Educating the adult educator: Quality provision and assessment in Europe

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EUROPEAN SOCIETY FOR RESEARCH ON THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS
RESEARCH NETWORK ON ADULT EDUCATORS, TRAINERS AND THEIR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Educating the Adult Educator: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe
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Educating the Adult Educator: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe

Inaugural Meeting
CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS
University of Macedonia
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Preface

Dear readers,

This e-book contains the proceedings of the inaugural meeting of the ESREA Network on Adult Educators, Trainers and their Professional Development (ReNAdET).

**Educating the adult educator: Quality provision and assessment in Europe**

The network’s first conference meeting was held in Thessaloniki, Greece (6-8 November 2009) at the University of Macedonia, and it was entirely devoted on issues of quality on the education and training of the adult educator in Europe. The meeting was a forum for exchanging theoretical considerations and empirical evidence, between researchers studying the different roles and tasks of the adult educator and trainer and the ways that these are assessed. The meeting also addressed issues relating to the quality of adult educators’ training (initial and continuing), their professional development as well as how these parameters could contribute to the overall quality of adult educational provision in Europe today.

In total 4 keynote presentations, 83 paper presentations and 18 e-poster presentations in eleven thematic workshops (divided in 5 parallel sessions) took place during the conference, as well as eight special presentations were made in six (6) plenary sessions. Based on the thematic workshops and the plenary sessions of the conference, the structure of this e-book is the following:

- **Keynote Presentations**
- **Paper Presentations**
  1. Quality assurance: Validating effectiveness for adult educators and trainers.
  2. Professionalisation & professional development: Not anybody’s business.
  4. Quality in educational provision: Redefining basic assumptions.
  5. Becoming an adult educator in Europe: Some biographical perspectives
  8. The role of the University in providing quality education and training: Unfolding the HE agenda.
  9. Initial and continuing training of teachers and teacher trainers: From initial preparation to in-service training.
  10. In-service training of adult trainers: The role of the enterprise and the role of the individual.
  11. ICT and quality provision: Issues of identity and personal knowledge management.
- **E-Poster Presentations**
  1. Educating the adult educator: European perspectives
- **Plenary Presentations**
  1. Highlights of major European initiatives and projects
- PASCAL Universities' Regional Engagement project (PURE).
- Self-Evaluation in Adult Life Long Learning (SEALLL).
- Grundtvig International Network of Course Organisers (GINCO).
- Promoting Active Learning and Ageing of Disadvantage Seniors (PALADIN).
- Study on Key Competences for Adult Learning Staff.

We sincerely hope that this e-book containing the proceedings of our first meeting will stimulate a productive dialogue and contemplation on issues of shared interest.

The editors

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| SECTION 1 | KEYNOTE PRESENTATIONS |
“Talking ‘bout my generation”, and Revisiting ‘Authentic Learning’: Reflections on communicative competences, lifelong ‘biographical learning’ of adult learners, and the professional development of adult educators

Introduction

As a young graduate, I was trained as a teacher of young people in secondary general and vocational education, and I have a diploma to prove it. Here it is! Upon becoming a state-registered teacher in September 1965 at the grand old age of 22, my first class, to my great surprise, was an “evening class” with a group of adult employees working for the local authority. During the coffee break one of the participants approached me, and he asked whether I remembered him. It turned out that he had been the engine-driver of the train which had taken me to school. He had since been made redundant following the closure of the line, and he was now being retrained for an office job. The subsequent conversation, about this critical event in his life, his biographical transition and the new period of learning in middle age, convinced me that I wanted to become a teacher of adults. I have done this throughout my career since that evening in the mid-1960s. In addition to my research on adult learning, I have been involved in the training of adult educators, mostly part-time evening students, at university level for the past 30 years! Although I have a PhD in adult education, I do not possess a recognized qualification to teach adults. What can these biographical notes possibly tell us about competences and quality of provision?

Revisiting conversation and communicative competences

“Talking ‘bout my generation” is a song by ‘The Who’. You may be asking yourselves “Who?” There is also a Neil Young song entitled “Old Man”, with the refrain “Look at my life; I am a lot like you were”.

Despite the puns, there is an important inter-generational message here with regard to the nature of the role of “conversation” in adult learning. This is my theme today. I understand conversation here in terms of “learning as an iterative dialogue with the world, with artifacts in the world, with oneself, with fellow learners, and with adult educators”. From John Dewey and Lev Vygotsky onwards, the social constructivist understanding of learning conversations has also constituted the core conception of “authentic learning” in formal, non-formal and informal environments. Notions of “thick authentic learning” are now central to the discussion of conversations in web-based learning environments.

As adult educators, we do indeed today increasingly work in ICT-based learning environments. One current issue regarding conversation and authenticity in web-based learning – and it is presently my personal dilemma – is how to “To twitter or not to twitter” in blended learning environments. Nostalgia for my own earlier work, as a teacher in museums and community-based learning in the “old world” of adult learning, might lead me to doubt whether the “art of conversation” can be part of learning activity in the world of Twitter and weblogs. But, the current day-to-day realities in formal, non-formal and informal learning settings suggest to me that authentic conversation
continues to be a vital debating point with reference to social interaction in the virtual world of learning. The question then becomes, which inter-personal “communicative competences” are required by adult educators?

The landscape of conversations in lifelong learning

Adult learners comprise a very mixed bunch of people in terms of their ages, social backgrounds, their experiences of initial and post-initial learning, relationships and households, involvement in paid and unpaid work, gender, and ethnicity. Adults have always engaged in learning when things change in their lives: they feel themselves unqualified or under-qualified; they become redundant and unemployed; they get divorced; their partner dies; they encounter health problems; they are increasingly expected to work beyond retirement; they migrate to a different country; they can become classified as political or economic refugees. Today, adult learners comprise an even more diverse public of individuals who are confronted with a whole new range of transitions and challenges in their increasingly complex lives. Japanese men now encounter the end of the “company man”, while women worldwide are still confronted with the ‘glass ceiling’ of limited career opportunities. The current global financial crisis has demonstrated the high level of individual risks and the complex personal transitions involved which call for competences to “learn to survive”. Adult learners have become “transitional learners” who seek to respond to the multiple “critical events” in their biographies.

Teachers, trainers, ‘animateurs’ and counsellors who work with adult learners in diverse learning environments also comprise a very mixed bunch of people. They carry out their work in very diverse organisational settings such as: adult (evening) schools, vocational (re) training centres, continuing education in higher education, open universities, career guidance, coaching and mentoring, libraries, museums, media centres, community-based learning and social-cultural animation, public and private enterprises, workplaces including small companies, trade unions, voluntary associations, sport clubs, music, dance, literature and art, churches, political parties, and social movements. Given the richness of these disguises of the adult educator, it is indeed difficult to trace how individuals become adult educators, to arrive at a definitive job specification, to delineate the competences they need in order to do their jobs, or to identify any sense of a common professional identity. One could pragmatically say, let us just call them “practitioners” and get on with the job of training them. However, given the broader landscape of adult educators as cultural disseminators, the P for practitioners in informal learning could include:

“Peers, poets, propagandists, priests, peddlers, politicians, performers, publishers, pamphleteers, playwrights, publicans, and practitioners of the plastic arts”, to name but a few! Many of them are part-time, many are unpaid volunteers, and most of them do not see themselves as adult educators.

The day-to-day reality in adult learning environments is indeed a “patchwork” of diverse adult learners, and a very heady mixture of adult educators. What adult learners and adult educators do have in common, however, is their rich life experience. This suggests the possibility for conversations about their biographies and their learning trajectories in authentic learning environments. However, in much of adult education, there is all too little conversation, learners and teachers do not necessarily understand each other. It is all too clear that many well-intended efforts to engage adults in learning
do not take account of how their life histories and learning biographies influence their dispositions towards an engagement in lifelong learning throughout the life course.

This raises important questions about how adult educators are trained and how they acquire the competences needed in order to be able to respond to the diversity in the “learning biographies” of adult learners. Adult educators need to be able to understand the learning biographies of adult learners in order to better understand and address the personal, interpersonal, situational and cultural factors that promote or hinder active participation in learning. Above all, this gives rise to fundamental issues concerning the lifelong learning of adult educators themselves. This is a question of their own continuing professional development, their personal reflection about their own learning biographies, and, above all, enhancing their own competences to promote “biographical learning” by adult learners. How can we enhance the competences of adult educators to undertake “biographical work” in authentic and conversational learning environments? I understand “biographical work” as the competency “to attach new sources of knowledge to biographical sources of meaning in order to recreate oneself afresh and insert oneself in the world”. I will now address this question in terms of two specific formats of communicative action: authentic conversations in the form of the “learning biographies” of adult learners and adult educators, and the relevance of “learning diaries” in working with adult learners.

**Conversation and learning biographies**

Knowledge about the learning biographies of adults can help to unravel the reality of learning activities in diverse learning environments. The reality of adult learning is indeed a patchwork of learning opportunities made available at work, at home, among friends, in hobby clubs, voluntary associations, evening classes, churches, etc. As revealed in Sawchuk’s study of the life histories of working-class men and women, *Adult Learning and Technology in Working-Class Life*, adult learners draw upon a multiplicity of non-formal and informal learning environments in relation to their ICT competences. These learning environments are more often marked by collective rather than individualistic learning activity in the production of “useful” knowledge. As learning biographies all too clearly demonstrate, these learning activities significantly take place at a social distance from formal learning settings which have not served these adults well in the past. The accessibility of broad-band internet is perhaps more significant than the availability of formal learning environments in the promotion of lifelong learning in the lives of adult learners.

At the other end of the social spectrum, I refer to a PhD dissertation which was adjudicated “summa cum lauda” at Göttingen University in late 2008. In her dissertation entitled *Musicians as Lifelong Learners: Discovery through Biography*, Rineke Smilde employed biographical research to examine key developments in the lives of professional musicians, focusing on the relationships between their learning and their lives, their learning experiences, and their working lives as performing musicians. Her research involved the collection of 32 “learning biographies” of musicians with varied professional careers and from different age categories. Critical life events and related learning experiences are described. The main thread throughout these learning biographies is the question as to how these musicians learn, how they combine learning in different settings, and what can be learned from this in the design of relevant learning environments for lifelong learning in music. Musicians, experienced performers, music
teachers and their musical apprentices would then have the opportunity to acquire reflective and reflexive competences in their development as effective ‘lifelong learners’.

Smilde’s research into the learning biographies of musicians provides a fascinating example of the potential significance of biographical research into the learning biographies of adult learners and adult educators. Much of the larger body of research has been developed within the work undertaken by the ESREA network on Life History and Biographical Research. In exploring learning biographies, biographical research has tended to focus, on the one hand, on open-ended interviews with adult learners and adult educators, or, on the other hand, it has encouraged them to write their learning biographies. However, there has also been growing interest in the pedagogical application of “learning diaries” in day-to-day learning environments, for example, the role of biographical materials in contributing to learning portfolios. This introduces the question of the role of narrative records in understanding reflection about learning activity.

Learning diaries as narrative learning records

Biographical approaches to the communicative understanding of learning activity have contributed significantly to the practice of inviting students to compile narrative records of their learning experiences. Such records are known as “learning diaries”, learning logs”, and “Lerntagebucher” and “journal d’ apprentisage“. The use of learning diaries has been developed and researched worldwide in formal, non-formal and informal learning environments. Areas of application include blended learning, e-learning, competence-based learning, evaluation of prior learning, learning portfolios or “bilan de compétences”, and research into ‘learning projects“ in informal learning settings.

Learning diaries depart from the notion that learners can reflect upon, record and learn from their experiences of day-to-day learning activities. They enable learners to explore differences in relation to learning and greater understanding with regard to questions such as: “why am I here?”, “how am I here?”, “why do I do what I do?”. Learning diaries offer learners the space to narrate their experiences, to tell their “personal stories” about their learning experiences, and to reflect upon how these experiences contribute to their personal development. In terms of learning theory, keeping a learning diary should contribute to the development of meta-cognitive competences and support “learning-to-learn“ through personal reflection.

In keeping a learning diary, learners can narrate their experiences with regard to questions such as:

- What did I accomplish today?
- Activities/situations/experiences that went well or were difficult?
- Unexpected problems or issues, such as explaining an idea in a group project meeting?
- How you feel about the way you are doing things?
- What were the most significant events today?
- In what ways was this day unique, different from other learning days?
- Did I have any particularly meaningful conversations?
- How did we work as a group together?
- Who contributed or not to work in the group?
- What were the emotional highs and lows?
• What were the chief joys of the day?
• Did I fail at anything?
• When did I feel most alive?
• How effective am I in using feedback from others?

In the mainstream practice of keeping learning diaries, it is usually assumed that learners know that their diary is their own personal narrative. In this sense it is a “conversation with oneself”. Individual diaries are not made available to other learners in the same learning environment. It is standard practice that the learning diary is only available to the teacher, who would make use of learning diaries to introduce improvements in the learning environment. In this sense, a personal learning diary is not a component of formative or summative individual assessment, and they should only be submitted after course results are known. However, things are changing in the virtual world of web-based learning.

**Quo Vadis: Conversation on the web and virtual social networking**

A whole new debate has emerged with regard to the role of narrative learning records in the age of the World Wide Web, “weblogs” and “social networking”. In the past fifteen years – yes, just 15 years! – Internet has opened up a whole new virtual medium of opportunities for students to discuss, share, and co-operate in relation to their learning experiences. Weblogs and virtual social networking operate as innovative «sense-making networks” and make available a new genre of personal diary-like websites. This gives rise to a range of pedagogical and ethical questions with regard to the role of learning diaries, narratives and conversation in web-based learning environments. These address fundamental issues of authenticity and authentic learning.

**Pedagogical issues:**

Growing numbers of students are now publishing their personal learning diaries as “weblogs”, and this means that learning diaries become “public” learning journals. Is publishing weblogs to a closed audience of participants in a specific learning activity still possible? How can weblogs be integrated into e-learning and blended learning environments? There is an emerging practice in these learning environments that requires learners to make their learning journals available to all participants in a specific course. The communication of learning journals, via technologies such as photos and videos from mobile phones, pod-casting, and streaming video offer challenging opportunities for constructing “virtual stories” of learning experiences. Are weblogs no longer restricted to text-based communications and can they include virtual images? E-learning experts argue that written text remains a fundamental requirement, and that writing helps to structure one’s ideas as opposed to the “immediacy” of images. The sense of a personal voice expressed in a narrative form after all implies authenticity and is an manifestation of personal uniqueness, that there is a “person” out there, if not “here”.

**Ethical issues:**

Web-based learning, however, raises a variety of ethical issues with regard to the authenticity of conversation in web-based learning environments. Critical “bloggers” argue that the creation of a “space of one’s own” is a very fragile space in the virtual world of web-based learning. “Who knows me whom I do not know?” is a key ethical question. Numerous weblogs now provide guides to establishing criteria for determining “who is
“authentic” and “who is constructing a fiction”. One such criterion, for example, is the tracking over time of other web-bloggers and participants in social networks in order to establish their authenticity. Does this introduce virtual espionage which can undermine or establish authentic conversation? Do web-blogs transform the learner from a reflective journal-writer into a “publisher”, writing not for him/herself, but for an audience? Can the existence of an audience corrupt authentic narration, and can virtual social networking with readers hinder “honest” narratives? Does the audience corrupt authentic conversation by encouraging narcissistic and exhibitionist performances, and can this result in the publication of “interesting stories” for readers? Authors of weblogs can be criticized by others for publishing the “wrong” things, and this may encourage “socially correct” messaging. “Do I belong?” and “Am I accepted by others?” can become existential questions in the virtual world of conversation, not only for learners but also for adult educators. Such ethical issues are seriously addressed by those responsible for the construction of spaces for conversation and authentic learning in web-based learning environments.

Conclusion

With regard to the theme of this conference, I have focused in particular upon the importance of conversation and authentic learning in the provision of high quality learning environments. These are not merely issues of the technology of the delivery of learning, whether in traditional or web-based learning environments. They comprise fundamental pedagogical and ethical questions about the role of narrative records in inter-personal communication in the construction of authentic conversational learning environments. Adult educators need to acquire the communicative competences which will enable them to undertake the “biographical work” demanded by the use of narrative learning biographies and learning diaries. This needs to be an essential component of their training and continuing professional development. Before adult educators will be able to encourage learners to engage in biographical work, they will themselves have to engage in biographical reflection about their own positions in the world of adult learning. They could well start their own narrative learning biographies and learning diaries with three key questions: “why am I here?”, “how am I here?”, “why I do what I do?”
The Difficult Realities of Engaging for Universities

Introduction
This paper is about the engagement of higher education institutions (HEIs), in practice mainly universities, with their local regions. The idea that universities’ mission to serve society extends beyond teaching young people towards degrees and doing research is far from new. From service, outreach and extension through continuing education for lifelong learning to a leading role in innovation for economic development, we have presently arrived at the favoured term of engagement. Engagement extends from local community and neighbourhood development through access and wider participation efforts, work-based learning and student volunteering to collaborative research projects and the exploitation of applied research via enterprise creation, IP, patents etc. It often and naturally carries a strong local-regional connotation, but is also stretched to national and even global levels. Terms often used though also contested today include third stream (as in funding) and third mission.

Many efforts have been made in the past two decades to understand better and to accelerate the processes of engagement, internationally and within countries. A number of these are provided in the references at the end of the paper. This paper itself takes note of some of these in asking why engagement seems so fraught, contested and often frustrated. Discussion of barriers usually focuses on financial constraints, the intensification of work effort, and the ever-widening spread of universities’ mission. These are certainly important, but this paper reflects, rather, on some of the deeper cultural forces, values and assumptions that characterise the ‘traditional’ university, and affect ‘community’ attitudes to universities especially at the level of the local region. It also reflects on the scope and purposes of ‘engagement’ in the context of the contemporary wider struggle to rebalance the economic with the social and societal, which characterises the Reagan-Thatcher reforms and the contemporary world crisis deriving from neo-liberalism.

The scope of this paper and the terminology of engagement
Language is important in our world. It changes rapidly, not only because of new phenomena and consequential linguistic requirements, but because of fashion and marketing. Invent a snappy and quotable new term as an academic and your citations rise. There are many in this arena, as there are elsewhere – the modern, the engaged, innovative, entrepreneurial university, and more distinctively and recently Universities for Modern Renaissance, and the 3GU (Powell and Cairncross 2009, Wissema 2009). Not many decades ago the use of the term ‘mission’ vis-à-vis universities attracted scorn, and mockery about adopting a missionary position. Using the right – or smarter, newer – term helps profile and marketing; not to do so risks being passed by.

Yet words are our main tools. We need to use them with more thought and care than is common, especially when we are working across as well as within particular languages - Greek, Russian, or English – and using the distinct languages of different communities of practice and departments of state.

ESREA, the sponsor of this event, exists to promote the development of research into and learning about the education of adults. It is still strongly anchored in universities.

Inaugural Conference Proceedings
Research however takes many forms. The work that I draw on here is not characteristic mainstream research into the education of adults. Whether it should be called research is itself a political and profiling matter: who defines, owns and uses what we choose to call research? Does it help to speak rather of knowledge-making, or of applied scholarship?

Thinking about ESREA, there is a parallel narrative: of another early European professional body. EUCEN like ESREA also precedes the EC megabucks era. It is another innovator which has moved significantly beyond its specific Continuing Professional Development origins. A main purpose of big EC funds, in our arena as elsewhere, was achieved early and well via these non-governmental networks. That process of getting to know and learning from one another is now continuing and changing, as the scope and meaning of ‘Europe’ and more tangibly of the EU expand. My remarks may represent an invitation to ESREA members to continue innovating and taking the lead in another kind of way – in this case in applying your expertise and energy to address new kinds of challenges, where relevance and utility are valued. Networking and partnering as a way of both influencing and working effectively have become a widely recognised strategy. But unless we take care about language, and about diversity of context, we may make a difficult task harder by adopting superficial remedies.

My own research – or perhaps rather scholarship - as contributed here, is therefore partly about understanding the changing meanings of the words that we use all the time – even words like research and Europe. More obviously it is about using our understanding to change and improve the situation. It sits within an applied, action research, participatory tradition. It is unashamedly ‘impure’. It requires critiquing the universities which are employers, working homes and identities for most of us, seeing them from outside rather than internalising and entirely accepting their language and logic as academic community insiders. Each of us belongs also to other and wider communities, local and global, of which the academy is just one influential subset.

This means that you are as likely to be instinctually unsympathetic as receptive to what I say, despite a long tradition of radical social purpose that characterises the mainstream of adult education in different European traditions – from people et culture through folk high schools to workers’ education and the old UK tutorial classes movement, and on into various incursions into university-led community development. In the main we have been dedicated to educating – empowering, liberating, liberalising – individuals rather than engaging with and altering the social and economic structures, and the organisations and institutions, of society itself. University engagement as understood in recent years is more but may also be less than this, depending how it is adopted by different institutions and especially by their leaders. For some, third mission is a road-to-Damascus direction-changing perspective; for others it starts and stops with additional income-generation.

**Difficulties from a university perspective**

*Engagement* implies two or more partners, in this case an HEI and its ‘community partners in the local region. From the university side the idea of university engagement for regional development offer several points for anxiety, and possibilities for ideological difference. It certainly means working with governments and their administrations at local-regional level, whereas radical adult education has always and naturally inclined to be oppositional. It connects us to economic development, and in recent years inevitably therefore to the neo-liberal agendas of most governments – VET and training, the skills
agenda. These are closer to the old heartland of EUCEN, but are not the most favoured territory of most in older adult education, or at least in earlier-times ESREA. The adoption of regional engagement and the learning region into the agendas of big international bodies – none more strongly than the EC itself – ties us in with lifelong learning. But it also makes us suspect to the radical tradition, to the point of being equated with neoliberalism, and contrasted with adult education, used to mean the older individualistic and liberating tradition.

My current work can thus disturb those of us who grew up in and hold to the civic purposes and equity values of adult education. It is more discomfiting to those immersed in and possessed by the mainstream tradition of European higher education. This has 900+ years of university history to legitimate and sustain its confidence, but also to limit its vision. Walking around Bologna a few weeks ago I could not help thinking – ‘no wonder there is resistance to the modernisation processes of the Bologna process, the Lisbon agenda and so forth’. Who would want to abandon all this? The European Community agenda for Europeanising our higher education is also an agenda for its modernisation largely in an Anglo-Saxon direction. Not every professor, rector and student is in love with the entrepreneurial university (Burton Clark 1998); not all favour putting these institutions at the service of a now-failing neo-liberal political economy.

It does not have to be like this. There are other ways of seeing, other directions for taking the idea of regional engagement; directions much more in harmony with our adult education traditions of open access for all, equal opportunity, and a strong and active civil society.

Pascal and the Pascal PURE project

The anchor points of the Pascal International Observatory’s Universities and Regional Engagement project (PURE) are the management of place, strengthening social capital, and nurturing the learning region and a broad meaning of lifelong learning. A central Pascal refrain (taking the title of one of our first published books) is about rebalancing the social and the economic in public life (www.obs-pascal.com, Duke, Osborne and Wilson 2005). Coming back to possible discomfort for traditional academics, as well as forward to the work of PURE, an all-permeating purpose is to enable policy-makers and administrators on the one hand, to understand, learn from and work with academics on the other. A vital presumption is that regions and universities both and each have much to gain by strong, sustained, trust-based, engagement across a wide spectrum of scholarship and policy practice spanning the environmental, social, civic and cultural as well as the economic.

Pascal was created in 2002 in the context of an international conference held by OECD in Melbourne on universities and regional development. It has continued to work with OECD on some matters, while developing its own networks and programmes. At present OECD is undertaking a 2nd cycle of studies on the lines of those completed and reported in 2007. PURE was planned in 2008. Its first cohort of 15 regions taking part across four continents runs throughout 2009-2010, to be followed by a 2nd cohort beginning in 2010.

A recent note prepared to answer questions about how the OECD and the Pascal approaches compare is annexed to this paper. It is included to inform readers interested in the respective methodological approaches, and in the philosophies behind the approaches of these differing international bodies. In short IMHE seeks to describe,
analyse and advise, Pascal to act as an active and direct co-worker and change agent, network-building with and learning alongside partner regions.

**Universities and the 3rd mission**

Returning to the main thread of discussion, there are many reasons why we might all consider engagement to be self-evident common sense. With few exceptions, universities inhabit, influence, draw sustenance from, and cannot but contribute to, a particular place or places. At the very least they cohabit and must co-exist. Life between institution and extended neighbourhood can be very rewarding, or quite unpleasant. City centre universities that rip down historic buildings and replace them with massive, functionally bleak blocks, then fill the inner suburbs with over-boisterous young students on and off through the year can easily get themselves detested, as can campus institutions that cajole local authorities into allowing sprawl across much-loved green fields. On the other hand Richard Florida (Florida 2002) sees universities as vital to the success of vibrant cities. Their universality is now expressed in their international student clientele and the dollars as well as cultural and other indirect benefit that these represent to the regional economy, connecting the global with the local.

Universities have always been vocational training centres for the elite, governing or middle classes, although the content of that preparation has altered as societies have changed. The ‘skills agenda’ is in this sense not new, any more that the ‘third mission’ of service is new. This was a foundation stone of the American Land Grant universities a century and a half ago, extending the service agenda from teaching through the other forms of scholarship which we call research. As Bob Gleeson remarks in a chapter on Third Mission and the history of reform in US higher education ‘discussions among academics about the “third mission” are too often described as controversial’. He argues that ‘social, professional and community engagement have played key supportive roles in the evolution of most parts of the modern American university’ (Gleeson in Inman and Schuetze 2010, forthcoming). If these service dimensions extend in some institutions and disciplines as well as in much institutional rhetoric to a world level, their most natural arena for expression is the region where the university is located. This usually provides the main source of student lifeblood as well as resources for research and other development projects. Alongside the American land-grants we can set the contemporaneous British 19th century civics, now the heartland of that country’s great university tradition (see for example Scott 1995). In many countries there are also prestigious technological institutions, renamed as universities and seen as fully their equals.

Some of these universities – like my own first employer, then a London polytechnic, and my most recent, an Australian institute of technology – were de facto *people’s universities*, anticipating by a century the equity agenda that drives widening access for social as well as economic reasons – and which is also essentially a local-regional affair. This adds an important otherwise missing link, which is to mass higher education as potentially a great democratiser. Admittedly ‘massification’ (Tapper and Palfreyman 2000) is also taken up as a tool in a grim struggle between nations and regions for ‘competitive advantage’ in the global-Darwinian to-death dance. It is valued by all the OECD nations for its economic significance in return-on-investment terms (OECD 2009). This should not deflect us from valuing it no less from the perspective of equity, and indeed quality of life and civilisation. Admittedly also the main policy discourse about writing about universities and regional development is economic, having
to do with innovation systems, inward capital flows and the creation and retention of human capital.

I have expanded on these political-radical and neo-liberal scenarios to show how regional engagement can be seen in opposite ways. Depending how it is understood, and how universities behave, it can show either of its Janus faces, This may also help us to see, if only from our own academic side, why what on the face of it appears to be simple common sense can be such devilish hard work.

**Intensification and persisting 3rd mission, goodwill**

I will not dwell long on the indisputable pressures that individual scholars and academic departments experience in trying to teach more with less, under increasingly sophisticated audit scrutiny, in sometimes authoritarian and competitive managerialist environments (Tapper and Palfreyman 2000). The commodification of (higher) education takes unattractive forms. What is presented as greater independence for universities (hoisting ‘academic freedom’ with its own petard) means bottom-line calculations, and making income-generation a powerful determinant of what is permitted. Small wonder, in a country with a tradition of direct action, that French students have taken to the streets in protest at President Sarkozy’s attempted extension to them of neo-liberal-style institutional autonomy.

For individuals and institutions alike, prestige and advancement rely heavily on a particular kind of publication; competitive league tables mesmerise governments as well as institutional heads. The UK weekly *Times Higher Education* regularly features items of news and analysis about the intensification of work, especially the pressure to publish in a competitive audit culture with world league tables. Of late these have been joined by contributions voicing critical resistance against adding ‘impact’ – one might all but say relevance and utility – to the criteria for assessing research. Inevitably, this reaction also militates against the whole notion of connecting higher education with its world through engagement.

Small wonder also that in this – what we might now hopefully call late neo-liberal – environment, there is little enthusiasm for engaging with regional development. This is seen to mean yet more work (greater stretch of mission), diversion from more prestigious and ‘pure’ scholarship and publication, and dallying with the region. Another debate concerns the neglect of teaching, relative to research, in this environment; at least there is no doubting the legitimacy of teaching as one of two primary missions. In reality engaging is far from attaining that stature.

The region itself is quite commonly seen in a sense of local and parochial, rather than global and prestigious. The scales are heavily weighted in terms of conventional short-term interest and obvious resource constraints; it is easier to calculate student fee and research grant income than the indirect and delayed gains from engagement. Happily, most people are not simply the economically calculating automata of economic theory. Much of the brilliant and transformative engagement and community service that I have seen though a lifetime working in this sector has been and continues to be inspired and driven by individuals and groups of academic who wish to do good, and to do it well in a rigorously professional sense; community service is alive and vibrant.

**Difficulties for regions**
I have concentrated on regional engagement in the world as it is experienced by people like us, working in universities and involved with research and education. Turn this round and ask about ‘the region’ with which in the name of engagement we are meant to be partners. Is it any easier here?

The answer is ‘no’ - but also that this is too simple a question. Higher educational institutions are hugely diverse, to the point where it is often better to talk of tertiary institutions, as the OECD frequently does. Regions are if anything more diverse still. They are more insecure, lacking the 900-year history of the European university. They are commonly less well grounded, other than in formal jurisdictional terms. Historical, cultural, geographical and economic realities do not always align with their boundaries; so while some are rich in cultural capital and regional loyalty, others lack roots and civic energy. They are also generally less well networked internationally, without the traditional ‘universality’ of the university, and probably less well able to lobby, by virtue of their constitutional and legal position.

Regions are at the whim of sometimes distrusting, often restructure-prone, national administrations. Probably most of these have deeply centralist tendencies. In times and places of local restlessness scaling up to independence movements as in Corsica, parts of Spain, Kurdish Turkey, southern Thailand and the Philippines, and Great Britain it may be impossible for some regions to have essential powers devolved. Even without the more extreme situations, few governments are clear what is the right and best level or levels of regional administration, what powers best reside at which central and other levels.

Regional authorities even if strong and well trusted, as in some stable federal systems, have a plethora of duties, responsibilities, and delegations. Working with universities may not be self-evidently high among their priorities - especially if these in the past earned, and sometimes still project, the mystique of the ivory tower; and if they are led by vain and arrogant rather than public-spirited and collaborative heads. Regional authorities are self-evidently second tier, inferior in power to the national. They are likely to have less talented and well resourced administrations, and to feel second class, even when they are excellent. They are at the mercy of local as well as national elections; and of other political pressures and lobbying, private and third sector as well as public. Education, if it falls within their jurisdiction at all, is a big budget item, more of a political and financial headache than a natural resource for developing the region. If higher education is funded nationally, the regional authority lacks leverage to influence university behaviour through its reward systems; then it can only plead and persuade.

This is to paint a bleak but often realistic picture, if not of the present then of the recent past in many countries, of insecurity, and therefore of short vision and low capacity for long-term sustainable partnership. On the other hand the rhetoric and reality of the ‘knowledge economy’ and ‘knowledge society’, the great intellectual wealth and knowledge-making capacity that universities possess, their obvious centrality to what we call human capital formation and renewal: all these mean that a purposeful region cannot but want to draw universities into its planning, innovation, renewal, and overall development work.
Implications

To sum up: universities and regions alike are products and creatures as well as actors and creators, in their shared culture and environment. Each needs the other. Both can plead severity of problems - of history, of weak reputation, of resources in all senses, of urgent short-term pressures - as reasons why fuller engagement cannot yet be undertaken, or must be initiated elsewhere.

The OECD’s recent work in this area properly directed its recommendations for change to three parties: universities, regions, and the central government (OECD 2007). Another party (whose address like Father Christmas’s is not so easy to find) is the broader culture that allows or inhibits these things. Of this culture we are all a part, and for it in a sense also responsible, also as both products and actors.

This paper does not offer solutions to these complex problems. In England the Lifelong Learning Networks attempt to connect further and higher education at local-regional level to better meet regional education-related development needs; they are at the point of meaningful evaluation, but at risk of an early demise because of familiar short-term start-up funding (Ward 2009). I have written elsewhere that part of the way to effective third mission and engagement might be by planning and making policy via region-based systems of higher (or tertiary) education, rather than as now with each HEI in isolation (Duke 2008) – not an approach likely to find favour with proudly independent and very competitive universities.

I have characterised this world of our making as global, neo-liberal, and in a critical condition. The current fiscal-economic crisis may prevent the assumed early return to ‘business as usual’. As to the now present ecological global warming sustainability crisis, ‘business as usual’ will be impossible. So far, the only visible response from most managers of higher education to fiscal meltdown and subsequent economic perturbation is exclusively ‘internal’ – how do we manage with fewer resources to go on doing essentially what we have been doing hitherto? The idea that a new agenda for action is called for, throughout the curriculum and throughout the research programme, has yet to form.

Looked at in this context of double jeopardy, it is I suggest time for universities to engage in full and reciprocal partnership with the other sectors and stakeholders of their region, and to make the so-called third mission their all-permeating central or first mission. Each of us who is connected with a university, and lives in a region, can play a part in this.

Annex

The Involvement of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Regional Development - characteristics and benefits of two approaches

This note sets out how two concurrent approaches to the contribution of HEIs to regional development differ in complementary ways – the Review of Higher Education in Regional and City Development 2008-2010 of Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) OECD, and the Pascal Universities and Regional Engagement (PURE) project of the Pascal International Observatory.

The organisations
IMHE as part of OECD is an association of subscribing universities within an intergovernmental organisation (IGO) accountable to and controlled by the OECD Ministers. OECD is highly respected and taken seriously by governments. OECD’s mission is with economic development, and other policies seen in an economic perspective. IMHE OECD works to a prescribed biennial Programme of Work. Its mission is with the management of higher education.
Pascal is a light-touch international nongovernmental organisation (INGO) led by senior professional people. These are drawn from the public policy and academic sectors, and committed to enhancing collaboration and knowledge-sharing between the public policy-making and academic worlds, resulting in better practice and continuing learning. Pascal’s mission is to enhance the capacity to use knowledge, learn, and do better, on the part of organisations of all kinds in the public arena, and to foster balanced development. Social, civic and environmental issues are as central as the economic and educational.

Origins of the two studies
OECD has undertaken several studies of the contribution of higher education to regional development in and since the nineties, producing reports in 1999 (IMHE) and 2001 (CERI). Pascal was created in the context of a large OECD Conference based on the CERI study and hosted by the Government of Victoria in Australia in 2002. Pascal was formed by RMIT University in association with OECD and the State of Victoria. It is now administered from nodes in three continents.

The most recent OECD work was its reviews in 14 regions, Supporting the Contribution of Higher Education Institutions to Regional Development, managed by IMHE in collaboration with the OECD Directorate for Public Governance and Territorial Development and the English Higher Education Funding Council. It comprised a self-evaluation review (SER) by each region followed by an evaluative visit of an OECD expert group to produce a ‘peer review report’ (PRR). That work in 2004-06 resulted in the 2007 report Higher Education and Regions. Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged. Members of Pascal played key roles in this work.

In 2007 and 2008 IMHE and Pascal discussed future developments through meetings in Valencia, Pecs and Limerick. There followed a new round of IMHE work to review higher education in regional and city development in 15 regions, in 2008-10, and a separate Pascal Project on Universities and Regional Engagement (PURE), with an initial cohort also of 15 regions for the same period.

Objectives of the two studies
Pascal PURE values balanced regional development, and strengthening the 3rd mission of tertiary and higher education. It operates as a partnership of the two main parties working together, and is concerned with all aspects of ‘the health of regions’. Pascal’s governing body, like the PURE Advisory Network drawn from the Regions, comprises members of regions and of higher education institutions. In terms of participating regions, it is deliberately eclectic, allowing for diversity of regions. This allows it to explore the potential of different kinds of regions and authorities to work for development. Low-population rural and remote regions and ‘non-general-authority’ regions are included, as well as large city regions and small countries, seen as single ‘regions’. PURE also considers ‘tertiary’ issues – how the higher and non-higher tertiary elements may connect systematically; and it explores ways of measuring progress formatively.

PURE is an action research and development project, flexible and adaptive to the diverse needs and capacities of different kinds of regions within a common rationale, framework and set of purposes. It facilitates an ongoing community of learning regions, networked as a single international community, which includes sub-group Clusters that relate to different particular circumstances and priorities. PURE operates as an open information-sharing system.

IMHE is centrally interested in the management of universities; its Board of Management consists of university stakeholders. Since IMHE is also part of the IGO OECD, it considers only recognised regions in the national/federal governance structures’, that is, ‘recognised in terms of national administration’.

By taking regions that are part of the national and regional government structure, IMHE is able to use OECD’s full standard economic and related data bases in reviewing regions across a strong set of indicators; IMHE connects with other OECD data sources in creating a regional profile to inform the two reviews which are the heart of the work.

