post-graduation employment is needed.

Currently, career guidance services in many countries cannot live up to the above-mentioned needs and requirements. In the handbook for policymakers (2004), the OECD & EC present an example of effective career guidance in tertiary education: The Careers Advisory Service at Trinity College Dublin, Ireland (www.tcd.ie/Careers/) that targets students, graduates, academic staff and employers. It holds the following elements (from OECD, 2004a):

1. Students are provided with personal advice, have access to a wide-ranging careers library and online materials. Career days are organised to enable students to make contact with employers to discuss future employment. Also, students get access to job vacancies, are assisted with arranging internships, work experience and vacation employment.
2. Regular seminars are held throughout the year on job-seeking skills (including video rehearsal of interview skills). Also, students have access to psychological testing to assist their career decision-making and as a preparation for post-graduation employment, students can be mentored by recent graduates for short periods. In several departments of the university, a personal development programme is run to help develop employability skills.
3. Graduates of Trinity College can use the service for personal advice (employed graduates are charged for this service), for help with job placement and to use the careers library. Employers can access the students for recruitment purposes, and can post vacancies. Surveys are regularly held amongst employers to establish what qualities they require in graduates, and graduates receive a survey questionnaire six months after graduation to determine their destinations.
4. Specified academic staff in each faculty or department work as a liaison with the Careers Advisory Service. The service works actively with academic staff to ensure that they refer students appropriately to the service. Academic staff have close involvement with the student personal development programme, which is a formal part of the academic curriculum.

Career guidance services for adults

Ensuring access to career guidance services for all adults is a complex task, as there is an endless number of groups that needs to be catered for; employed adults, unemployed adults, mother of young children, women returning to work, people with disabilities, older adults, etc. In this paragraph, career

guidance services for unemployed and employed adults are discussed, followed by career guidance in adult education, career guidance for older adults. Lastly some examples of effective measures to increase access to career guidance are presented.

Career guidance services for unemployed adults

Career guidance services for unemployed adults are traditionally delivered by public employment services. The main focus of public employment services is to reduce unemployment (or increase employment), so most organisation try to get clients a job as soon as possible. Furthermore, the delivery of career guidance services is often combined with gate keeping and benefit-policing activities. As a result, the counselling services do not just help individuals to make decisions, but also help the public employment service to make decisions about the individual (OECD, 2004). Not surprisingly, the guidance role can conflict with the door keeping or policing role. There are two reasons for this conflict: first, the guidance service is not independent, and second career guidance requires the client to be completely honest, whereas the gatekeeper role restricts this. Some countries try to solve this by having a separate career guidance service within the public employment service.

In other countries, the OECD (2004) signals a trend towards so-called “one-stop centres”, where employment and welfare services are co-located. This way, welfare clients can easily access the services they need. An example is the Australian Centrelink, the first port of call for job seekers. Centrelink “...offers information about education, training and employment assistance, and administers a variety of welfare benefits. It then refers those who are eligible to other employment services. Thus it operates both as a one-stop portal and as a filtering mechanism.” (OECD, 2004)

In the handbook for policy makers, the OECD & EC (2004) list a number of effective career guidance initiatives for unemployed adults:

1. Catering for the differentiated needs of unemployed adults through tiered services
By organising the services at different levels, time and resources become available for guidance. In the Austrian public employment services, three levels or tiers of services are distinguished:
 - At the first level, people can access printed, audio-visual or on-line information on a self-service basis (i.e. without assistance from the staff);
 - The second level consists of relatively brief personal interviews;
 - At the third level, individuals are provided with personal guidance if they are expected to need it or benefit from it. Services include group help, personal interviews, job clubs and coaching sessions to recover self-confidence and motivation and to develop employability skills.
2. Improving the training of staff offering career guidance in public employment services
The Irish government motivates the employment service staff to get training, by paying the tuition fees of a part-time university course in adult guidance as well as the time spent while attending the course. Furthermore, those who successfully completed the course get a pay rise. As a result, nearly 80% of the employment service staff who provide career guidance has had some form of guidance training. A goal has been set to further increase the number of staff with such qualifications.
3. Harnessing ICT to develop self-service approaches to guidance
The system of the Flemish public employment service (VDAB) is based on increasing the use of self-assessment and self-steering instruments for people looking for work or to change their employment. The website feature “My VDAB” is another tool that supports user independence as well as the use of an electronic portfolio. My VDAB integrates existing instruments, such as vacancy information, curricula vitae, training possibilities, and brings them online to let people manage their own profile. VDAB also has a tracking system for its clients, that allows the organisation to follow up clients.

4. Community-based guidance services

It is estimated that more than 10.000 community based organisations (mostly small, but some bigger ones have 100 to 200 employees) deliver career development services in Canada. Some deliver career development services such as information services, career guidance and job-search workshops; others offer a wider range of services, including various forms of learning programmes and community work.

Career guidance services for employed adults

Employment services provide very little services for employed adults. The previously mentioned web-based services are often not accessible to or do not meet the needs of all adults. Services that are available for employed adults are mostly on a self-service basis, for examples on access to vacancy information, internet and paper-based materials.