For 2008-10 IMHE has continued as its ‘key questions’ the general objectives of the earlier study about policies, practices and mechanisms that help mobilise higher education for regional development, and about how to make reforms happen. Like PURE it has added a question about the impact of the economic crisis, along with the challenging question ‘Which brings greater benefit to cities and regions: a high performing regionally focused HEI system or a single world class university?’

Methods of working
The IMHE methodology employs the same evaluative methodology as was used in 2004-06, supplemented by some additional questions and a facility for electronic interactivity. Its carefully detailed template requires regions to undertake a rigorous self-analysis, and to produce a lengthy report of up to 80 pages; it is expected that this will take the region 3-6 months to complete.

An IMHE administrator visits the Region to agree a single week-long review visit. An IMHE administrator and three outside experts (one national, two from elsewhere), acting as a ‘peer review group’, then meet different parties and judge the relationship and contribution of HE to the Region’s development. The central outcome is two twinned studies, the self-evaluation review report (SER), and the visiting experts’ report (PRR). These reports feed into an OECD synthesis report at the end of the biennium, which will be prepared by IMHE. IMHE offers to help with a national event to share the findings within each country of which a participating region is a part.

IMHE also organises periodic briefing and roundtable type events. Regions send participants to be informed by other authoritative OECD experience of the issues. These events enable exchange between regional leaders and representatives, supported by electronic exchange to assist network-building. The main IMHE dynamic is the evaluative review, managed by IMHE as part of an authoritative intergovernmental organisation.

PURE is developmental and highly participatory – operating as a web rather than spokes of a wheel. The main dynamic is not judgemental but developmental. Whereas IMHE requires a detailed and fully documented self-evaluation review, PURE requires only a much briefer outline Regional Profile. This is followed by a Regional Briefing Paper preparing for an initial visit by a Consultative Development Group of four (all international, or one from the same country and three from elsewhere). Following preparatory discussion the CDG visits for 3-4 days, focusing on the Region’s perception of priority needs and exploring together what strategies might advance these. CDG members are frequently drawn from other PURE participating Regions, thereby strengthening inter-regional exchange and learning.

Following the preparation and adoption of an agreed Regional review report (RVR1), each Region then develops an Action Plan in consultation with a network of senior PURE professionals. Clusters of Regions within the full cohort enable deeper shared analysis and comparison of the issues most important to them, as chosen by each Region. Each Region then works on its own Action Plan, connecting to other Regions with communications support from the PURE office, Cluster interactivity, and mentors for its Action Plan work as well as for Cluster participation. The Consultative Development Group returns to the Region, again for 3-4 days, a year after the initial visit.

Pascal is developing unique tools to identify and benchmark progress in the processes and results of engagement between HEIs and their Regions, sharing initial trialling, with follow-up application a year later. This work, the work of the several specialised Clusters of Regions, and the experience of each participating region, including examples of outstanding good practice, are drawn together in an interim synthesis report combining theoretical analysis with strategies and methods for improving the processes and benefits of engagement.

It will be clear that the two programmes and approaches offer different benefits and are complementary. One Region is taking part in both programmes. It is quite likely that other Regions, seeing the different advantages of the different approaches, will over time do likewise as the two programmes continue, with new Regions taking part, after 2010. This note is prepared to assist them in making such a decision.

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Adult Learning Professions in Europe: A synopsis of the study on the current situation, trends and issues

A number of European Commission papers refer to adult learning staff playing a key role in making lifelong learning a reality (EC 2006 and 2007). Quite obviously such individuals are key players in facilitating learners to develop knowledge, competences and skills.

That being said, little is known about this particular group of practitioners, particular those involved in Non-Vocational Adult Learning. By NVAL I am referring to adult learning not directly linked to the labour market. This definition also encompasses initiatives that are indirectly related to (or supportive of) vocational development (such as basic skills, languages, ICT and personal competences that contribute to employability).

Formal NVAL is generally provided in or through the systems of schools, colleges, universities and other formal education institutions and is attended by adults who often left uninterrupted initial education without mainstream school or other qualifications and who now wish to gain these qualifications in later life. Formal NVAL, particularly at upper secondary levels, is generally publicly funded as a form of continuing or further education or, to use a deficit model, second chance, palliative, recovery or compensatory education and training.

Non-formal NVAL is provided in education and training institutions, but more often takes place outside and alongside mainstream systems of education and training. It is often linked to social movements of various kinds and educational activity with such social purposes does not have a direct link to the labour market, generally not requiring specific qualifications to enter and engaged in by the learner for personal, social, civic and cultural purposes (Eurydice, 2007).

Of course although a theoretical differentiation is made between non-vocational and vocational adult learning there are many adult learning providers whose programmes include courses or training in both categories. Further there are few adult learners who do not have multiple motivations that straddle the social and vocational.

In the study that I will briefly describe, we therefore decided not to make a strict distinction between providers of vocational adult learning on the one hand and providers of NVAL on the other hand but to be pragmatic depending on the programme of the individual provider.

These areas of activity were identified by the European Research Group on Competences in the field of Adult and Continuing Education in Europe, which was initiated by the German Institute for Adult Education in October 2005.

The diversity of adult learning environments is also reflected in the variety of positions within these adult learning providers. Beside teachers and trainers, they also include managers, course planners, counsellors and administrative staff. We focused on teaching, management, counselling and guidance, programme planning, support and media use positions, and tried to discover the required paths of those holding the

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3 I am particularly indebted to Simon Broek, Bert-Jan Buiskool, Jaap van Lakerveld, Kate Sankey and George Zarifis for their contributions to the thinking within this paper.
positions through initial training and continuing professional development, as well as the conditions required to ensure that quality is enhanced, maintained and guaranteed.

Despite our awareness of the field and certainly that is the case here amongst this audience, in reality little systematically across Europe has been known about practitioners involved in adult learning, particular those involved in Non-Vocational Adult Learning. The following are questions that might be posed:

- **Who are they?**
- **In which contexts do they work?**
- **How are they trained?**
- **How are they recruited/selected?**
- **How are they contracted, or appointed?**
- **How do they develop during their careers?**
- **What is done to help them develop throughout their careers (HRD)?**
- **How does society perceive these positions (status)?**

I say ‘might be posed’, but more accurately I should say ‘was posed since this information gap was the stimulus for the ALPINE project, a study that was carried out by an international research group, under guidance of Research voor Beleid and PLATO under contract of the European Commission (DG Education and Culture) during 2006-2008. It could be said to have been the stimulus for setting up the ESREA network that is meeting here in Thessaloniki today, and George Zarifis our organiser, like me was amongst the experts consulted by RvB/Plato.

This study covered the 27 EU Member States, the EFTA countries which are member of the European Economic Area (Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein), and two of the three candidate countries (Turkey and Croatia). Data was collected in all these countries by our network of correspondents / experts. They gathered secondary data on country level (like e.g. policy documents, previous studies, and other relevant information) and bundled the outcomes of this data gathering in a country report. In a selection of 15 countries secondary data was amended with additional information from literature, statistics, and interviews with in total 45 providers, 15 policy makers, and 15 interesting initiatives. All this data provides a snapshot of current practices, trends and issues of adult learning staff in Europe. However, the country studies clearly show that data on NVAL staff is often poorly recorded, stored, organised and accessible. The in-depth studies were carried out in Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom.

The ALPINE project sought to bridge this gap and describes the variety of contexts in which adult learning staff work. Furthermore, it seeks to reveal the factors that promote or affect the quality of the work provided by these practitioners. This presentation is partly based on the outcomes of a study that have been carried out by an international research group, under the guidance of Research voor Beleid and PLATO University Leiden. This study covered the 27 EU Member States, the EFTA countries that are members of the European Economic Area (Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein), and two of the three candidate countries (Turkey and Croatia).

The focus was on adult-learning staff active in the formal and non-formal parts of adult learning, leaving out informal learning and focused on the study to the field of non-vocational adult learning (NVAL). The study on adult learning professions was complemented with two other studies carried out by the Institut für Technik und Bildung ITB Bremen and RvB and PLATO on teachers and trainers (or practitioners) in corporate
education and practitioners active in vocational education beyond regular vocational school education. Together these three studies may be considered components of a European overview of teacher and trainer education practices in lifelong learning in Europe.

The research findings are extensive and in this overview by necessity the coverage is limited.

**There is data on:**
- *Working contexts and Professional profiles*
- *Background and Pathways leading to the profession*
- *Employment situation of NVAL staff*
- *Quality assurance and quality management*
- *Attractiveness of the sector*

In other presentations colleagues from RvB and Plato, some of whom are here today, have reported this material in greater depth, and they will be covering some of these areas in more detail during this conference. I will simply make some brief remarks on the first of the above areas and am grateful for the use of the diagrams that I’m going to present shortly.

All over Europe, important changes can be identified Nuissl (2007)
Firstly target groups are changing as a result of demographic change (increasing migration, greater life expectancy, higher levels of education and a willingness to assume more of the costs by participants in the learning process).
Secondly, content covered in NVAL is changing. Issues such as the environment and climate change and health have become more important.

The range of offer becomes even more extensive when language issues are considered. This is of course extensively a function of greater migration in an enlarged Europe and of increased numbers of refugees entering Europe.

Roles and fields of activity are also changing with educational counselling, guidance, supervision and coaching becoming more prominent. Many staff have administrative and management roles in addition to those directly and indirectly related to teaching. And those with management roles have to be aware of the great variety of organisational forms and of the different approaches that can be applied. They have to deal with changing contexts, like the decline in government spending on adult learning, and they have to reflect the aims of their organisation in the light of the target groups and the needs of learners.

In addition to the target groups and course content, teaching methods are also changing considerably. Educators of adults are challenged to create learning environments that accord with learners having very heterogeneous needs and characteristics and with greater or lesser capacity to be self-directed. They have to be aware that there is not just one way to reach the expected learning outcome. More learner-oriented methods, new forms of methodological change, and the combination of different learning locations and learning methods are typically more and more important. Moreover, e-learning is coming to play a significant role as a methodological tools in the NVAL field. The same is true for their other types of professional activities.

The complexity of changing working contexts as shown here creates huge demands on the tasks and activities executed by the NVAL staff. In setting objectives for the professional development of staff, it is helpful to have an in-depth view of the tasks and activities that NVAL staff carry out. It is obvious that teachers teach a particular
subject and that managers control finances and manage the institution. But to obtain adequate competence profiles of the different positions, it is necessary to distinguish between the different tasks. The difference in key occupational tasks between the different NVAL positions can be illustrated by the following figures based on interviews with 45 providers across Europe, and for each of 6 types of position, these represent the percentage of staff for whom a particular type of work is either a main or subsidiary task. In essence what every the formal position most staff are involved in some way in practically every task.

This broad diversity of tasks makes working in NVAL particularly demanding. Too many contrasting tasks may threaten to overwhelm an individual’s core competence; on the other hand, too narrow a definition may lead to a lack of multidisciplinary cooperation, with people being responsible only for their own area. The current situation for teachers and trainers may, with a little more support, allow teachers and trainers to better focus on their main task, which, of course, is teaching and training.

The complexity of the adult-education field, the wide variety of adult-education contexts and tasks of NVAL staff make this field a particularly demanding one for adult-learning staff. Adult-learning staff need particular competences (skills, knowledge and attitudes) in order to carry out their (professional) tasks such as teaching, managing, programme planning, etc. This includes basic requirements, such as the knowledge of adult lifelong learning and development (theory); social and communications competences in adult learning (methodology); and the ability to link theory and practice. In addition, NVAL staff require additional expertise such as work and life experience (experiential knowledge), subject-specific knowledge (knowledge of particular disciplines), and applied knowledge (expertise).

More detailed comparison reveals differences in competence profiles that may need to be developed in the formal and non-formal adult-learning sector. In the formal sector, competences should be more directed at executing small, varied tasks at a high level; in the non-formal sector, competences should be directed more at executing several tasks at a lower level.

Overall the study shows that there is no clear view on the standard competences or skills needed to fulfil professional tasks in adult learning, partly due to the diversity of the field.

The report argued that more research is required in the field of NVAL. In particular there is a strong need for more (comparative) information on NVAL staff at a national as well as a European level. Also, data is needed on the sectors identified and at regional level so that particular policies can be developed to meet the requirements of the people concerned. One way to meet the needs would be to help providers and regions to identify their core features and compare these with other players in the field. By doing this, they would know what they could either contribute to, or take from, cooperation. That is to say: more research on the demand and supply side of the market and on competence profiles.

It was also argued that further research is needed concerning the development of European competence profiles for NVAL staff and this was recommended to the European Commission. Such a structure is not meant to be a prescriptive or an obligatory system. It is meant to serve as a frame of reference that Member States could use to develop standards for the whole sector. This reference framework could be used by national, regional, sectoral and institutional organisations to develop staff policy.
And that is the next project that in fact was funded and now is being undertaken under the co-ordination of RvB once again, and they are going to test the competence framework in this conference. I am an adviser to this project, but I am not going to step too much on my colleagues’ toes and spoil the surprises that they have in store for you. However I am going to give you a little taste of this work, which will be presented by Bert-Jan Buiskool on Sunday.

The model attempts to find a balance between those competences needed to carry out a specific activity and those that apply to the whole sector. There has of course been extensive debate about the merits and limitations of competence frameworks (see Ashworth and Saxton 1990), but we view a competence as a holistic entity including knowledge skill and attitudes. It show in the ability to execute a particular professional behaviour in a particular setting and with a particular quality. In this work we have aimed to identify the activities that adult learning professionals engage themselves in, what competences are required and what kinds of knowledge, skills and attitudes constitute these competencies.

Once again a European-wide study was conducted, and the findings are based on

- Identification of key activities on the basis of job descriptions
- Identification of common elements in job descriptions with regard to competences
- Elaboration of key activities in the field by consultation during an expert meeting
- Identification of competences needed to carry out key activities during that expert meeting
- Abstracting meta-competences and generic competences
- Identifying specific competences to carry out a specific key activity
- Modelling and fine-tuning the framework
- Linking back the framework to the competences as described in job descriptions
- Testing the framework with other expert groups (including here in Thessaloniki)

The study distinguishes between Generic A competences, Generic B competences and specific competences. Generic A competences are competences that are relevant for carrying out all activities in the adult learning sector. Every professional working in the sector ought to possess these competences, whether they carry out teaching, managing, counselling or administrative activities, since these competences define that is means to be a professional.

An example would be ‘Competence in systematic reflection on their own practice, learning and personal development: being a fully autonomous lifelong learner’.

Generic B competences are orientated towards a field of practice, directly or indirectly related to the learning process. A distinction has been made between the generic competences directly related to the learning process and the generic competences indirectly related to the learning process. The first covers the generic competences needed to carry out teaching activities, counselling and guidance and programme development. The latter covers the generic competences needed to carry out organisational activities, such as managing activities, administrative support activities and media use activities.
An example directly related to the learning process would be ‘Competence in dealing with group dynamics and heterogeneity in the background, learning needs, motivation and prior experience of adult learners: being able to deal with heterogeneity and groups’.

An example indirectly related to the learning process would be ‘Competence in contributing to a stimulating and constructive working environment in which the adult learning professionals can work and further develop themselves; being able to contribute to a constructive working environment’. Specific competences are those that are needed to carry out a specific activity. They complement the meta- and generic competences towards a certain activity, and like generic competences may be directly related to the learning process.

An example directly related to the learning process would be ‘Competence in assessment of prior experience, determination of learning needs, demands, motivations and wishes of adult learners: being capable of assessment of adult learners’ learning needs’.

An example indirectly related to the learning process would be ‘Competence in marketing, PR and public outreach: being able to reach the target groups, and promote the institute’.

So ALPINE has gone down the hill and is coming up again with some new proposals. And for those who want more detail of some of the work of the ALPINE project, then there is a special issue of the European Journal of Education (Osborne 2009).

As this is a conference concerned with research, at the end of this presentation I will divert to one specific area that I think is worthy of particular attention. Having conducted the particular studies of both the UK and Ireland in ALPINE and the parallel project on vocational practitioners, it has become evident that our knowledge of the offer made by the private sector is minimal. It is almost certainly also the case in other European countries and represents a major gap in knowledge. Most of our research tends to be on public or quasi-publicly funded providers. Yet one of our advisers from the private sector (here with us today) has estimated that in the UK, it may be that less than 3% of the training and development delivered and/or purchased by employers is provided by the wider funded FE sector.

So there would seem to be a number of very interesting questions to be posed:
- What is the scale of the private training industry, and how is it best defined?
- What are the main markets (corporate, public and individual) for private sector training?
- What are the skills, experiences and capabilities of those working in the private training industry?
- To what extent is the sector characterised by a degree of shared identity and common interests?
- How is the sector viewed by the policy community, and how do its members experience policy implementation?

I would very much welcome a discussion from colleagues in other countries wishing to explore this domain. To complete this presentation on 5 November I refer you to this slide referring to a famous event on the same day in 1605. Let’s hope that the Lisbon Treaty is signed by the Czech president before there are further fireworks in the UK.

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PART 1 | Quality assurance: Validating effectiveness for adult educators and trainers

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Portfolio building assessment of adult tutors for distance learning.

Introduction

In the 21st century, adult education has gained new attention. In the European Commission’s action plan on adult learning, “It is always a good time to learn” (2007), attention is drawn to the important role teachers and trainers play for the quality of the educational programmes.

In spite of the awareness and among researcher within the field of adult education, of the importance of qualifying the teachers within adult education, in the following years, competence development for adult educators continued to be more or less absent in the overall reforms and political strategies in most European countries and especially in Bulgaria.

The situation becomes more complex, because the recognition of non-formal and informal learning is still part of a larger debate about the knowledge society and lifelong learning. It is also part of political and inter-ministerial discussions at national and European level. There is no simple agreed definition. It includes a wide range of policies and practices in different settings, sectors and countries. It also touches social and institutional values, and challenges professional roles, functions, expertise and responsibilities. There are also problems including lack of awareness, lack of guidance and training, lack of funding, lack of provision, and some legal barriers as well.

Current developments and challenges in Bulgaria. The story of the SM - NBU

The adult education sector has undergone a serious transformation over the last number of years. More and more adults in Bulgaria are now taking part in lifelong learning, either in the workplace or on part-time courses, especially in the area of management. The range of programs/courses offered by the SM-NBU has increased and the delivery methods are becoming more varied.

The personnel at the School of Management include a wide range of different actors with different work, occupational status and educational backgrounds, not only teachers and trainers. There are managers, course planners, counsellors, and administrative staff. Only a minority of adult educators are employed full-time. Others rely on free-lance work in the field of adult education, where employment is insecure, and for others adult education is just one part of their activities within a defined job.

New skills are required for planning the settings for new learning environments, for integration in the classroom of learning techniques based on ICT (e-learning, blended learning – the SM is using VLS “MOODLE”), and to guide adult learners in their personal learning process. These new requirements are more challenging because most courses
are given not by qualified adult educators but by tutors (experts in the area of general management and HRM) lacking experience with adult learners, or experts with no pedagogical background at all.

From a lifelong learning perspective the adult learners at the SM need support in analyzing their learning needs and finding appropriate offers. This includes setting up and updating information systems and data bases, and guiding learners throughout the learning process, counseling in the case of learning problems, evaluating learning achievements, validating individual competencies and the recognition of prior and experimental learning.

The support activities are very important and it involves technical, administrative and organizational support of adult learners, and such diverse activities as answering phone enquiries, administering course registration, and providing classroom equipment.

Crossing such situation, the SM enables subject experts to teach even when they do not have a background or qualification in teaching. An advantage of this flexibility is that interested and committed practitioners (experts) are drawn towards part-time teaching, sometimes in tandem with full-time work, often for the sense of fulfillment rather than for monetary gain. This flexibility also ensures that individuals, who might not wish to pursue a full time teaching career, can still share their expertise with learners.

However, the lack of a career structure or obvious career path has disadvantages in that most of the work is part-time. Little or no security is offered making it difficult to anticipate and plan work schedules. The lack of career structures also has implications for teaching standards and quality. As there is currently no requirement to have a specific teaching qualification, the onus is on tutors to direct their own professional development. In this context the SM started to require from its members to have a 'license to practice'. These awards not only acknowledge the achievement and abilities of an individual, but also confirm evidence of the candidate's compliance with requirements for continuing professional development. Tutors can take the initiative to demonstrate their commitment to their ongoing professional development by developing a teaching portfolio.

Such portfolios are also gaining widespread acceptance as a means of demonstrating skills and current competences. Tutors who aspire to being a reflective practitioner can use a professional portfolio as a way of reviewing what they are doing, why they are doing it, and analyzing what the benefits are for learners. The portfolio also provides a forum for self-evaluation, and for detailing how a tutor keeps current with developments in his/her area of expertise and in teaching methodologies.

**Portfolio Definitions**

Definitions for portfolios focus on different aspects. Hartman (1995) emphasizes learning aspects. They commit individuals to personal achievement (empowerment) and encourage them to develop realistic self-evaluative skills. Finally the portfolios illustrate the students' depth of knowledge and skills.

Hartman also makes the point that portfolio assessment interacts and can be used to document and evaluate teaching effectiveness. Others, such as Forgette-Giroux (2000), place more emphasis on the structure, design and process of portfolio assessment, defining it as a cumulative and ongoing collection of entries that are selected and commented on, to assess the individual progress in the development of a competency.
A portfolio is simply a folder or file for keeping loose documents in some sort of order. Artists, architects and designers are already familiar with the concept. What is relatively new is the extension of the idea to other fields – like education, management, etc. So, the evidence tutors include in the portfolio can be used to demonstrate a number of aspects of their competence as specialists. In many ways a portfolio is a ‘snapshot’ of what tutors were doing at a particular stage in their career and, like a photograph, it rapidly acquires historic interest. Perhaps more importantly, though, a portfolio is a record of tutor’s development. It shows his/her performance over a period and may reflect how tutor coped with problems and ‘grew’ in the job.

**What is an e-portfolio?**

The e-portfolio is an information management system that uses electronic media and services. The individual builds and maintains a digital repository of artefacts, which they can use to demonstrate competence and reflect on their experiential learning. Having access to their records, feedback and reflection tutors can achieve a greater understanding of their individual growth, experience and career planning.

**The benefits of building a portfolio**

As a record of achievement and development, a portfolio can be of continuing relevance and a source of pride to adult tutors. Compiling a portfolio has other benefits too.

- The increased awareness of tutor’s own competence and how it can be developed helps in career planning, participating in performance appraisal, and in identifying personal strengths and weaknesses.
- Well-substantiated evidence of competence increases professional self-confidence.
- The work involved in compiling a portfolio tends to raise tutors profile in the organization.
- The discipline of reflecting upon what tutors are doing encourages a more thoughtful and reflective approach to their job in the long term.

There are also benefits to the organization. A heightened awareness within an organization of just what teaching competence exists, where the gaps are and how they can be filled, and how current competence can be used most effectively to meet organizational needs is an essential part of the healthy growth of the organization.

**The purpose of the portfolio**

The process of reflecting upon performance, capitalizing upon what worked best and planning to improve what did not work so well is, in itself, a major step towards developing competence. This process also need:

- a standard against which to assess tutor’s own performance
- confidence that tutors development ties in with their organization’s plans
- some kind of recognition for the teaching competence they achieve which tutor can take with him throughout his career.
- accreditation of prior experience and learning
The SM - NBU Initiative

In consultation with practicing tutors, experts in a wide range of organizations and investigating some of the best practices and projects run (especially in the area of management), SM drew up Standards for tutoring performance which goes a long way towards defining what adult tutors need to do to teach effectively.

Standards have been defined at a number of mandatory units of competence, corresponding broadly to major parts of the tutor's role and provide description of the performance the tutor is expected to achieve, together with a specification of the knowledge and understanding required:

Mandatory Units

Unit 1 – Defining the individual needs for learning
Unit 2 – Design of sessions for training and development
Unit 3 – Development of resources to support learning
Unit 4 – Establishing a climate facilitating learning
Unit 5 – Support the training in groups by instruction and demonstration and using appropriate activities
Unit 6 – Evaluation of sessions for training and development
Unit 7 – Evaluation and development of the own practice and some optional units

Figure of some of the optional units

Unit – Facilitating the learning through mentoring and counseling
Unit – Monitoring and review the student progress
Unit – Managing relationships with colleagues
Unit – Facilitating the group learning, etc.

Vocational qualification or continuously improving tutors’ performance

The understanding of SM is that:

- Training and qualifications of tutors should relate to their actual performance at work
- Tutors ought to be able to obtain recognition in the form of qualifications for what they can do
- Those qualifications should be transferable to and of recognized value in other jobs.

If one tutor can satisfactorily demonstrate competence against a specific standard, he/she receives a Vocational Qualification (VQ), which states precisely the competences gained. VQs can be credited towards other qualifications or can be used in their own right as evidence of competence.

In order to obtain VQ from SM-NBU, tutors have to produce an e-portfolio of evidence demonstrating their competence against the Standards.

At the same time the whole process is very powerful and connected with the idea of continuously improving performance and life-long learning. By reflecting on what adult tutors do, they can identify what is successful and what is not, and adapt their strategies and behavior to improve their performance in the future.

This is very effective way of learning and has been captured by David Kolb (1975) in what he calls the experiential learning cycle:
Preparing for a VQ provides the opportunity for structured reflection. It will help the adult tutors to understand their job better and what others expect from them. Furthermore this helps tutors to identify their training and development needs. On the occasions when some tutors (going through this process of portfolio building assessment/accreditation) lack some competencies they can select the type of development activities provided by the SM and to enter in a program focused on development of adult tutors for SDL (Blended learning).

The structure of the Standards, developed by the SM - NBU
The Units of the Standard are broken down into elements of competence, which describe the detailed competences tutors ought to be able to demonstrate. Each element has associated performance criteria, which indicate the level of performance required.
Here is an example of a unit, one of its elements and the associated performance criteria:

**Unit B: Design of sessions for learning, training and development**

**Element B2. - Design of sessions for learning, training and development**

**Performance criteria: The tutor must ensure that:**
A. The aims and tasks of learning and development have to be clearly defined
B. The opportunities for learning needs satisfaction have to be clearly determined
C. The methods for evaluating the training sessions are clearly defined
D. The resources required for the accomplishment of learning and development are clearly defined and covered
E. The tutorials have to facilitate effectively the provision of equal opportunities
F. The tutorials have to include a broad range of techniques and activities

The tutors portfolio will need to contain evidence of their competence in each element of each unit and tutor should make sure that he/she covers all the performance criteria. If this poses real problems, the tutor will need to talk to his adviser about how he can generate acceptable evidence of his competence in the context of their job.

The standards for each element also provide:

- **Knowledge requirements** - what tutor need to know and understand to perform competently in each element
- **Evidence requirements** - to demonstrate competence in each element
- **Examples of evidence** - to give tutor guidance on the type of evidence that might be acceptable.
- **Guide for the assessors of each element**

Figure for Unit B, Element B2
Evidence for Knowledge requirements

- Set of methods for learning, training and development
- Key factors influencing the implementation
- Resource insurance of the different methods
- Equal opportunities and anti-discrimination practice

Performance evidence

- Design of session for learning and development

Guide for the assessors

- The Candidate (Tutor) is required to present evidences for the design of at least 2 sessions for learning and development – for one particular student and for one group as a whole

In addition, the standards for each unit identify the personal competencies that tutors are likely to display when they are performing competently.

Design issues

Epstein (undated), Danielson (1997), and Barrett; 2001) describes portfolio assessment as a process of different progressive stages:

1. Collection of artefacts and materials. This stage can also include a needs analysis or project proposal.
2. Selection - collected materials are reviewed and evaluated for inclusion in the portfolio. This can involve different evaluation methods including pre-set criteria and parameters, feedback and peer evaluation. In some cases this and the next stage is documented by including first drafts, feedback and a revised draft.
3. Reflection and Projection - this stage consists of reflecting on the «why» of which particular items should be included (rather than the «what» of the selection stage), the comparison of materials with others, evaluation criteria or performance indicators and the active interaction with instruction, tutors or peers in discussing meaning, concepts and good practice.
4. Connection of the portfolio to individual’s needs and/or the outside world to add value such as employability and transferable skills and to enhance motivation by making the portfolio relevant to them. This may include a presentation to different audiences.

Many authors, such as Akar (2001); Cooper (1996); Drury and Tweedell (2000), also emphasize that individuals should be guided by clear criteria, parameters and performance indicators in what they are expected to do and how their work will be marked. These measures are also important in order to increase the inter-rater reliability of portfolio assessments.

‘Pros’ and ‘cons’ of portfolio assessments

In an education system that embraces life-long learning (Learning to Succeed - White Paper, June 1999) portfolios with their potential for the development of transferable skills and self-reflective, autonomous learners have to be a welcome alternative to the more rigid forms of assessment which do not always require the persons to indulge in higher order thinking. Nevertheless portfolio assessments come with a price. Their development, facilitation and evaluation often requires more time from the assessor (tutor) than conventional assessments and the collection and storing process can raise a number of logistical questions (Forgette-Giroux 2000).
Overall portfolios are seen as a positive form of assessment as they develop the person in a more holistic and integrative way. They enable individuals to become life-long learners by developing their transferable skills, self-reflection and autonomy. The possibility of individualising a portfolio and making it relevant and meaningful beyond the narrow scope of conventional assessments is a highly motivational factor for adult tutors. This strong intrinsic motivation encourages them to take ownership of their results and to produce work of a higher calibre than that achieved through traditional, often less-meaningful forms of assessment.

Building a portfolio - What is a good portfolio, and why are tutors at the SM doing it?

The portfolio tells a story about the growth of a tutor. It documents the processes of teaching and learning and creating, and obstacles encountered along the way, each containing the tutor’s work from the beginning to the middle and end of his/her experience. A good portfolio:

- encourages the tutor to see the learner as an individual, with his or her own unique set of characteristics, needs, and strengths, and emphasizes the role of the tutor in improving learner achievement through evaluative feedback and self-reflection.
- helps tutors standardize and evaluate their skills, knowledge and understanding that learners aim to acquire, without limiting creativity in the learning situation.
- helps tutors take more control of the work they do.
- enables the tutor to adapt teaching and learning approaches to engage with a wider range of learners and learning styles.
- involves tutors in the assessment process, thus giving them a more meaningful role in improving achievement.
- invites tutors to reflect upon their growth and performance.

Facilitating a tutor’s portfolio

The process of facilitating successful portfolios can be broken into four steps (Figure1):

Collection

Although the first step, collection, is straightforward, it is not always an easy step to facilitate successfully. It simply requires tutors to collect and store all of their work. Many tutors — are not accustomed to documenting and saving all their work. The SM developed guidelines on where and how to keep the work as it is collected. The key skill in this step is to get the candidates accustomed to collecting and documenting all stages of their work, and more importantly — their own perceptions.

Selection

In this step, tutors might go through the work they collected and select, for example: work they want to highlight for themselves; work they want to consider for accreditation; pieces they want to use for display or publication. This may be done by the tutor alone or with the advisor. Where tutors have a diverse set of work, such as drafts and re-worked pieces, tasks completed at different stages with less and less advisor support, and guidance notes, the portfolio will come to life.
Reflection

Reflection is perhaps the most important in the portfolio process. It is what distinguishes portfolios from mere collections. Tutors are asked to explain why they chose a particular item for inclusion in the portfolio, how it compares with other items, what particular skills and knowledge were used to produce it, and where he or she can improve as a tutor. This step is important because the tutor can observe more directly the quality of their own achievement and internalize more clearly where improvements are needed.

Connection

The last step, connection, is a direct result of the reflection process. Upon reflecting on their own achievement and identifying the skills and knowledge they applied in producing the items, tutors can answer the perennial question ‘Why are we doing this?’ They can see how their work relates to the requirements of particular Units which could lead to successful accreditation.

Managing a portfolio for accreditation

Tutors need to understand the role and importance of the portfolio and the requirements of the Units. From the full portfolio contents, it should be a relatively straightforward task to choose those activities that meet the Unit’s Evidence Requirements. As soon as tutors think they might work towards accreditation (after the diagnostic session with an advisor), they should focus on building the portfolio to meet the Unit requirements.

- Tutors should be encouraged to use a wide range of contexts that are relevant to their own personal circumstances, and work and social experience.
- Tutors should be familiar with the requirements of the relevant Standard Units and, be able to generate evidence in order to meet the evidence requirements.
- Make sure the evidence can be found easily in the portfolio. It is important to have a portfolio which has evidence indexing or a method for tracking the evidence. If the tutor’s evidence is incomplete, or cannot be located, or if there is inaccurate cross-referencing to the standards, there is a risk that an assessor will be unable to confirm his/her assessment decisions.

**Figure 2**

*Examples of evidence produced by the tutor*

### Developing evidence of competence

The portfolio must demonstrate an *all-round view of tutors competence* - that is, it must contain tutor’s own accounts, documentary evidence of his/her work and independent corroboration of their competence from people involved in or affected by what tutors do. The evidence must be *acceptable*. Acceptable evidence is of two kinds - *natural* and *special evidence*.

Evidence is not always required in a specified format — it can come in many types and from a number of diverse sources. Evidence can be produced directly by the tutor and may also be supported by witness testimony to confirm the tutor’s judgments. Examples of evidence produced by the tutor could include (Figure 2):

- reports which may be based on, for example, survey, experiment, investigation
- e-mails, notes, letters, diary entries
- tutors’ marked assignments
- course materials, electronic resources
- recorded discussion, interviews, presentations
• tutorials, consultation with students
• questionnaires and many other paper-based or audio/visual materials, etc.

**Authenticity of evidence**

It is the responsibility of the tutor to check that the evidence produced is authentic. The assessors may have observed the activity being undertaken by the tutor and be in no doubt that it was their work. If, however, the work was done at home, by using sources on the internet, or while out of the SM, the assessor may need to take steps to confirm that his/her tutors’ evidence was produced by them. This is often referred to as ‘authentication’. Authentication can be achieved by one or more of these methods: questioning, personal statements produced by tutors, witness testimony, electronic tools such as computer based programmes with security function, etc.

**The process of portfolio assessment at the SM – NBU - Purposes of assessment**

There are two main purposes of assessment used in SM (Figure3)

• To recognize and accredit (certificate) tutor achievement
• To support and manage tutors’ process of development and learning

![Diagram](Diagram.png)

*Figure3*  

*Purposes of assessment used in SM*
Principles of assessment

All the evidence produced is internally assessed, i.e. the assessor is responsible for assessing tutor’s work in line with the quality assurance procedures at SM-NBU. The assessor should map the Unit requirements against work produced through activities which they have negotiated with the tutor.

Validity of assessment

Each assessment should be designed in such a way that it provides tutors with an opportunity to produce the evidence that shows they have the knowledge and skills to satisfy the requirements of the Standards. An assessment is valid when it:
- is appropriate to purpose
- allows the production of evidence of tutors’ performance which can be measured against standards defined
- allows tutors to produce sufficient evidence of all the skills and knowledge required to satisfy standards
- facilitates the making of reliable assessment decisions by all assessors for all tutors
- is accessible to all tutors who are potentially able to achieve it

Practicability

For assessments to be practicable (i.e. capable of being carried out both efficiently and cost effectively) there has to be adequate resources and time. Examples of this are:
- in the context of oral assessments or interviews, balancing the need for assessment reliability with considerations of staff and tutor time and potential stress
- in the context of assessing practical skills, bearing in mind any resource implications
- an assessment system with the flexibility to meet the needs of all tutors

Reliability

To be reliable, assessment decisions on tutor’s performance must be consistent across all tutors and all assessors undertaking the same assessment task. Assessment decisions are reliable when they are:
- taken on the basis of clearly-defined performance criteria
- consistent across all assessors applying the assessment in different situations, contexts and with different tutors
- consistent over time

The assessment cycle

The Assessment process follows the typical “PDCA” quality cycle. PDCA stands for:

Plan ⟷ Do ⟷ Check ⟷ Action

Applied to Assessment the PDCA cycle means for the assessor to:
- Plan the assessment (Plan)
- Gather and record evidence (Do)
- Check performance against the unit standard. (Check)
- Make and record the assessment decision (Action)
• Plan future assessment activities (Plan)

Plan the assessment
This involves a pre-assessment meeting with the Tutor (Candidate) and the groundwork the assessors have to do before they can conduct an assessment. The assessor and his/her Candidate need to study the unit standards and ensure that they both know exactly what is going to be assessed.

Is the Tutor ready?
The Tutor (Candidate) should ensure they have obtained assessment readiness before requesting an assessment be undertaken. I.e. the Candidate believes on reasonable grounds that the required standards have been reached both in understanding the theory behind the process and in being able to demonstrate they can undertake the practical tasks involved as required. Together the assessor and the Candidate decide:
• What evidence is required to show competence in the unit standard.
• How much evidence is required.
• How much can be observed while the Tutor is carrying out his normal duties.
• How often assessment will occur.

On the basis of this the assessor and the tutor sign an “agreement” on the assessment procedure.