In some countries public employment offices now focus more on employed adults. The Centres for Work and Income in the Netherlands emphasize the employed group more than the unemployed. To reduce its association with the stigma of unemployment, benefit claimant services are kept at the back end of the centres. The centres are equipped with a vacancy data bank that also includes vacancies taken from press advertisements. Other career information includes free web and telephone access. Staff is available to provide brief personal help where it is needed.

In general, however, the effectiveness of public employment services continues to be measured largely by how fast they return benefit claimants to work, rather than by broader criteria.

The policy handbook of the OECD & EC (2004) lists a number of other initiatives to improve the career guidance service to employed adults:

1. Career guidance in public employment services

Like the afore-mentioned Centres for Work and Income in the Netherlands, the Norwegian public employment service centres are remodelled to include state-of-the-art facilities that are attractive and accessible, while welfare-claimant services operate behind screens at the back. Clients have access to vacancy information, word-processing to write job applications and CVs, access to telephones to contact employers, and some limited staff-support. Furthermore, a range of self-help tools has been developed, many of them web-based. These tools cover a range of subjects, including an interest inventory, a career choice programme and a career-learning programme addressing mainly higher education graduates.

2. Company-based career guidance services

A few large employers in the Netherlands established mobility centres for their employees. These centres are mostly staffed by human resource specialists, if necessary supported by external consultants, and focus mainly on the internal mobility of the company. However, sometimes the mobility centres may also help employees to look for opportunities in the external labour market. Similarly, in the United Kingdom, some employers are experimenting with combinations of call centres, electronic support and trained career advisers employed by the business.

3. Government incentives for the development of company-based guidance services

- Governments can give incentives for the development of company-based guidance service by allowing career guidance expenditure against training levies. In the Netherlands, some sectors have developed training schemes, based on training levy funds from employers and employees²⁹. These schemes include access to some limited sector-specific career guidance from training officers.

²⁹ Such arrangements are particularly important for small and medium enterprises that often lack their own training arrangements.

- Subsidising a quality-mark scheme is another form of government incentive to develop company-based services. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, an “Investors in People” programme provides a quality-mark to companies that adopt good human resource development practices. The programme in the United Kingdom focuses on organisations that provide their employees with information, advice and guidance on learning and work. In the Netherlands, the programme encourages companies to use career advisors to support their development review systems.
4. Career guidance services and trade unions
Unions can support career guidance services in two ways: by negotiating for the provision of career guidance services with employers, or by providing guidance themselves. In Denmark, Norway and the United Kingdom, Unions have run courses to train their shop stewards as ‘educational ambassadors’ or ‘learning representatives’ that encourage their members (especially those with limited or no qualifications) to access education and training. The programme in the United Kingdom is extensive and receives strong support from the government and the trade union movement (www.learningservices.org.uk).
 5. Career guidance services and accreditation of prior learning
The accreditation of prior learning facilitates career development and career mobility, and is therefore important for career guidance. Portugal has an interesting National System of Recognising, Validating and Certifying Prior Learning (RVCC), implemented through a network of centres. Employed or unemployed adults are referred to the centres by private and public enterprises and by career guidance professionals. The centres offer them a three-tiered service, i.e. information, counselling, and complementary training, including the accreditation of competences.

Career guidance in adult education

In some countries, providers of adult education have developed career guidance services for their students. Some services pay special attention to the different labour market position and different needs of adult students. However, many of these services have a stronger focus on educational opportunities than on labour market matters. What’s more, they often concentrate on the institution in which they are based, thus limiting their comprehensiveness and impartiality.

Sometimes, tertiary education institutions offer guidance services to adults that are not enrolled. The OECD (2004) distinguishes three different approaches. Career guidance services are offered

- as part of strategies to build relationships with alumni³⁰,
- as part of access strategies designed to lead to possible enrolments, or
- as fee-paying services.

Obviously, institutes can also use a mix of these approaches.

The OECD (2004) mentions three more career guidance services in adult education: access courses, processes for the assessment and recognition of prior learning and career guidance in the more informal and community education sector.

Access courses are offered to adults returning to formal learning after a substantial gap. Participants are helped to develop study skills and determine what they want to learn.

In a number of countries, processes for the assessment and recognition of prior learning (including informal learning) are increasingly important. This may concern “technical” procedures to determine whether a person can enter a programme or meet the requirements of a specific qualification. Alternatively, it may have the form of a guidance dialogue in which people are helped to identify and

³⁰ The rationale behind this approach is that good relationships with alumni may eventually lead to alumni bequests and other benefits.

value the knowledge and competences they acquired informally. A natural continuation of such a dialogue is to explore new opportunities to which the knowledge and competences can be transferred.

Lastly, the more informal adult and community education sector career can be a good setting for career guidance, as this often is a significant provider of second-chance opportunities for adults. A good example is the Australian programme “Full Steam Ahead” that helps adult learners understand what they want in life and explore their beliefs and values, and identify and overcome barriers.

Career guidance for potential adult education students should be impartial and should not promote the interests of one particular institution by trying to recruit students or failing to refer them to alternative sources of learning. A solution is to organise large-scale regional adult information, advice and guidance partnerships, as it has been created throughout England, and the similar regionally based guidance services in Scotland and Wales. The partnerships in England are part of the government’s strategy to encourage poorly qualified and low-skilled adults to return to education. To account for their performance, the services report on a number of key target groups (like single parents and ex-offenders) that have been assisted.

Career guidance services for older adults

Career guidance for older workers and for the “third age” is hardly developed in most countries. At the same time most countries worry about the ageing population and the problems it creates for increased expenditure on health and old age benefits. Many consider policies to uphold employment among older workers and promote their re-entry into the labour market. The OECD (2004) encourages governments to create more flexible approaches to managing the transition to retirement, and wants them to stimulate those who left the labour market to remain active in learning and voluntary work in the community, in order to reduce health bills and to keep their social contribution.

Policy responses to the ageing population used to focus on reform of old age benefits and retirement age provisions. Yet, introducing career guidance in combination with the afore-mentioned reforms can help people create more flexible transitions to retirement. Especially by integrating “... financial planning and career guidance, as part of overall retirement planning, could assist people to put together more flexible mixes of temporary employment, part-time work, and self-employment during the transition to retirement.” (OECD, 2004)

In the policy handbook (2004), two examples of career guidance services for older adults are presented. The first is a number of third-age career guidance projects in Denmark. The programme targeted senior engineers and was funded by the Danish trade union of engineers. The Danish Ministry of Finance also funded a similar programme. A second example of career guidance is the Australian “Profit from Experience Programme” that supports mature-age people to re-enter the workforce. The programme was funded by the State’s Department of Training and operated through community-based centres.

Though the above illustrates that a wide range of career guidance services is available in many countries, major gaps remain. We already discussed the lack of proper career guidance for employed adults (see page 127), and older adults (see page 129), but countries may also consider to give special attention to people that have been outside the labour market for a while and are not entitled to social assistance, for example women returning to the labour market or refugees. Another group consists of workers displaced by employers who do not provide outplacement services.

Increasing access to career guidance

The above description of career guidance services for adults leads to the conclusion that access to these services is not sufficient. The OECD & EC (2004) lists three initiatives to increase access to career guidance services:

1. Providing career guidance through call-centre technology

The “learnDirect” service in the United Kingdom is built around call-centre technology: two call-centres are situated in England, one in Northern-Ireland, and there are smaller centres in Scotland

and Wales. Funded by the University for Industry, it seeks to offer free and impartial advice to assist adults to access further education and training opportunities. The information includes for example availability of funding for learning, and of childcare facilities to support parents with young children. To be as accessible as possible, the call-centre help-lines are open all year round till ten in the evening. Over five million people called learndirect in its first five years of operation.

The call centres' staff works at three levels:

- Information Advisers handle basic information inquiries;
- Learning Advisers handle the inquiries of those who need more than basic information;
- Lifelong Learning Advisers deal with more complex requests.

All staff levels receive special training, and all have access to an online database of information on some 600,000 education and training courses, at all levels, as well as to a wide variety of other printed information.

The online database can be accessed directly at www.learndirect.co.uk, and is updated monthly. An online diagnostic package can be used to assess interests and preferences as part of the web site. There were over 10 million hits on the site in its first years of operation.

2. Private-sector ICT-based guidance

In 1999, a big Finish newspaper, made career services available to all citizens on the Internet. Its website (www.oikotie.fi) offers a multitude of career planning and job search tools and services. All services, including online self-assessment exercises, e-mail guidance, a Curriculum Vitae Wizard, and an option to forward applications to employers online, are free of charge.

3. Mobile centres

Some countries have made innovative use of mobile, ambulant guidance teams to cover communities that are hard to reach, or because there are not enough resources to cover demand. For example, Latvia has established Professional Career Guidance Centres in 19 of its 26 regions, and caters for the other seven regions with its mobile teams.

Professional requirements for career guidance practitioners

The OECD country review on career guidance revealed that the career guidance workforce is almost everywhere “weakly professionalised”. It is common that career guidance staff in schools and public employment services are also expected to do other things, such as teaching, placing people in jobs and helping people with personal and study problems. What’s more, they usually do not have specialised tertiary level qualifications and training for their career guidance work.

Training programmes for career guidance practitioners have significant gaps in several areas, especially in “developing skills in ICT use in career guidance; training for support workers; providing an understanding of labour market changes; developing skills for curriculum-based delivery; teaching practitioners how to develop clients’ career self-management skills; and teaching practitioners how to organise and manage career guidance resources, as opposed to direct personal service delivery.” (OECD, 2004)

The OECD wants governments to play a direct role in reshaping the nature of the career guidance workforce and its qualification and training arrangements. Furthermore, significant improvements to the level of training of career guidance practitioners are required, as well as the development of comprehensive competency frameworks (for support staff and fully qualified staff). (OECD, 2004)

The labour market handbook (OECD & EC, 2004) and Cedefop’s website contain several examples of initiatives to upgrade the quality of career guidance staff:

1. A competence framework

Canada developed the “Standards and Guidelines for Career Development Practitioners”,

competence framework that outlines a number of core competencies that all career development practitioners need to have, regardless of their employment setting. It also holds a range of specialised competencies, the need for which will vary according to the nature of the service being provided, the type of work setting, and the client groups that are being served (for further details, see www.career-dev-guidelines.org).

The Canadian framework has strongly influenced the international standards developed by the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance, which provide a useful reference point for such processes in other countries.