Gather and record evidence
Then the assessor gather evidence of the tutor’s competence as agreed to in the pre-assessment meeting. Examples of this could be:
• Record of work signed off.
• Questions from the guides satisfactorily answered.
• Other questions satisfactorily answered.
• Observation over a period of time, etc.

Check performance against the Standards
When the assessors have gathered all the required evidence, they conclude the assessment by confirming that the assessment has been completed. After that they complete the documentation and come back to tutors with feedback on performance. The assessor will be weighing up their performance against the standards as set in the Assessment Manual. It’s very important for the assessor to consider all the evidence when making his/her judgement.

Make and record the assessment decision
After concluding the assessment, the assessor completes the documentation, checks the evidence gathered and make his assessment decision of COMPETENT (C) or NOT YET COMPETENT (NYC). If the assessors decide they have not been provided with sufficient evidence to be able to make a decision, they need to explain to the tutor what extra evidence they require to be confident of competence and arrange an opportunity for further evidence to be presented.

After conducting the assessment, the assessor should record the date and outcome of the assessment (along with any key points about the assessment activity) for consideration by the Verifier in SM – NBU. On the basis of the successful e-portfolio
assessment the Tutor (Candidate) receives accreditation for their hard work. Thus, the PDCA Cycle is completed.

**Conclusion**

The purpose of an e-portfolio assessment at the SM – NBU is to find out whether a tutor can do a task to the required standard or not. Applying this to the situation at hand, assessment is about gathering evidence to prove a tutor has met the specified performance criteria of the unit standard. In doing so, it enables the adult tutors to receive formal recognition for their performance against the criteria and gain credits leading to Professional Qualification.

The benefits can be summarized as follows:

- Recognition and development of competences
- Enhanced experience through: personalization of provision; ownership of process and continuity of support
- Enhanced assessment experience through: selection of own evidence; rapid feedback; and security and efficiency
- Capture of achievement process for reflection, review, self-evaluation and assessment
- Monitoring of progress and appropriate feedback/response
- Regular opportunities for planning, review and guidance
- Management of own outcomes and growth

**References**


Quality improvement benefits directly derived from new approaches to Train the Trainer in training providers in the UK.

The UK wider further education landscape

‘A highly skilled workforce is more productive, it helps to improve business performance and boost economic growth’. Bill Rammell, Education Minister, 2007

'(Lord) Leitch set the target that 40% of our adult population must be qualified to level 4 or above and be committed to continue progression by 2020. To do this, we have to improve and strengthen the infrastructure of our teachers and trainers’

The required growth we need in HE participation won’t come from getting more 18 year olds with A-Levels to university or college. 70% of the 2020 workforce have already left compulsory education. We need to target more of those who are now in work – young and old, rich or poor.’ Bill Rammell, Education Minister, 2007

Until 2007 the UK, wider Further Education (FE) sector was largely unregulated regarding the requirement of teachers and trainers to have appropriate teaching qualifications. This was especially true of the vocational or non-academic areas.

The wider FE sector refers to government funded education and training, sitting between school and higher education (University). The sector covers: apprenticeships; some adult employee training (Train to Gain); adult education; pre-employment and pre-apprenticeship programmes; offender learning; VET at various levels; parallel routes to 16-19 school qualifications especially for top-ups and re-takes; pre-university courses and post-school remedial programmes for functional skills (otherwise named basic, key or skills for life.) This sector is funded in the region of £10 billion (€12 billion) per year. Although Teacher and trainer qualifications were specified for some particular programmes and functions, there was no general requirement. Awarding bodies; organisations which accredit qualifications and the organisations which deliver them, do require teaching and assessment staff to have appropriate backgrounds and appropriate QA systems and procedures. There were over 2000 different teaching and training qualifications in the system prior to 2006.

Towards 2006, regulations were planned as part of policy for FE sector reform and professionalism. This was driven by a series of government departments, then designed and implemented by agency organisations: Lifelong Learning UK; Standard & Verification UK and the Institute for Learning. The policy resulted in a new overarching standard and a series of qualifications using parts of the standard. The reform regulations now require teachers and trainers in the sector to have appropriate qualifications and professional status depending on their role.

The regulations are applied differently in the various parts of the sector so that trainers in the Work-Based Learning sub-sector - working on apprenticeship and other employee programmes - have had less attention paid to them regarding their need to achieve the new qualifications and status, particularly in terms of acquiring teaching skills.
Summary and Abstract – LL2009/P

Recent regulation in Government-funded adult learning in the UK, specifically England, has introduced the requirement for professional qualifications for teaching and training staff, for the first time. This paper presents some of the direct benefits to organisational development and quality improvement arising from particular development of trainers working towards this new professionalism. The focus of this research is on trainers working in organisations providing a range of programmes including apprenticeships, adult training in employers, re-engagement of the unemployed, etc. Prior qualifications and experience of these trainers is mixed; many of them not having previously received formal development in the theory and good practice of teaching/training.

Although the target qualifications are the same, the delivery of this particular trainer training is different from college or university courses in that it is employer driven and organised to complement the working arrangements of the trainers. The developmental sessions are delivered at the employer’s premises where teaching/training practice and its observation are carried out with their normal groups of learners. The term employer in this sense refers to the employer of the trainers not necessarily the employer of the learners.

Quality improvement in Government-funded adult training in the UK is driven mainly by inspection, data and process. Data is used to measure success rates and retention identifying processes which to be improved. The approach is guided by data and often takes a chronological or sequential view of the processes on the learner’s journey. This approach can be focused and effective but, because it treats the actual teaching or training as processes in the chain, often undervalues the potential contribution of fully professional trainers. The reflective practice adopted by these developing professionals can be applied in a wider context than just their teaching or training methods especially when encouraged and supported by the employer.

The benefits arising from these recent trainer development programmes can be described both as radical and traditional methods of quality improvement; radical in that they are trainer-centric - taking responsibility back to the professional trainer and traditional, in that accepted professionals should always carry some of this responsibility. This is different because when a better awareness of the processes in the learner journey is overlaid onto a more professional involvement of the trainer, then improvement is readily achieved in a way that meets the aims and direction of the organisation.

To date, 217 trainers have followed the programme in a wide variety of training organisations covering: ICT, construction, hospitality, racehorse stabling, administration and charities for homeless children. The full paper will catalogue and analyse examples of quality improvement stimulated by trainers undergoing qualification programmes; it will detail the processes referred to above and show how the linkage between action development and reflection has stimulated better practice. Feedback and impact assessment from both programme participants and their senior managers will be included.

Background: Train the Trainer in the UK, specifically England

The classification of Training and Vocational Education provision in the UK is not straightforward with regulation and funding varying between the four national regions. The research in this paper is all based in England where the provision can be divided into
five main groups irrespective of subject/occupational area or the level of the qualification or development. These groups do not include vocational education provided by universities.

1. Provision from within Employers which is **not** government-funded.
2. Government-funded provision delivered from within Employers.
3. **Non** government-funded provision to employed staff contracted by the employer to outside trainers, training companies or FE Colleges.
4. Government-funded provision delivered to students full time or part-time within institutions. The students are usually unemployed but may be employed and attend the FE college on a day or block release arrangement.
5. Government-funded provision delivered by FE Colleges and training companies where the learners are usually employed and the learning takes place at the employer’s premises or at the FE Colleges or training company. This group is called Work-Based Learning (WBL). The training and development covers a wide range - from low level literacy & numeracy programmes through apprenticeships to vocational education up to graduate level.

FE Colleges and apprenticeship training companies comprise the step between Secondary Schools and Universities although there is considerable overlap with both.

**This research covers trainers employed by training companies in group 5.**

Recent regulation in Government-funded adult learning in the UK, specifically England, introduced a requirement for professional qualifications for teaching and training staff. This applies to training and teaching staff within groups 2, 4 and 5 only, requiring these staff to achieve a level of professional recognition and status. For institutions in group 4 and their staff this regulation is statutory. For those in groups 2 and 5 the regulation is applied by means of the funding contract.

This paper is based on the experiences of delivering the new qualifications in a specific way to groups of trainers who work on government-funded programmes in commercial, not-for-profit or charitable training providers. For the duration of the research these providers and their trainers were working on the programmes described in group 5.

The narrative describes some of the direct benefits to organisational development and quality improvement arising from the particular development of trainers working towards this new professionalism. National Training Resources Ltd (NTRL) is a company which provides staff development services to training and teaching practitioners and quality improvement services to their organisations in all five groups described above. The company and its services are fully described at [www.national-training.com](http://www.national-training.com).

**New Qualifications**

The new (2006) qualifications for FE college teachers and trainers are derived from a set of standards for Qualified Teacher/Trainer in the Lifelong Learning Sector (QTLLS). They comprise three levels:

- PTLLS Award | Preparing to Teach/Train in the Lifelong Learning Sector
- CTLLS Certificate | Certificate in Teaching/Training in the LL Sector
- DTLLS Diploma | Diploma in Teaching/Training in the LL Sector

The PTLLS award at level 3 or 4 is unit 1 of the CTLLS certificate and is the first step into the sector. The CTLLS certificate is at level 3 or 4 and is the equivalent of the certificate in training practice (CTP) - the basic qualification for trainers. This, when accepted by the
professional body - the Institute for Learning (IfL) - confers **associate** teacher/trainer status (ATLS). The DTLLS diploma is the FE equivalent of the post graduate certificate in education (PGCE), the minimum qualification required for School Teachers. DTLLS, when accepted by the IfL. confers **full** qualified teacher/trainer status (QTLS)

**This research covers new and experienced and training staff progressing through PTLLS and CTLLS. Some of these are contracted to commence DTLLS programmes during 2009.**

There are opinions held in some parts of the sector that **trainers** do not need teaching skills either at or beyond CTLLS with very few if any staff in training organisations needing to achieve the DTLLS level or full FE teaching status. It is suggested by the evidence from this study that there is a case for concluding that some, if not all training staff, benefit strongly from understanding and using teaching skills and knowledge to the improvement of themselves, their learners and their organisations.

There is a view that trainers should follow a different set of standards.

**Programme Methodology**

**Delivery**

Programmes for all three levels of the qualifications were and are delivered in ways which are substantially different from those usually adopted by FE colleges and Universities. Because the programme participants are all employed and their employers (training companies) are interested in minimum disruption to their working arrangements, the programmes are designed to be flexible. However, there are some fundamental aspects to the delivery.

- Participants learn in consistent groups from the same employer. This includes some distance/e-learning work
- Group sessions take place on a regular planned basis at dates to suit the employer and the participants
- Learning activities take place at the employer’s premises, except some distance/e-learning activities
- Group sessions are intense, interactive and, where appropriate, focus on the current training work of the participants
- Some feedback, reflection and personal development is performed on a group basis
- Real examples of current and good practice are used in the learning
- A substantial participant handbook is provided to minimise the time spent designing a portfolio, reflective logs etc. For those working “paper-free” these documents are provided electronically.
- Textbook, on-line learning and research materials and potential sources are all provided
- Assignments are divided into smaller parts so that less academic participants are not intimidated.
- The programme, in some ways, resembles an Action Development approach.
- Within reasonable time limits there is ongoing support on-line, by telephone and e-mail until a participant completes.

The programme timetable will vary from an initial 2 days plus distance learning to 5 days face-to-face for the PTLLS award. This may take place in a one week block or one day per week or fortnight. An example is 5 consecutive Fridays because that is the “quiet
day” for the particular group of trainers. One group re-arranged their summer holidays to have a 5-day residential block.

Many programmes offered by FE colleges and Universities fit a semester structure whereby students attend full time or more likely, on a day release basis if they are employed. Programmes may be full-day, half-day or one evening per week for a complete semester with travel implications; or even up to two years depending on the level of the qualification. Participants are likely to be from diverse organisations with changes to the group over the period of learning. These arrangements may be suitable for initial teacher training but not necessarily so for experienced staff.

Assessment

Formative assessment is enacted informally and formally. Action group learning includes informal continuous peer group discussion, challenge and informal feedback by the tutor. This includes observation of peer group teaching practice in the early stages of the programme.

Formal assessment is used for written assignments and observation of teaching/training practice. Assignment assessment is mainly summative but will include ongoing formative feedback, both verbal and written by the tutor. A minimum number of hours of observation of teaching/training practice is required for each level of the qualification. At the CTLLS and DTLLS levels this has to be observation of actual teaching/training sessions and, therefore, has a significant impact on the logistics of programme delivery. As part of the inspection regime by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) this sector in England is required to undertake regular observations of teaching and learning practice (OTL), record the results and maintain an action plan as part of their quality assurance policy.

The programmes for CTLLS and DTLLS use an innovative approach to formal observation. By specific training, existing staff of the training company have their observation skills developed and standardised with particular reference to the assessment criteria of the qualifications. They are likely to be already carrying out QA observations and have existing roles in: QA management; senior teaching/training; line management or HR/HRD.

Some of the programme observations are then carried out by the employer under the control of the tutor with occasional dual observations taking place, giving several benefits:

- Reduced costs and logistical problems for the outside tutor/assessors
- Observations can serve two purposes for the employer
- Skills of the observers are significantly improved
- Observers develop naturally into a “mentoring” role.
- Observers are able to support future programmes better, especially those with a distance/e-learning content.

Existing measures of quality & quality improvement

Overview

Quality measurement in the Wider FE sector is based on a regime of Inspection, Compliance, Data and Quality Approvals. What follows is a simplified version of a complicated system. There is a significant emphasis on data related to the “learner
journey” which drives many aspects of the system. The main components of government
driven quality assessment are:

- Regular data returns on all learners, monthly in most WBL provision
- Periodic detailed inspection by Ofsted including observation of teaching (OTL)
- Annual success rates, learner retention and achievement calculated against
  benchmarks
- Survey data from employers and learners
- Some quality approvals such as the Training Quality Standard (TQS)
- A view on the financial stability of the training provider organisation

Quality improvement services and related staff development are provided by a
Government-funded service - the Learning & Skills Improvement Service (LSIS) and
several independent organisations. In general these interventional services are driven by
the need to satisfy the first 5 of the above compliance criteria. This can lead to a data
driven examination of processes in the learner journey and their impact on scores for
Success Rates; the Ofsted view on Leadership and Management will be heavily influenced
by this data.

The outcomes of the 6 compliance criteria are summarised into a “scorecard”
entitled “The Framework for Excellence” the grades of which influence government
contracting and re-contracting.

**The Current Approach to Quality Assurance & Improvement**

Compliance for the wider funded FE sector starts with the requirement for each
provider to complete an annual Self Assessment Report (SAR). This is encouraged to be in
the same general format as used by Ofsted to cover the guidelines in their “Common
Inspection Framework”. The SAR refers to the different parts of the organisation, the
areas of learning and the processes related to the “Learner Journey”.

The SAR is encouraged to be the key document, containing the performance data
to drive continuous improvement in quality, performance and service. It requires
judgmental scoring of each area and process; a comparison of the SAR to the
observations and judgments of the Ofsted inspection team, forms a key part of the
overall judgment of leadership and management of the provider.

This process can lead to an effective longitudinal examination of the processes in
the learner journey and allows resources and improvement to be addressed to areas
judged to be weak whilst identifying good practice where this exists.

However, it can and does lead to a bureaucratic approach requiring teaching and
training practitioners to focus their attention solely on the precision of what they are
doing now, rather than development of professional practice for the future. When the
teaching or training is considered to be just one of the processes on the learner journey,
the potential for professional development can be diluted.

**Trainer or Teacher-centric quality improvement**

The difference and potential of a trainer-centric approach is emphasised by the results
and observations in the case study of this programme. It is straightforward and is the
direct result of 5 principles:

- The participants are from 1 organisation and learn in a group
- Communication, discussion and peer challenge lead to investigative thinking
- Well directed discussions lead to a focus on improvement
- Strong reflective practice leads a natural development cycle especially when shared and supported
- Employer support allows the implementation of change to make teaching, training and related processes more effective.

Outcomes – Organisational & Personal Quality Improvements

The following describes the impact of the programmes on both participating practitioners and their organisations. Because these outcomes emerged progressively through the programmes and were the stimulus for the study, they are not listed in order of importance nor given any statistical weighting. They are the opinions of the participants, tutors and mentors/managers.

Organisational Change in general

One of the main benefits to course participants came through the delivery of «on-site» or regionally accessible, single employer type of course. This employer-based “action development group”, with wide reflective activities, has stimulated benefits such as the potential for strengthened links between departmental and regional representatives. It was subsequently able to develop strong working relationships through team-based activities and research projects with the organisational codes of practice featuring strongly in discussions and influencing decisions.

The Planning of Teaching Sessions

As a result of the CTLLS programme staff have developed teaching plans and complicated schemes of work which can be coordinated with those of other departments. This is due, in part, to the cross-curricular representation within the sessions. At one provider, it has proved to be a unique, positive environment for the development of coherent organisational paperwork. This development was stimulated following opportunities to see the ‘wider picture’ and shows how this type of planning impacts upon learners as they travel through the system. This encourages recognition of the similarities, repetitive processes and contradictions that may occur – resulting in wasted resources, time and learner confusion. It allows good practice to be disseminated very efficiently.

Establishing ground rules that underpin appropriate behaviour and respect for others

Increased confidence in setting appropriate ground rules has evolved as a result of this criterion. Being able to link the practice to the theory has created a wider understanding of the beneficial nature of the use of ground rules but this has boosted confidence in the ability of participants to reflect upon their practice and to action plan for future sessions on management issues. Feedback from the management team endorsed the strengthened approach.

Selecting appropriate materials from the range available

Regular discussions took place concerning the existence, flexibility and location of resources which resulted in a greater degree of awareness, saving time and repetition. Through the interactive sessions, resources could be seen in a more flexible light. Access was discussed as well as the potential to use the resources away from their intended use,
creating an increase in access/use of technology in non-IT classrooms and the use of a wider range of options to aid personalisation and differentiation.

In sharing resources, with management approval, the organisation was able to benefit and improve the welfare of their staff through enabling a more realistic work-life balance. Suggestions were also made that participants might seek further authority to develop, update and contextualise existing resources, documents and systems in order to widen their use across the organisation.

**Contributing to organisational quality procedures**

There was positive feedback from all CTLLS participants with regard to organisational quality assurance activities. There was full involvement in activities in which participants were able question the origins of a particular practice or process, clarifying why something is done - or even establishing that fact that some processes could not, currently, be fully substantiated. Ensuring the full integration of all staff will help to maximise development potential, complementing the induction process and standardising practice across the organisation.

**Engaging in continuing professional development**

CPD is required by the new regulations; it being deemed critical that reflection and evaluation is embedded in the practice of all teachers and trainers but these skills can be beyond the reach of new trainers or established trainers with little experience of the techniques. Having access to a professional teacher training tutor has provided an opportunity for clarification of some issues related to critical reflection and evaluation.

**Communication**

One of the main benefits to course participants came through the delivery method of this programme. The “action development group” style with wide reflective activities has stimulated some unexpected benefits such as; the potential for strengthened links between departmental/regional representatives – participants within the organisation often knew each other only by name and were subsequently able to develop strong working relationships through team-based activities and research projects; with the organisational codes of practice featuring strongly in discussions and influencing decisions.

The results of improved communication between departments meant that resources, commonly used within one department, were discussed, compared and exchanged. It was suggested that future resources would be collated and ‘peer assessed’, whereby effective and detailed feedback will be given by tutors. This would widen the available resources and improve cross-organisation communication.

The improvement in communication impacts upon response times - from ‘grass roots’ level, to strategic plans. Discussions, comparisons and a wider spectrum of experience help to embed newly implemented processes, and key plans.

**Initial Assessment Skills**

A better understanding of how initial assessment is carried out with learners to inform planning, has shown some immediate benefits. Participants now fully appreciate their part in the whole process; they have the confidence to question the ability and level of a learner as well as being able to refer to peers and support staff for more specific
advice and guidance. This responds appropriately to the Ofsted ‘Study Visit Feedback’, which aims to identify regular gaps in providing learners with adequate progress reviews.

**Confidence**

One key factor that arose was the development of more confidence in teaching & training amongst the CTLLS participants. This impacted in two ways: not only were they more confident in their own teaching and training abilities, as would be expected in any good ITT programme but the style of the sessions helped develop confidence in questioning and challenging organisational practices. They had ‘inherited’ activities and scheme plans from previous staff and needed to realise their own potential to improve their delivery. Improving trainer confidence will impact upon planning for future delivery and provides the opportunity to discuss the ideology behind the implementation of previous policies. Increased confidence and a greater involvement in planning will help trainers to justify procedures during inspection.

**Other minor areas of development and improvement**

Increased awareness in functional skills and learning preferences has given an understanding to trainers whereby they have been able to assist administrative staff when faced with learners who lacked basic communication skills. Discussions have identified cross-organisational opportunities for supporting learners with skills gaps.

Activities included in the equality and diversity unit stimulated the group to approach the equality and diversity leaders and suggest ways of improving processes.

**The unforeseen impact on trainers developing teaching skills and knowledge**

This impact has been a regular occurrence throughout both the courses yet is not easily identified as a specific outcome. It has been regularly acknowledged that newly-acquired, generic teaching and learning skills can give a level of confidence that allows participants to progress better through CPD. Some responses have occurred as a result of planned activities and are included within the overarching standards. Examples of unexpected personal development gained through informal feedback were recorded for this case study. Some of the comments were investigated further to clarify the positive response of the participants in recognising the benefits to their work and acknowledging the enrichment that these experiences brought to their professional life.

Specific questions were introduced during one-to-one sessions, during which staff members were asked to identify key learning issues and the wider impact of participation. Repeatedly, teaching skills and knowledge which had not been considered necessary or useful before the course, were highly valued after they had been acquired and understood.

**Organisations and trainers in the study**

The training organisations in the study comprised all but one of those involved in the programme and all but two of those groups listed in Appendix C. They were all regional or national WBL providers delivering a range of funded programmes and working with leading employers. They offer a wide array of programmes including; Apprenticeships, Advanced Apprenticeships, NVQ’s, Train to Gain and Entry to Employment covering some 20 employment sectors.
The programme participants covered a wide range from new trainers to those with many years of experience. None had formal teaching qualifications although a small percentage had some basic training qualifications. A high percentage had the minimum UK qualification for assessing vocational qualifications.

Continuing research and case study work

We plan to extend the research to all programme participants and ‘new starts’, in order to cover a wider range of organisations who provide programmes including apprenticeships, adult training in employers, re-engagement of the unemployed etc. Questionnaires for: participants, course tutors and senior staff in the trainers’ employer will be refined and extended to provide a more extensive and objective view of quality improvement benefits.

Notes:
1. The Table includes participants in PTLLS and CTLLS at levels 3 & 4.
2. The Table includes only those participants who were or should have been on the programme at the expected completion or external moderation date.
3. ”Did not finish” includes those who moved job or left their employer.
4. ”Ongoing” are those who had not completed their assignments at the last external moderation visit.
5. Registrations since 22/06/2009 are not included

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONS ASKED OF PARTICIPANTS ON CTLLS COURSE

▪ What added benefits do you think you gained from attendance on the CTLLS programme?
Responses included: Increased professional confidence; the knowledge that current or accepted practices might be challenged or changed; the awareness that not all resources are appropriate for all learners
▪ How were your expectations met/exceeded by what you have learnt on the CTLLS course?
Responses included: Surprise at the relevance of teaching theory in relation to all areas of professional practice; the amount of psychology used in classroom management and group development exceeded expectations and helped a great deal in day-to-day teaching situations
▪ What changes in personal approaches to teaching have you experienced?
Responses included: Increased acknowledgement of the benefits of establishing ground rules on a number of levels; a more pragmatic approach to planning courses, allowing integration and substitution rather than repetition

APPENDIX B

GROUP DISCUSSION TOPICS
A whole organisation approach to supporting learners – both in centre and in the workplace
Developing and updating Equal Opportunities approaches - questioning the use of information and clarifying issues of responsibility
Resources development – sharing and reviewing available resources and contextualising to own vocational area
Planning schemes of work which integrate other subject areas and cross vocational boundaries
Issues of functional skill development in individuals and groups of learners – covering literacy and numeracy etc.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
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Self-assessment of organisations and professionals as a road towards quality.

Introduction

In the Excellence model of the European Foundation for Quality Management the word quality is not mentioned at all. The reason is as simple as this: Quality is universal and omnipresent; everything has quality, quality is everything. So the normal question would be: What quality? Whose quality? And: Quality for whom? It makes much more sense to talk about concrete aims referring to specific stakeholders, strategies for achieving them, people, partners, resources and relationships to implement them, processes serving to support them, results, impacts. Why talk about quality? Talking about quality normally intends to agree on methods or a whole system of how to measure and monitor the conditions of its production as well as the results of this production process. Service also is a production process. Person-related services like teaching and curing or caring for people are special processes, because their core activity consists in a co-production between the provider and the customer of the service. For learning, this means that the learner is the actual producer of the result, hopefully an enhanced capacity of controlling his or her reality of work or life, in one word, competence. The teacher can only offer his or her knowledge and try to facilitate learning by creating favourable conditions of learning. And the management of an educational or training organisation (ETO) can only comply with its most elementary task of creating favourable teaching and learning conditions. Measuring impact, i.e. the effect of a learning process in a practical environment, is very difficult as establishing causal relationships between a concrete learning process and specific action in a particular context frequently is very complicated.

Since its beginnings in the 1940s, systematic quality management has gone through, roughly speaking, three phases: a first phase of quality testing after production, a second phase of controlling the production process of quality from design and development to delivery or shipping, finally the third and present phase, where the attention is focussing on the quality of the whole organisation or, said differently, the step from quality management to the quality of management. In education, during the second phase, along with interpretations of quality management (ISO 9001), evaluating processes and results became the state of the art converging eventually in the third phase with holistic approaches like EFQM or branch-specific interpretations of it. One could also interpret this third and ongoing phase as the process of professionalisation of management in educational or training organisations. This paper will present two ways of supporting and reinforcing this process on the organisational level and on the level of the core process of ETOs, i.e. teaching and learning.

Quality of organisations

As a researcher and consultant in evaluation and quality processes, I hardly ever ask for quality. We always talk about: What do you want to achieve? How do you want to achieve it? What have you achieved? When I support an educational or training
organisation (ETO) in the implementation of a quality system, we always start with a stakeholder analysis.

The 5 Satisfactions

![Diagram showing the 5 satisfactions: Investors, External customers, Community of performance, Partners, Workforce, Societal/natural environment]

Each organisation has five stakeholders: investors, customers, employees, partners and the natural and social environment. Investors are those persons or institutions who initially or continually provide support in terms of capital, time, influence, ideas, etc. External customers (as opposed to the internal chain of suppliers and customers) are in the first place the learners, especially for further education there are often companies or institutions who pay for the students; there might also be the regional labour market or the public in general as a third possible ‘customer’. All those who have a labour contract with the organisation form the workforce. Partners are all those who deliver something which becomes part of the product or service of the organisation; in ETOs contracted teachers, trainers, instructors may be the most important group, but also all those who supply appliances and materials. The environment finally provides the institute with laws, regulations, public expectations, values, etc.; it includes also the values the organisation itself may want to be respected (vision).

A stakeholder analysis consists in three steps; in a first step, the responsible people of an ETO identify who these five groups are for them, with names to them; the second step leads to a ranking of importance within each group of stakeholders; the third step then asks what each of the most important stakeholders in each group expects from the organisation, or, in other words, what the organisation would have to do for satisfying the expectations of each of these stakeholders, taking into account the specific relationships among these stakeholders (mission, policy and strategy). Another tool (customer supplier analysis, see Franz/Sarcina 2009: 206) linking directly to the stakeholder analysis, supports a more thorough analysis of tasks and of degrees of fulfilment. But it is not always used in the first approach.
In sociological terms, quality is a construct, a contract and a process. After this first analytical approach which has constructed the organisation’s own view of its responsibility for fulfilling the written and unwritten contracts with its stakeholders, the question is whether all conditions and processes are in place to achieve the aims and purposes attached to each of the relevant stakeholders, i.e. the people and skills, the technical and material resources and the partners who with their products and services contribute to the institute’s performance. The following step reviews the processes and asks whether all required processes of an ETO are duly identified and structured, the fundamental and central processes of an ETO being the teaching and learning process and the handling of the learners and their data from their first contact to their final certificate or attendance confirmation. Here is where professional experience and the corresponding state of the art become part of the picture. With these three steps we have introduced the relevant people of an ETO in a very practical way into the Excellence model of the European Foundation for Quality Management (cf. the model graph) without ever talking about quality in general.

Figure 2
Quality criteria for organisations

The first five criteria (from left to right), the so-called enabling elements, constitute the set of aims, methods and instruments which a professional management and workforce of an ETO have at hand in order to influence their performance level. The four following criteria are the results and the way of measuring them, external and/or self-established indicators of success specifying the degree of goal attainment. The whole model shows very well that it represents a permanently installed evaluation and self-evaluation cycle leading to a revolving system of learning and improvement (or innovation), in other words, towards the development of a learning organisation. More than this, it provides systematic support for a more professional management of whatever type of organisation. This is of utmost relevance for the great majority of educational and training institutions just as well as for the great majority of other small enterprises in particular, as their management normally does not consist of
people who have gone through corresponding management studies or trainee phases but mostly have come to their responsibility as entrepreneurs or technical experts and recognised performers of their technical functions, i.e. mostly teaching in an ETO. However, organising and leading, i.e. managing an organisation requires much more than being a good expert and being recognised for it. If they also want to be successful as managers of an ETO they need a more comprehensive idea of how an organisation works. The EFQM Excellence model is such a comprehensive concept providing a catalogue of questions asking for the organisation’s own capacity of agreeing on aims, strategies, people, partners, resources and processes as well as for the self-assessment of all results achieved. It does not prescribe what exactly has to be done, it asks for the way how an organisation has defined and implemented it own raison d’être. And, what is even more important, it does not expect you to be perfect but is expressively designed as a model of learning and improvement.

Self-assessment and improvement

The central developmental medium and motor of this management model is self-assessment in regular intervals. Why and how will be described in more detail. Self-assessment can be applied on two levels,

• firstly on the level of the organisation, the whole organisation or parts of it regarding certain aspects,
• secondly on the level of the individual or collective performance concerning the design and planning, realisation and results of specific courses, training measures or learning events.

For both levels, the following chapters will offer tools and experiences. Self-assessment, as opposed to external assessment, has a number of decisive advantages.

• Since self-assessment does not immediately expose an organisation and its people to the pressure of success as it is built up by external testing or auditing for certification, it is much easier for an organisation to be honest regarding its own state of affairs and to admit critical results, because the immediate aim of self-assessment is improvement, not winning a label.
• Self-assessment usually encourages broader participation, actually asks for it, while external assessment often, from a success-oriented management point of view, asks for controlling the production of assessment results and, thus, incites to exclusion processes.
• Self-assessment plus improvement help to build self-consciousness and self-trust in an organisation which eventually also may lead to the decision to expose the organisation to an external assessment and to obtain a certification or some label.
• Self-assessment is an active way of developing communities of practice in an organisation towards becoming a community of performance (cf. Franz/Sarcina 2009: 49).
• Self-assessment is a way of building social capital (Franz/Sarcina 2009: 71)

Of course, self-assessment is not yet the improvement but only its basis, the identification and detection of learning and improvement potential. A lot of critical issues turning up in the course of a self-assessment process can be tackled immediately; others need a more thorough analysis and may lead to improvement suggestions and projects or other actions. In fact, the most important characteristic of self-assessment is the more intense and focussed communication and joint occupation of more, if not all people in an
organisation concerning their work and conditions of work. In doing so, they exchange their views and come to terms of what they define as their commonly agreed standards of doing things. In this process, they develop a common language of co-operation with shared mental models. As self-assessment is repeated in regular intervals, even those who do not want to share agreed solutions or procedures will co-operate more willingly as the occasion of empirical, evidence-based assessment will arrive and allow for correction and improvement. Anyway, improvement projects will always fix terms of validity of an agreement regarding its duration and the measurement of success. Thus, much futile conflict can be avoided as common experience will create evidence of what is the better or best solution. Consequently, such processes not only create a common language of co-operation but also a common language of conflict which is usually much more respectful than in a culture of rumours and distrust. As a result, the forces of self-organisation are strengthened and a more professional way of looking at and dealing with managerial issues is growing over time. In other words, the quality of the organisation will be enhanced; it will be developing towards becoming a community of performance.

**SAETO – Self-Assessment for Educational and Training Organisations**

This process of self-assessment with regard to the whole organisation and its management can be greatly facilitated by dedicated software-based tools. I have been an active partner in several projects funded by the EU Life-long Learning programme Leonardo da Vinci, where such tools have been developed and adapted to the specific needs of educational and training organisations in a number of countries. Based on a questionnaire generator and statistical analysis engine called GOA WorkBench, the SAETO self-assessment tools provide question catalogues based on the EFQM Excellence model on three levels of complexity.

- The basic tool asks some 80 questions and offers a simple and greatly reduced view of an organisation. It can be answered in one day and covers the needs of small education and training providers, about 70 to 80 per cent of all providers. It is free of cost.
- The advanced tool consists of a catalogue of around 150 questions offering a more detailed mirror of the organisational reality. Here self-assessment may take up to a day per enabler criterion. It can be used in a computer network, i.e. spread the questions, collect answers anonymously and provide a centralised analysis of the gathered data.
- The full assessment tool reproduces the complete EFQM model of some 230 questions and requires a longer and more complex process depending very much on the concrete organisation and its structure and culture of communication.

All questions are already adapted in a general way to the conditions of ETOs Dalluege/Franz). In a certain way, we have produced a branch version of EFQM for education. Nevertheless, from the advanced tool upwards the users receive the full administration rights and can change the formulation of all questions. In this way, each organisation can adapt the self-assessment to its own wording and specifications remaining, of course, linked to the original order foreseen by the EFQM Excellence model.

This advanced version (and higher) also indicates for all questions to which criterion or sub-criterion of the ISO 9001 model it is corresponding. Thus, users who quote certain documents for proving that they comply with the EFQM criteria, at the same time build a quality management manual which is fit for being used in ISO 9001 certification
audits and processes. Large training providers who work for international markets will need this “translation” function.

Several support tools enhance the practical applicability of the self-assessment software. They facilitate the implementation of the improvement suggestions made during the self-assessment and gathered with the SAETO tools. They support customer and employee satisfaction surveys. A special tool supports a satisfaction survey among the companies who send their apprentices to the public vocational schools.

Currently, two further EU-funded Leonardo projects are developing and transferring the product. Trans SAETO improves the learning modules accompanying the self-assessment tools and will offer them via the web, along with implementing self-assessment for the whole education system of Liechtenstein. It also transfers the results to Austria and Slovenia. TI-SAETO, the second project, transfers the results to Turkey, Latvia and Belgium. The whole project family is accessible via www.saeto.eu.

Quality of teaching and learning

The quality of teaching and learning has two masters, the teacher and the learner. The decisive result is depending on the learner as he or she, his or her brain, is the system which selects, adopts and accepts (or not) according to its own interest, psychical and physical situation what the teacher offers. Logically, the quality of learning is the result of a co-production process. The teacher can only offer his or her knowledge and try to create a situation of learning in which the learner can easily adopt what is offered to him or her. Providing a concise formula, one could say: Good teaching consists in making learning easy. This formula is not an absolution to bad teachers, it is by no means an acquittal, quite on the contrary, it describes the responsibility of the teacher and, hence, of the teaching organisation.

Above we have described one possible way of how a teaching organisation can become a learning organisation. Any organisation can become a learning organisation. This is the general aim of the EFQM Excellence model. But the deeper purpose of our considerations is to find out how a learning organisation offering teaching can make learning easier to its clients. This must be the overarching organisational objective of any ETO.

Creating the personal, organisational and material conditions for achieving this objective is the main and characteristic purpose of organisations dealing with education and training and logically of their management, management understood in its double meaning, as direction and as the common responsibility of all those who responsibly contribute to this purpose. It is the object of several EFQM criteria:

- The criterion People asks for identifying in detail how this aim can be reached by employing the right people in the right conditions (recruitment, employment, development, team spirit etc.). Here also ethical criteria may apply such as gender, age, ethnicity, handicaps, etc.
- The criterion Partners and Resources is of crucial importance for ETOs as many, if not most of them have a relatively small staff in terms of employment but a large halo of contracted teaching “staff”. Criteria for selecting this teaching personnel, reasonable selection procedures, creating good and pleasant conditions of co-operation with them, offering them the best possible support in terms of information, administration, procedural routines, rooms, equipment and materials, is of utmost significance for the overall aim of making teaching easy for making learning as easy as possible.
• The criterion Processes, finally, asks for the identification and definition of all relevant processes, of which the teaching process is the most important one, according to measurement criteria of effectiveness and efficiency.

If it is true that the teaching process is the most important one in an educational or training organisation, it is necessary to mention that within this responsibility of the organisation there is the inalienable, personal and professional responsibility of the teachers of making learning as easy as possible. The two main customers of an ETO are the learners and, if they are not the payers of the course, the state, the labour agency, the company or whoever else may pay for it. The paying customer has a contract with the organisation; the learner, in any case, has a double contract, a formal or informal one with the organisation and an informal one with the teacher/s. Therefore, we have a triangle contract situation, and the success of its outcome is immediately depending on the productive co-operation of all three of them. The organisation must provide a service to the learner and to the teacher; the teacher must keep the promise of the formal contract as well as the personal promise of being professionally able to be a good teacher. Nevertheless, the overall formal responsibility is with the organisation.

If this is true, it is within the responsibility of the organisations to offer the teachers a procedure of how to control and warrant their personal professional promise keeping, i.e. their unwritten contract with the learner and their written contract with the organisation. Offering such a procedure includes an initial decision on checking or enabling, control or trust. As in the case of the organisation, our vote goes for the option of enabling or trust. And again self-assessment is the first choice as it combines enabling in the first place without excluding checking. The English word control in its double meaning of steering and checking is the clue for a self-assessment solution. Therefore, we have created a tool for the self-assessment of teachers who design and/or plan and/or carry out any type of teaching and who want to or should check the results of this process.

**PlanEval**

The tool called PlanEval combines the steering with the checking. It provides a full catalogue of questions regarding four phases:
• strategy, with a number of questions concerning the market, potential partners, conditions and evaluation methods to be employed
• planning and design, with questions asking for the contents and methods of teaching, the resources needed and available, the evaluation procedures and the marketing
• implementation, i.e. the teaching and learning process, and monitoring, with questions regarding the ongoing adaptation of the process to known and newly turned up conditions and situations of the learning process
• results and impacts, with questions asking for the effectiveness of the learning with respect to the context conditions, the starting conditions of the learners, the contents, the methods, the pace, all this from the teacher’s point of view as well as from the learners’ perspective (based on satisfaction surveys reflecting all these issues), for the impact if observed or observable in some way, and for the efficiency of the respective course or event in financial terms. The result of learning is an enhanced control of reality (work, task, function) in the context for which the learning has been provided, i.e. improved competence.
Such an instrument will support teacher beginners in learning to plan a complete cycle and control all relevant framework conditions including their own personal ones. It will equally help the experienced teacher to overcome deficient routines under new or changing framework conditions. And it will finally support the management or groups of teachers to plan and develop new training offers or study courses and to monitor the first realisations till they have become a normal recognised routine. Also here the self-assessment scale goes from 0 to 4 (zero for not relevant), and the tool equally asks for qualitative notes on shortcomings, improvement possibilities and learning as well as documenting the process. A statistical function allows for immediate checks of the values reached at any time in the process. Of course, the tool also can provide full reporting on all qualitative notes entered during the process. So, over time, the tool as a whole will provide an empirical basis for a critical professional self-esteem which will find its expression in the esteem of the others, by the learners as well as by the peers.

Conclusions

Education and training are specific processes of service and production at the same time. This production process of learning is characterised by independent and naturally differing constructs of quality of the learner, the teacher and the ‘teaching organisation’. These three partners are in a triangle contract situation in which the organisation has a formal service contract with the learner or the entity delegating him or her to learning and paying for it, and a formal service contract or a service-oriented employment contract with the teacher. The teacher has an informal service and production contract with the learner, service in terms of creating a learner-friendly learning situation and using learning-friendly methods, a production process in terms of offering his knowledge and expertise for the joint process of learning. But learning is an exclusive activity of the learner and functions only with his or her active consent and cooperation. Therefore, the success of this teaching and learning process in terms of the production of new knowledge and competence in the learner depends on the active cooperation of teacher and learner in a context created by the organisation and the teacher. The customer is the co-producer of the result and its quality. As in caring and curing (and other person-related services like wellness etc.), this is the specific characteristic of teaching and learning processes and situations.

The EFQM Excellence model is the most comprehensive and holistic system providing a management system for a learning organisation rather than a quality management system. In this model regular self-assessment and improvement are the main systemic mechanisms requiring the participation of all parts of the organisation. If it is true that learning is a co-production process, also a learning organisation and innovation system as the Excellence model postulates to be, needs the consent and active participation of the learners, i.e. management and employees in the context of their stakeholder construct, for its own development. In practicing this system they develop from mere communities of practice to a community of performance. Learning itself is/becomes a process of improvement and self-improvement.

This developmental process could also be described and analysed as a process of competence development of an organisation as well as of each of its members, that is to say, as the self-sustained development of an organisation towards a higher degree of managerial competence and responsibility with regard to satisfying the needs of the organisation’s stakeholders and as the development of professionalization for good
teaching as well as for good management. Learners are the core stakeholder of a teaching organisation, and teaching is the core process of an educational and training organisation. We have presented two tools which are able to support and facilitate this process, to make learning and improvement easier, one on the organisational level, the other one on the personal and interpersonal levels. As always, it all depends on what use is made of them, whether they are perceived as an opportunity for improvement and self-improvement or just another administrative control mechanism. The difference is made by trust.

References
Educating the Adult Educators: Implementation and Evaluation of the first National Adult Educators Education Program in Greece.

The development of adult education and educators’ education in Greece

A periodical analysis to study the development of adult education in Greece has been attempted in several studies (Karalis & Kokkos 2008; Karalis 2005) based on the periodic levels of development and special characteristics of the field. We will shortly refer to those periods emphasizing adult educators’ education.

The appearance of first activities: End of 19th century – end of 1950s

We could briefly state that until the end of the fifties there are no records about the need for educating adult educators as adult education itself is considered substantially as a mere extension of primary education aiming to combat illiteracy. During the sixties and seventies a number of activities were developed by a small number of institutions, and therefore some first references on the role of adult educators can be traced. But there are still no systematic references to the need of a structured education of educators.

The evolution of Adult Education in Greece: Beginning of the 1980s – end of the 1990s

During this period many changes taking place contributed both in the quantitative, but also, in a certain degree, in the qualitative growth of the field of adult education in Greece. Those developments are to a great degree due to the important surge of Community funds, but also in the support of the State to several institutions and organizations, mainly via legislative regulations. The milestones of this process in relation to the issue of the education of adult educators are the following:

1. The reorganization of the Network of Popular Education (that has been upgraded to General Secretariat in 1983) and the reorientation of its activities (mainly towards the structured learning groups). This led Popular Education to become the most extensive network of adult education in the country. In this frame several, mainly short term programs are organized for educating the educators, while for the first time the need for educating the educators is clearly expressed, in the evaluation study of Demounter, Varnava – Skoura & Vergidis (1984) and in the study of A. Kokkos (1987).

2. In the same period other institutions, such as the Hellenic Centre for Productivity (ELKEPA), the National Bank, the National Centre for Public Administration and Local Government, the Hellenic Banking Institute, the Hellenic Association for Administration of Enterprises, the University of Patras, the Labour Institute of Trade Union of Greece, as well as a small number of Vocational Training Centres (KEK), implement Training of Trainers programmes.

3. We should as well mention here, the growth and academic recognition of Adult Education in our country that took place at the beginning of the 90s, but also the
foundation and operation of the Hellenic Open University that contributed in the recognition of distance learning as an appropriate, valid and effective form of education.

4. The need for a systematic education of educators is addressed in the European Commission decisions for all the three Community Support Frameworks (CSF). In 1997 the National Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training (EKEPIS) was founded. The qualitative upgrade of the continuing vocational training system revealed the next necessary intervention; the Education of Educators.

In brief, during this period the demands for the educators’ education matured as different sources (executives of institutions, researchers, national and Community bodies) stressed the need for upgrading the qualifications, education and accreditation of adult educators. In this time frame, the first training for trainers programs mentioned above are organised, however, these interventions were fragmentary and limited in the implementing institutions. The demand of an intervention in national scale is still imperative in the end of this period, being now more important and mature than ever.

The development of the first National Adult Educators’ Education Program

The call for proposals

Given the above mentioned circumstances, namely lack of an education and accreditation system for the Training of the Trainers of Vocational Training and the relative provisions of the National Action Plan, the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance launched the call for proposals in 2002 for the “Development of a methodology and training material for the education of educators” (call 2/2002). The completion of two preparatory studies that EKEPIS assigned to an external expert preceded the call. The two studies developed by D. Vergidis (2002a; 2002b) are: “Study on the content specifications for the program of education of educators” and “Study on the determination of the profile of the initial team that will train the trainers of trainers and the profiles of the trainers per category”.

In the call for proposals two major difficulties of this intervention were highlighted: the extremely high number of educators (estimated to 10.000) and the difficulty the educators had to overcome in order to participate in a conventional 300 hours program, as the majority of them were employed. For these reasons, the specifications of the program anticipated that the education of the first 250 adult educators, as well as the education of the remaining of them, should be based on a mixed method of delivery (face to face, assignments and distant learning). The distribution of training hours was planned accordingly (225 training hours distant and the remaining 75 in meetings).

The project included:
(a) a study for the exploration of trainees’ level of knowledge and skills
(b) the development of the methodology and the specifications of the training for trainers programs,
(c) the development of educational material for the training of trainers,
(d) the training and accreditation of the first 250 educators, who would later undertake the education of all educators included at the EKEPIS register.

An International Open Call for Tenders has been announced and the project has been awarded to a partnership constituted by the following institutions:
The objectives of the Program, as already mentioned, were to upgrade the profile, knowledge and skills of the Vocational Training Trainers, based on the principles of Adult Education and on practices that can increase the efficiency of the modern adult trainer in his exigent mission accordingly. Active participation and respect of adult educators, educators’ commitment for the achievement of the objectives set by the participants, cooperative and critical spirit, substantial communication and spirit of initiative were the leading principles for the Education of Educators and they have determined the implementation strategy that was based mainly on experiential approaches and on the fulfilment of participants’ needs.

The educational material

As it has been pre-mentioned, the Program was implemented with a mixed method and the educational material used was not simply assisting the work done in classroom, but was a constituent element of the learning process itself. In order to develop a highly interactive training material, the experience for the development of the Hellenic Open University material and the principles of adult education were exploited. Factors supporting the interaction between trainees and training material, apart from the writing style that should be clear, friendly, simple but not simplistic, are those creating a ‘dialogue’ between material and trainee, for example:

- Use of shapes, diagrams, examples.
- Use of orientation notes (aim, expected results, key-words, introductive comments).
- Exercises and practical applications, for the majority of which answers are given in the end of each chapter and feedback to the trainees.
- Use of abstracts and additional notes (synopsis, reference to other books, annexes with additional material).

The chapters of the printed educational material were:
1. Socio-economic and cultural dimensions of adult education
2. Theories of learning and adults learning
3. Characteristics of adult learners and conditions for an effective learning
4. The inaugural meeting
5. Educational techniques
6. Educational techniques per thematic field
7. Educational techniques for vulnerable social groups
8. Educational equipment and space
9. Planning of an educational unit
10. The practical exercise
11. The role of the educator for the connection of vocational training and employment
12. Utilising the group dynamics in the educational process
13. Evaluation of the educational work
14. The role of the “new” adult educator

The importance given to the individual chapters resulted from the trainee’s needs, as those were recorded in the relative study.
It was as well foreseen to provide trainees with three extra books, from the international bibliography, translated in Greek. These books were however incorporated to the overall educational material throughout quotations in the individual units. The printed material was accompanied by videotapes and DVD's, that were not only related to the general educational material but constituted part of the practical exercises as well. Microteaching sessions and material related to other topics such as group dynamics were included in the audiovisual tools.

Thus, with the term educational material in the Program we mean the following:
- Specially created original and interactive printed material (1,000 pages).
- Three specifically selected books (750 pages).
- Study guidelines and manuals for the trainers and the trainees (100 pages).
- Audiovisual material (more than two hours).
- Additional CD-ROM with reference materials and all the educational material in electronic form.
- Practical exercises material for the educators (400 pages).

We would like to point out that the study of all these material was not compulsory for all the trainees. It was foreseen that each adult educator should study the chapters relevant to him according to his experience and level of and specialisation. In this way, every hour of distant training corresponded to the study of almost three pages. 29 writers and 3 critical readers participated in the development of the training material, while the scientific responsible of the program edited the final outcome.

**Written exercises**

During the implementation of the Program and in defined times, the trainees had to produce three written exercises. These exercises were a vital part of the Program as their subjects were directly connected with each phase of the program. The exercises served concrete objectives of the Program such as the development of critical reflection in relation to trainers’ practice and the preparation of the microteaching sessions.

Analytically:
- The first exercise was related to the reflection on some of the microteaching sessions included in the audiovisual material. The trainees after studying the chapters about the educational techniques were asked to evaluate the videotaped microteaching sessions.
- For the second exercise, trainees were asked to reflect upon their first exercise and the comments of their educator, but at the same time to diagnose their lacks, developing their personal plan for the continuity of the Program. At the same time the aim was to develop participants’ critical reflection on their assumptions, based on which they had shaped their first exercise.
- The third exercise essentially concerned the design of a microteaching session, which they would perform during the last meeting.

This way the exercises were not isolated from the development of the Program, neither were theoretical or abstract; they aimed at the development of critical reflection skills and attitudes and at the constant repositioning of the educated educators in relation to the new program elements. It should be highlighted that an important function of the exercises was the written feedback sent by the educator to the trainees and the discussion in working groups on the different topics, during the face to face meetings.
Finally, we should mention that even if the completion of the exercises was an evaluation asset, emphasis was set mainly upon their pedagogical value.

**Face to face meetings**

One of the structural elements of the Program were the four face to face meetings (75 training hours) during which emphasis was given at the elaboration of various parts of the educational material and at the development of skills, and the cultivation of attitudes related to the role and practice of the adult educator. The content of all the meetings was developed in relation to the Program aims and it was included in the educator’s manual. The meetings were carried out every about 1.5 month during weekends and lasted for 15-20 hours. The first meeting aimed basically at the setting of the group, knowing each other, establish the educational contract, introduce the logic of the Program. The next two meetings were focused in the conduct of pilot microteaching sessions by the trainees, while the last meeting was dedicated in the performance of the final microteaching session. It should also be mentioned that every meeting had pre-arranged time for:
- Study the themes of the exercises.
- Discussions for both the Program and the trainees’ progress.
- Analysis of critical points of the educational material.
- Comment on the microteaching examples in working groups.

**Microteaching**

Microteaching is among the most efficient tools for educating educators and is used in various training for trainers frames, accordingly adapted to the aims of the different programs. Microteaching is one of the basic elements for the training and accreditation of trainers in most of the European countries. In this particular program the final microteaching (20 hours), was substantially a micrograph of an educational unit, and was also the basic element for the evaluation and the accreditation of the trainees. The trainers were considered to have successfully completed the Program when they could manage a record of at least C, in an A to D scale. The evaluation was done by the educator of the group based on an evaluation grid and afterwards the videotaped microteachings were given to another Educator for a “blind evaluation” in order to ensure the transparency of the process.

However even when microteaching was used as an evaluation asset, emphasis was still put on its educational value: in the final meeting, trainees in working groups analyzed all microteaching sessions, and in collaboration with the educators, identified the points in which they could improve. The objective was to decrease - the justified - stress of the trainees in view of their accreditation process and to use all the meetings for the improvement of their practices. However, this element of the Program was only valid for the first 250 educators of adult educators. Even if the adjustments made later by the State disturbed this function of the microteaching, they accentuated its evaluation dimension. It must however be pointed out that thanks to the efforts of the 250 educators, as well as the trainees themselves, microteachings functioned to a great degree positively, giving the opportunity to the educators to use participative educational techniques and develop their interventions taking into consideration the needs and the interests of their trainees.
**Role and contribution of the Educators of Educators**

The educators of educators were the most important and crucial factor for the achievement of the objectives and the smooth flow of the Program, and finally the basic lever for the transformation of the trainees attitudes. We will attempt to mention the basic elements of the educators’ role:

For the distant training program, the role of the educators was similar to those of the tutors of the Hellenic Open University, focusing mainly at giving feedback to the trainees during the implementation of their exercises, encouraging them to complete the program and support them for a fruitful study of the training material. However, their role was of a critical importance during the face to face meetings. In these meetings the educator had the role of facilitator and mentor so that the trainees could develop a positive attitude towards the program and at the same time to create a safe environment where active participation could flourish.

Through the educators, referring here both to the initial 13 and the following 250, it was possible to change the initially negative attitudes and predispositions of the educated educators. Given that we do not refer here to inexperienced educators, but to trainers having in some cases, vast and long experience, it was expected to meet with objections and prejudices concerning the reasons of their participation to the program and the benefit that they could acquire from this. Overcoming this, justified in a certain extent, negative attitude was one of the basic concerns in the planning of the program. The initial team of 13 educators worked systematically on this question, in order that the objections of the educated educators were taken into consideration in a creative approach for the achievement of the objectives both of the program itself and the educators.

The first phase of the program, education of the first 250 adult educators, was completed by the end of June 2003. Even if the time frame was extremely tight the evaluation results were very encouraging both for this first phase but also for the second expanded phase. As it results from relative data (Karalis, 2003) the educators of adult educators came up with an average score, raising between 3,4 – 3,8 (in scale 0-4), in the individual elements of the first phase of the program (sufficiency of meetings, evaluation of the 13 educators, educational material).

**The implementation and evaluation of the program**

The second phase of the program, implementation at national level, started in June 2006. Following a call for tenders Vocational Training Centers were awarded with 500 programs for the training of 8.000 adult educators. The substantial delay of the responsible State agencies, between the completion of the first phase (2003) and the generalized implementation of the program (2006) was an unfavourable development for the smooth implementation of this innovative action. Also the lack of concern and plan for the evaluation of this particularly innovative project from the side of the responsible government services, led the Program development team to organise without any governmental contribution or support, the evaluation of the National implementation of the program.

The evaluation was based on CIPP (Context, Input, Process, Product) evaluation model, that is worldwide recognised as one of the most suitable for the evaluation of educational programs (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). A questionnaire, that was answered by a random sample of 386 educated educators was selected as a research
technique. The results of the evaluation were published in a special volume of the Hellenic Adult Education Association (Kokkos & collaborators, 2008). Brief, basic outputs of the evaluation of the implementation of the program at National level are presented.

Some questions were aimed to investigate the degree of satisfaction of the trainees in relation to various elements of the program. In all these questions the average score was 3,5 (in scale 0-4). Particularly positive is their opinion for the program (3,7), their opinion for the interest that it caused them (3,7), as well as for the usefulness that they consider it had for the exercise of their educational work. They were as well positive for the educational material (3,7) and theoretical content (3,7). Positive opinions were also expressed for the services of VTC training (secretarial-organisational support 3,8 and equipment 3,6). The chronological terms of the implementation of the program appeared to have created difficulties for the trainees, however not in an excessive degree (3,5). The final evaluation and the accreditation system that was institutionalized by the governmental institutions, had the lower average score (3,1), while the higher value (3,9) has the satisfaction from the work of the Educators of the Educators. This fact confirms what has been already mentioned, that the educators made great efforts and developed creative relations with the trainees.

In order to investigate the attitudes of the trainees, one and only question was selected: “How important is it (in the beginning of the program) or was (in the end of the program), for you, your attendance in the program of education of educators? “. The answers were given in a Likert type scale (“very important”, “enough”, “fairly”, “little”, “not important”). As it results from the answers given, in the beginning of the program those that considered “very important” their attendance were less than half (44,8%), however together with those that considered it “important enough”, constituted the big majority of the trainees (86,8%). In the end of the program, there had been a big increase in those that considered their attendance “very important” (57,8%), while in total those that declared “important enough” and “very important” reached a percentage of 88,1%.

Finally, combining the above mentioned data, with the know-how that the trained adult educators acquired (as this resulted from the scores of microteaching sessions and exercises), their classification in four levels was attempted. In the first level (“very satisfactory level”) is classified the 30,8%, in the next (“satisfactory level”) the 38,9%, while in the “satisfactory enough level” are found the 21,8%. Only an 8,5% is considered to be in a “not satisfactory level” towards the requirements of the role of adult educator.

**Concluding remarks**

In this paper, the main points of design and evaluation of the National Program of Education of Adult Educators were presented. This Program constitutes a mile stone in the historical development of Adult Education in Greece, as it was the first time that an intervention took place for the education of educators in national level.

Nevertheless, after the completion of the Program, various governmental institutions created their own registers of adult educators, for the register of which once again the follow-up of programs of education of educators is demanded. Instead of valorising the important experience of the National Program and use it as the basic form for the education and accreditation of adult educators in various frames, an endless repetition of it in various versions is attempted – which results in the waste of resources and the down rate of these energies. Consequently, what should be done is the utilisation of this Program as the core program not only for the educators of Continuous Vocational...
Training but in general for the education of Adult educators active in different institutions and types of programs.

References
Vergidis, D. (2002b). Study for the identification of the profile of the initial team of Educators that would educate the Adult trainers and for the profile of the trainers for every category. Patras: Laboratory of Continuing Education and Vocational Training of the University of Patras.
Quality measurement method for teacher's competences evaluation in adult DL education

Introduction

The difference between network distance education technology and traditional in-class one is that a subject of teaching (referred to as a student in the following) has access to only network electronic teaching materials and network means of communication with an object of teaching (referred to as a teacher in the following) [1,2]. The role of the teacher in the given educational system changes considerably in comparison with a traditional style of teaching. In the distance pedagogical system the teacher aims to create such electronic information-educational environment, which together with information communication means could provide opportunities for direction and self-direction of students’ learning-cognitive activity. It means that students, being objects of training effect, must transform to subjects with developed abilities for self-learning, who are willing to direct learning process themselves. In other words when using distance technologies the new paradigm of education is used: namely, the teacher does not transfer knowledge, but stimulate students to develop their own learning-cognitive activity [3, 4].

In contrast to a traditional educational institution (a college, university), where young people study in the main, adult training has to deal with people, whose social portrait drastically differs from the one of traditional students. Adult learners have different preceding educational background and different initial thesaurus. These differences of educational levels have to be considered when developing syllabuses, content of training and when choosing means and methods of network training.

Every adult student possesses individual personal values cultivated during the life; he/she has a certain professional and life experience. Adult students often have families to take care of, go in for hobbies and hold full-time jobs while continuing their education. Therefore motivating system and training methods for adult students need to be developed taking into account their individual particularities. Also it is necessary to consider the fact that every adult learner has gone back to “school” for own purpose (career, better jobs, improvement of work performance and etc.)

Many adults have the opinion that a theory is not necessary to know since the theory is one thing and the practice is quite another thing. This category of learners has no interest to the theory at all or episodic interest for mercantile reasons. An incorrectly developed training course, which abounds with theoretical questions without linking to the practice, can bring all educational efforts to nothing.

At the same time adult students are willing to test their knowledge in practice. They have an inclination to create their own learning models which authors and teachers of training courses need to take into account. An adult student is a practitioner who lives and works in the common information space, which can not be divided into learning and professional spheres.
Adults feel doubts in their strengths more often than young people. According to the result of our survey the number of students, who do not believe in their strengths, attains to 60 percents of questioned students. Mainly it corresponds to those people who obtained preceding education many years ago. They got out of the habit of learning according to time-schedule and taking classes. Frequently the best routine of training for them is an individual routine.

Traditional forms and methods of training (for example, university lectures) seem ineffective to adult students. Owning great practical experience adult learners do not want to go to lectures as passive students. They want to be involved in discussions, to analyze different practical aspects of their business, learn opinions of colleagues and the teacher.

Unlike traditional university pedagogic aimed at teaching young generation of students, pedagogic of teaching adults, termed andragogic, has specific character and introduces the following paradigm: “education not for all life, but through all life”, applying specific forms, methods of teaching and individual trajectory of training.

Despite the fact that distance learning is self-learning with a possibility for students to manage their own learning activities, the teacher does not lose leading positions in the learning process. His or her pedagogical functions acquire perfectly new forms and content. The teacher has to work in the educational environment, which is fundamentally different from the environment he or she is used to work in traditional in-class education.

In new conditions the teacher acts as a high qualified manager of the learning process, an organizer and an intermediary between new pedagogical environment and learners. The teacher’s professional activity acquires peculiar features and changes essentially in information-educational environment of distance learning. The teacher does not merely use already prepared information-educational environment but creates it developing particular educational sectors and introduces them into a common training field. It transforms functions of the teacher and changes the role and place of the teacher in the learning process.

Of course, in distance learning as well as in traditional in-class learning the teacher must demonstrate thorough knowledge of the subject, he or she teaches, and knowledge of structural and logic connections of the taught subject with adjacent area of knowledge. Besides in order to facilitate self-directed learning in the best way the teacher must:

- Have broad outlook on issues of application of information and communication technologies in education; have a clear idea of technologies, methods and organization forms of distance learning; know and apply pedagogical and psychological basics of distance learning.
- Be able to design and develop electronic textbooks on the basis of didactic and methodic requirements set to teaching materials designed for using in the Internet; know and apply technologies for developing network laboratory work and be able to use already existed works.
- Be able to apply various forms of interactive communication with students: virtual workshops, and videoconferences; conduct individual and group tutorials using network services.
- Be able to apply distance assessment techniques of knowledge and skills; organize assessment of learners' practical performances; develop tests and use special systems for computer testing.
- Know the methods of quality and efficiency assessment of network learning process and use them systematically in order to diagnose and improve own activities.

Electronic information-educational environment created by the teacher in the distance pedagogical system provides opportunities for students to direct their own learning-cognitive activity, determines principals of formation and development of students’ thesaurus and intellect that for its turn, determines a specialist's ability to be in professional activity.

There is enough close link between professional competences of the teacher, who deals with adults in the distance learning environment, and the process of thesaurus phylogeny (i.e. the process of building cognitive skills, circulating in concrete community or its part, for example in a group of students) [5, 6]. Indeed, research on the thesaurus in ontogeny (i.e. in a person) allows determining a learner's individual abilities, while research on the thesaurus in phylogeny (i.e. in a group) demonstrates pedagogical abilities of the teacher: the higher professional competences of the teacher in adult distance learning, the better indexes of collective thesaurus formation in the group of students.

The majority of authors of pedagogical publications are unanimous that various tests and assignments can be used as basic tools for evaluation of the collective thesaurus of the group of students [7, 8]. Quantity indicators for evaluation of the group’s thesaurus and methods of indicators’ measurement are offered bellow.

Relative frequencies of correct solutions can be used as indices to learners’ individual thesauruses:

\[ p_{cor} = \frac{m_{cor}}{m_{com}} \times 100\% \]

where \( m_{cor} \) – the number of correct solutions,
\( m_{com} \) - the common number of assignments.

Calculating the average value of \( \bar{p}_{cor} \) of these parameters by the formula:

\[ \bar{p}_{cor} = \frac{\sum p_{cor}}{N} \]

where \( \bar{p}_{cor} \) - the relative frequency of correct solutions of \( i \)-th student;
\( N \) – the number of students in the group, we obtain the indicator of the state of the collective thesaurus for the learning group. On the basis of the received data it is possible to build a diagram showing what number of students has reached this or that level of the indicator. Figure 1 shows the curves built for two groups with different teachers.

![Curves of the level of group learning.](image)
It would be appropriate to name these curves as the curves of the level of group learning. It is reasonable to assume that the teacher, whose group has a higher curve, provides better quality of education, i.e. he or she possesses is a more professional competence. It is possible to set a threshold value of the relative frequency of correct solutions, for example, $p_{\text{cor,thr}} = 70\%$ as it is demonstrated on Figure 1, and define the number of the students $N_{\text{cor,thr}}$ who coped with the assignment at this level. Then one more indicator of the state of the collective thesaurus could be formulated - coefficient of the group learning

$$K_{ln} = \frac{N_{\text{cor,thr}}}{N} \cdot 100\%.$$  

The higher the coefficient of the group learning, the better professional competence the teacher has.

Pedagogical literature distinguishes three basic learning goals. The learning goal of the first, the lowest level, is to give knowledge to students; the learning goal of the second level is to teach students to apply this knowledge, i.e. transform the knowledge gained into abilities; finally the top step or the learning goal of the third level is to provide students with professional skills. According to this classification it is possible to make evaluation of how efficiently the learning group has achieved learning goals. For this purpose assignments for evaluation of three specified levels have to be developed. The number of assignments for each level should be sufficient for its estimation.

Indicators of learning goals achievement could serve:

- coefficient of knowledge

$$K_{kn} = \frac{n_1}{n_{\text{com1}}} \cdot 100\%,$$

- coefficient of ability

$$K_{ab} = \frac{n_2}{n_{\text{com2}}} \cdot 100\%,$$

- coefficient of skills

$$K_{sk} = \frac{n_3}{n_{\text{com3}}} \cdot 100\%,$$

where $n_1, n_2, n_3$ - number of assignments solved correctly by a student of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd levels, correspondingly; $n_{\text{com1}}, n_{\text{com2}}, n_{\text{com3}}$ - common number of assignments of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd levels.

In order to obtain the parameter of the group’s learning goals achievement one can define the average values

$$\overline{K}_{kn} = \frac{\sum K_{kni}}{N}, \quad \overline{K}_{ab} = \frac{\sum K_{abi}}{N}, \quad \overline{K}_{sk} = \frac{\sum K_{ski}}{N},$$

where $K_{kni}, K_{abi}, K_{ski}$ - coefficient of knowledge, abilities and skills of $i$-th student.

To compare competences of various teachers, the diagrams, showing what number of students from the group reached this or that level of knowledge, abilities or skills, can be
built. For an example, the diagrams for indicator of $K_{kn}$ for two groups with different teachers are shown in Figure 2.

![Figure 2](image_url)

Curves of the level of group knowledge

These curves can be named the curves of the level of group knowledge. Similarly curves of the level of group abilities and curves of the level of group skills can be built. Defining in accordance with the diagrams the number of students who reached threshold levels $K_{kn,thr}$, $K_{ab,thr}$ and $K_{sk,thr}$, it is possible to evaluate the achievement of learning goals by the whole group at any of their three levels by means of the following coefficients:

- coefficient of the level of group knowledge
  \[ K_{kn,gr} = \frac{N_{kn,thr}}{N} \times 100\% \]

- coefficient of the level of group ability
  \[ K_{ab,gr} = \frac{N_{ab,thr}}{N} \times 100\% \]

- coefficient of the level of group skills
  \[ K_{sk,gr} = \frac{N_{sk,thr}}{N} \times 100\% \]

where $N_{kn,thr}$, $N_{ab,thr}$ and $N_{sk,thr}$ - number of the students who reached respective threshold levels $K_{kn,thr}$, $K_{ab,thr}$ and $K_{sk,thr}$.

Higher group indicators $K_{kn,gr}$, $K_{ab,gr}$ and $K_{sk,gr}$ testify to a better achievement of learning goals by students of the group and, hence, to higher professionalism of the group’s teacher.
At the department of Multichannel Telecommunications and Optical Systems of the Siberian State University of Telecommunications and Information Sciences two teachers designed electronic teaching materials for the course «Multichannel Transmission Systems», meant for adult distance learning. Every set of electronic teaching materials consisted of an electronic textbook, virtual laboratory works, assignments published on the Website of the distance learning server.

The purpose of this research was to define qualifications of the given teachers and their readiness to work with the new electronic educational environment in the distance learning system for adults. Two groups of students were involved in the research. The groups used electronic teaching materials only of one teacher in each group. The primary goal of the research was to measure quantity indicators of groups’ collective thesaurus by means of the above proposed method.

The students from both groups were given the same test assignments evaluating two levels of learning goals achievement: knowledge and abilities. Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate results and percents of test correct solutions.

### Table 1. Results of test assignments’ solutions of the 1st group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Surname</th>
<th>Number of correct solutions</th>
<th>Number of incorrect solutions</th>
<th>Relative frequencies of correct solutions $p_{cor}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lukojanov</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shumilina</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saifutdinov</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ivanov</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pereskokov</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Meshkov</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Zotov</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Boreiko</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Abdullina</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Galyamov</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Shkitenkova</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tarhova</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Netesova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average relative frequencies $p_{cor} = 79,8\%$

### Table 2. Results of test assignments’ solutions of the 2nd group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Surname</th>
<th>Number of correct solutions</th>
<th>Number of incorrect solutions</th>
<th>Relative frequencies of correct solutions $p_{cor}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Antropov</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bardadym</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Snapkova</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sokolova</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Levchenko</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gorchenkova</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>37,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Volohova</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Myasnikova</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>AAgarina</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Opanasenko</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>37,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Sterehova</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gancharova</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Matveeva</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Average relative frequencies | $\overline{p}_{\text{cor}} = 65,3\%$ |

Average relative frequencies of correct solutions $\overline{p}_{\text{cor}}$ for students from the first group was $\overline{p}_{\text{cor}} = 79,8\%$, at the same time, for students from the second group this value was equal to $\overline{p}_{\text{cor}} = 65,3\%$. According to tables 1 and 2, dependences of the number of $N$ students from relative frequencies of correct solutions for two groups were built (Figure 3). The teaching materials with the corresponding curve placed above on Figure 3, i.e. the teaching materials developed by the teacher of the first group, proved to be more efficient.

![Figure 3](image)

_Distribution of students in groups depending on relative frequencies of correct solutions_

It is possible to set a threshold value of the relative frequency of correct solutions, for example, $p_{\text{cor.thr}} = 75\%$ and determine for this threshold value the number of $N$ students, whose relative frequencies of correct answers were not less than $p_{\text{cor.thr}}$, from Figure 3. In this case one can calculate the value of the group learning coefficient

$$K_{\text{ln}} = \frac{N_{\text{cor.thr}}}{N} \cdot 100\%,$$

where $N$ - the common number of students in the group.

For the first group of students the given coefficient was $K_{\text{ln}} = 92,3\%$, and for the second group $K_{\text{ln}} = 53,8\%$.

Therefore, obtained results show that students from the first group showed a higher level of the collective thesaurus that testifies to higher professional qualification of the teacher from the first group.
The further goal of the research was to find out of which of examined groups demonstrated the best knowledge and abilities. For this purpose each group was provided with two types of assignments. One assignment contained the tasks, allowing to evaluate knowledge of students, another – the tasks evaluating abilities.

Tables 3 and 4 show solutions of the tasks done by students from each group. These tables demonstrate coefficients evaluating knowledge gained by each single student and by the group as a whole and abilities. Average value of the gained knowledge coefficient in the first group $\bar{K}_{kn} = 87,5\%$ was considerably higher than in the second one ($\bar{K}_{kn} = 62,5\%$). The average coefficient of abilities gained by the first group ($\bar{K}_{ab} = 67,3\%$) was also higher than in the second group ($\bar{K}_{ab} = 44,2\%$).

Table 3. Results of test task solutions in order to evaluate knowledge and abilities gained by students from the first group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Surname</th>
<th>Tasks for knowledge</th>
<th>Tasks for abilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of tasks</td>
<td>Number of correct solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lukojanov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shumilina</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saifutdinov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ivanov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pereskokov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Meshkov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Zotov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Boreiko</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Abdullina</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Salyamov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Shkitenkova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tarhova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Netesova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Average coefficient</td>
<td>$\bar{K}_{kn} = 87,5%$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Results of test task solutions in order to evaluate knowledge and abilities gained by students from the second group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Surname</th>
<th>Tasks for knowledge</th>
<th>Tasks for abilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of tasks</td>
<td>Number of correct solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Antropov</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bardadym</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Snapkova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sokolova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Levchenko</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gorchenkova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Volohova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Myasnikova</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>AAgarina</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to tables 3 and 4, dependences of the number of students from the coefficient of the gained knowledge were built (Figure 4).

![Figure 4](image)

**Figure 4**

*Distribution of students in groups depending on coefficient of knowledge*

From this figure one can see that electronic teaching materials, developed by the teacher of the first group, proved to be more effective as well. Taking the threshold value of the coefficient of the gained knowledge $K_{ln.thr}$ for example 75 %, one can determine the number of students $N_{ln.thr}$ whose coefficient of knowledge was not below this threshold value, and calculate the coefficient of learning goals achievement at the level of knowledge

$$K_{kn.gr} = \frac{N_{ln.thr}}{N} \cdot 100\%$$

For the first group this coefficient was $K_{kn.gr} = 76,9$ %, and for the second one – $K_{kn.gr} = 53,8$ %.

In figure 5, distribution of number of students of both N groups depending on coefficient of abilities is built. Coefficients of learning goals achievement at the level of knowledge for the threshold value $K_{ab.thr} = 75$ % were 53,8 % for the first group and 30,7 % for second one.
Figure 5
Distribution of students in groups depending on coefficient of abilities

Thus, the results of this research indicated that measurement of quantity indicators of collective thesaurus in adult groups, which are taught in distance by means of electronic teaching materials developed by different teachers, allows comparison and evaluation of the teachers’ professional levels.

References
Implementation of a National Register of Adult Educators: Ariadne's thread or Pandora's box?

Introduction
Contemporary economic, technological, social, demographic and cultural transformations highlight new educational demands, while establishing a complex social and professional context within which human resources are required to continuously update attitudes, skills and knowledge to keep pace with constant change and uncertainty (Cross, 1981; Edwards et al. 1998; Jarvis, 2001). In such context of major challenges, lifelong learning has been increasingly integrating into all spheres of social and private life, turning crucially dominant to ensure the quality of elapsing programmes in the field of adult education and training. Recent studies though, have concluded that the performance of learners is highly related to the professionalism of instructors, highlighting the adult educator as the most important factor in the educational process (Bransford, Darling-Hammond & LePage, 2005; Commission of the European Communities, 2007b).