2. Training programmes

The University of East London offers a Postgraduate Diploma in Career Guidance that can be entered by those with a recognised university degree or equivalent. It trains people to work with a range of client groups. The course covers guidance theory and practice, equal opportunities (including strategies to promote equal opportunities in a career guidance context), organisation change and development (including examination of a guidance agency in the framework of organisation theory and change management), labour market studies, and education systems and practice (OECD & EC, 2004).

Between 1990 and 2004, a one-year post-graduate professional training programme on School Counselling was offered within the Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Iceland. In 2004, the training part of the programme was extended, and the psychology part and working with personal problems was strengthened. Furthermore, the use of tools and measurement scales was incorporated better into the programme. This new programme leads to a Master degree in Educational and Vocational Guidance since the academic year 2004-2005.

3. A register of career guidance practitioners

In Germany, the German Association for Career Counselling (DVB) has established a Register of Career Counsellors which currently has 420 members (around 100 of whom are not DVB members). To be registered, applicants have to demonstrate relevant initial qualifications, certified experience, and regular continuing training.

Career guidance services in Turkey

Career guidance services in transition economies

Watts & Fretwell (2004) point out that less developed countries can choose to give less priority to the development of career guidance services than developed countries, especially if they have large amounts of excess labour (i.e. unemployed workers) and if the population is not familiar with the concept of “occupational choice”. The authors refer to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs to illustrate this: only when lower order needs (like physical needs and safety) are met, higher order needs such as self-actualisation can be addressed.

On the other hand, Watts & Fretwell (2004) argue that middle income and transition economies face many of the challenges that more developed countries face as well. They both need to open their economies to global competition and changing technologies, such as information technology and telecommunication. What’s more, many of the objectives of introducing career guidance services, as they have been discussed in this appendix (enhance the efficiency of the educational system, improve the match between the education and the labour market, improve the labour market efficiency etc.) are important for middle-income countries as well. All these afore-mentioned reasons argue for the availability of career guidance systems on an extensive and flexible basis in these countries.

The World Bank’s Country Report on career guidance services in Turkey

Turkey is one of the transition economies that can benefit from the (further) development of career guidance services. Its current career guidance practices are described in the World Bank Country

Report (Akkök & Watts, 2003). The report contains a SWOT analysis (i.e. a description of the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) of the current career guidance system, as well as a range of recommendations for improvement.

The authors distinguish three dossiers that influence the policy context for career guidance services in Turkey. First is the introduction of lifelong learning, with a strong focus on raising the skill levels of the workforce. The second is the move towards a more flexible labour market, increasing labour market mobility as a response to the changes that result from global competition and technological process. Lastly, Turkey wishes to move towards a broader and more flexible vocational orientation within schooling.

Several players are involved in Turkey's career guidance system, but the most important players are the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (including ISKUR). Other important stakeholders are the Council of Higher Education (YÖK), Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK) and employers- and employees organisations.

A strong feature of the Turkish career guidance system is that there is a well-established structure of general guidance services in the school system, based on professional guidance counsellors. Furthermore, career guidance expertise within ISKUR is developing and has increasingly better career information, while its career guidance staff has a professional status within the organisation. Lastly, the authors have seen strong examples of innovative practices to provide models for development.

Despite these strong points, the authors of the country report identified several gaps and weaknesses. The authors warn that orientation on the education market and labour market may be regarded as a service that is provided to certain classes only, which is contradictory to the idea that orientation is a lifelong process starting from preschool education, and it does not match the student centred approach (in contrast to the programme centred approach).

Another issue is that "horizontal transfer" of students between school types (particularly between general secondary education and vocational-technical secondary education) is restricted or not allowed at all, which limits the students' possibilities to discover and recognise their personal properties and talents. Students that make wrong choices and decisions cannot correct them, leading to students failing their courses and loss of time and money. As for vertical transfers: the authors claim that there is limited data on which students with which qualifications can pass which programmes. Closely related to this is the problem that there is a tendency to orient students not according to their talents and interests, but according to their academic success. The authors warn that "The (Turkish) National Education System needs a systematic, planned and continuous implementation based on knowing and orienting the individual in order to ensure integration in transfers at all levels of education from preschool to higher education."

Other gaps identified by the others are a lack of career guidance services for adults, for women that are not involved in education or in the labour market. Also, there are no specific provisions for immigrants, or for young people and adults that need special education. Guidance services in non-formal education are hardly available, but are needed badly and services in post-secondary vocational colleges are weak as well.

In addition to these gaps, the report mentions a number of weak points of the current career guidance system. General guidance services within schools focus mostly on personal and social counselling and on educational guidance and pays less attention to career education and career guidance. Guidance services in universities are limited and career guidance services for adults are limited even more. Furthermore, career information is limited, especially labour market information on present and projected future supply and demand by occupation. The information that is available is often hard to access, for example information for school students is kept in guidance counsellors' offices or in ISKUR centres, rather than in open access resource centres. Lastly the respective roles of ISKUR and

the Guidance and Research Centres are not clear and there is a lack of strategic leadership and co-ordination across the field as a whole.

However, ICT offers opportunities for improvement of the educational and occupational information, preferably linked to (self-) assessment instruments, while access to this information and services can easily be increased. Also, career guidance is one of the areas that will be covered by the World Bank Secondary Education Project, which offers an opportunity to further develop the area.