The outstanding role of lifelong learning has immensely been outlined by the European Union (EU) discourse as an essential tool for fostering advancement of knowledge and skills at all stages of life and promoting overall development. The future of the European economy is deemed to depend on the skills of its resources, prioritising thus, their continuous updating on the grounds of increasing general levels of competence, both to meet the needs of the labour market and to enable citizens to remain functional within the knowledge societies (European Council, 2003). Emerging demands in the field of Lifelong Education (LLE) therefore, have assigned adult educators a critical role, whereas their education, training and development are reported as key determinants of quality in the LLE sector.

Aim of the study
The present study seeks to provide policy analysis of the legal framework concerning the implementation of a National Register of Adult Educators in Greece, to respond to the European mandates and rising challenges for quality in education and training systems. In the light of the evolving Lisbon agenda, it takes account of the contemporary context, overarching principles and policy priorities with respect to LLE, to critically review the establishment of a coherent framework of inclusion criteria for the teaching resources employed in the field.

To this end, the study draws on critical examination of the political discourse, with intend to interpret and understand political actions, trace further implications of the policies implemented and identify ambiguities and possible consequences.

The key role of adult educators: professionalism in LLE
Quality assurance in LLE calls for well qualified professionals disposing scientific knowledge, as well as basic and generic skills and attitudes to follow a successful career in adult teaching. Moreover, technological advancement, social change, knowledge
expansion and methodology transformation, accentuate the necessity of quality initial training and continuous professional development (Craft, 2000; Fullan, 2001). To stand up to the key role they have been assigned to within the “knowledge society”, educators ought to have concrete knowledge of the psychological traits of adults, being able to adjust teaching to the uniqueness of each learner while integrating it into the wider social context (Jarvis, 2004; Rogers, 1996). With teaching based on scientific principles, objectives and targets arising from the needs of both the individual and the social context can be pursued and effective methods for their attainment be applied (Brookfield, 1988; Brown, 1995).

Moreover, to effectively cope with the complex and multifaceted task of teaching, requires generic skills to foster cooperative and experiential learning and support both cognitive and emotional development of learners, promoting self-reliance, independence, and critical reflection. In this context, teaching professionals should be able to take up the «facilitator» role, accepting with respect the diversity of learners, building mutual understanding and trust and shifting away from traditional models and approaches which for centuries entrenched formal education (Jarvis, 2004; Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998; Mezirow, 1990; Noyé & Piveteau, 1999; Rogers, 1996; Rogers, 2002).

Quality initial training however, should be combined with a process of ongoing development, in order to enable constant acquisition of necessary skills and competences to respond to overall demand for excellence and quality educational services. Efficacy assurance of elapsing LLE programmes is highly dependent on knowledge and skills updating of the teaching resources, prioritising the issue of continuous professional development.

The European context

In the context of economic internationalisation, demographic reallocation and social destabilisation, the evolving European political agenda identified as the Lisbon strategy, focuses on promotion of economic competitiveness, highlighting efficacy in education and training, as one of key policy areas (European Council, 2000). In particular, the Lisbon agenda provides for a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training, supporting member states to accelerate the pace of educational reforms, with emphasis on lifelong learning and education. Thus, common shapes in educational policy have been emerging among member states, establishing quality assurance in education and training as central component of policy implementation.

The quality of the educational programmes however, is highly dependent on the skills and scientific training of adult educators. As reported by the Commission, the quality of provision is affected by policy, resources, infrastructure and a number of other factors. However, the key factor is the quality of the staff involved, which is crucial to encouraging the participation of adult learners. The training and skills of adult educators affect teaching methods, which must take into account the specific needs and learning approaches of adults (Commission of the European Communities 2007b:9).

In commitment to the EU “concrete future objectives of education and training systems” and through the open method of cooperation, member states have endorsed national action plans to meet specific strategic objectives by 2010, among which “improving the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in the EU” (European Council 2001). In 2006 the European Parliament and Council jointly decided on
the establishment of a programme for Community action in the field of Lifelong Learning (LLL), referred to as “the Lifelong Learning Programme”, aiming to foster interchange, cooperation and mobility between education and training systems within the Community so that they become a world quality reference (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006: art. 5).

Since 2006, Communications from the European Commission have taken special interest in “promoting efficiency” and “ensuring the quality of adult learning”, through “fostering a culture of quality of provision” (Commission of the European Communities 2006, 2007a, 2007b). To this end, “the quality of the staff involved in delivery”, is set out as a key factor. However, as outlined, “so far in many Member States little attention has been paid to the training (initial and continuing), the status and the payment of adult learning staff”, even though “the quality of staff is crucial in motivating adult learners to participate” (Commission of the European Communities 2007b: 9).

Raising the standard of educational programmes and ensuring quality of teaching resources, has therefore, become a policy priority for member states to enable recruitment of quality teaching staff and facilitate them to contribute to their fullest in a well-organised, performance-driven culture.

The Greek case

It has been made obvious that, in order to respond effectively to the teaching task, adult educators should be well trained and qualified, possessing concrete scientific knowledge, skills and attitudes. However, in Greece up today, no specific studies or qualifications have been required to follow the career in adult teaching. In most cases, educators have been teachers or technicians and skilled professionals, lacking the scientific training to respond successfully to the educational process.

Thus, the teaching process has often been characterised by persistence in traditional teaching models, a practice which has proven inconsistent and unscientific with learning conditions, principles and characteristics of adult learners. In addition, by 2002 there had not been any organised professional development programmes for those employed in the field of adult education, with the exception of scattered attempts made by some organisations such as banks, companies, etc (Papastamatis & Panitsidou, 2008).

The absence therefore, of specialised qualification prerequisites and systematic training programmes, along with the fact that most educators have mostly been practicing adult teaching in addition to their main occupation, highlight the insufficiency of the resources employed to effectively respond to the key role they have been appointed to, a limiting factor itself for the promotion of LLE in Greece.

In this context, to cater for deficiencies in LLE and comply with EU requirements for quality promotion, the Greek Ministry of Education (YPEEPTH) endorsed under Law 3687/2008 art.10, the implementation of a National Register of Adult Educators, judging the initiative important to facilitate provision assurance of overall quality in the delivery of LLE programmes.

Within two months time a Ministerial Decision (n.4444//7-10-2008), was issued to specify issues over the implementation and operation of the register. As reported, establishment of an official register of adult educators on a national level, from which all organizations and bodies, public or private providers in the sector of adult education are obliged to recruit their teaching resources is supposed to contribute to:

• continuous upgrading of the quality of adult educators
ongoing training and education
transient and merit-based management
continuous enrichment with new educators, and
effective procedures to address education, training and management of adult educators. (Official Gazette, Decision 4444/2008: art. 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Credits for inclusion in the Adult Educators’ Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Formal Training: 25 credits</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree in a relevant field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree in a non-relevant field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D. in a relevant field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D. in a non-relevant field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second University degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Master’s degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Lifelong Learning: 12 credits</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1. Adult Educ. Initial &amp; Contin. Vocational Training (0.2/25 hours with a max of 4 credits)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in Scientific Conferences (0.1/conference with a maximum of 1 credit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Certification in foreign languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st language - good knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st language - excellent knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd language - good knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd language - excellent knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Certification in ICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total 80 credits</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Register is divided into two sub-registers, the introductory sub-register of adult educators and the main sub-register of adult educators (art. 3). According to art. 4, the inclusion criteria into the Introductory sub-register comprise:
a. University graduates with a postgraduate degree (Master or PhD) in the field of LLL (adult education, basic vocational training and continuing vocational training).
b. University graduates holding a training certificate from a public body, of at least 25 hours attendance in the field of LLL.
c. University graduates with teaching experience in the field of LLL of at least one hundred (100) hours or professional experience of at least eighteen (18) months in the public or private sector in the field of LLL.
d. Technicians with a training certificate from a public body, of at least 25 hours attendance in the field of LLL.

e. Technicians with teaching experience in the field of LLL of at least hundred (100) hours or work experience of eighteen (18) months in public or private sector in the field of LLL.

The inclusion criteria into the Main sub-register comprise:

1. University graduates holding a PhD in the field of LLL and teaching experience of at least 50 hours in the LLL sector.

2. University graduates holding a Master's degree in the field of LLL, and teaching experience of at least 150 hours in the LLL sector who hold a training certificate in adult education of duration at least twenty (25) hours.

3. University Graduates holding a PhD or master’s degree and a Certificate of at least 100 hours attendance in a programme provided by a public body in the field of LLL.

4. Educators registered in the introductory sub-registry with teaching experience of at least 300 hours in the LLL or with counseling professional experience in the field of LLL of at least one year full time or two years part time.

5. Educators registered in the introductory sub-registry holding a Certificate of at least 100 hours attendance in a programme provided by a public body in the field of LLL.

Discussion

In the light of the Lisbon mandates for quality in LLE, it has become national priority for member states to facilitate recruitment, deployment and development of capable teaching resources, while enabling them to contribute to their fullest in a well-organised, performance-driven culture. In countries with a tradition in LLE (e.g. Sweden, Germany), there are provided specialised graduate and postgraduate courses in LLE, being most often required that newly appointed adult educators are holders of Certificates, Diplomas, or Graduate and Postgraduate Degrees in LLE. Suitability for employment is also dependent on teaching experience along with training programmes attended.

However in the Greek case, the newly endorsed crediting system appears to ignore or underestimate university studies or teaching experience in the field of LLE. What is more, the legal framework does neither make clear the reason for the existence of the two sub-registers, nor the difference in their use. Looking thoroughly into the legal text and studying carefully the crediting system the following ambiguities and deficiencies were identified:

• University graduates with degrees in LLE (e.g. Department of Social & Educational Policy, University of Macedonia) get the same credits as all other graduates with non-relevant to the field degrees. Moreover, in case they have not attended any training programmes, they are excluded from the register, ignoring the fact that they have been attending university courses on adult education for four years, while assuming that somebody with non-relevant studies but with a 25 hour programme attendance is better qualified and thus, included in the register.

• Postgraduate degrees in LLE are undervalued compared to training certificates. In detail, attendance of training programmes is credited up to 4 points while a Masters’ degree in the field is only appointed 3 credits.

• Postgraduate degrees in LLE are not substantially appreciated, since a Master’s degree or a PhD in the field of LLE are credited with only 1 or 2 points respectively, more than a Master’s degree or a PhD in a non-relevant field.
• Teaching experience in LLE, one of the most critical parameters to affect efficiency of adult educators, is underestimated. More specifically, teaching experience in LLE is only credited with up to 4 points, as much as experience acquired in formal education. Moreover, there appears to have been made a pointless, and confusing distinction between lifelong education and lifelong training, meaning that if somebody has taught e.g. 1,000 hours in LLE is entitled only to 4 credits, whereas somebody with 400 hours in LLE and 400 hours in lifelong training is entitled to 8 credits.
• On the contrary, professional experience is overestimated, as it is accredited almost double than teaching experience. Somebody might get up to 7 credits for professional experience in the field of LLE, regardless if he/she had only been a secretary, a task completely irrelevant to the teaching process. Even worse though, professional experience in a non-relevant field is valued with 7 credits as well, leading to the paradox a holder of a master degree in LLE and with 1,000 hours teaching experience in LLE to be credited the same points as somebody who has just worked for 3 years, no matter in what field. Are they equally qualified to work as adult educators?
• According to art. 2, all educators employed by a) The General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (GGDVM) and the Institute of Continuing Adult Education (IDEKE), b) The Organization for Vocational Education and Training (OEEK), and c) all public or private providers of LLE and initial vocational training supervised by the Ministry of Education, and any other providers of such services, should be recruited from the register. Yet, this contradicts the existence of another register operating under the National Centre of Certification (EKEPIS) and which Centres of Education and Training (KEK) recruit their teaching resources from. There is no comment on whether “other providers of such services” include KEKs or whether they are excluded. In that case, there seems to be an overlap, since two parallel registers will be operating, one under EKEPIS and one under YPEPTH.

In the name of transparency and merit-based management, the Greek state has been entrapped into a bureaucratic structure of the public sector, a tendency which undisputably restrains flexibility. As far as the establishment of a nationally controlled framework for necessary qualifications to follow the career in adult teaching is concerned, it should be mentioned that similar frameworks have been developed in other member states in line with the Lisbon mandates. In the UK for example, a new framework of qualifications for teachers employed in the further education sector was introduced in September 2007. The new professional standards define, generically, the expectations in terms of the overarching skills, knowledge and attributes required of adult educators (Eurybase, 2008a). In Spain as well, Ley Orgánica de Educación, (Act on Education) was endorsed in 2006, stating that teachers working in adult education must have the relevant qualifications. In addition, it also establishes that education authorities should provide educators with suitable training so that they can meet the needs of adult learners (Eurybase, 2008b).

Whether though, the implementation of the National Adult Educators’ Register in Greece is capable to promote transparency and efficacy, and favour the development of quality services, remains controversial, since the centrally controlled register proves not flawless, being based on qualifications and competences doubtful to ensure quality, while limiting the potential of the bodies and institutions to employ competent educators unless they are included in the register (Panitsidou & Papastamatis 2009).
Finally, there is complete absence of provision in the legal framework for quality initial and in-service training for the staff interested in being involved in and those already practising the profession of the adult educator. To ensure continuous upgrading of the quality of services provided in LLE, it is of eminent importance to cater for systematic quality professional development programmes. To this end, in most European countries there has been established close cooperation with Universities, since possessing the appropriate expertise and experience to ensure provision of effective training programmes, a policy though, not popular in Greece.

Conclusions

Concluding, what remains to be answered is whether the implementation of a National Adult Register of Adult Educators will prove “Ariadne’s thread” out of the labyrinth of deficiencies and delays in the field of LLE in Greece (extremely low percentage of participation of adult population in LLL, only 2.1% in 2007, according to Eurostat), or turn out to be “Pandora’s box”, unleashing new problems and imposing further difficulties in the promotion of effectiveness of the teaching staff and overall quality provision in the field of LLE. The present study does not seek to provide concrete answers but rather to indicate directions which could further facilitate quality assurance of the services provided in the LLE sector.

To this end, we judge important the implementation of a coherent framework to define necessary qualifications and basic skills for those interested in following a teaching career in the LLE sector. Nevertheless, the inclusion criteria and crediting system defined by Ministerial Decision n.4444/7-10-2008, present important ambiguities and deficiencies, in order to ensure the “continuous upgrading of the quality of teaching resources, their continuous training and education, transparent and merit-based management, continuous enrichment with new educators, and effective procedures to address education, training and management of adult educators, as stated in the legal framework (Ministerial Decision n.4444/7-10-2008: art. 2).

To facilitate quality assurance of LLE services, the establishment of a legal framework with regard to adult educators, ought to make provision of:

a) Necessary qualifications, skills and competences, validating graduate and post-graduate degrees in LLE.

b) Induction and in-service quality training programmes. To this end, cooperation with universities offering studies in the field is of critical importance.

c) Upgrading of professional status and payment of the adult teaching staff. To recruit the best resources to follow a career in LLE, the profession of the adult educator should become more attractive.

References


Validpack: A Way to Assure Quality by Validating Adult Educators’ Competences

Introduction

The discourse about professionalisation in adult education can be followed in different contexts and in several European research approaches. The aim is to figure out ways towards quality provision in the field of adult education and to assure quality by educating and assessing the adult educators.

One approach towards quality assurance is to take adult educators’ competences as a benchmark. The assumption in this context is that persons working in the field of adult education perform a broad range of tasks and activities. According to these tasks and activities there are specific adult educators’ competences which are necessary to fulfil the job on a high quality level.

If we take the field of “training” as an example, a trainer has to be able to provide some specific training related competences. There is a specific competence profile that seems to be important to guarantee quality for trainers.

As these important competences mostly are not directly linked to qualifications but have been acquired in non-formal or informal learning contexts and have not been proven by qualifications or certificates, validation of competences and prior learning becomes important and can be seen as a way to assure quality.

The European project “Validation of Informal and Non-Formal Psycho-Pedagogical Competences of Adult Educators” (VINEPAC) has been dealing with this issue. In the project has been developed a validation instrument meant to validate adult educators’ competences – named Validpack - in a European research group where representatives from five European countries have been involved.

Validpack is a concrete tool for the documentation and recognition of adult educators’ – here defined as trainers’ – competences. It is a detailed instrument that includes a handbook that guides adult educators through the validation process. This process is divided into three steps: self-evaluation, external evaluation and the consolidation of the evaluation results. The validation process is based on a concrete competency framework (competences, standards and indicators) that has been developed within the project.

In this contribution should be dealt with the question of how quality can be assured by validating adult educators’ competences. Therefore I would like to describe the validation instrument Validpack more detailed concerning its aims, validation steps and based competence profile to meet some challenges in the end. One main challenge that can be seen and shall be discussed is the need of several agreements concerning quality and standards of adult educators’ – and for this example specific trainers’ – competences.

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More information about the project VINEPAC can be found at www.vinepac.eu
Background: Validation Approach

The field of adult education is highly differentiated. It is just partly systematized and adult educators, trainers in particular, perform a broad range of tasks and activities. In most of the European countries there is no obligatory entrance qualification, which an adult educator needs to have in order to enter the field. The issue of educating the adult educator is becoming an urgent one to assure quality in this field.

Currently many research projects are dealing with questions of professionalization and quality assurance in the field of adult education. Different studies are being carried out concerning adult learning professions in Europe. These studies and initiatives once more indicate the need for professional development to assure quality in the field of adult education. Also in the framework of the Copenhagen Process and the Education and Training 2010 Work Programmes, professional development and improving the quality of adult education staff has been recognised as priorities on an European level.

Many adult educators do not hold qualifications for the activities they carry out as part of their work. Their competencies frequently go unrecognised as they are acquired at work, by informal exchange of experience, by reading etc. and not in formal learning settings that lead to a qualification. The fact that a lot of the staff working in the field of adult education does not have any pedagogical qualification does because of this not automatically implicate that they are not holding the relevant competences to fulfil the job on a high quality level.

One approach towards quality assurance is to take not qualification but adult educators’ competences as a benchmark. The assumption here is that persons working in the field of adult education perform a broad range of tasks and activities. According to these tasks and activities there are specific adult educators’ competences which are important to be performed on a high quality level. Due to the variety of adult educators’ competency profiles and qualifications, validation of competencies and prior learning becomes important and can be a way to assure quality - regardless of the contexts in which these competences have been acquired.

The approach of validating competences also is according to communications made by the European Commission (2001, 2004). The recognition of informal and non-formal learning outcomes here is mentioned as one of the lifelong learning strategies. The validation of competencies thereby is not restricted to specific occupations. Informal and non-formal learning contexts are increasingly relevant in nearly all occupations, including the field of adult education.

The VINEPAC-project: Aims and Objectives

The project VINEPAC in which the afterwards described instrument Validpack has been developed has been funded by the European Union Leonardo da Vinci programme. The project has run from October 2006 to September 2008. The project team consisted of several partner institutions from different European countries. The Romanian Institute for

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3 For example “Qualifying the Actors in the Field of Adult and Continuing Education. Trends and Perspectives” (Nuissl & Lattke, 2008).
6 See the contribution “Acquisition and use of knowledge by adult education professionals – How do adult educators use technical information for their professional development” (Müller) in this publication.
Adult Education (IREA) has been project coordinator. Other project partners were the Centre for Research in Theories and Practices for Overcoming Inequalities (CREA) in Spain, the National Adult Training Board (CNFPA) in Romania, the German Institute for Adult Education (DIE) in Germany, the National School of Higher Agronomy Studies (EDUTER Institute) in France, the General Worker’s Union (GWU) in Malta, and the University of Bucharest (UB, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences) in Romania.

The overall aim of the project has been to develop a validation instrument, that
• assesses important adult educators’ competencies,
• facilitates the documentation of experiences,
• builds a basis for certification based on the validation results,
• is broad enough to be established on European level,
• documents a minimum standard of competencies of adult educators,
• facilitates adult educators’ mobility in Europe and
• is applicable in different contexts.

The VINEPAC-project, in the framework of which the Validpack has been developed, aims to provide tools for appreciating prior experimental learning (APEL) in the field of adult education. It is an important attempt towards professionalisation and quality assurance in adult education as it provides the opportunity to validate and prove specific adult education competencies which can lead to higher standards and towards increased quality.

The distinctive feature of the VINEPAC validation instrument Validpack is that it is not only a national but an international approach that takes into account the internationalisation of the adult education sector within the last years. Validpack therefore responds to European needs by initiating and developing an instrument that can be used in all European countries and that is addressed to adult educators at the European level.

The outcome of the project is a concrete validation instrument package that provides the opportunity to evaluate and document adult educators’ competencies, whether acquired in formal, non-formal or informal learning contexts. It includes an adult educators’ competency framework with standards and indicators for evaluation, as well as a user handbook that guides adult educators through the validation process. The final product is a user-friendly validation instrument for the validation of individual adult educators’ competencies.

The Validation Tool "Validpack" - Description of the Instrument

Validpack is a detailed process that includes a handbook that guides adult educators through the validation process. The VINEPAC project team focused on the trainers’ competency profile as this is the main and most frequent role performed by adult educators. A trainer is a person with teaching activities.

Validpack can be used by all adult educators who have more than one year or 150 hours of trainer experience with adults.

To start the whole process, an adult educator wishing to achieve validation has to go to an authorized validating institution to receive the handbook and other relevant materials, and to arrange a date for external evaluation. The institution should provide support and recommend an external evaluator.
Validation Steps

The validation process is divided into three steps: self-evaluation, external evaluation and the consolidation of the evaluation results. The steps are described in more detail in the Validpack handbook. The validation process is based on a concrete competency framework which is described below.

Adult educators have to provide evidence of the prescribed adult educators’ competencies. This can either happen through self-evaluation or external evaluation. Some of the most important adult education competencies are not directly observable but can be evidenced through self-evaluation. Likewise, some competencies cannot easily be self-assessed but can rather be observed by an external evaluator. Both steps are anticipated to take place in the validation process, with the additional consolidation step to increase objectiveness.

![Validation Steps Diagram]

The first step in the validation process is a self-evaluation (or self-assessment). This step offers adult educators the opportunity to reflect upon competencies that have been achieved outside formal learning settings. Relevant documents can be included as evidence of specific competencies or qualifications. The Validpack handbook includes a chapter on relevant documents (such as certificates, qualification papers, competency profiles, proves of relevant related activities, documents to prove membership of professional networks/associations) which can be included as evidence of specific competencies.

Because there is no specific professional development pathway for trainers in the majority of European countries, trainers have to manage their own professional and personal development which mostly is the result of learning in non-formal and informal settings. The purpose of the self-evaluation step is to encourage adult educators to build a clear picture of the extent and range of their competencies and their performance. This
should help adult educators for example if they enrol in a study programme or apply for a new job. The self-evaluation step includes:

- reflecting on biography, including learning contexts and learning outcomes,
- reflecting on competencies,
- drawing a personal mind-map and
- relevant documents (for example qualifications and certificates).

The second validation step, external evaluation (or external assessment), increases the objectivity of the validation results. The external evaluation involves an external expert who observes two units of one-and-a-half hour training sessions and assesses the adult educator’s competencies with the help of a Validpack observation checklist and an interview grid.

The third and last step in the validation process is consolidation, which involves summarising all validation results into a single validation outcome. This step is undertaken by authorized validating institutions, which still have to be instituted. The results from self-evaluation and external evaluation have to be balanced and consolidated.

The validation process is accomplished once the adult educator has completed all three steps. If the adult educator fulfils the minimum standard in the required competencies, he or she will receive the Validpack validation sheet which proves his or her adult educator’s competencies to external authorities, for example employers or adult education institutions. The process builds a basis for certification based on the validation results.

For certification that would be accepted by for example employers, the validated competences would need to be compared to competency standards on the European level (for example European Qualification Framework, EQF). Furthermore, the Validpack validation sheet would need to be accepted at national levels as a valid basis for certification. Therefore, the Validpack tool needs to be disseminated across Europe and institutions need to be encouraged to apply for permission to use the instrument for validation and as a basis for certification.

The instrument is based on a within the project developed competence framework. One can make a note on that the discourse on competences of adult educators is an important one. Without a concrete understanding of the competences that are relevant for adult educators it would be impossible to decide whether or not an adult educator is competent to carry out his tasks and if he or she is professional in what he/she is doing or not. Therefore, the definition of relevant competences has been an important step towards quality assurance by validating adult educator’s competences.

Following the debates about adult educators’ competences on the one hand one can find efforts to identify core competences that are related to all tasks and activities. Kraft (2006) for example points out that competences of adult educators are strongly connected with the fields of tasks and activities. She mentions that organisational and management staff does need different competences from a teacher because the activities are completely different. On the other hand one can find approaches that only stick to one specific activity and try to define relevant competences regarding this specific field of activity.

As already the definition of the term “competence” itself is not easy, it is obvious that the definition of relevant competences of adult educators is difficult and that it is nearly impossible to point out common competences that fit in all respects. A common
international understanding of the term "competence" follows the definition promoted by the OECD in the DeSeCo (Definition and Selection of Competencies: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundation) project. The project defines competence as 'the ability to successfully meet complex demands in a particular context. Competent performance or effective action implies the mobilization of knowledge, cognitive and practical skills, as well as social behaviour components such as attitudes, emotions, and values and motivations (OECD 2003, 2).

In the project there has been set up a competence-profile for adult educators in the field of activity "teaching" that provides a basis for the validation of adult education competences. In this context, the importance of reflecting on the role and the characteristics of the teaching context and training tasks was taken into consideration. Table 1 shows how the adult education competence profile of a teacher is divided into competence clusters and standards.

Table 1. Competence Profile of Trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence group</th>
<th>Competence cluster</th>
<th>Competence standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Initial knowledge of adult learners’ psycho-social profile</td>
<td>Is able to use adult learners’ characteristics in the educational programme management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of group characteristics</td>
<td>Creates a physical and interpersonal climate that is conducive to learning by drawing on adult learning theory, knowledge of learners’ cultures, and interpersonal dynamics.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of own subject area</td>
<td>Is sensitive to and accommodates diverse learning styles, abilities, cultures, and experiences, including learners who have disabilities and other special needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Management</td>
<td>Preparing the educational programme</td>
<td>Identifies and responds to learners' individual and group needs, interests, and goals when developing instructional plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plans instruction that is consistent with the programme mission and goals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is consistent with the programme management.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Designing the educational programme</td>
<td>Employs individual, group and team learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Models communication, negotiation, decision-making and problem-solving skills for learners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sequences and paces lessons appropriately.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provides frequent and varied opportunities for students to apply their learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitors and adjusts teaching strategies based upon student needs and performance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of technology and resources (time, material, space, people)</td>
<td>Effectively integrates current and appropriate media and technology as tools for instruction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selects and uses a variety of resources for the learning environment (print, human, and technological).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acquires, accesses, and uses technology for effective adult learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and valorisation of learning</td>
<td>Identification of individual needs</td>
<td>Works with learners to identify their needs, strengths and goals, and advises or refers them to appropriate programmes and levels of instruction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of results of assessment data</td>
<td>Uses results of (diagnostic and needs) assessment data on a regular basis to plan lessons, develop curricula, monitor progress towards objectives and goals, and to verify learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitoring of learning</td>
<td>Monitors learning beyond simple recall of information using a variety of assessment strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation and feedback</td>
<td>Structures and facilitates ways for learners and peers to evaluate and give feedback on their learning and performance, through reflection and self-assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guiding of learners (regarding their development)</td>
<td>Guides learners in the development and ongoing review of their educational plans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Educating the Adult Educator: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe
In order to evaluate competences, this competence list has been complemented with standards and indicators for each competence. Table 2 shows an example of the way each cluster of competences is broken down to single competences, standards and performance indicators for each competence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clusters of competence</th>
<th>Competences</th>
<th>Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Initial knowledge of adult learners’ psycho-social profile</td>
<td>Is able to use adult learners’ characteristics in the management of the educational programme.&lt;br&gt;Knows and is sensitive to adults’ responsibilities as workers, family members, citizens and community members.&lt;br&gt;Applies knowledge of teacher-directed and learner-centred instruction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Plans and delivers learning activities which suit adult learning characteristics: problem-based activities etc.&lt;br&gt;• Justifies his/her didactic choices by evoking characteristics of the adult learner.&lt;br&gt;• Develops a flexible learning framework in terms of time, place, content etc.&lt;br&gt;• Gives reasonable/negotiated deadlines for study tasks and assessment.&lt;br&gt;• Recognises the prior experience of learners and accords appropriate exemption from (a part of the whole) programme&lt;br&gt;• Connects learning situations to learners’ every day duties/responsibilities/tasks and different roles.&lt;br&gt;• Invites learners to present experiences linked to the subject area.&lt;br&gt;• Justifies his/her didactic choices by elements of theory.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Sava et al. 2008)

**Limitations and Challenges**

On the one hand side such a developed validation instrument could be a chance to increase quality and allow European mobility in the field of adult education across Europe. On the other hand on the way to assure quality by validating adult educators’ competences we have to face several challenges:

• The diversity of adult education professionals makes it impossible to develop one validation instrument that can be used for all adult educators. The competence profile is restricted to a specific activity – in the case of Validpack to the trainer activity.

• Another difficulty can be seen in the elaboration of a common standard or referential. Existing competence profiles vary enormously from country to country and it is difficult to integrate them into one European standard.

• The Validpack approach is just one between several other validation approaches in Europe that are in competition. The integration of different approaches is needed to establish one instrument on a European wide level. Institutions that will implement the
validation instrument have to be found and to be authorized to increase comparability across Europe.

- The existence of a legal framework for the validation of competencies that have been acquired in non-formal and informal learning settings could make it easier to authorize institutions to use the validation instrument Validpack and to increase the acceptance of the procedure.

- One main challenge that can be seen and shall be discussed is the need of several agreements concerning quality and standards of adult educators’ – competencies. To make sure that staff is qualified to support adults in their learning more efforts are needed to establish professional standards in adult education. So there is the question, who should create these standards in the context of the European Qualification Framework (EQF).

- The validation approach ends up in a kind of validation sheet that does not provide any officially confirmed right. If it should be used in order to facilitate the access to and progress in the career and also the mobility of adult educators on the European labour market it would be need for further developments. The validation outcome then has to be adapted to standards on different levels – for example of the EQF – to lead to a certification (see Picture 2).

One further development step is the currently running EU-project "Flexible Pathways for Adult Educators Between the 6th and 7th Level of the EQF" (Flexi-Path)\(^7\). It is a Leonardo da Vinci, Transfer of Innovation project that is adapting the validation instrument Validpack to the profile of the master adult educator on 7th level of the EQF and to the master entrance level on 6th level of the EQF.

\(^7\) See www.flexi-path.eu
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The struggle for quality in educating adult educators – An example from Norway.

Introduction

On the 22nd of September 2003, the University of Tromsø inaugurated the first master’s programme in adult education in Norway. The ceremony took place in the largest auditorium, with prominent guests and media present. The rector held the opening speech, followed by more speeches, entertainment, and refreshments. For me, this was a very exciting day. I was one of the faculty members responsible for planning and establishing the study programme and for teaching of it. I was humbled by the task of developing competent adult educators. What are the stakes? Will the programme satisfy the expectations? What quality requirements are needed in adult education? How can we educate good adult educators? What are the challenges facing the teacher? Questions such as these filled my head when I looked across the room. The issue of quality felt like a heavy burden of responsibility. The concern I felt at that moment has followed me through the years. For this reason, I find the topic of quality and education at this ESREA conference is very engaging.

Adult education has not received much attention in Norway (Grepperud/Rønning 2009; Stølen 2007). Consequently, there has also been a lack of requirements for teachers teaching adults. The new programme at the University of Tromsø made it possible to change this. If many students dropped out, it would be a sign that the quality was not good. Quality implies that something has a high level. In our programme, we had to develop the skills and competences necessary for the adult educator, so as to provide a high quality end product. The quality of the teachers is often seen as a key factor in effecting the quality in adult education.

This paper will discuss some aspects of the struggle for quality in the first Norwegian master’s programme in adult education. My discussion will be based on interviews with colleagues and my own experiences. Viewing adult education from the perspective of the teacher, I will stress the following areas: (1) the aims of the course; (2) the contents and structure of the course; (3) the challenges of teaching; (4) the challenges of mentoring; (5) the challenges of emotional engagement.

The aim of the course

A considerable number of decisions had to be taken at the beginning of the course. First we had to analyse what competencies were needed by people working in the field of life long learning. Then we had to develop a good learning process for them. The students in my case worked with adults learning in different situations. They were in various ways responsible for education, guidance, and counselling at their workplace. Some of the students were responsible for management development, others for the education of union representatives. There were also teachers from lower and upper secondary level schools, as well as lecturers from colleges of higher education.

All our students wanted more knowledge on the education of adults. The master’s programme expressed a view of teaching and learning as a life long process and focused on how social, cultural, and individual factors influence the learning of adults. Particular
emphasis was given to issues pertaining to adults, and how formal and informal education can be made compatible for this group.

The idea of lifelong learning implies in part that new groups are given pedagogical leadership and responsibility for mentoring and advising adults in transition. Our programme sought to help students define what is special about adult learners. The aim was that the individual student would gain insight, understanding, and skills needed in working with adult learning, and be capable of developing, plan, organise, and execute flexible training and workshops for adults. Included in the curriculum were such topics as flexible facilitation, the use of computer technology, and how to modify course offerings for smaller groups. We were an interdisciplinary team consisting of several pedagogues, an anthropologist, and a sociologist. We also had a close cooperation with similar adult education programmes in other Nordic countries.

Malcolm Knowles (1980) characterises adults as a very mature, motivated, and self directed group of students. This also applied to our students. We assumed that they would be very motivated to learn more about their work, as well as to gain an academic degree. We made sure that their experiences got a prominent place throughout the programme. By means of discussion, reflection, and theoretical stimulation they were able to get perspectives on their day-to-day work.

The contents and structure of the course

A first criterion of quality was to give the course adequate contents. Our challenge in this respect was which didactic angle we should adopt in order to keep the students motivated for the duration of three years. We chose a flexible study model compatible with adult students with a job and a family. The class structure included classes on location and online courses, both at a variety of intervals, as follows:

• First year: Two meeting sessions, a video conference, and a computer conference
• Second year: Two meeting sessions, a method course offered via the internet
• Third year: One meeting session, an internet meeting, written and oral exams

There were a total of only five physical meetings over three years. This structure reduced the travel expenses of the students and leave from work. We advertised the programme as nation-wide, but all the meetings took place in Tromsø. A combination of in-person meetings and internet tasks gave the students skills in new forms of teaching resulting from new technology. These new teaching methods have become increasingly important in the training of adults in work life. We considered it important that our students acquired this didactic knowledge.

Organising the programme with so few meetings over three years presented us with new challenges with regard to maintaining student motivation. Our flexible set-up of the course gave the students an opportunity to alternate between closeness and distance to their own work field. They broadened their horizons by reflecting on their own practice and gaining theoretical knowledge. I think we can best describe our master’s programme as a pedagogical meeting spot where experiences could be systematised, organised, and articulated. We had two arenas of learning: physical meetings and online activities. The internet ensured continuity in the learning process by being a link between the university and the students scattered around the country. Our aim was to make sure the students felt a part of a community of learners. We wanted to make them full-time distance students. Seen from the university campus, they could be characterised as a group of “hidden” full-time students.
It was crucial that the team at the university took an overarching responsibility for facilitating and ensuring progression. The students were to receive close follow-up throughout the three years. This was made possible by organising the course in thematic phases that included both the meetings on location in Tromsø and the meetings online. The thematic phases started some weeks before the physical meetings and went on for several weeks afterwards. At the beginning of each phase, we posted online a welcome letter, a programme for the meeting, and assignments to be completed before and after the meetings. It was clear to us that adult and flexible students had a strong desire for predictability, and we had to plan well ahead. The thematic phases were also organised in a way such that there would be time off. The students were not to feel under pressure all the time. At the same time, we wanted to make sure they steadily accumulated knowledge and that they were equipped with the necessary building bricks by the time for writing the master’s thesis.

The challenges of teaching

What are the challenges of adult educators in flexible higher education? The situation of the student defines the role of the teacher. It was characteristic for our master students that they were between 29 and 61 years of age, that they had high levels of competence, and that they had a wide range of experience from working life, which they were eager to share with others. This created a learning situation that allowed the students to relate their own experiences to the lectures. Experience illustrated theory. Most of the students were very engaged by what their experiences had taught them. Many of them were excited to be among likeminded people and sought a lot of attention, which made it challenging for the teacher to make sure there was room for everyone. As is typical in flexible education, there was a lot of variety within our group of students. Some knew a lot of theory, others none. It was challenging for us to help them consider their experience from a theoretical perspective. It may be considered a sign of quality of the programme that the students have been through a transformation that makes it possible for them to get new perspectives on past experiences (Mezirow 1991). This can lead to new practices.

Adults who themselves have a long experience with teaching may expect exemplary conduct from their teachers. Drawing on Draves, Brookfield points to the following as necessary requirements of adult educators: They should love their subject, be desirous to share the intellectual joys that the subject can bring, and be knowledgeable. He identifies general skills and talents that are necessary for good teaching and are replaceable in different contexts. Good teachers should be good listeners, they should instil confidence in unsure learners, they should avoid punitive actions, they should establish a supporting learning climate, and they should use humour (Brookfield 1986: 134).

If the role of being a teacher in a traditional setting was challenging, the role of the teacher online was not less demanding. Here, the teacher had to facilitate the framework, not just teach. Study technique had to be made an integral part of the set-up. Good organisation of information was important for us to distinguish between the different themes. Furthermore, both engagement and professionalism was important in online communication. The teacher had to be academically responsible as well as engaged on a more personal level when keeping in touch with the individual students located far away from the university. During the second year, the students were to take a course in method
that consisted solely of lectures, discussions, and assignments taking place online. Two of my colleagues mapped how the students evaluated this organisation. When asked about the successes or failures of the online course in method, the students wanted more academic and social interaction with each other. We concluded that there should have been more academic cooperation online while the physical meetings should have ensured the development of more social ties between the students (Fossland/Laugerud 2008).

The feedback from the students was useful for us in getting to grips with how to create a good learning environment. The most pressing problem was finding ways to avoid the loneliness of the distant learner. Wahlgren (2004) gives us some clues for how to proceed. He makes us aware of the social processes that take place in a student group and how important is that everyone in the group functions well together. He maintains that an adult teacher should be able to establish and develop a good learning environment. Furthermore, as a mentor, the adult teacher must guide and kindle the learning process. In this situation it is a challenge to find the working methods that will take advantage of the potential and experience that each student in the group possesses.

We regarded the difference in background and experience as a resource for the professional and social climate in the group. A good feeling of fellowship made it possible to function as a community where the individual students can develop both professionally as well as personally. With so few physical meetings, it was even more of a challenge to create a situation that gave the participants a feeling of security and fellowship. A sense of humour did not do us harm. A learning process such as this could not happen by itself – it had to be created. As teachers, we were responsible for creating an atmosphere acceptable to all, or at least an overwhelming majority, of the students.

In general, most teachers are aware of the professional differences among students, but not all of them take the challenge of social diversity into account. Not all of them are aware that it is necessary to work towards creating a good learning environment among students. Judging by the programme at the University of Tromsø, it is crucial to create an acceptable learning environment in which the students feel that they can trust each other. This is particularly important when the students only meet five times in the course of three years. It is also necessary to make sure the students do not feel left alone when working at home. Many students only feel like students when they are at the university campus, while feeling very lonely as students when at home (Grepperud/Rønning/Støkken 2004). According to Robin Mason (2003), online education and online interaction makes it possible to overcome “the long distance learner syndrome”. This takes us to the next topic I want to address.

The challenges of mentoring

When adult students enter, or re-enter, academia, they are often faced with a new and challenging arena of learning, perhaps mostly with respect to academic writing. Being able to express oneself adequately and professionally is a necessary requirement within higher education. Our students had mixed experiences before they came to us. Some had had contact with different kinds of further education courses and programmes, and were therefore used to this way of working. In fact, it became evident that those who had finished their vocational education only a few years earlier had greater problems than those who had been working for many years. Being able to write academically demands a clear language and ability to reason and make connections between theory and practice.
Written work also has to have a structure. Developing the skills to do so is a rather challenging task for the adult educator as mentor.

The first year members of the team responsible mentored the students in our programme. The second year, they were given a personal mentor who had to follow them throughout the remainder of the process. In addition to the team with which the students were already familiar, we had to hire mentors not working within the programme specifically, but who had experience in mentoring. Where possible geographically, the mentoring took place face to face, but in many cases email, internet, and phone were the only possible means.

One of the teachers in our team has showed the difficulties some students had when assigned a mentor more or less unknown to them (Klingenberg 2008). The students in question hesitated to approach their mentors. They did not feel comfortable submitting their texts, and felt uneasy about contacting the mentors to get advice and input. The internet and the phone did not make things easier, but more complicated. Some of the students seem to have been very self-condemning and lacked self-confidence. They did not dare to get in touch with their mentors without having first handed in a written piece of work. The students did not want to bother the mentors with problems. Klingenberg points out four main reasons for a difficult relationship between students and mentors in our case: Firstly, the students did not know the mentors sufficiently as persons. Secondly, it was not always easy to get a hold of the mentors. Thirdly, adults are often uncertain about the meaning of mentoring and academic writing. Fourthly, the students had problems getting started writing.

We see here that mentoring is understood in a rather personal way. This is hard to ensure within distant learning. Referring to experiences at the Open University, Mason (2003) believes that online communication with mentors can provide more and better contact than even students on campus usually enjoy. This seems to correspond with the experience of our students. Some thought it absolutely necessary to have a face-to-face relation with their mentors and would travel far to meet in person. One of them even travelled a thousand kilometres to see her mentor. She was able to combine the sessions with her tutor with family visits. Others chose to be mentored over the phone even though the mentor was in the same town. Their reasons for doing so, was that it made the mentoring situation more structured, organised, and effective.

As mentioned, it was demanding for the students to combine studies with work and family. This was in particular felt when they had to change jobs or their families were burdened with illness (children, spouses, or old parents). It was difficult to find the time needed. This became a challenge also for my team. Even though we understood the difficulties it was often hard to mentor the students. One member of the team put it like this:

For me, mentoring is the biggest challenge. Some students do not keep our appointments, but continue to ask for extension of deadlines. They say they are sorry and give a lot of good reasons for why they need more time. In several cases we experience that they submit the same text again without taking into account my comments from last time. They forget what we talked about four months earlier. A lot of talent evaporates in this way. They pose many interesting questions and have a lot of experience. The master projects are exciting but also very demanding academic work. The students underestimate the use of time. Many do not understand how much time is needed, that you have to work continuously for days or weeks. They have to be willing to use holidays and “send away” their children for extended weekends. You have to take charge. You also need to get some structure in your reading – it does not work out by itself. What competence do they acquire when they do not read?
We here see that the teacher compares our adult students with what is expected from “normal” full-time students. I do think it was important for us to approach them in a different way and accept that they are faced with difficulties particular for adult students. This was important for their self-respect. It is important to remember that they do not live academic lives.

Grepperud/Rønning/Støkken (2004) find that adults define the relationship between teacher and student as equal and symmetric. They see it as a meeting of two different but equal types of knowledge, a practical and an academic one. On this view, the teacher is considered as a partner in the learning process. This is especially felt in connection with mentoring during writing processes (p. 87).

The challenges of emotional engagement

Through teaching and mentoring our students, I felt an ethical responsibility in addition to my academic obligations. It was necessary to have good communication with the students. The teachers had to be more available and open than usual so that the students could sense that they were taken seriously and that they were taken care of as persons. It was crucial that the students could see that we cared. It was not an option for us to hide away or find excuses for not being there for them. We felt that we to make an effort.

Even students who I was not mentoring approached me with personal problems that made it possible for them to continue their studies. We all became engaged in various aspects of the lives of our students. This was both time consuming and frustrating, but nonetheless unavoidable. Let me give the following excerpt from an email written to a student after she told me that she might have to drop out:

Thank you for sharing and for your trust. I understand very well that your situation is very challenging due to what has happened in your family. Is there anything we can do to make it easier for you to complete your studies? I think there must be something. You and your mentor both think that little remains. Would it be helpful to make a realistic plan with your mentor so that you can take your final exam in the spring of 2009? I believe strongly in the obligating effect of plans. In your case, of course, we need to give you some room and take into account the challenges you are facing. Is it possible for you to get away from home and work for some time (a weekend, a week) so that you can concentrate? My point is that you should try to find some space for yourself, but I am of course not in your shoes. Only you can know best. But in a difficult situation it can be hard to get the energy needed to see new possibilities.

This student had almost finished the master’s thesis, but was faced with problems at home. I here tried to encourage the student to complete the thesis by pointing out how little remained and to stimulate alternative thinking about where and when to do so.

In the third year, there was only one meeting early in the autumn. For this reason, I sent a personal email to all the students in November. This was in order to encourage them. They were now left to themselves and their own text, although they had contact with their mentors. My strategy of sending personalised emails started by getting in touch with only those who I thought were in danger of not completing their degree. It proved to be very effective and popular. Some of the students replied by telling me how grateful they were for the encouragement, others gave me detailed information about their life situation. Some had enormous problems finding a balance between work,
family, and studies. I decided to make a tradition of sending a personal email in November.

We also reached out to the students on a weekly basis on our online network through the so-called “Friday greeting”, a message including information about upcoming topics, recommended literature, interesting conferences, and other relevant material. Sometimes all we only sent a hello with wishes of a nice weekend. Given that there were 52 Fridays in a year, 104 in two years, and 156 in three years, it could be difficult to send an academically stimulating message each time, but this channel of communication between university and student proved to be crucial. We considered Fridays to be the best time so that the students could feel motivated to get some work done during the weekend.

Creating a community among the students was very important. At the first meeting of the first year, we stressed teamwork so that they could build relations. There would be different teams in each session so that everyone could get to know each other. In this way, the students could get an impression of who would be the best to work with. This was important to establish ahead of the more demanding second and third years, with only two and one meetings respectively.

In my experience, it was not easy to create a community. It was very helpful that the students connected with each other and found study partners they could stay in touch with. Friends they had made early on pulled in students who considered dropping out. In fact, most of those who did drop out had not made connections with others. It became increasingly difficult for them to keep up all by themselves. Some of the most successful students met independently of the university. One year there was a group in Oslo meeting regularly. Others stay in touch electronically. Three students met every week via MMS. These student initiatives can be said to indicate that we were not as successful as we had hoped in creating a community. Maybe more could have been done. But it is not an easy task to make adults work together; a lot depends on how they get along personally. We had so few meetings over three years that it was near impossible to do more to encourage interpersonal relations. A lot hinged on the students themselves. We could not instruct people to make friends; they had to work things out on their own. All we could do was to initiate and facilitate

Conclusion

When the master’s programme in adult education first started up, I was in doubt about the adequacy of its contents and structure. I was not sure that we, as a group, would be able to handle the academic and social challenges in adult education. However, in the end we all felt that it had been a success. It is a sign of quality that only very few of our students had to quit. Another indication that the programme had high quality was that the students were very positive in retrospect. They have found it useful in their daily work. Last but not least, I think we can speak of some quality when we take into consideration that our students felt indignation when they heard that the programme was to be closed down. They felt that others would have had a lot to learn as well. But the programme remains closed to this day.

References


Educating the adult educator: A tool of self-assessment of quality of their educational work and detection of their instructive skills.

Introduction

According to Rogers, A. (1999): «The instructor is the most important factor of an educational program and, consequently, the evaluation of his instructive effectiveness constitutes a vital element for the improvement of proceedings and programmes that he/she follows and participates in. As it is pointed out characteristically (Mpagakis, G. 2003): «Systematic rethinking in the testimonies of practice is one of the best ways of professional growth of an adult educator.»

A training model should therefore consider the professional development of the trainees as a process of critical reflection and transformation. The characteristics of such a model should be that all trainers are continuously motivated towards a transformation process, along with trainees. This critical reflection should lead the educators to a reconstruction and renewal of their knowledge and concepts, thus leading to the upgrading of their teaching practices (Kassimatis, A. 2005: 90-102).

In our country there is lack of such a tool for assessing teaching effectiveness of an educator based on Greek research data. For this reason, we decided to proceed with designing and implementing the research instrument presented in this conference.

The research presented in this conference aims at the presenting a tool of systematic rethinking and authentic evaluation (Kasimati, K. 2005) of the effectiveness, regarding the level of knowledge, attitudes and skills. This instrument was applied in a series of in-service training seminars, conducted by the same trainer, on the same subject, in 60 groups. The seminars were attended more than 2000 educational and administrative public executives, both in primary and secondary education, all over Greece.

The significance of this research lies in the knowledge which the adult educator’s acquires concerning the outcomes of his/her teaching, especially when he/she has to design the next session, in an effort for a continuous improvement.

Aim

The research aims at studying the validity and reliability of a self administered questionnaire in order to measure the effectiveness of an adult educator.

As effectiveness we consider the evaluation against 4 basic criteria, suggested by the relevant literature, plus the changes at the level of knowledge, attitudes and skills of the participants.

In order to examine the context validity of the questionnaire we kept constant the parameters “educator” and “subject”, thus evaluating the same educator who is teaching the same subject in 60 groups, attended by more than 2000 senior executives, counsellors, teachers and adult trainers in the Greek public sector, during five educational
programs. We asked the trainees to express their opinion about the validity of the questionnaire.

The educational method used followed the principles of the transformative learning (Mezirow, J. 1990, 2007), according to which learning is not a simple accumulation of knowledge but a process in which basic values and assumptions change. The title of the issue presented was: “Involving the concepts of the individual learning style and self-esteem in adult education”. The concept of the individual learning style and, in particular, the dominant perceptual type have only recently begun to be studied in Greece, both in initial education (Kanavouras, N. et al. 2009; Tsiros, H. 2008) and in adult education (Katartzis, 2009; Drymourea, 2009).

The teaching technique used was enriched with questions, brainstorming techniques, directed note-taking and case study.

The questionnaire was distributed to about 60 groups of teachers and adult trainers, in 12 areas geographically dispersed all over Greece from January to September 2008.

Methodology

The questionnaire

The researching tool (Inventory of Self Evaluation in Adult Education) was planned on the basis of the adult education principles (Grain, A. 2005). It consists of 4 criteria made up of 21 close-ended and 6 open-ended questions in the direction of both a quantitative and a qualitative research.

The above mentioned criteria were:

a) Planning module (clarity, completeness and association of the learning targets to the needs of the trainees),
b) Educational methods and techniques (methodology, process of implementing the objectives, educational means, feedback to the trainees),
c) Learning environment and relationships with team members (authenticity, unconditional acceptance, empathy, relationship with trainees, trust, scientific adequacy of the educator),
d) Learning results (change of knowledge, attitudes and skills).

A positive response in three of the close-ended questions (those relating to the learning outcomes in knowledge, attitudes and skills) opens six new open-ended ones regarding the situation before and after the session. In the case of an inaugural meeting three new questions were added.

The close-ended questions were answered using a five-point Likert scale and the open ones using a similar two-point scale. (Whether or not answered).

The statistical analysis of the close-ended questions is presented below. The analysis of the answers to the open-ended questions resulted in the profile of the “preferred adult educator”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criterion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Planning module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b1. Methodology
- active involvement of the trainees
- versus passiveness
- suitability for the particular trainees

b2. Process of implementing the objectives
- Discrete stages
- Natural process from one stage to the next

b3. Educational means
- usefulness

b4. Feedback to the trainees
- association with the targets
- validity and reliability
- acceptance from the trainees

c. Learning environment and relationship with team members
- authenticity
- unconditional acceptance
- empathy
- relationship with trainees
- trust
- scientific adequacy of the educator

d. Learning results
- new knowledge,
- change of attitudes
- new skills

Sample
The tables that follow describe the population as far as the educational program, the place and the job position is concerned. All the trainees work in the Greek public sector and they were educated by the Greek Ministry of Education (Pedagogical Institute and General Secretariat of Life long Education). O.A.E.D. is the state organization responsible for the employment in Greece.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational program</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Class Management&quot;</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;In service training of the senior executives of the Ministry of education&quot;</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>74.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Initial training of educators at Primary and Secondary education&quot;</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Education of adult educators&quot;</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Education of adult educators of O.A.E.D.&quot;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Educational center

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rhodes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piraeus</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naxos</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xanthi</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chios</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thessaloniki</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chania</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>74.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sparta</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>84.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nayplio</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>89.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corinth</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripoli</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Job position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>89.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outcomes

*Quantitative research*

In the results which follow we consider as “majority” the percentage 60-85% and “absolute majority” the percentage above 85%.

Table 5. a. Planning module (clarity, completeness and association of the learning targets to the needs of the trainees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>91.2</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>91 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Planning module.
Table 6. a. Planning module (one way anova)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>-953</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between the levels are statistically significant (F (6)=.95, p=.002).

Table 7. b1. Methodology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>401</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>88 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Methodology.

Table 8. b1. Methodology (one way anova)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>2.022</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between the levels are not statistically significant (F (6)=2.0, p=.06).
Table 9. b2. Process of implementing the objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>86.0</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>95.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>90 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Process of implementing the objectives.

Table 10. b2. Process of implementing the objectives (one way anova)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between the levels are statistically significant (F (6)=.96, p=.004).

Table 11. b3. Educational means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>90 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Educational means.

Table 12. b3. Educational means (one way anova)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.917</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The differences between the levels are statistically significant ($F(6)=1.92$, $p=.007$).

Table 13. b4. Feedback to the trainees (Validity of the researching tool)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>95.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>98.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>97.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>96 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Feedback to the trainees (Validity of the researching tool).

Table 14. b4. Feedback to the trainees (one way anova) (Validity of the researching tool)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>2.190</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between the levels are statistically significant ($F(6)=2.2$, $p=.003$).

The conclusion deriving from the tables above is that the researching instrument has context validity because the absolute majority (> 96%) of the sample has a positive attitude in all the three sub-criteria (association with the targets, validity and reliability, acceptance from the trainees) and because there are significant differences between the different levels as far as job position is concerned ($F=2.190$, $P=0.003$).

Table 15. c. Learning environment and relationship with team members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>95.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral attitude</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that the absolute majority (>95 %) has a positive attitude regarding the Learning environment and relationship with team members.
Table 16. c. Learning environment and relationship with team members (one way anova)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District manager</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School master</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult educator</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>402</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between the levels are statistically significant (F (6)=.8, p=.002).

Table 17. d1. Learning results: new knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New knowledge</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>89.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td>403</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18. d2. Learning results: change of attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change of attitudes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td>385</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19. d3. Learning results: new skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New skills</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>81.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub total</strong></td>
<td>359</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total evaluation**

Table 20. Total positive attitudes in each criterion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Attitude</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Planning module</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b1. Methodology</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b2. Process of implementing the objectives</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b3. Educational means | 250 | 90.3
b4. Feedback to the trainees | 380 | 95.7
c. Learning environment and relationship with team members | 382 | 95.0

The absolute majority (>85%) of the trainees has a positive attitude according to all criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>new knowledge</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>89,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change of attitudes</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>67,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new skills</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>81,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above we could see that 89% of the sample declares the acquisition of new knowledge, 67% change of attitudes and 82% the acquisition of new skills.

**Reliability at each of six axes and total (Alfa Cronbach's)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Questions (21 sub criteria)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Alfa Cronbach's a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Planning module</td>
<td>clarity, completeness and association of the learning targets</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>0,6357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to the needs of the trainees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b1. Methodology</td>
<td>Active involvement of the trainees versus passiveness,</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>-0,6465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suitability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b2. Process of implementing the objectives</td>
<td>Discrete stages, Natural process from one stage to the next</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>0,787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b3. Educational means</td>
<td>One factor</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Feedback to the trainees</td>
<td>Association with the targets, Validity and reliability,</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>0,8269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptance from the trainees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Learning environment and relationship with team members</td>
<td>authenticity, unconditional acceptance, empathy, relationship</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>0,8508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with trainees, trust, scientific adequacy of the educator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Reliability</td>
<td>21 υποκατηγορίες</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0,7964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researching tool has an internal reliability because the quantitative findings which resulted from the statistical analysis of the answers, in a five point Likert scale for the closed questions and in two point scale for the open ones, showed indicators of internal reliability in all sub factors (Cronbach's a) above 0,6
Conclusion and suggestions

1. Quantitative analysis showed that the researching tool (Inventory of Self Evaluation in Adult Education):
   - Has a context validity because the absolute majority (> 96%) of the sample has a positive attitude in all the three sub-criteria (association with the targets, validity and reliability, acceptance from the trainees) and because there are significant differences between the different sub criteria (F, P<.001).
   - has an internal reliability because the quantitative findings which resulted from the statistical analysis of the answers, in a five point Likert scale for the closed questions and in two point scale for the open ones, showed indicators of internal reliability in all sub factors (Cronbach’s a) above 0.6.

2. The qualitative findings, based word for word on individuals’ comments and proposals are useful for planning future educational programs in adult education with reference to the learning interests of the participants and the role and teaching skills of the profile of their ‘desired’ adult educator.
   - In particular, intense interest was shown on behalf of the participants for the continuation of their education in the fields of the self –esteem, the learning style and the communication skills resulting in teaching and learning effectiveness and the confrontation of the teachers’ burn out.

3. Therefore the above described self assessment tool deserves a role in the discussion of redefining quality in adult education in Greece.
   It would be interested to further study the tool in different background.

References


Katartzis, J. (2009). To explore the relationship between Sensory perception of a phenomenon, expression of the corresponding empirical knowledge and metacognitive reference. Case study. In the CD Abstract Scientific Conference of the Department of Preschool Education, University of Crete and the Pedagogical Society of Greece on:
PART 2 | Professionalisation & professional development: Not anybody’s business

ARATEMUR CIMEN, Canan
Boğaziçi University, Turkey

Development of professional expertise in corporate training through learning experiences in the workplace.

Introduction

Corporate training is an interdisciplinary area of practice in adult education and human resources with its important role to provide diverse learning opportunities for employees in the workplace. Although its roots can be traced back to the Industrial Revolution, it was specifically during the 1940s that corporate training was recognized as a specific field (Marsick and Watkins, 1999, Walter, 2002). However, it has gained a greater significance in the last three decades mainly because of the emergence of global knowledge-based economy, information revolution and developments in technology where a new meaning and value has been attributed to corporate training (Bouchard, 1998). Because the nature of work has changed from that of production to knowledge work (Levin, 2005), corporate training has started being used as a way of equipping employees with the latest business requirements to increase productivity of the organization and remain competitive in the market (Fenwick, 2000). To serve this purpose, huge sums have started to be spent on training of the workforce (Daley, 1999, Walter, 2002). The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) estimated that organizations spent nearly $134.39 billion on employee learning and development activities in 2007 (State of the Industry Report, 2008). Yet, this number was $ 30 billion in 1986 (Akyıldız, 1991).

In Turkey, corporate training activities were started in the mid 1950s where the private sector began to be involved in the process of industrialization of the country (Akyıldız, 1991). However, as Aycan (2001) noted, the private sector has mainly developed after the 1980s with the establishment of new business organizations and their integration to global economy. This has also led to the development of corporate training in Turkey with increasing attention of business organizations for corporate training as one of the most important functions of human resources development practices.

While training has gained a strategic role within business organizations, the number of practitioners working in corporate training has also increased considerably. For instance, when the ASTD was established as the first association of corporate training professionals in 1942, there were fifteen individual members; this number increased to 24,500 at the end of the 1980s and to 34,000 in the beginning of 1990s (Walter, 1994). Currently it has more than 44,000 members worldwide (ASTD, 2009). Although there are substantial numbers of practitioners working in corporate training in different public and private sector business organizations, as Gauld and Miller (2004) proposed, corporate training has continued to be seen as a field of profession that anyone can perform if they have some knowledge and interest in the field regardless of their educational backgrounds. Besides, due to lack of formal education opportunities, professional development in corporate training has still remained undefined for people who want to work in the
profession (Daly, 1967, Akyildiz, 1991, O’Connor, 2004). Typically, practitioners have come from diverse educational backgrounds and their professional development has been formed with participation in short training courses and informally learned practices in the workplace. In that respect, professional expertise in corporate training is mostly expected to be developed through individual learning efforts and experiences. These factors are the most driving forces behind conducting this study where corporate training practitioners generally “are called upon to perform tasks for which they have not been educated” (Schön, 1983, p.14). Therefore, exploring how and in which ways practitioners construct their professional expertise has become important and this paper aims to investigate learning experiences of corporate training practitioners in the workplace while acquiring necessary knowledge and skills for their professional development.

**Workplace Learning**

According to Malcolm, Hodkinson and Colley (2003), all learning situations in the workplace contains both formal and informal characteristics and they are interrelated in different ways in different learning situations. According to Svenson and Ellström (2004), neither formal learning nor informal learning do not alone guarantee acquisition of knowledge. There is a need for integration of formal and informal learning in the workplace while developing sufficient knowledge.

Formal learning refers to learning activities where the goal and process of learning is defined by the organization (Education Development Center, 1998). It occurs in the work context and is organized by the business organizations for the purpose of training the workforce -develop a skill or knowledge related with the jobs and personal development-. In that sense, as Schön (1983) proposes, formal learning generally provides what he calls “technical rationality” for necessary knowledge to practice within a profession. In formal learning, learners follow a structured program or a series of experiences planned and directed by a trainer (Livingstone, 2001). They are engaged in lectures, discussions, simulations, role plays and other instructional activities outside of their work context (Enos, Kehrhahn, and Bell, 2003). However, this is the main reason for raising criticisms against formal learning because it occurs outside of the context of daily practices (Brown and Duguid, 1996, cited in Hara, 2001).

On the other hand, informal learning is the most prevalent form of learning in the workplace because it takes both the learner and the life experiences of the learner in the center of the learning process (Marsick and Watkins, 2005). For Eraut (2004), informal learning in the workplace is important, because it not only recognizes social side of learning by focusing on learning from other people, but also leaves a space for individual agency. In its broadest sense, “informal learning is a process of learning that occurs in everyday experience” (Cofer, 2000, p.1). According to Lohman, informal learning refers to activities of learning which are “initiated by people in work settings that result in the development of their professional knowledge and skills” (2000, p.84). According to Marsick and Volpe (1999), informal learning in the workplace is integrated with work and daily routines, triggered by an internal or external jolt, not highly conscious, haphazard and influenced by chance, an inductive process of reflection and action and linked to learning with others. As opposed to common definitions, Garrick (1998) critically examines the definition of informal learning and identifies informal learning as a type of learning which is mostly influenced by the social positioning of the person at work. He makes a distinction between informal learning and learning informally. He prefers to use
learning informally while referring to individual’s spontaneous experiences in everyday life.

Whether formal or informal, because learning is a socially constructed activity in the workplace, investigating contextual factors is important to understand how learning is shaped in the workplace context. Education Development Center (1998) defined contextual factors which “are not directly connected with informal learning but rather they are part of the environment in which informal learning occurs” (p.97). At the same time, individual factors which focus on the way in which people behave, make decisions and communicate are also important for their engagement in informal learning (Gregorc, 1982, Hirsch and Kummerow, 1990, cited in Berg and Chyung, 2008). These factors had an impact on the amount and quality of learning in the workplace.

Methodology

This is a descriptive qualitative study which was carried out with thirteen corporate training practitioners within three different private business organizations operating in banking, retail and telecommunication sectors in Turkey. On the basis of convenient sampling, the study was conducted within the organizations that have specific corporate training departments and provide considerable amount of training opportunities for its employees. For the purpose of confidentiality, organizations were referred with fictitious names. Organization in the banking sector was referred to as Company X, organization in the retail sector was referred to as Company Y and organization in the telecommunication sector was referred to as Company Z.

Company X: The first research setting selected for the study was the headquarters of a private bank. It has almost 16,000 employees and 850 branches all over Turkey. The bank has a good reputation in terms of providing a considerable amount of training of its employees. Training activities are organized under the corporate banking academy. There are four areas of training within the academy as banking, personal development, leadership and social responsibility. In 2008, the training department provided 55 man-hours training per employee. The training department operates under the human resources group and is headed by a training director together with twenty three employees working with her.

Company Y: The second research setting selected for the study was the headquarters of a private business organization operating in the retail sector. It has almost 1,030 employees and 118 stores all over Turkey. Training department operates under the human resources group and organizes different training activities under the categories of personal development, basic training, technical training and managerial training. In 2008, the training department provided 61 man-hours training per employee. The training department is headed by a training and development director with five employees working with her.

Company Z: The third research setting selected for the study was the headquarters of a private business organization that operates in the telecommunication sector. It has almost 2,500 employees all over Turkey. The training department operates under the human resources group and organizes different training activities in three main areas. There are basic trainings including orientation and organizational development programs; functional trainings which provide technical knowledge in line with the needs of each business unit and managerial trainings. In 2008, the training department provided
59 man-hours training per employee. The training department is headed by a talent manager and training manager with six employees working with her.

Semi-structured interviews were made with participants during February and March 2009. The critical incident technique was also benefited in the interviews. Six participants from Company X, three participants from Company Y, and four participants from Company Z were interviewed. The main criteria for selection were that participants were currently working as a corporate training practitioner, responsible for training development activities within business organizations, and willing to be interviewed. Those who were mainly responsible only for operational work in the training department were not included in the study. Participants varied in their age, gender, educational backgrounds, and experience and position levels.

The data gathered in this study was analyzed using the content analysis method. The responses of the participants about the critical incidents were also analyzed together with the responses of other questions. It provided a way to get more accurate record of the participants’ perceptions by comparing general opinions of the participants with critical incident responses. The first phase of analysis consisted of building a set of dimensions according to research questions. And then, interview data was coded under each dimension to construct a categorization framework. There emerged sixty codes within nine dimensions. In the second phase of data analysis, all transcribed data were read and analyzed according to emerging codes. For each code, the frequency was calculated by counting the number of practitioners who mentioned the code in their responses. And, in the final phase of data analysis, the codes and dimensions were converged into three major themes.

Findings

Major findings resulted from data analysis were presented under three emerging themes in the study as becoming a corporate training practitioner, the extent of professional expertise in corporate training and the ways of professional development in corporate training. Before that, brief demographic information of the participants was provided.

Those who participated in the study were between 28 and 38 years old, and the average age of participants was 32. There were ten females and three males in the study. Accordingly, females constituted 77% and males 23% of the participants. The most experienced participant had 15.5 years of total work experience while the least experienced one had 4 years of total experience. On the other hand, the most experienced participant in corporate training had 15.5 years of experience while the least experienced one had 1.5 years of experience. Practitioners were called with different titles in each business organization as training division head, training consultant, learning manager, learning specialist, talent management and training manager, and training and development supervisor. Accordingly, there were four practitioners in management positions and nine practitioners in mid-level positions in the study.

Educational backgrounds of the practitioners revealed that they were highly educated. Eight practitioners had an undergraduate degree, five practitioners had a master degree and one practitioner had a double major. On the other hand, three practitioners currently have enrolled in a master program and two have enrolled in a Ph.D program. It also appeared that practitioners were very diverse in terms of their areas of study. For undergraduate degrees, there were five practitioners who were graduates of
the faculty of arts and sciences, five graduates of the faculty of economics and administrative sciences, two graduates of the faculty of education, one graduate of the faculty of communication and one graduate of the faculty of engineering. In addition to this, eleven different areas of study emerged. Except psychology, sociology and economy which have two graduates, there was one graduate in guidance and psychological counseling, communication, German language and literature, educational sciences, business administration, public administration, labor economics and electronics engineering. For master degrees, except one practitioner who was a graduate of the faculty of arts and sciences, remaining practitioners were from the faculty of economics and administrative sciences. There emerged four different areas of study among master degrees as business administration, human resources, organizational behaviour and psychology. For Ph.D degrees, two areas of study emerged, organizational behaviour and musicology.

**Becoming a Corporate Training Practitioner**

The analysis of data indicated that practitioners generally did not make informed decisions when they started to work in corporate training. They mostly entered into corporate training coincidentally.

**The Extent of Professional Expertise in Corporate Training**

As it was stated by Valkevaara (2002), in the practice of a profession, professional expertise is formed with the needed specific knowledge and skills. Accordingly, in order to understand the extent of professional expertise in corporate training, practitioners’ roles and responsibilities, and their conception about the needed knowledge and skills while performing these responsibilities in corporate training were identified.

**Roles and Responsibilities of Corporate Training Practitioners:** Training needs analysis, training design, coordination of training activities with external consultants, planning, development of internal trainer system, implementation, measurement and evaluation, and budget management were generally shared responsibilities of the practitioners. They were sometimes given responsibilities in different projects and had a responsibility in delivering training programs. It was highly emphasized by practitioners that their role within the organization was very important in terms of managing relations with other business units. Practitioners stated that they were consultants and strategic partners within the organization in order to help business units to realize their business goals.

**Conception of Practitioners for Professional Expertise:** For practitioners, corporate training is a very human-oriented profession where there is a need for interacting with different people everyday. In order to be successful in that profession, it was found necessary to possess some skills. Although different range of skills was mentioned during the interviews, there emerged predominantly two main set of skills as communication and presentation skills.

On the other hand, in order to be able to perform within corporate training, conceptual knowledge in training and business knowledge were identified by practitioners as inseparable constituents of their professional expertise. While conceptual knowledge in training is needed to carry out main responsibilities within corporate
training, business knowledge is found to be important for accomplishing roles of consulting and strategic partnership within the organization.

The considerations of practitioners about the needed conceptual knowledge in training emerged as training needs analysis, training design, measurement and evaluation together with the knowledge in psychology and adult learning. Business knowledge mainly included knowledge about the sector and the organization that they worked for, and the training sector. It seemed that business knowledge was perceived as significant as conceptual knowledge in training and more important than knowledge in adult learning and psychology (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components of Professional Expertise</th>
<th>Types of Knowledge and Skills</th>
<th># of Practitioners Mentioned the Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presentation Skills</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Conceptual Knowledge in Training</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business Knowledge</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge in Psychology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge in Adult Learning</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Ways of Professional Development in Corporate Training**

**Practitioners’ Formal Learning Experiences in the Workplace:** Practitioners recognized formal learning as one of the ways of learning in the profession, but not as the primary one. Except one practitioner, all of the practitioners mentioned that they participated to some daily training programs, short courses and conferences during their employment within a corporate training department. However, they were identified as very limited and insufficient.

The most frequently mentioned training program was the “Train the Trainer” program that was mainly given to practitioners in order to develop their ability to present and deliver effective training programs. It was followed by “Consulting Skills”, “Project Management”, “Training Design”, “Presentation Skills” programs. Practitioners also stated that they participated to some daily training programs to develop their related business knowledge. Accordingly, result of the interviews obviously showed that practitioners did not participate to any systematic training courses for their preparation and development in the profession.

**Practitioners’ Informal Learning Experiences in the Workplace:** Informal learning emerged as the main way of learning for practitioners while they were developing their professional expertise within corporate training. All informal learning activities mentioned in the study were initiated by practitioners themselves. In that sense, they were found to be highly intentional and self-directed learners while trying to acquire needed knowledge and skills to perform their jobs.

While they actively constructed their knowledge mostly through informally learned practices, there emerged two main categories of informal learning as “learning on their own” and “learning from others”. These emerging categories verified what Eraut (2004) proposed for the importance of informal learning, as there was a place for both
individual agency and learning from others in a given social context. The informal learning activities under “learning on their own” category included exploration, execution of the job, presenting and self-reflection. In that category, exploration was the most stated informal learning activity which included reading books and articles, searching the internet and reviewing documents. Whereas, self-reflection emerged as the least mentioned informal learning activity among others. It appeared that although some practitioners reflected on their experiences in the learning process, critical reflection was not applied. And, without critical reflection, it could be concluded that what was learned informally was taken for granted (see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal Learning Category</th>
<th>Informal Learning Activities</th>
<th># of Practitioners Mentioned the Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning on their own</td>
<td>1. Exploration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) Reading Books and Articles</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Searching the Internet</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) Reviewing Documents</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Execution of the Job</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Presenting</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Self-Reflection</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The informal learning activities under “learning from others” category included questioning, consulting and working in projects. In that category, questioning emerged as the mostly used informal learning activity whereas working in projects was mentioned as the least. While they mainly learned from others, their managers, colleagues and external consultants played an important role in their development. They were the main providers of conceptual knowledge in training and business knowledge. For those practitioners who mentioned that their managers were important sources of learning, having an opportunity to work directly with them seemed to be important. Furthermore, learning from more experienced colleagues in the work unit was also helpful. However, even though people source was identified as significant, practitioners in the study did not report learning through networking with other people who were in the profession (see Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal Learning Category</th>
<th>Informal Learning Activities</th>
<th># of Practitioners Mentioned the Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning from Others</td>
<td>1. Questioning</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Consulting</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Working in Projects</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factors Affecting Informal Learning Experiences of the Practitioners: Since practitioners learned in a social context and had their own individual preferences for degree of self-direction in learning, their learning experiences were exposed to some influencing factors
for informal learning. In the study, these factors were classified as contextual factors and individual factors. Attitude of managers and colleagues towards practitioners, structure of work, access to learning resources and management attitude towards training were classified under contextual factors (see Table 4).

Table 4. Contextual Factors Affecting Informal Learning Experiences of the Practitioners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Categories of Factors Affecting Learning Experiences</th>
<th>Factors Affecting Learning Experiences</th>
<th># of Practitioners Mentioned the Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Factors</td>
<td>1. Attitude of Managers and Colleagues towards Practitioners</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Structure of Work</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Access to Learning Resources</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Attitude of Management towards Training</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, personality characteristics and educational backgrounds of practitioners were classified under individual factors (see Table 5).