To overcome the gaps and weaknesses, it is recommended that the inter-agency collaboration be improved by installing a cross-sectoral body, developing a clearer policy for the role of ISKUR and by supporting the role of employers in school guidance programmes. Furthermore, the report holds several recommendations to improve the availability of career information and guidance resources, while making use of the possibilities of ICT. The report also holds a long list of recommendations to improve the infrastructure of career guidance in schools, universities and for adults, and to develop high quality career guidance staff. Lastly, there are several suggestions to better include career guidance and opportunities for orientation in the curriculum (Akkök & Watts, 2003).

The future of career guidance in Turkey

Since the publication of the country report Turkey has started to identify goals, focus points and priorities of a career guidance policy while bearing in mind that career guidance should be "...an important part of Turkey's national lifelong learning and sustainable employability strategy". In a working document on this issue, four priorities have been formulated:

1. Career guidance service should be developed to a consistent system by different stakeholders such as schools, higher education, public employment institutions and private and voluntary sectors. Closer co-operation between the actors is necessary, particularly between Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
2. The government has the key role for creating a framework for a consistent career guidance system, but should not be seen as the only provider or the only source of financing. Voluntary and private sectors need to make significant contributions.
3. The limited (public) resources mean that attention must be paid in defining the priorities while taking into account the developments in the field of lifelong learning and the information economy. Priorities are:
 - Development of comprehensive education and occupational information by the stakeholders;
 - Development of self-service methods that limit the necessity of labour-intensive face-to-face approach;
 - Use ICT to increase the accessibility of services;
 - Invest in the development of career guidance staff;
 - Encourage the development of career guidance services in the private sector.
4. Strengthening the evidence basis to justify the use of / demand for resources. In practice this means that career guidance providers should be able to provide information on: who uses which services, total customer demand, customers' appreciation of the services, cost of developing and offering the services, cost – benefit – analysis, etc.

In a more recent document, a working group of the Ministry of National Education proposed several activities that should result in a better career guidance system. The activities are organised according to four goals:

1. Establish coordination between the units for the functioning of guidance and orientation services and practices in education.
2. Improve guidance and psychological counselling services in orientation.
3. Organize and support the transitions between levels starting before the secondary education and practices for orientation to secondary education in a student centred and guidance centred manner.

4. Improve the education oriented guidance and orientation practices in preschool and primary education.

The activities and more detailed objectives that are mentioned in this working document should result in a career guidance system that is prepared for the challenges of the future.

We can conclude that, though career guidance in Turkey is not yet fully equipped to meet the demands of lifelong learning and lifelong guidance, the government is working on the career guidance system so as to provide support to a (future) lifelong learning policy in Turkey. Policies in these two areas should be tuned to each other, thus supporting Turkey's economic, educational, labour market and social development.

Literature

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See the document:

http://www1.worldbank.org/education/lifelong_learning/pdf/Turkey%20country%20report%20_final.pdf

CEDEFOP's web pages on career guidance - Policy and practice examples:

- *Teaching for Entrepreneurship in Malta*.

See the document:

http://www.trainingvillage.gr/etv/upload/Projects_Networks/Guidance/policy_practice_examples/TEACHING_FOR_ENTREPRENEURSHIP_IN_MALTA.pdf

- *Increasing Guidance Training in Iceland*.

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- *Career Guidance and Lifelong Learning. (Opinions for the Policy and Strategy Paper)*
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Appendix 9. Lifelong Learning and VET – Ten Years in the UK ³¹

A decade of progress and problems

In the mid-nineties, when ‘lifelong learning’ (LLL) was used by the then unpopular Conservative Government it was usually in a rather narrow sense. It was seen by critics, especially in the adult education tradition, as rather cynical: a way of blaming individuals if they were not well enough skilled to get employment - transferring responsibility from the State to the individual learner/worker and, just a little bit, to the employer. Some people saw its use as simply a device to casualise labour, treating people purely as useable bits, spare parts in a capitalist free market economic system. Public investment in education and training was rather low. The ‘conviction politics’ and passion of the early Thatcher Conservative Administrations had lost energy and popularity.

A change occurred coinciding with the European Year of Lifelong Learning (1996) and the new interest in lifelong learning of the OECD, which carries the most authority for comparative international data and is seen as economically hard-nosed, and therefore to be taken seriously.

A new (New Labour) Government in 1997 proclaimed ‘Education, Education, Education’ as a central purpose. It has significantly increased public investment in education, and tried to change the language from *cost* to *investment*. This has benefited the education sector for nearly 10 years, although 2005 sees a tightening budget and alarm about the most vulnerable sectors, especially community and non-credit education for marginalised adults for whom learning is a first step onto the ladder.

Early reports of the new Government spoke of a ‘learning age’. They showed great vision and hope: for a universal learning nation, in which equity and catch-up for the socially and economically excluded had priority, along with a skills revolution to compete in the New Economy. Similar principles informed other portfolios of Government, for example Neighbourhood Renewal Units. There was an effort to achieve more ‘joined-up’ government across portfolios (e.g. through the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, ODPM).