Table 5. Individual Factors Affecting Informal Learning Experiences of the Practitioners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Categories of Factors Affecting Learning Experiences</th>
<th>Factors Affecting Learning Experiences</th>
<th># of Practitioners Mentioned the Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Factors</td>
<td>1. Personality Characteristics</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Educational Backgrounds</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the factors which had an impact on informal learning experiences of practitioners could act in a positive or negative direction. In other words, if practitioners were willing to learn, curious, and self-confident, if they had a related educational background, if there were positive attitudes of managers and colleagues towards practitioners, if the structure of work allowed practitioners to allocate time for learning, if there was access to learning resources and if management attitude towards training was supportive, then all these factors became facilitators of informal learning. Otherwise, they turned into inhibitors of informal learning.

Implications

One of the most important implications of the study is related with the quality of learning while practitioners developing their professional expertise. As it was obviously appeared in the study, there are no structurally organized learning opportunities for practitioners and practitioners mostly rely on their informal learning experiences, there emerge some concerns regarding the quality of professional development in corporate training. For developing qualified practitioners in corporate training, practitioners should have either a degree in related fields or attend at least a certificate program to acquire a theoretical background and creating possibility in critical awareness about existing applications in corporate training.
It is also considered important to find a way to integrate both formal and informal learning activities in the workplace so that they can be provided with necessary knowledge and skills in a more sufficient way. Furthermore, it is also important to be aware of the contextual factors in the workplace for facilitating informal learning experiences of all employees. Providing a better learning environment by giving necessary recognition, guidance and support seems to be important for all employees for their professional developments.

Another implication of the study is related with the identified roles of practitioners. Practitioners should not only be in the position to act as executors of corporate agenda. They should also act as educators of adults who help employees to develop both individually and socially in the workplace. This can contribute to larger issues of workplace context as equity, diversity and democracy.

Conclusion

This paper identified that majority of professional learning in corporate training occurs informally in the workplace where formal learning experiences were found as complimentary but insufficient. Learning activities were experienced as an ongoing process where practitioners were found highly intentional and self-directed learners.

Because practitioners generally do not attend any institutionalized education programs to acquire needed knowledge and skills before starting to work in corporate training or while working, it is hoped that the results of this study will contribute to adult educators in developing preparatory programs for practitioners who would like to construct their own knowledge and skills in corporate training.

References


Formulating the job profile of vocational trainers of adults: a Flemish and European case study.

Introduction

The last decade, increasing importance has been given to the competences of teachers and trainers of adult learners. This is mainly due to new insights in the learning process of adults and new developments in teaching and coaching methods of adult learners.

Furthermore, the profile of the students in vocational adult training has drastically changed the last years, as the degree of prior schooling is generally lower and the composition of the groups of adult students is usually more heterogeneous with regard to motivation then before etc. Furthermore, much more emphasis is put on the flexibility of trainers and on the efficient training of trainers of adults. But most important is the need for adults to invest continuously in acquiring new competences which meet new requirements in a world in which working conditions and tasks are changing very rapidly.

This was the main reason for both the Flemish Government and the different stakeholders to develop a general professional profile and basic competences for starting trainers of adults.

Due to the globalisation combined with the increasing mobility of trainers and workers, the call for exchangeable certificates among European member states sounds increasingly louder.

Furthermore, a well organised human research management and development system requires a good developed competence management system.

Both developments inspired the Flemish project Coordinator VDAB⁸ to start the European Leonardo da Vinci project ‘Competent-sys-trainer⁹.

In the next paragraphs the procedure and results of Flemish and the European case studies will be presented and discussed.

Flemish case study: development of a professional profile and formulating basic competences for trainers of trainers.

In 2002 the so-called interface group within the Flemish Ministry of Education took the initiative to start the project ‘training of adult trainers’, in order to develop a training trajectory for trainers of adults outside the traditional ‘educational’ context, which means that educators in higher education (bachelor and master level) did not belong to the target group of this project. The trajectory has to be based on a professional profile for experienced trainers of adult learners and basic competences for starting teachers of adults.

⁸ VDAB is the Flemish Public Employment and vocational training Service.
⁹ The full title of the project is: ‘Development and implementation of a competency based management system for trainers in continuing vocational education and training, to be integrated into existing Human Resources systems (N° 2003-B/03/B/F/PP-144.340).
In the Flemish Community adult education is organised by several ‘official’ organisations subsidized by the Flemish Community, which include:

- Centres of Adult Education, which are controlled and subsidized by the Department of Education and Training;
- VDAB, the Flemish Public Employment and Vocational training Service, which is under control of the Flemish minister of Labour;
- VIZO\(^{30}\) controlled by the Flemish Agency of Entrepreneurship
- Socius, is an independent organisation that is subsidised by the minister for Culture to support the socio-cultural adult work sector.

Notwithstanding these organisations only recruit trainers with several years of experience in their field of expertise (e.g. electric welding), they all complained about the lack of didactical competences with many of their teachers and trainers. The description of the professional profile of an experienced trainer and the description of the competences a starting trainer needs are therefore the necessary steps which had to be taken.

This operation resulted in a trajectory, which reconciles two seemingly contradictory aims: (1) a short and efficient trajectory and (2) a trajectory with a substantial and relevant content.

**Procedure**

The decree on teacher training, approved by the Flemish parliament became effective on 1 October 1997 and has been actualised 15 December 2006. In the version of 2006, the professional profile of the teacher is formulated as ‘the description of knowledge, skills and attitudes practicing his profession. The professional profile contains all tasks an experienced teacher is practicing and will practice from the perspective of societal and other developments, such as the metropolitan context, linguistic skill in Dutch, multilingualism and the diversification of the educational world’. The actualised professional profile does not differentiate between the different types of teachers: pre-school, primary education and secondary education.

The professional profile must be considered as an ideal profile that serves the purpose of a framework of professional growth of teachers and of innovation. The basic competences of the teacher are the description of the knowledge, skills and attitudes all graduated students need to possess in order to function as a full teacher. The basic competences allow the teacher to grow into the professional profile and they are derived directly from the professional profile (Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap, 2007).

In contrast to the professional profile, basic competences slightly differ according to the type of teacher.

Teacher training colleges and universities have a large autonomy in organising their educational programmes, but they must be based on the basic competences.

In 2002 the interface group (cf. supra) decided to start from the professional profile of the teacher of secondary education\(^{31}\) as the ‘framework’ for the development of the professional profile of the trainer of adults. The first phase –the development of the professional profile and basic competences- was realized in 2004. The next step includes

\(^{30}\) The name VIZO is replaced today by SYNTRA +

\(^{31}\) In the version of 1997 there was also a differentiation between the professional profiles of the different types of teachers.
the development of a modular training trajectory and ‘translating’ the basic competences into concrete educational objectives.

As the participants in this training trajectory are supposed to have acquired already expertise in a specific domain of knowledge, this aspect is not included in the training trajectory of the trainer of adults.

In the next paragraph the structure of the professional profile of the trainer of adults is described.

**Description of the professional profile of the trainer of adults**

Teaching is considered more than the sum of competences, but it is essentially considered as a number of responsibilities towards (1) the learner, (2) the school or institution for adult education and (3) society (Aelterman, 1995). For each of these clusters of responsibilities, so-called type-functions were formulated (Table 1). Subsequently, for each type-function skills and supporting knowledge are formulated. Besides these type-functions, ten professional attitudes are formulated which may be applied in specific situations, taking into account the specific form of organisation, target groups and content of the training modules.

**Table 1. Structure of the professional profile of the adult trainer in the Flemish Community of Belgium**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsibilities towards the learner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 1:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a coach in learning and developmental processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 2:</strong> the educator (trainer) as an agogic counsellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 3:</strong> the educator (trainer) as an expert in a field of study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 4:</strong> the educator (trainer) as an organiser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 5:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a researcher - innovator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsibilities towards the educational institute and the educational community</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 6:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a member of a team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 7:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a partner of external institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 8:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a member of the training and formation community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsibilities towards society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type-function 9:</strong> the educator (trainer) as a participant in culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As an example the skills and supporting knowledge of the type-function of ‘the trainer as an expert in a field of study’ are (type-function 3) provided in table 2.

**Table 2. Skills and supporting knowledge of type-function 3 of the professional profile of the trainer of adults in the Flemish Community of Belgium.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Skill 3.1:</strong> the trainer has mastery of the actual specific domain knowledge and he/she is able to follow up the recent evolutions of it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the trainer masters the knowledge he/she needs in his/her field of study;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the trainer promotes his/her own expertise by self directed learning, training and practical experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the trainer knows the actual sources of information of his/her field of study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The supporting knowledge includes:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the structure and coherence of the field of study and knowledge about the possibilities of continuous learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the actual sources of information of the field of study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Skill 3.2:</strong> apply the acquired domain specific knowledge and skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the trainer is able to apply in a flexible way the results of the skill of 3.1 in both a agogical and didactic setting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The supporting knowledge includes:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the concepts, content, structures and sources of information of the field of study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Skill 3.3:** giving a place and integrating the learning content in the programmes of the organisation and |

| **The supporting knowledge includes:** |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Skill 3.4:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the trainer is able to apply in a flexible way the results of the skill of 3.1 in both a agogical and didactic setting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The supporting knowledge includes:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• the concepts, content, structures and sources of information of the field of study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in the structure of the programmes regarding training of adults
- the trainer is able to make horizontal and vertical links between content elements of his own field of study on the one hand and the global objectives of the learning tract on the other hand
- the trainer is able to give the content elements of his own field of study a place within the personal, societal and professional context of the individual

The supporting knowledge includes:
- the relationship between the own field of study and the existing possibilities and structures for training

**Skill 3.4:** participate as a professional in knowledge management and sharing
- the trainer is able to share his/her knowledge with his/her colleagues
- the trainer is able to participate in and to contribute to fora/communities of professionals in their field of study in view of passing on his/her own knowledge and acquiring new knowledge

The supporting knowledge contains:
- relevancy for the own field of study
- basic understanding of knowledge management

The development of the professional profile and the basic competences was finished in 2004. During the next stage of the project a technical working group, consisting of a representative of the stakeholders and a representative of 5 different centres for adult education rearranged the basic competences into 6 different modules (Table 2). To illustrate the content of the modules and the relationship with the basic competences, the module ‘Managing diversity’ is presented in Table 4.

The sequence of the modules in the trajectory is not fixed which means that the training institutions are free to decide about the sequence.

**Table 3. Modular trajectory for the training of adult educators in the Flemish Community of Belgium**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODULE</th>
<th>Instruction time (hours)</th>
<th>Practical training (hours)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing diversity</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educator as an agogic counsellor</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The adult in learning and training situations</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Align with the initial situation and expectations of students and participants</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating adjusted learning environments</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting learning processes of adults: coaching - assessing - providing feedback</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>280</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Educating the Adult Educator: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe**
Table 4. Description of the Module ‘Managing diversity’ of the modular trajectory for the training of adult educators in the Flemish Community of Belgium

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the module</th>
<th>Managing diversity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry requirements</td>
<td>Certificate of secondary education or higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic competences</td>
<td>1.11: dealing in an adequate way with heterogeneity and diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2: promoting emancipation of the learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3: applying social developments in an agogical context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.4: dealing adequately with students in socio-emotional conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>situations and with students having personality problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational objectives</td>
<td>1. Recognizing his own implicit value judgements and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Confronting students with values and prejudices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Providing opportunities for students to deal with differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Applying diversity in learning situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study time</td>
<td>60 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction time (hours)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical training (hours)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the school year 2004-2005 the trajectory was elaborated with course material and with a support system for practical training. In 2007 the Flemish Government decided to start a so-called ‘experimental garden’ to implement the trajectory for the trainer of adults in 5 centres for adult education. Four out these centres were also involved in the development of content of the modules of the trajectory.

The educational inspectorate of the Flemish Community evaluated the pilot project and published the results in a report in 2008 (Steverlynck, 2008).

The most relevant aspects of this report are presented in the next paragraph.

Evaluation of the ‘experimental garden’ training of adult trainers by the Flemish educational inspectorate.

Student population and expectations of the students

56 students started the training trajectory. 39 being between 30 and 50 years old. Most of them combined the training with a full-time job as an employee. The composition of the student population is very heterogeneous regarding previous training. The majority of the students had a certificate of non tertiary higher education (ISCED 5B). Most of the students were interested in the training trajectory as they considered it an opportunity for promotion within their own organisation or sector. Only a small number of students started the training by order of their employer.

Output

Only 5% of the students did not finish the training trajectory. Some students who finished the training are interested to start a teacher training course in a centre of adult education in order to obtain the degree of a teacher of secondary education. Most students experienced the training trajectory as very serious, functional and immediately applicable in their own working environment. Research on adult education and learning confirms that the necessity to learn is an important incentive to start a
training trajectory. Furthermore, adult learners have very clear expectations regarding the way they want to learn (Theys & Vanparijs, 2006). However, many students judged that the modules about didactics are too theoretical and contain too much jargon, which is also difficult to understand. At the other hand, the participants in the modular trajectory have also the feeling that the duration of the didactical modules is too short and of the agogic modules too long.

All training institutes offer an e-learning platform with many technical possibilities to their students, but nonetheless the students judged that e-learning has very little added value. It seems that the e-learning platform was used only as a communication platform. Furthermore, some students did not have access to the internet at home or lacked the necessary digital competences.

The students had to keep a record of their competences in a competence logbook, which is basically used for the assessment of the student. However, students experience the logbook as an extra burden which according to them offers little or no added value to the learning process. At the other hand, students are very satisfied about the follow-up of the progress in learning.

The educational inspectorate advocates a revision of the professional profile and the basic competences of the trainer of adults. However, this comment only relates to the fact that the decree on teacher training has been changed recently (December 2006) and is not related to the quality of the professional profile or the basic competences. The fact is that it was intended to organise the basic competences of the adult trainer in a modular structure which would make it possible to grant students exempt from some modules if they want to start a teacher training for secondary education. Due to the recent reform of the organisation of teacher training in the Flemish community, this flexibility is no longer possible today.

**Competent-sys-trainer: a European project**

The European Union is sending strong messages with respect to the European harmonisation of vocational education and training. The Brugge initiative (2001) implies a bottom-up process in order to build a more collaborative partnership between the European member states regarding vocational education training (VET).

The Copenhagen Declaration (2002) postulates that more collaboration is required regarding *e.g.* transparency of VET and the development of common basic assumptions for a uniform qualification system. And particularly, more attention should be paid to training and education of trainers.

Many vocational training institutes, both private and public, have been recently faced reorganisation and restructuring processes, affecting in most cases the training staff, with an impact on the content, the methodologies used, the target group and even the workplace.

HRM therefore becomes increasingly more important in training institutes, and it is recognized that initial training and re-training of the trainers become a vital part of an integrated human resources approach.

As a response to these challenges, an application for a 3-year project, ‘development and implementation of a competency-based management system for trainers in continuing vocational education and training, to be integrated into existing Human

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12 40 training hours were organised as e-learning.
Resources system' (Comp-sys-trainer)’ has been sent to the Leonardo da Vinci office by VDAB (Flemish Community, Belgium). The project partnership consists of 9 organisations from 7 European countries. The project was approved by the European Commission and it started November 2003 and finished November 2006.

**Project aim and objectives**

The main objective of the Comp-sys-trainer project is the identification of the competences of the VET trainers and to find out how these competences are to be acquired. The identified competences are to be integrated in a competency-based human resource management system for managers and trainers in continuing vocational education and training (CVET). This HRM system should allow VET organisations to identify new needs concerning the trainers’ competences.

In this paper we limit ourselves to the procedure and the results of the first work package of the project, which relates to the development of a job profile with corresponding list of competences for the VET trainer.

The results of the Flemish project on the competences of adult teacher trainers (cf. chapter 1) was used as the input for the development of a preliminary list of tasks and corresponding competences for VET trainers within the partnership. These competences were clustered in 6 broad ‘competence clusters’.

Each organisation was asked to attribute a score of importance ranging from 1-10 to tasks and corresponding competences in the preliminary list mentioned above. The results at the level of the competence clusters are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5. Importance of competence clusters for all organizations (based on questionnaires of Competent-Sys-trainer-project)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Starting trainer</th>
<th>Experienced Trainer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Coaching learning and development processes</td>
<td>6,4</td>
<td>8,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Coaching adults</td>
<td>5,5</td>
<td>7,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The own field of study</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>8,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Planning and organization</td>
<td>6,3</td>
<td>8,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Innovation and development</td>
<td>6,1</td>
<td>8,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Cooperation</td>
<td>6,0</td>
<td>7,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For starting trainers, the expertise in their own field of study is considered the most important competence cluster, and the only cluster they should absolutely master when they start teaching.

The experienced trainer however, is expected to master the competences within the cluster coaching learning and development processes.

For each competence cluster it was examined which task (s) –according to the respondents- is (are) crucial for a VET trainer. This analysis resulted in a list of tasks which,

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13 The partnership consists of VDAB, SYNTRA and the Curriculum Department of the department of Education of the Flemish Community (all from Flemish Community, Belgium), SEDU and TEC (Finland), FAS (Ireland), IB (Germany), ADC (Portugal), International Training Center of ILO (Italy) and the Polish Institute for Terotechnology (Poland).

14 The meaning of the scores: 1-2: irrelevant for my organisation; 3-4: 'nice' to have; 5-6: useful; 7-8: need to have; 9-10: indispensable.
on average, are considered most important by the partner organizations. The results of this survey can be summarized as follows:

For an experienced trainer the following tasks are considered most important (rate of 8.8 and more):
- to identify the initial situation and to meet the needs of the students (competence cluster 1);
- to select and to formulate targets (competence cluster 1);
- to perform process evaluation (competence cluster 1);
- to coach the student during the individual training course (competence cluster 1);
- to master the current domain-specific knowledge and skills and to follow up their recent evolutions (competence cluster 3);
- to apply the acquired domain-specific knowledge and skills (competence cluster 3);
- to create a stimulating, safe and good working educational atmosphere, taking into account safety and environmental aspects (competence cluster 4).

When comparing the scores for the starting with the experienced trainer, the following general conclusions can be drawn:
- at the start of his career, the own field of study is the most important result criterion for a trainer. As a consequence, most organizations consider the background of a person (own field of study) the most important criterion when recruiting trainers.
- both for the experienced and the starting trainer, it can be concluded that ‘coaching adults’ seems to be considered the least important competence cluster;
- for a starting trainer all main job tasks are considered useful for his job as a vocational trainer, but not considered as a necessary requirement. The same competence clusters however, are considered necessary for an experienced VET trainer;
- the difference between the assigned scores for beginners and experienced trainers is rather important, what can be interpreted as a requirement for recruited trainers to evolve in their competences during the first years of activity. Hence, the HR-policy should facilitate this process, for example through offering additional training or other possibilities to develop competences.

Subsequently all tasks and corresponding competences (organised in clusters) which received a minimum score of 7 (= ‘need to have’) by at least 5 out of 8 organisations within the partnership, were brought together in a so-called truncus communis (Table 5I), which can be considered as a list of competences which are considered very important for VET trainers.

Table 6. Truncus communis of tasks and corresponding competences for the experienced VET trainer (the scores refer to the number of partner organisations which rate the task 7 or higher; only if at least 5 out of 8 organisations rate the task 7 or higher, it is included in the truncus communis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Coaching learning and development processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 to identify the initial situation and to meet the needs of the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 to select and formulate targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 to select educational contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 to structure educational contents and teaching experiences and to translate them into assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 to develop an adapted and phased action plan and put it into practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 to choose, adapt and develop as a team educational tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 to realize an effective educational environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 to perform product evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 1.9 to perform process evaluation
### 1.10 to coach the student during the individual training course
### 1.11 to stimulate synergism between the educational context, the work practice and the environment of the student
### 1.12 to effectively deal with heterogeneity and diversity

### 2. Coaching Adults
### 2.1 to create an adapted educational climate for the students
### 2.2 to stimulate the emancipation of the students
### 2.3 to manage topical social developments in an agogic context
### 2.4 to effectively deal with students in social-emotional problem situations and with students who have personality problems
### 2.6 to distinguish topical subjects and developments, and to approach them critically

### 3. The Own Field of Study
### 3.1 to master the current domain-specific knowledge and skills and to follow up recent evolutions
### 3.2 to apply the acquired domain-specific knowledge and skills
### 3.3 to situate the own educational contents and to integrate them into available courses of the own organization and the structure of the available courses for adult training
### 3.4 to participate in knowledge management and transfer of knowledge

### 4. Planning and Organisation
### 4.1 to stimulate a structured work climate
### 4.2 to create a flexible and efficient lesson and day course for oneself and the student that fits in a time planning
### 4.3 to carry out administrative tasks in a correct way
### 4.4 to create a stimulating, safe and good working educational atmosphere, taking into account safety and environmental aspects

### 5. Innovation and Development
### 5.1 to reflect on and to adjust the own work
### 5.2 to examine accessible test results that are relevant for the own teaching practice
### 5.3 to use innovative elements

### 6. Cooperation
### 6.1 to participate in cooperation structures
### 6.2 to consider the allocation of tasks within the team and to observe with the mutual agreement
### 6.3 to make one's own agogic and didactic acts debatable in the group
### 6.4 to stimulate a climate of support
### 6.5 to co-operate with and to consult external partners and colleagues within the scope of projects that clarify and situate the role of training and the trainer in society

### Epilogue
According to Rogers (1996), at least four things appear to be important, which make a good teacher of adults. First, a series of attitudes towards the student-learners and attitudes towards the subject-matter. Secondly, a clear understanding of the philosophy of adult learning. Thirdly, he/she needs to develop the skills of teaching and last but not least he/she needs to possess a measure of self-confidence and self-respect, based on a belief in one’s own competence.

The competences mentioned by Rogers can also be found in the general professional profile of the teacher of the Flemish Community, which is mainly based on the insight that all teachers – irrespective of the age of the learners - have responsibilities towards the learner, one's own institution and the society. The professional profile of the trainer of adults is directly derived from this general professional profile. This professional profile offers also promising possibilities with respect to HRD processes in institutions for adult education.
The Comp-sys-training project focused on the development of an instrument, mainly based on the professional profile of the trainer of adults, which allows adult training institutes to organise an efficient HRD policy.

The results of the Comp-sys-trainer project clearly show the interest of several European teaching institutes for adults for a common job profile for their teachers and trainers. The challenge will be to keep a good balance between at the one hand the autonomy of adult teaching institutes to organise their programmes taking into account the general professional profile and in such a way that it best fits the target group of learners and at the other hand the quality of the programmes.

References
The two sides of the coin - Adult Educator as a teacher and a friend.

Introduction

Two generalized social subjects interact in education: the educator and the learner; this interaction also comprises the action of the first subject directed at the second, i.e. the action of educating and upbringing (Durkheim, 1956). Regardless of the environment, the historical time, the type of institutional or non-institutional teaching, regardless of the age or other characteristics of the learner, the educational process involves not only a certain position and active presence of the teacher, but also bilateral activeness, i.e. the participation both of educator and learner.

This article is focused on the educator of adults in the formal educational system. The article has two main objectives: 1) to discuss the role of teachers for involving adults in formal education institutions; 2) to analyze how the way teachers perform their profession impacts on adults' learning experiences (learners' satisfaction with the learning process and their confidence in being able to complete it).

The first part of the article begins with a delineation of the specifics of the teacher's role; here the emphasis is on the directedness of teaching at learners and the support teaching provides for the personality and psyche of the learner. Further on the analysis centres on the institutional conditions of teaching adults in Bulgarian conditions: the article a) traces the institutions for teaching adults and b) indicates the basic characteristics of qualification that educators of adults possess.

In the second part of the article the role of the educator in teaching adult learners is analyzed on the basis of sociological survey.

Teacher's role in education

The teacher's role, certainly a great one, depends on the circumstance that he/she is a significant figure in any learner's world. The teacher is the person with the power to organize the learner's day in directing him to various activities, in defining what is considered to be knowledge, in regulating the interaction patterns through norms, rewards and penalties. The teacher establishes the rules of conduct of the class and, when deeming necessary and justified, punishes deviation from these rules. Customarily the teacher is perceived as the "subject of knowledge", a characteristic that positions him as "superior" to whose position is to assimilate knowledge and be learners (Weber, 1977, p. 326-329; Yaxley, 1991). The learner is such inasmuch as he/she must be taught. That is why teachers are thought of as key figures in the effectuation of class activities (Denscombe, 1980; Adams, 1989; Russell, 1992, Wilson, 1962). They have a clear awareness of their place in the educational system.

According to a widespread view, certain actions or behavior of the teacher may stimulate certain corresponding actions on the part of the learner (Russell, 1992). In a number of cases the qualitative dependencies can be established between specific kinds of teacher and corresponding pupil behavior, the assumption being that the maintenance of a certain kind of teacher behavior will imply a corresponding type of
comportment in the pupil; moreover, active learner’s behaviour is purported to depend on flexible, creative, democratic behaviour on the part of the teacher, while “directed” actions in pupils are correlated a systematic and effectual attitude on the part of the teacher. (Ryan, 1963; Witty, 1947). In addition, teachers expect to be assessed to a large degree on the basis of their psychological and emotional attitudes, qualities and willingness to work. (Lortie, 1975). It is precisely in this context that adult pupils must be viewed, especially those adults who are obtaining elementary and basic education. Due to their belated schooling, they rely on the support of, and on establishing more direct relations with, their educators.  

What are the institutional conditions of adult training? Where does their training take place? In the next section we shall deal with the institutions in which adults can be taught in the framework of the Bulgarian formal education system.

Institutions for teaching adults in Bulgaria

According to the Law of National Education, in the sphere of primary and secondary education, evening and mixed schools are opened for students above 16 years old. In the academic year 2005/2006 there were in Bulgaria 25 evening schools with 2618 students. The students who graduated from evening schools have the same rights as the graduates from daily schools.

Part of the formal educational system are the schools at prisons where students above 16 years of age are educated in all grades of basic and secondary schools. In 2006 there were 6 such schools attended by more than 450 students. Prison schools are opened, closed and funded chiefly by the Ministry of Education and Science at the proposal of the Ministry of Justice. The teaching they provide is general education and is conducted according to study plans and curricula adopted by the Ministry of Education and Science. The teaching staff ranges in number between 100 and 120 persons, and at least 1/3 of them have obtained qualification in their respective specialty. Schoolwork is made to count as equal to the other work done by prisoners: 8 hours of schoolwork is counted as equal to 8 hours of labour in production and in the service sphere. The number of prisoners entering these schools is relatively constant: about 35% of all prisoners. Since a relatively high number of prisoners are illiterate or are with a low educational level, about 50% of the learners enter elementary school (first to fourth grade).

The Law of Vocational Education and Training from 1999 defines the different educational institutions which can provide adult vocational education - vocational schools, vocational high schools, vocational colleges, centers for vocational training, centers for qualification of trainees. Ministries, municipalities, employers’ organizations, trade unions and individual employers are also entitled to organize training for professional qualification. All these programmes are organized as qualification courses. The forms of training and their duration are determined by the training institution and can be coordinated with the warrantor of the vocational education. All educational programmes for people above the age of 16, which do not comply with the state educational requirements must be approved by the National Agency for Vocational Education and Training.

The state and the municipal vocational schools, the centers for vocational training, and the centers for qualification of trainees are financed through the state budget, the

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25 This assertion will be supported with data in the second part of the article.
municipalities, by donations from different sources, by international programmes, and other revenues. The educational programmes which do not conform to state educational requirements are financed by physical and legal persons according to a signed contract. The vocational schools and the centers for vocational training are opened predominantly to people aged over 16 who have attained comparatively low levels of education, do not have professional qualification, and/or are unemployed.

According to the Law of Higher Education, the forms of higher education may be daily, extramural, evening, and distance education. During the academic year 2007/2008 there were 53 universities and higher schools, 10 independent colleges, and 31 colleges functioning within Bulgarian universities and higher schools. Among them are 7 private universities and higher schools and 9 independent private colleges. The state universities and higher schools are financed mainly by the state, the municipalities, through student tuition fees, and through various projects. About 1/5 of all students in the higher schools are above the age of 25. (Education in the Republic of Bulgaria, 2008). The average age of students here is close to the EU average: a little under 22.

In all higher schools special centers for continuing education and re-qualification have been created. These centers train adults who have already acquired bachelor’s or master’s degree. For their education the adults pay tuition, the amount of which is set by the higher schools themselves. The Law on Higher Education identifies the advancement of qualification after bachelor’s and master’s degree as one of the main activities of higher education institutions. Adult education programmes are carried out according to the requirements formulated in the statutes of the higher schools. However, these programmes do not lead to awarding of an educational degree.

The table below provides data about the number of students by age in different institutions of formal education. Adults are mainly involved in tertiary education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age groups</th>
<th>Primary education</th>
<th>Lower secondary education</th>
<th>Upper secondary education</th>
<th>Tertiary education</th>
<th>Post secondary non-tertiary education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>262701</td>
<td>256231</td>
<td>337090</td>
<td>264463</td>
<td>4020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 7</td>
<td>1,57</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-10</td>
<td>94,61</td>
<td>1,67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>3,36</td>
<td>92,81</td>
<td>8,67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>0,40</td>
<td>5,39</td>
<td>89,54</td>
<td>13,10</td>
<td>14,98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>0,02</td>
<td>0,06</td>
<td>1,15</td>
<td>58,87</td>
<td>55,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>0,04</td>
<td>0,06</td>
<td>0,64</td>
<td>15,66</td>
<td>29,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5,93</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3,41</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3,04</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Statistical Institute

The general impression made by the data is that, since 1989, there has been a clear upward trend in the number and diversity of institutions offering adult education. Especially prominent is the effort of the state to support vocational education and re-qualification of people over 16 years of age by licensing vocational training centres. Another particularity is the introduction and spread of programmes targeted at concrete social groups, such as ROMA people, low literates, and long-term unemployed.
Qualification of adult student educators

In as much as adult education is carried out in a large number of institutions and places of (formal and informal) education, it is important to identify the necessary qualification of educators involved in this field. The required qualifications for adult educators in the formal educational system are the same as those for all teachers in the respective educational degree – master’s – obtained in a higher school. In some faculties this degree corresponds to basic pedagogical, didactic, and methodological knowledge and competencies obtained in most specialties that provide the legal capacity to teach. But some teachers, especially in the technical professions (professional centres for acquiring a complete profession or parts of one), who do not have the necessary pedagogical knowledge or training necessary to obtain a teacher’s legal capacity. Moreover, though teachers possess a university diploma, as is the mandatory requirement for their profession, in many cases they are not specifically competent to teach adults and need special training for this. State organizations and NGOs set up courses for training trainers in which the specific knowledge and competency for teaching adults may be obtained. These courses differ in length, contents, and the characteristics of participants. None of the various types of training outside the formal educational system are subjected to quality control or possess sure standards for defining who can work in the field of adult education, at what level, with what competencies, and under what conditions.

In the field of formal education there are various types of qualification upgrading:
- Decree 5 on obtaining “a professional qualification degree” (pertaining to secondary education, i.e. the secondary schools and units servicing them within the system of national education) describes the character, stages, conditions, and institutions that have the right to conduct such training of teachers; it also indicates the requirements that trainers must meet in order to obtain the respective “professional qualification degree”; but this training is directed at the qualification of a teacher in general – it is not focused specifically on training adult learners. Here the initiative usually comes from the teachers themselves, who pay for their training; the institutions contribute in the form of certain facilitations and support, for instance, granting leave for preparation and course attendance or providing materials – they give no financial support. The completion of education results in the obtainment of a diploma.
- Qualification upgrading courses organized within the professional communities themselves and conducted by regional or national-level experts from the Ministry of Education and Science. Most of these courses are conducted in the framework of various projects. Upon completion of the course a certificate is awarded for the training undergone, but these courses are in the framework of secondary education and have no specialized orientation to adult education.
- The inclusion in the curricula for pedagogical specialties (bachelor’s and master’s degree) of courses on “Adult Training” or “Andragogy” (in the pedagogy faculties of nearly all Bulgarian universities). The National Strategy for Lifelong Learning for the period 2008-2013 plays a special role for further improvement of training teachers of adult learners. The strategy outlines the basic directions for developing study programs for teachers and trainers:
  - Implementing flexible and open learning and teaching methods
  - Developing a national network for training teachers, trainers, and adults
- Creating opportunities for flexible career development of teachers
- Encouraging mobility during the basic preparation for upgrading teacher’s qualifications and for continuing training of trainers.
- Creating conditions that stimulate the acquisition and upgrading of professional and teaching qualifications of faculty members, including the part-time lecturers.

Here it is important to point out that, the Strategy having been adopted as recently as 2008, the activities it encompasses for achieving its goals are still in an incipient stage. But it is a fact that, with small exceptions, the educators of adults in Bulgaria have no specific qualification for working with this category of learners. Moreover, there is no certified system specifically for educators of adults.

As a whole there is no evidence in Bulgaria of the existence of a higher education curriculum, practice or strategic planning aimed at preparing teachers for work with adult learners. One of the very few exceptions is the MA international programme in management of education for adults at New Bulgarian University. It offers courses in fields such as management of adult education; dynamics of educational needs; planning, organisation and conducting of courses with adults; psychological characteristics of adult learners; education of adults from ethnic minorities; advanced teaching methods for adults. A course on androgogy is included in the curricula of teacher specialties in most of the higher schools.

The second part of this article is based on the results obtained from a sociological survey carried out in 2006 as part of the international 6FP project “Towards LLL society in Europe: the contribution of the formal education system” 16. The sample comprised 1030 Bulgarian respondents aged 16-65 from 56 institutions at all ISCED levels. The method for data collection was the interview (group, written and face-to-face).

In the following paragraphs we analyze:
- the qualification of educators in the (surveyed) institutions for education of adults;
- the role of educators in the process of adult education;
- learners’ satisfaction with the teaching process and how the characteristics of this process impact on satisfaction with it.

Teachers and learning process

Most of the surveyed trainers have the required qualification for the positions they occupy: in all institutions – with minor exceptions (the prison schools) – teachers have completed the respective educational degree and have the needed skills and training for carrying out teaching activity. The fact that qualification is being maintained and upgraded is confirmed by the following data:
- individual performance reviews and activities are conducted: 37.5% of educators of adults are subjected to such once per year, and 44.6%, more than once per year (see Figure 1).
- the provision of systematic control by external specialists over the work of educators (e.g. inspection, peer review, etc.): 82.1% of educators have been subjected to such control
- the participation of the teaching staff in further training paid for by the educational

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16 Contract no.: 513321, project coordinator Ellu Saar, Tallin University. The Bulgarian team includes: Pepka Boyadjieva (team leader), Valentina Milenкова, Galin Gornev, Krastina Petkova, Diana Nenkova. Valery Todorov carried out the data processing.
institution: 78.6% of the teachers in the surveyed schools have participated in various forms of training.

![Graph](image)

**Figure 1**
Frequency of conducting individual performance reviews with teaching staff

The conclusion may hence be drawn that educators in the institutions of the formal education system distinctly possess a qualification corresponding to the position they occupy and work they do; they find support in the leadership of their institutions and upgrade their competencies. This is what the directors and rectors of higher schools, colleges, and universities indicated in their responses.

But what is the opinion and assessment of the adult learners themselves? How convinced are they that the educators can involve them in an active process, are inclined to listen to learners’ opinions, understand and respond to learners’ requirements and interests? These questions are discussed in the following section.

**Teachers as seen by adult learners**

The goal we set ourselves was to find out what measures teachers use to stimulate adult learners’ participation, and how these measures differ (or whether they do differ) for the various ISCED levels. The important point here is that these are not self-descriptions by teachers but assessments and opinions expressed by adult learners; all too often the plans, expectations, and strivings of teachers as regards innovations and openness of the teaching process fail to achieve their objectives. A view through the eyes of the trainees makes it possible for the researcher to make a meaningful assessment of how well teachers’ intentions, plans, and approaches are implemented.

The respondents were asked to describe how they experience the study programme and their experience with the teacher by indicating the degree to which they agree with the following assertions:

1. The study programme provides opportunities for making new friends.
2. Students often ask the teacher questions.
3. The teacher makes every effort to help students succeed.
4. Students can select assignments that are of personal interest to them.
5. Activities not related to study programme objectives are kept to a minimum.
6. Most students in the study programme achieve their personal learning goals.
7. The teacher respects students as individuals.
8. Getting work done is very important in the study programme.
9. The study programme is well organized.
10. The teacher insists that you do things his/her way.
11. Students feel free to question study programme requirements.
12. The study programme has a clear sense of direction.
13. Most students enjoy the study programme.
14. The students in the study programme enjoy working together.
15. Participants in the training discuss real-life examples based on their personal experience.

The respondents’ opinions were measured on a 5-degree scale, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The assertions were grouped in separate indices as generalized characteristics of the learning process.

We created several indicators regarding the learning process:

- **affiliation between the students** – in the course of the learning process friendships are created and learners feel it is enjoyable to study together
- **active involvement** – learners often address questions to their teachers and most of them like the study programme
- **the teacher is learner-centred and allows student influence in course planning decisions** – learners feel free to disagree with their teachers' instructions, and teachers do not insist on learners dealing with the tasks in the way the teacher has proposed
- **teacher support** – teachers help learners and treat them as individual persons
- **task orientation** – activities unrelated to the course are minimal and the focus on the task is important
- **clear and organised activities** – the study programme is well organized and there is a clear perception about the direction
- **personal goal attainment** – learners can select tasks which match their personal interests and most of them learn what they wanted to.