Underneath the vision and rhetoric for a more equitable and participatory as well as a well-educated and prosperous society, the ‘machinery’ and measures included strong target-setting, counting and monitoring, especially at first in the school years and for adult basic education, but also throughout most areas of education endeavour. The use of targets and benchmarks calls for accurate and timely data. The ‘system’ as a whole has got very good at recording, measuring and assessing progress. This also allows better comparison with international data sets such as those of OECD and the EC.

Together with this monitoring, the emphasis on quality audit and assurance has been productive. It is much harder to get away with low standards of work. On the other hand the cost of audit scrutiny, reporting and accounting is high and sometimes burdensome. Quality enhancement may not always be quick to follow. Getting the balance right proves not to be easy. More serious are the unintended (or ‘perverse’) consequences of rigorous target-setting and then payment (or punishment) by the results achieved. This can displace effort from areas not given targets and priority, although there was no intention to weaken them.

The UK has seen this happen especially with the very heavy emphasis on raising threshold attainment for all, to what is known as Level 2 (with Level 1 as most basic, and Level 4 representing undergraduate level work). A second priority has been to increase the proportion of young (secondary school age) people who go on to further and higher (or in OECD language tertiary) education, following vocational routes. Whereas some 90% of those who follow general/academic secondary education to its conclusion at ‘matriculation’ level (age 18) go on to higher education, only about half of those completing by the vocational route continue.

³¹ See also examples from the UK in Appendix 7.

The unintended consequence of putting this heavy emphasis on people aged 14-19 who are following vocational tracks, and also on increasing participation in higher education (HE) generally (50% to benefit from HE in some way between ages 18 and 30) has been to devalue and move resources away from the education of older people.

Adult education has an important economic and social effect even in wealthy Britain. Even today many disadvantaged people (women, new migrants and other ethnic minorities, the disabled, those of low socio-economic status generally and from manual working backgrounds) use adult learning opportunities to 'catch up' and join the economic and social mainstream,

They thus add to the productive labour force, as well as assisting 'social inclusion' policy objectives. For the UK, a skills labour shortage is getting more acute as the population ages. It is becoming essential to 're-skill and up-skill' older people, and enable them to stay in productive employment longer. Thus the Education policies of New Labour link with Employment policies, with Social Services and Welfare and Health policies, and towards solving the 'pension crisis' by extending employment to reflect a healthier, longer-life, older population. The Government has come to recognise the importance of the 'Wider Benefits of Learning' in terms of health and welfare policies and costs.

This is a broad-brush sketch of the efforts to make the UK into a better 'learning nation', and to increase its prosperity and its competitiveness in the global economy in the process. The UK has enjoyed a strong economy and very low unemployment in recent years. It is thought that the practical priority placed on knowledge and skills is playing an important part in this.

Even so, there are always political and ideological arguments about what policy and investment is best. For example some say that too many people are going into higher education rather than the trades. There are differences as to what curriculum mix - specific and general – is better, both immediate and long-term.

Much is expected of 'employers' (usually meaning the private sector). Many big companies run sophisticated in-company training (human resource development) schemes. But the great majority, which are small and medium enterprises (SMEs) do very little, and do not get much support from Government to do more. Previous Governments looked to employers almost to decide for them what knowledge and skills for the future are needed. It is now better recognised that most employers really do not know the answers to this difficult question, and are also naturally more concerned about the skills of their present workforce for today.

Finally, there is much interest in and talk about work-based or workplace learning (WBL or WPL). But Education and Work are still largely separate worlds. Whereas in pre-industrial societies learning through daily work and daily was normal, real integration of planned learning into work in the modern economy is very rare.

What lessons does this 'New Labour education revolution' offer for Turkey?

We may try to answer this at two levels, and in three ways.

True vision and great ideas take a long time to translate into practical programmes, to go through their teething problems, learning by their making mistakes, and to bed down as permanent successes. The UK Government has been impatient to get results. It has punished early 'failures' and disappointments, even closing down ventures that might have become successful new features, if given more time. Impatience for results, and over-sensitivity to political and media criticism for quick wins, is an important warning lesson.

On the other hand, it is good that the Government is seen to mean business, and to act firmly on its intentions. This may be a useful lesson for Turkey, as the implementation of laws and regulations is often problematic in Turkey.

Another good thing is the greater understanding that has been gained through target-setting and data collection, used as an important part of good management. Quality goes up and bad (even corrupt) practice is not likely to survive. You can no longer pretend that you do not know how well you are doing, or are unable to compare yourself with other countries. There are practical lessons to learn here, as Turkey seeks to compare and measure itself against the different EC members.

Next, it is necessary to keep questioning and monitoring policy and its practical consequences, short- and long-term. The UK has many 'think tanks' and independent policy units of different orientations, as well as a lively and (sometimes almost too powerful) critical press and other media. Together these help develop a self-critical learning nation that does not just rely on Government intelligence and self-presentation. National development is very complex, with many unrecognised connections and unpredicted consequences. Many sources of critical intelligence are needed, including a vigorous non-governmental or third sector, and confident, active, social partners. There is an important lesson here. Government needs to be exposed to independent scrutiny, and to well-informed public comment and criticism.

More obviously, a learning nation for a competitive knowledge society does not come cheap. There will always be the need for more resources. Government must be firm in investing public resources generously as well as wisely; and tough-minded in pressing all of the parties, as partners, to pay a reasonable share. This means pressing employers, large and small, in the private sector, as well as using the public sector as a model 'learning employer'. It means expecting parents, students, working and other adults to pay a reasonable and affordable share, even where this is politically difficult because of a tradition of free provision; and finding smart ways to make payment affordable, e.g. through bank partnerships, and payback of loans when they are affordable.

Practical and political realities

The notes above give only a general picture of what is happening to post-school education and training in the UK at a national policy level. Observers in other countries want practical ideas, models of good practice that they may be able to borrow and adapt to their own situation.

Turkey, as a middle-income country anxious for successful talks with the EC leading towards accession to the European Community is especially open to such learning, adopting and adapting the best practice of others. But it is perhaps also at risk of too easily copying things that do not easily transplant. The context is very important – political, cultural, social and economic, and historical.

This is well illustrated by another major New Labour initiative: devolution and regionalisation.

Faced with 25 years of serious violence and bloodshed in Northern Ireland, and rising levels of nationalist separatism in Scotland and Wales, the Government has devolved power to Scotland and Wales, and continues to try to do this in N. Ireland, where, even though political progress is slow, bloodshed has almost ceased. As Scotland and Wales acquire new powers, there are important differences in the ways that their LLL and HRD policies and practices are now evolving. This causes some problems, but it also provides huge gains: both in more local 'ownership' and 'fitness for purpose', and in allowing comparison of different approaches and mutual learning nationally across the four nations of the UK.

It is difficult to see how this important UK development, certainly relevant to LLL and VET, would be taken up at present in Turkey. On the other hand there are continuing gradual steps towards devolution to nine regions in England, each with Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), and a Government Office representing the different arms of central government in the region. Regional and local

Learning and Skills Councils (LSCs) mirroring the national LSC seek to work with local and regional agencies to bring VET efforts in line with differing local economic and labour market needs, and to ensure collaboration between different partners and providers at regional and sub-regional levels.

Without entering the political minefield of devolution, this kind of decentralisation may be of great interest. So might the efforts to achieve more joined-up government in this way between national and local levels, and within the one locality across the different portfolios in terms of an integrated effort to work in targeted priority areas.

One more aspect of this is the wish and the attempts to ‘engage with the client’ as an active partner, not a passive recipient of welfare and help. Cynically this can be seen as passing the cost and responsibility from the State to the poor and the weak. More positively, it recognises that if people are not motivated, committed and involved, then nothing will work.

In the education, training and LLL field this has meant much more attention to community and neighbourhood learning, right down to family learning across generations, to try to use the social structures that exist and work with them. The way of doing this will be different in different countries – Turkey and the UK have different social structures and traditions, as well as being internally diversified. But the principles and some of the approaches will be similar and relevant.

Some more specific ideas and practices

We now note a number of specific recent and current UK initiatives that may be relevant for Turkey, as it looks to a long-term but practical LLL policy and strategy to deliver balanced economic and social development.

At the national level there is the still evolving national ***Learning and Skills Council*** (LSC), with local LSCs now grouped regionally in line with the English regions. These are responsible for working with the social partners, identifying needs, and securing the delivery of programmes from the Further Education (FE) sector in line with national policies and targets at key levels, identifying and working to meet the needs of the economy and labour market locally and regionally.

Skills are a central priority for the Government. In March 2005 the Prime Minister and four other senior Ministers signed a major three-volume skills strategy *Skills: Getting on in business, getting on at work*, thus emphasising the government-wide commitment - Finance, Education, Trade and Industry, Work and Pensions – to the skills and lifelong learning agenda. This followed the National Skills Strategy published two years earlier. It aims for *a society in which young people and adults expect to keep learning and developing new skills... Those who do not succeed first time round should be confident of a second chance... people should know where to go for good information and guidance*. The Paper covers skills at all levels from functional literacy to higher education.

Priority projects include:

- A National Employer Training Programme (NETP) supporting employers, especially SMEs, initially in two pilot regions;
- An independent brokerage service for NETP;
- Sector Skills Agreements to involve employers more in identifying and meeting skill needs in different sectors of employment;
- Skill Academies working with Centres of Vocational Excellence to raise the quality of vocational training in different industry sectors;
- A Union Academy to increase the number and quality of trade union learning representatives;
- Getting a million more adults in the workforce up to full Level 2 qualification by 2006 with other targets to 2010, and increasing support for Level 3 attainment with trial Adult Learning Grants in priority areas;
- Further extension of Apprenticeships including trial adult apprenticeships in three sectors, and more progression opportunities;

- Reformed Information, Advice and Guidance (IAG) for adults with a new call centre-based system (an aspect not working well as a universal service, so a further review this year, aiming to link training, jobs, qualifications and support such as child care better);
- A New Deal for Skills to open better pathways into work and training for excluded groups; working more effectively with social partners sectorally, regionally and locally (Skills for Business Networks);
- Implementing the Framework for Achievement (see below); revising and reforming the skills planning and funding regime;
- Better awareness-raising, communication and marketing of skills training opportunities;
- Promoting equality and diversity throughout.

A major ambition that has proved slow and difficult to achieve is to create a single **qualifications framework** for the nation at all levels of attainment. The Curriculum and Qualifications Authority (CQA) is working towards building such a Framework for Achievement that should encompass all vocational and occupational areas at all levels.

There is difficulty in connecting this fully with the autonomous higher education sector where the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) has responsibility for monitoring quality in HE, and is seeking to modernise and integrate the well-established **Access system** for ‘non-traditional’ entry into HE with new arrangements. More problematic still is the difficulty of bringing a traditional (hierarchical and competitive) general or academic school curriculum into a common framework with the national vocational framework so that the vocational and the academic have **parity of esteem** with **interchangeable credit**.

The ambition is to create a **portable and transferable credit system**, with universally recognised value as a common currency, so that students can collect ‘credit’ through (usually) modular study in different places, and have it recognised and built on as their own portable portfolio.

The notion of the **lifelong learning portfolio** is quite central to LLL strategy. It depends on institutions (and employers, professions etc.) fully recognising such credit in the labour market, and different education providers also behaving reciprocally and actually giving credit for successfully completed study.

Even more difficult is something else that CQA, together with the LSC and others is working towards (also within a European framework of thinking). This is the full **Recognition and Accreditation of Prior Learning**, including Experiential and Workplace Learning. Various abbreviations refer to this intention, most often APL and RPL. It is essential if lifelong learning is to become a reality that includes learning when, where and however achieved, without waste, duplication and unfairness to the individual citizen-learner. Progress is slow. Institutional resistance is strong.

The LSC, working with the Education Department, Ofsted, and the Adult Learning Inspectorate, has just (July 2005) published *Recognising and Recording Progress and Achievement in Non-accredited Learning* ((RARPA). The purposes is to put the learner at the centre, be unbureaucratic, enhance learners’ experience, encourage effective self-assessment, and link to existing processes so that such learning can be fully recognised and counted.

Widening participation to under-represented social classes and groups is a major policy priority. The **Aim Higher** programme builds bridges between schools, colleges and universities to raise aspirations and widen entry into HE, and there are programmes to assist universities to be more user-friendly and if necessary to adapt curriculum and support to non-traditional entrants, and support their study so that they do not then withdraw.

There has been some success with national electronic-based **information systems** mainly for the vocational side. Early efforts (TAPs or training access points) had little success but the ‘University for Industry’ known as Ufi has been more successful. National Adult Learners’ Week (ALW), run by

NIACE with very wide partnership and Government buy-in, is a major and high profile annual success – a national event with the involvement of all regions and localities. But generally the UK has not succeeded in creating the kind of regular ‘IAG’ – **information, guidance and counselling** – service that everyone says is needed. One problem is that in a competitive ‘education market’ institutions tend to give advice in their own rather than always the student’s best interest.

Connected to the notion of the personal portfolio for learning attainments is a new emphasis in policy on ‘**personalised learning**’ – a combination of modes of study and study support which emphasises individual opportunity, and responsibility, for continuing to learn, and so to be employable.

A recent very new initiative driven in England mainly from the HE sector but that in principle could be led by any sector is the **Lifelong Learning Networks**. These bring together all kinds of providers, and representatives of VET labour markets needs, in a locality (maybe at ‘sub-region’ level), to identify and collaborate in meeting needs by means of seamless joined-up provision, so that those studying really can collect credit and move from one course or provider to another in that area in order to get whatever education and training they then need.

An earlier initiative, still in its trial stages but spreading fast, are **two year foundation degrees** designed in partnership with employers (individual or sector) and involving workplace learning and experience. They are meant to be a main means of widening HE in ways relevant to the labour market. They require partnership between three main parties: employers, further education, and universities.

These are just some of the practical examples of education, especially VET, initiatives in the UK that are part of a broader LLL strategy. Many have special national and local boards or committees and small administrations for consultative, development and review arrangements. There are serious questions about how best to fund, monitor and support these developments without too much cost going into ‘backroom’ central control and monitoring, rather than ‘front-line’ resources and work. There are also questions about how to secure connections between the many different initiatives that compete for attention and for success, according to their own specific targets and timelines.

Further information

There is a huge volume of material in this field as a result of the highly energetic, innovative and interventionist government commitment to education and training, especially from a labour market and economic perspective but with a strong commitment also to wider participation and equity.

A few new sources (especially as mentioned above) are as follows.

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- *Recognising and Recording Progress and Achievement in Non-accredited Learning*, LSC, National Office Coventry, July 2005.
- Skills in England 2004: 4 volumes. Volume 1: published 22.03.2005 and updated 20.07.2005, volumes 2-4: published 20.07.2005³²:
 - Skills in England 2004: volume 1: key messages and an overview of the research findings in the other three volumes
<http://readingroom.lsc.gov.uk/lsc/2005/research/commissioned/skills-in-england-2004-vol-1.pdf>;
 - Skills in England 2004 volume 2: main research report containing separate chapters on the demand for and supply of skills as well as mismatches between demand and supply

³² See: www.lsc.gov.uk/National/Documents/Keyinitiatives/NationalSkillsStrategy/skills-in-england-2004.htm.

- <http://readingroom.lsc.gov.uk/lsc/2005/research/commissioned/skills-in-england-2004-vol-2.pdf>>;
- Skills in England 2004 volumes 3 and 4 provide evidence related to industrial sector, and regional and local trends respectively
<http://readingroom.lsc.gov.uk/lsc/2005/research/commissioned/skills-in-england-2004-vol-3.pdf>> and
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