Here we will examine the indicators directly related to the place of the educator in the education process and which show the learners’ assessment of the educators’ pedagogic approach.

**The indicator ‘active involvement of students’ has two dimensions:** 1) learners often ask questions of their teachers, and 2) most students enjoy the study programme.

We register as “very actively involved” those respondents who mention both dimensions, and as “somewhat actively involved”, those who mention only one dimension.

The results show that, in Bulgarian conditions, 52.9% of the adult learners are “very actively involved” in the learning process; “somewhat actively involved” are 37.0% of respondents; and “not actively involved” are only 10.1%. “Very actively involved” has the highest frequencies for adult learners of ISCED 4 (60.6%), followed by ISCED 3 (56.2%), ISCED 5 + 6 (48.6%), ISCED 1 + 2 (46.1%). “Somewhat actively involved” at ISCED levels has the following dispersions: the highest representation is for individuals of ISCED 1 + 2 (46.9%), followed by ISCED 5 + 6 (39.3%), ISCED 3 (32.6%) and ISCED 4 (29.5%). The results reveal significant correlation between the education level of institutions and the active involvement of students, Chi-Square (6, N = 997) = 21.569, p <
From the results it can be concluded that Bulgarian adult learners are actively involved in the learning process. The role of the teacher is notable here; being the leading figure in the teaching process, the teacher has the capacity to give the students an opportunity to become part of the education picture. It is noticeable that the most active are the adult learners studying in colleges (ISCED 4), and those in university degree studies (ISCED 5+6), while not particularly active are the persons studying in the primary and basic educational degrees (ISCED 1+2). One possible explanation for this is the self-confidence resulting from accumulated knowledge and potential in adults studying in colleges and higher schools (ISCED 5+6); in a cognitive aspect they have a certain self-assurance (a diploma almost “in their pocket”) and hence become more active, ask questions of their teachers, express opinions, defend positions during discussions. Most probably their self-assurance has certain psychological grounds related to the general fact that with age comes self-confidence based on life experience and the accumulated lessons of life. For their part, learners in ISCED 1+2 are people studying in prison schools, and this is a precondition for low self-esteem and weak activeness in the course of learning.

The teacher is learner-centred and allows student influence in course planning decisions

We distinguish 3 aspects of the learner-center approach: 1) learners feel free to disagree with their teachers' instructions, 2) teachers do not insist on learners dealing with the tasks in the same way they have proposed, and 3) learners discuss real-life examples based on their personal experience.

The Bulgarian representative sample has the highest frequencies for „two aspects of L-C approach recognized“ (44.9%). One aspect of L-C approach is recognized by 27.2% of respondents; three aspects of L-C approach are recognized by 16.0%; the lowest frequencies are for the „no learner-centered approach“ (7.8%). Examined by ISCED levels (See Figure 2), two aspects of L-C approach are recognized by 49.1% of respondents at ISCED 1 + 2 (49.1%); 47.7% at ISCED 5 + 6; 42.2% at ISCED 4 (42.2%); and 41.1% at ISCED 3. Three aspects of L-C approach are recognized by 27.3% of ISCED 3, followed by ISCED 4 (19.7%), ISCED 1 + 2 (16.7%), and ISCED 5 + 6 (16%). One aspect of L-C approach is recognized by 31.1% of respondents of ISCED 1 + 2, followed by ISCED 4 (27.5%), ISCED 5 + 6 (27.4%), and ISCED 3 (23.3%)! The results reveal significant dependency between the education level of institutions and learner-centered approach, Chi-Square (9, N = 962) = 24.545, p < .05.
The results provide evidence that, within the learning process, adult learners' needs definitely affect the decisions and the way of teaching in the Bulgarian education institutions. An important fact is that only 7.8% of adult learners state that the teachers do not apply the L-C approach in their educational situation; this means that, although lacking special training for work with adult learners, the teachers succeed in finding an approach in which learners' consent, disagreement, acceptance or rejection of teaching methods and curriculum are more or less placed in the centre of teaching. We will focus special attention on the responses indicated by nearly half the respondents: “Two aspects of L-C approach recognized”. It should be noted that, here, the highest share has ISCED 1 + 2 (49.1%), followed by ISCED 5 + 6 (47.7%). One possible explanation of this result (again based on the specific features of learners in the respective educational levels) is the fact that in prison schools (ISCED 1 + 2) it is imperative for educators to find ways to capture and keep the attention and interest of their adult pupils - dropout from the education process is often regarded as a consequence of inadequate control over the learner environment. On the other hand, in university education degrees (ISCED 5 + 6), the teachers must also follow and take into account their students' interests, because sustaining the “professor-student” contact is part of the academic quality of a university institution.

**Level of teacher support**

The indicator “level of teacher support” consists of two dimensions: “the teacher makes every effort to help students succeed” and “the teacher respects students as individuals”. The results show that „high level of teacher support“ (i.e. both of the two dimensions are said to be present) is indicated by 69.0% of the representative sample; „medium level of teacher support“ has a frequency of 21.7%, and „no teacher support” has a frequency of 9.3%. By ISCED levels the following picture emerges (see Figure 3): “High level of teacher support”: the highest frequencies are for ISCED 1 + 2 (87.8%), followed by ISCED 3 (74.9%), ISCED 4 (70.7%), and ISCED 5 + 6 (44.0%). „Medium level of teacher support“ is indicated by 37.7% of respondents of ISCED 5 + 6; by 19.8% of ISCED 3; by 19.5% of ISCED 4; and 8.9% of ISCED 1 + 2. The results reveal a significant correlation between the education level of institutions and the level of teacher support, Chi-Square (6, N = 1003) = 122.172, p < .05.
The results illustrate a high level of teacher support provided within Bulgarian institutions, which is a good sign of professionalism and modernity. In this item there is an impressively high support for students by their educators; it is no coincidence that the greatest accumulations are of adults in the levels 1+2 and 3. In fact, these correspond to the degrees of Bulgarian primary and secondary school from 1st to 12th grade and, more specifically, to the prison schools and evening schools in which these education degrees can be acquired. The specifics of prison schools are such that the teachers there are also moral educators, i.e. people who are expected to provide moral support for their pupils (and the responses confirm this expectation); it often happens that personal stories, sharing of experiences, discussing values and ethics, enter into the teaching process. It seems that in such a situation the personal presence of the teacher, the capacity of the teacher to become a corrective as regards morals and values, become particularly visible. A follow up of this topic is provided by the data for the next indicator.

**Personal goal attainment** has two dimensions: learners can select tasks which match their personal interests, and most of them learn what they wanted to. The results show that the highest frequencies are for answer «one aspect of personal goal attainment» (49.2%). In examining the frequencies for this answer for the different ISCED levels, we found that for ISCED 4 the frequency was (52.3%), for ISCED 3 it was 50.2%, for ISCED 5 + 6 it was 49%, and for ISCED 1 + 2, 45.1%. Overall, „two aspects of personal goal attainment recognized“ had a frequency of 29.5%; here data by education levels was: ISCED 1 + 2 (40.9%), ISCED 3 (29.0%), ISCED 4 (26.7%), ISCED 5 + 6 (22.2%). The response „no personal goal attainment“ had a frequency of 21.3%; by education levels the following values were registered: ISCED 5 + 6 (28.8%), ISCED 4 (21.0%), ISCED 3 (20.8%), ISCED 1 + 2 (13.9%). The results revealed a significant correlation between the institutional education level and personal goal attainment, Chi-Square (6, N = 996) = 29.983, p < .05.

Once again among prison school respondents there are distinct accumulations, this time of responses „two aspects of personal goal attainment recognized“ (40.9%) and «one aspect of personal goal attainment» (45.1%). As mentioned earlier, this is linked to the specific characteristic of these learners and their general education process and teachers’ position.

**The influence of the characteristics of the learning process on learner’s satisfaction**

The following analysis aims to find an answer to the central questions posed in the present paper: What is the role of teachers in stimulating the participation of adults in lifelong learning?

The analysis is focused on disclosing the influence of the *characteristics of the learning process* on learner’s satisfaction with the process and its outcomes.

For each education level and for each of the alternating factors that describe adults’ experiences, regression analysis was performed using, as independent alternating factors, the above listed characteristics of the learning process – these were introduced progressively. In all cases it proved statistically possible to construct a model comprising
all 7 characteristics of the learning process; moreover, most of these cases proved to be of statistical significance.

Influence of the characteristics of the learning process on the satisfaction of adult learners with the learning process

For the primary and middle schools the main factor having a significant influence on the satisfaction of adult learners with the learning process was found to be the teachers' attitude to students consisting in treating them as individuals and providing them support [F (4, 193)=6.53, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.33 (t=4.58; p<.0001)]. This factor maintains its significance even after the addition of other factors. Statistical analysis reveals that two more characteristics have significant influence on the students' satisfaction with the learning process – minimizing activities unrelated to the specific learning tasks [F (5, 192)=6.50, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.18 (t=2.40; p<.01)] and the possibility for students to select tasks matching their interests and to learn what they wanted to [F (7, 190)=6.07, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.22 (t=2.97; p<.005)]. These factors explain about 15% of the variations in students' satisfaction.

A number of characteristics of the learning process in secondary schools have a positive influence on students' satisfaction with the learning process. They are:
- affiliation between students [F (1, 233)=40.62, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.38 (t=6.37; p<.0001)];
- students' active involvement in the learning process [F (2, 232)=36.17, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.32 (t=5.21; p<.0001)];
- teachers' support [F (4, 230)=21.34, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.19 (t=3.15; p<.005)];
- task orientation [F (5, 229)=20.62, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.20 (t=3.64; p<.0001)];
- good organization of the study programme [F (6, 228)=23.75, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.32 (t=5.24; p<.0001)].

The addition of each characteristic increases the explanatory power of the model, and together they explain 38% of the variations in the learners' satisfaction. Two characteristics stand out: students' active involvement in the learning process and the good organization of the study programme. The first factor increases the explanatory power of the model from 15% to 24%; and the second one, from 31% to 38%.

Most of the characteristics of the learning process in the schools above secondary education influence positively adult learners' satisfaction with their studies. They are:
- affiliation between students [F (1, 227)=21.55, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.29 (t=4.64; p<.0001)];
- students' active involvement in the learning process [F (2, 226)=30.13, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.37 (t=5.95; p<.0001)];
- teachers' support [F (4, 224)=18.03, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.22 (t=3.12; p<.005)];
- task orientation [F (5, 223)=15.63, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.14 (t=2.19; p<.05)];
- good organization of the study programme [F (6, 222)=26.03, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.50 (t=7.62; p<.0001)].

The addition of each of these characteristics increases the explanatory power of the model. The students' active involvement in the learning process and the good organization of the study programme appears to be particularly significant. The addition of the first factor increases the explanatory power of the model from 8% to 20%; and the addition of the second one, from 24% to 40%.

Most of the characteristics of the learning process in the higher education schools display a significant influence on adult learners' satisfaction with the learning process. They are:
- affiliation between students \[ F(1, 230)=19.67, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.28 \ (t=4.44; \ p<.0001) \];
- students' active involvement in the learning process \[ F(2, 229)=44.84, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.50 \ (t=8.03; \ p<.0001) \];
- teachers' support \[ F(4, 227)=24.50, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.17 \ (t=2.56; \ p<.01) \];
- task orientation \[ F(5, 226)=21.56, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.16 \ (t=2.67; \ p<.005) \];
- good organization of the study programme \[ F(6, 225)=28.36, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.39 \ (t=6.52; \ p<.0001) \].

The addition of each of these characteristics increases the explanatory power of the model. Outstanding is the significance of two characteristics: students' active involvement in the learning process and the good organization of the study programme. The first factor increases the explanatory power of the model from 8% to 28%, and the second one – from 32% to 43%.

It is evident that active involvement in the learning process has significant influence on learners' satisfaction. The learners in this category are already people with well-developed personalities.

The data shows that most of the theoretically inferred characteristics of the learning process have significant influence on adult learners' satisfaction with the learning process. Two of them - teachers' support and task orientation - are significant factors for all education institutions.

Primary and secondary schools emerge as a specific educational environment. For adult learners in these schools the most important thing is the support they receive from their teachers.

At all education levels above middle school the same characteristics appear to have significant influence on students' satisfaction with the learning process: affiliation between students; students' active involvement in the learning process; teachers' support; task orientation; and the good organization of the study programme. The positive influence of two characteristics of the learning process stands out: students' active involvement in the learning process and the good organization of the study programme.

**Influence of the characteristics of the learning process on adult learners' satisfaction with the result of their education**

Several characteristics of the learning process in the *primary* and *secondary schools* have a positive impact on the satisfaction of adult learners with the results of their education. One is their active involvement in the learning activities \[ F(2, 193)=12.00, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.32 \ (t=4.71; \ p<.0001) \]. Another is the extent to which the teacher is learner-centred and allows students to dispute his/her decisions \[ F(3, 192)=11.32, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.20 \ (t=2.99; \ p<.005) \], and the teachers' support \[ F(4, 191)=11.96, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.24 \ (t=3.46; \ p<.001) \]. A positive influence on the learners' satisfaction also comes from by personal goal attainment \[ F(7, 188)=8.98, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.23 \ (t=3.21; \ p<.005) \]. In all, these factors explain over 22% of the variations in adult learners' satisfaction.

Most of the characteristics of the learning process in the *secondary schools* have a positive influence on adult learners' satisfaction with the results of their education: They are:
- affiliation between students \[ F(1, 233)=51.75, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.43 \ (t=7.19; \ p<.0001) \];
- students' active involvement in the learning process \[ F(2, 232)=31.58, \ p<.0001; \ \text{St.Beta}=0.19 \ (t=3.08; \ p<.005) \];
- teachers' support [F (4, 230)=17.60, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.19 (t=3.15; p<.005)];
- good organization of the study programme [F (6, 228)=12.83, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.13 (t=1.93; p<.05)].

The addition of each of these characteristics increases the explanatory power of the model, and together they explain 23% of the variations of learners' satisfaction with the results of their education.

Almost all characteristics of the learning process at the schools above secondary education have a positive influence on adult learners' satisfaction with the results of their education. These characteristics are:
- affiliation between students [F (1, 226)=7.16, p<.01; St.Beta=0.18 (t=2.68; p<.01)];
- students' active involvement in the learning process [F (2, 225)=16.56, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.33 (t=4.90; p<.0001)];
- teachers' support [F (4, 223)=9.73, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.14 (t=1.94; p<.05)];
- task orientation [F (5, 222)=9.33, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.17 (t=2.59; p<.01)];
- good organization of the study programme [F (6, 221)=12.23, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.37 (t=4.72; p<.0001)];
- personal goal attainment [F (7, 220)=11.48, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.16 (t=2.35; p<.05)].

Each of these characteristics increases the explanatory power of the model, although as a whole they explain only a quarter of the variations in the learners' satisfaction. The good organization of the study programme appears to be a significant factor: when added, it increases the explanatory power of the model from 16% to 23%.

Some of the characteristics of the learning process in the higher education schools have significant influence on adult learners' satisfaction with the results of their education. These characteristics are:
- affiliation between students [F (1, 230)=24.60, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.31 (t=4.96; p<.0001)];
- students' active involvement in the learning process [F (2, 229)=25.56, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.34 (t=5.02; p<.0001)];
- task orientation [F (5, 226)=13.08, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.20 (t=3.04; p<.001)];
- good organization of the study programme [F (6, 225)=13.13, p<.0001; St.Beta=0.22 (t=3.26; p<.001)].

The addition of each of these characteristics increases the explanatory power of the model, although in all they explain only a quarter of the variations in the learners' satisfaction. Students' active involvement in the learning process and the good organization of the study programme also appear to be significant factors. The addition of the first factor increases the explanatory power of the model from 9% to 18%; and the second one, from 20% to 24%.

The results show that most of the theoretically derived characteristics of the education process have a significant influence on the adult learners' satisfaction with the results of their education. At the different education levels learners attribute the leading role to different characteristics of the learning process. Thus, of special importance for adult learners in the primary and middle schools is their active involvement in the learning process, the teachers' support, and the possibility of students to influence decisions on learning activities and to learn what they wanted to.

Three characteristics have significant influence on learners' satisfaction at all education levels: affiliation between students; active involvement in the learning process; and good organization of the study programme. Teachers' support is important for
students' satisfaction in the secondary schools and colleges, and task orientation also has a positive influence here.

An additional regression analysis was performed on the whole aggregate of adult learners, using as independent alternating factors only those characteristics of the learning process that the previous analysis had found to be significant.

According to the results of the additional regression analysis, adult learners' satisfaction is influenced by the following characteristics of the learning process: affiliation between students (1), students' active involvement in the learning process (2), teachers' support and treatment of students as individuals (3), task orientation (4) and the good organization of the study programme (5) [F (7, 877)=32.98, p<.0001; St. Beta1=0.12 (t=3.66; p<.0001); St. Beta2=0.14 (t=3.84; p<.0001); St. Beta3=0.09 (t=2.52; p<.01); St. Beta4=0.09 (t=2.67; p<.01); St. Beta5=0.21 (t=5.66; p<.0001)]. These alternating factors explain a little over 20% of the variations in learners' satisfaction with the learning process; here good organization of the learning process plays a particularly positive role.

**General conclusions and discussion**

According to the results of the study, the way in which the learning process is organized and conducted has great importance for the adult learners' experiences in the formal education institutions. All theoretically defined characteristics of the learning process prove to be actual determinants of the adult learners' experiences. However, the characteristics have differentiated influence on the learners at the various education levels.
The analysis shows that three of the defined characteristics of the learning process have a positive influence on the learners at all education levels, universally stimulating satisfaction with the learning process. Adult learners placed in an environment where students are actively involved in the learning process, where teachers provide them support and treat them as individuals, and where there is strong task orientation, indicate higher satisfaction with the learning process.

Only one characteristic of the learning process – the active involvement of students in the learning process – has a positive influence in all types of education institutions on adult learners’ satisfaction with the results of their education.

The results obtained reveal that adult learners cannot be perceived as a homogeneous group. The same characteristics exert varying influence on adult learners at different education levels.

**Confirming the results of prior studies of students below the age of 18, our study yielded multiple verification of the key role of teachers for the way of conducting and the effectiveness of the learning process.** It appears that for adult learners, just as for younger ones, the teacher is the factor that can to the greatest extent positively influence their experiences and perceptions. Adult learners expect two hardly compatible attitudes from teachers. On one hand, they are pupils, so, though adults, they nonetheless expect support and help from their teachers. On the other hand however, precisely because they are adults, they place higher importance on teachers treating them as individuals; this attitude of theirs is expressed in their active involvement in the learning process.

With regard to the development and selection of policies for active involvement and keeping adult learners in formal education institutions, our study yields the conclusion that in order to produce results these policies should be differentiated with regard to the various education levels while at the same time taking into account the
specific personal characteristics of adult learners. Foremost it should be noted that similar institutional policies and practices of organizing the learning process could have different significance in different types of schools. Along with this, we should not ignore the fact, well known from literature on social psychology and psychology, that with respect to their main personality traits, adult learners are different from learners below 18. For our topic it is essential to have this in mind, since adult learners are people with well a developed self-concept, and regardless of the education level they are included in, they all deem it very important to be treated as individuals.

The conducted survey permits drawing the more general conclusion that education is a complex set comprising three interacting elements: teacher – institution – learner. This complexity was clearly reflected in the responses and shared opinions of respondents. The institution itself, with its rules, order, and “spirit” has an impact on the overall process of teaching, and on the teachers and pupils. The character of teaching, of curricula, of the rules in the respective educational institution, exerts an influence on the expectations, assessments, preferences, and opinions of adult learners. In this context, the teacher is also subject to change:
- Teachers perform in a specific way in prison schools where the emphasis is mainly on teaching literacy and on moral education, on moral commitment and setting an example;
- They work differently in vocational colleges, where foremost in importance is the practical orientation of training (most of the vocational colleges are in the field of business, marketing, management), the building of skills needed to respond in an actual business environment, and the training of practical skills.
- Different from both categories are university teachers, whose priority is training students in independent thought and academism. The active participation of students – displayed in their asking questions, their seeking to find in the teacher a partner in discussions, their debating on various aspects of the teaching methods and taught material – shows the teaching process in university to comprise active involvement of the learners, their readiness to express personal opinions and display critical and creative thinking.

Indisputably, the educator takes into account and complies with the institutional profile, which sets and determines the requirements for teachers and learners alike. In fact, the specific character of an institution shows in the degree of satisfaction with the learning process and the results of education there. In general, these two indicators received high values, which confirms generally the need for adult education in Bulgaria and for developing practices such as:
- creating “second chance schools” – within the framework of primary and basic education – for adults who are illiterate or with a low degree of education;
- specially introducing a certified system for educators of adults.

From the data obtained it can be concluded that Bulgarian education institutions and teachers have some potential to offer mobile forms of education for adult learners. Most frequently the standard academic year is used as the overall time frame for organizing work; study in the classroom or within a course is preferred to the implementation of forms like «individual study» or «work in groups». This indicates that, considering the assessments, discussed above, that respondents made regarding teachers, we can assert that there is readiness for implementing an active attitude to adult education.
At the same time we may definitely claim that most Bulgarian institutions have not yet built adequate institutional conditions for widespread education of adults. The various forms of mobility in teaching, methods of teaching, admission of students, and organization of courses, are isolated cases or partial measures. It is still not possible to talk about a global approach to adult education, present at all education levels in the Bulgarian environment, although forms of distance and evening study are emerging in most education institutions and the modular system of education is being introduced. The research results show that Bulgarian education institutions do not feature openness and flexibility of access; still lacking are paths such as «accreditation of experiential and work experience», APL, APEL. Access to education institutions is determined to a great extent by more traditional forms such as examinations, tuition fees or diplomas. All this leads to the conclusion that, with regard to the active involvement of adults in education, Bulgarian education institutions still have a long way to go towards the implementation of new forms (these are not applied and, in some cases, not even known). Along with this, the data from the survey we have conducted show that in Bulgarian conditions educators of adults in the formal education system are relatively highly evaluated by their pupils. According to the learners, the educators give support to their pupils, strive to include mobile forms of training, maintain the active involvement of students, and treat the latter as individuals. The teacher is learner-centred and allows student influence in course-planning decisions, while also maintaining an atmosphere favourable to personal goal attainment. All this creates a specific situation in the Bulgarian educational space: on one hand teachers have modern attitudes and relatively high qualification and openness; on the other hand, there are inert institutional mechanisms in the currently existing structures of adult education.

References


Continuing Professional Development in educating youth support workers: does professional competence have a ‘sell by’ date?

Introduction

The nationally relevant ‘Children’s Plan’ (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2007), with its objective to ‘make this country the best place in the world for young people to grow up’ is a worthy aspiration, resulting in the government evaluating and amending existing services to ensure that they perform in the way that is necessary to achieve this ambition. An aspect of this process concentrates upon the workforce that delivers child and youth provision, with a determined effort to extend integrated services beyond the frontline, to the qualifications framework.

This paper prefaces impending research into the skills and knowledge requirements for adult educators of youth support workers, with a particular focus upon challenging the perceived rhetoric of continuing professional development (CPD), questioning whether theoretical knowledge is adequate within a domain that is characterised by transience. The paper does not report upon primary research and essentially documents a tentative exploration of the remit for CPD for adult educators, especially for those educating youth support workers within contemporary UK society.

Youth support workers – a state of flux

Youth support work is the current term used in the UK to describe those people who work in a professional capacity to support young people – in this instance, young people will often refer to those aged between 13 – 19 years. It is a professional field that is unpredictable and requires a great deal of flexibility from the people who are working within this transient domain, where government agenda shifts in response to societal demands. Safeguarding children and young people is at the centre of most practice and a ‘risk aware’ approach is essential, which is partly due to increased awareness of associated risk to young people from post modern activity (Furlong & Cartmel, 1997). Such risk could be described as related to fast changing technological developments, the notion of young people as consumers (and the demands that this initiates) and the increase in the surveillance culture, which is often motivated by an assumption that young people present a danger to society. The consequence of this is that young people are effective political fodder and as such, services for young people are closely aligned to political agenda.

Much attention is currently given to workforce reform, with a compulsion to unify and standardise, working towards ‘one children’s workforce’ (Children’s Workforce Development Council, 2009) and in developing services which reach all corners of society but yet are still a tenet of a centralised system. This process is undoubtedly a complex and tumultuous activity.

Adult educators in various forums around the UK are charged with the unenviable task of responding to government reforms, of ensuring compliance with constantly evolving standards and keeping abreast of the challenges for youth support workers in contemporary society. Not only does this dictate the content of programmes designed to
educate and ‘qualify’ youth support workers but it also influences the process of the learning, as a result of experienced obligation and imposition, demoralisation, ethical conflict and so on. As youth support workers are required to increase and/or consolidate their skills and knowledge base and evidence their accomplishments, adult educators are experiencing a somewhat parallel process whereby even those with years of experience and even those who engage in part time training in dusty community halls are required to ‘declare their CPD’ and update their skills and knowledge base in order to obtain their ‘licence to teach’ (DfES, 2004). Furthermore, as the pressure to perform and ‘be professional’ increases in the field of youth support practice, it could be argued that this fuels a transference, whereby the student consciously and unconsciously challenges the adult educator to prove themselves also.

The Adult Educator - Licence to Teach?

In Higher Education (HE), the adult educator needs to have extensive knowledge of their subject and be educated to an academic standard that enables them to nurture the required instrumental and critical thinking ability, for HE level study. As Malcolm and Zukas (2000) convey, ‘University teachers have traditionally conceived of themselves as members of a disciplinary community, with both research and pedagogic roles’. This paper suggests that a further role be intertwined, that of ‘practitioner’, making the discipline three-fold, rather than two-fold, which invariably invites ontological debate.

In Further Education (FE), there has been a dramatic shift change, which is sure to resonate throughout adult education – one that requires the adult educator to demonstrate and acquire a ‘licence to teach’ (DfES, 2004). The prerequisite for this licence is a commitment to Continual Professional Development (CPD), with a high proportion of reflection – so that learning and development is not merely an engagement in didactic experiences but is an interactive process, whereby the adult educator connects with a process of introjective exploration. CPD has been defined by the Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills, 2007 as ‘.... in relation to a teacher, means continuing professional development, which is any activity undertaken by him for the purposes of updating his knowledge of the subjects he teaches or developing his teaching skills’ (2007). This definition makes no reference to the need for updating experiential knowledge through investing in professional practice (related to youth support work) and is closely aligned with the expectation of the Institute for Learning, who have been charged with monitoring and maintaining registration of further education teachers. They assert that CPD ‘......demonstrates that you are improving relevant knowledge and skills in your subject area and teaching or training’ and go onto state that ‘...a wide range of formal and informal activities could count as meaningful professional development’ (Institute for Learning, www.ifl.a.cuk, accessed 12/9/2009).

The usual process is that adult educators register with the Institute for Learning (IFL) and obtain a ‘status’ according to how their existing experience and qualifications relate to developed benchmarks. The Institute for Learning collate the initial evidence submitted by adult educators and determine their categorisation within a range incorporating classifications such as ‘affiliate’ or ‘fellow’ membership. Annual registration is required – with a relatively small financial cost and a declaration of having spent 30 hours (pro rata for part time) engaged in professional development.

The Institute for Learning determine that CPD constitutes a range of activity and offer examples, such as:
• Reading relevant journal articles or reviewing books
• Training courses or formal development or study
• Peer review, mentoring or shadowing
• Online learning including engagement in discussion forums and blogs
• Viewing and reviewing television programmes, documentaries and the internet
• And much more! (www.ifl.ac.uk/cpd/about-cpd)

The process is very much centred around reflective engagement, with adult educators being expected to reflect upon their learning and to log their CPD in a reflective journal – making explicit the relationship between their learning and their practice. The inclusion of ‘and much more!’ at the end of this list of examples, conveys a tone of frivolity which perhaps underplays the significance of CPD and also does not formally acknowledge the need for a concerted investment in the subject matter which is taught by the individual. There is no requirement for adult educators to maintain their investment in professional practice that is related to their subject matter and in the case of youth support workers, this could be a problem. That is, quality in professional practice in adult education does not exclusively relate to teaching and learning but also to what is being taught and its currency in an arguably dynamic and demanding domain.

The longer term aim is for adult educators to acquire their Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills (QTLS) and/or (Diploma in Teaching in the Life Long Learning Sector (DTTLLS) which is embedded in the Integrated Qualifications Framework (IQF), with a view to standardising the quality of adult education provision (City and Guilds, 2007). These were developed in response to a report by the Department for Education and Skills, 2004, to improve the quality of the post 16 sector teaching. Interestingly, post-16 learning is portrayed as being ‘pivotal to our aim of bringing social justice and economic prosperity to everyone’, (DfES, 2004: 2) thus reinforcing the intention of adult education from learning for learning’s sake, to having a subliminal task to achieve.

Educating Youth support workers

This paper is based upon the premise that it is imperative that adult educators of those engaged in youth support work, maintain a relationship with the professional arena by actually continuing to practice youth support work themselves. It is proposed that educators need to maintain more than the rhetoric of the work. They need to rely on more than ‘old’ experience of what it is to work with young people, in order to pay respect to the parallel process related to educating youth support workers.

The nature of the challenges faced by youth support workers in contemporary UK society means that theoretical investment in CPD by adult educators is not enough. Adult educators in this context need to maintain professional buoyancy and vibrance beyond the classroom/academic arena. Knowles, 1998, conveys the notion of being in a ‘reflexive state of evaluation’, which accurately describes the zone where youth support workers need to be - as reflective practitioners in a seemingly ever changing environment. The consequence of this is that students are not only evaluating self, peers and young people but are also evaluating their educator – the one who is lending themselves to the process and has to prove themselves, not only as educators but also as practitioners. In this way, the congruence of the adult educator and the presence of respect from their students, is enhanced - perhaps even, dependent – upon their up to date knowledge and experience of what it is to be a youth support worker in contemporary UK society.
This develops the arguments against Eraut’s ‘technical rationality’ (in Edwards & Nicoll, 2006), where ‘a common criticism is that an expert may know about something, but not necessarily do it well.’ (2006: 120). Edwards and Nicoll present a discourse whereby ‘professionals have to demonstrate their continuing competence. In other words, they have to perform in order to deserve their continuing status.’ (2006: 120). This is the basis of this paper, asserting that in the realms of educating youth support workers, this performance is crucial.

The role of Education

In the current climate, where even poorly funded third sector agencies, such as charities and not for profit organisations, are being co-erced into providing an accredited service for its ‘people who use services’ – the role and function of education is an ever changing one, with perhaps understanding of the meaning of education being broadened out across a range of sectors. Much youth support work is undertaken by third sector agencies, in a period where the focus is very much upon reaching those who are ‘hard to reach’ – termed those who are NEET (Not in Education Employment or Training) by the government. These young people are often those who do not engage with mainstream services and who often need a heretical approach.

In the third sector, target driven and outcome focused agendas are somewhat adverse to the person centred approach that many services thrive upon. In higher education, in particular, there is an assumed knowledge – academic achievement affirms academic credibility but in the third sector, where much of the education of many youth support workers takes place, it is not based upon assumed knowledge but upon proven experience – intuitive knowledge is a valued contribution. In contrast and yet alongside this, is the need for those afforded the status of the ‘educator’ in these contexts, to prove that they have earned this status – to be viable to disturb the status quo! There is a need to have the academic and the experiential credentials to warrant being the one that is going to ‘teach’ a subject that may be embedded in the very being of many youth support workers.

Social change is being lubricated by education – the UK’s performance within the global community is being illustrated by its educational achievement. It is this intensified attention that contributes to an exploration of andragogy: “A set of core adult learning situations that apply to all adult learning situations” (Knowles, Holton and Swanson, 1998: 2). In a sense, this paper is about the components that make up the andragogical formulae – about the components that define and inform a ‘successful’ approach for those educating youth support workers in 2009? There is recognition that this formulae may not necessarily transpose to other fields of study.

Nowadays, youth support workers seem to be preoccupied with the ‘how’ – as it is this ‘on the front line’ mentality which matters nowadays and as much as we may know that there is a connection between the ‘what, when and why’ to ‘how’ – this is a longer and more reflective process that may not be initially identifiable to youth support workers, who are steered towards managing themselves in a highly transient environment.

Youth support workers need to be educated by people who can meet the following criteria:

- **Reflective practice** – being able to engage with self in context
• **Knowledge of the theory** – being able to make explicit the relationship between the theory and contemporary practice  
• **Knowledge of the practice** – relying on experience that takes into account current practice considerations  
• **Attention to the interplay between content and process** – being able to use the process of learning as an opportunity to underscore subject matter – for instance, the dynamics within the teaching and learning situation to illustrate and exemplify practice related topics  
• **Chameleonic attitude and behaviour** – being flexible and responsive and modelling a person centred approach  
• **Engagement with contemporary contexts** – keeping abreast of current agenda and acknowledging its relationship to youth support practice  

Campling, 1983, in her preface to Lovett and Clarke, makes reference to Friere and Ilich and in drawing on this notion of technical and methodological foci within adult education, this paper proposes a form of hybrid between social purpose and andragogy. Contemporary adult education for youth support workers needs to attend to both social purpose and methods and technique and in relation to HE institutions, there is a need to acknowledge the value of experientially derived knowledge and challenge the complacency that academic validity affords.

There is a distinct parallel process between ‘education’ and ‘support services for children and young people’ as both are subject to regulatory inspection and standardisation. There is the fear that this may result in more bureaucracy in adult education – with the need for community influence to counteract this. The concern is that organisations that provide adult education may become a form of socialisation, with youth support workers (in this instance), being ‘schooled’ into the ways of working that are part of the statutory dictate.

**Does Professional Competence have a ‘sell by’ date? Conclusion**

This paper substantiates the validity of maintaining currency in technical and experiential knowledge and that to dismiss this aspect of professional development, is to place oneself at a disadvantage. Greater emphasis upon life long learning and widening participation, inevitably affords the learner more choice and more opportunity for exercising a preference. As Edwards and Nicoll (2006) state: ‘the student/client has been reinscribed as the learner/consumer’ (2006: 121). There is greater pressure on the adult educator to prove themselves ‘worthy’ and in youth support practice in particular, there is an emphasis upon experiential knowledge – even though this is being underscored by attention to academic knowledge.

The assertion of this paper is that quality adult educational practice, in relation to youth support workers needs to accommodate an investment in CPD by the adult educator. One which moves beyond research, reflection and opportunities related to development through theoretical learning, to one which emphasizes updating professional ‘front line’ practice. McGregor (2009) recently reported on the social work task force report into social work practice (a professional arena within which youth support practice is often conducted), where it was identified that social work educators need to have more of a relationship with current practice. In defence, a social work academic (Preston-Shoot), proclaimed that: ‘By and large, social work academics make every effort to keep up-to-date with the realities of frontline practice through research’.
Another defender and social work lecturer (Broadhurst), stated that most lecturers ‘seek out ways to get involved’ with professional social work practice. However, this is not a prerequisite, nor is it necessarily embraced by all – there is no requirement to bridge the gap between being a practitioner and being an adult educator. Being an adult educator becomes the professional practice and in this way, the adult educator perhaps becomes divorced from youth support practice as a core consideration in their own professional development. This is a deficit which needs to be counteracted by strengthening the emphasis upon a commitment to professional development activity that relates to engaging in youth support practice.

Hafez et al (2008) highlight the importance of alternative forms of CPD that ‘should not detract from teacher-focused professional development and should be in addition to, rather than in place of, the CPD that teachers undertake to meet the annual 30-hour requirement.’ (2008: 7). Attitudes to and opinions about this, will undoubtedly influence the feasibility of the introduction and/or accentuation of engaging in youth support practice, as part of CPD for adult educators of youth support practitioners. This would involve rhetorical analysis, as undertaken by Edwards and Nicoll (2006), which is not the objective of this paper. Neither is it the intention of this paper to replace or compromise pedagogical focus or to condemn its relevance but it hopes to enhance it via promoting it as a necessity in the context of youth support practice. This paper represents a tentative journey towards imposing a function of CPD for adult educators of those who work as youth support workers, so that the adult educators are also youth support workers. This initiates exploration of professional identity and investigates and perhaps challenges, notions of knowledge and also that of consistency across sectors.

The current drive by the UK government is ‘to generate a coherent approach to the professional development of staff across the various sectors of education and training, and in particular the HE in FE community.’ (Price, 2007: 15). This paper focuses specifically upon educating youth support workers and perhaps is relevant to all practice that relates to social care and education services but does not especially translate into other professional domains. In this way, it is a direct challenge to the horizontal ‘cross sector’ synchrony that is sought by the UK government even though it acknowledges the depth of knowledge needed in educating youth support workers, in particular.

Clearly, there is a need for further development and this inevitably provokes debate, and possibly criticism but it is a worthy cause and one that is being invited.

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Professional competency of educators in the field of informal adult education.

Introduction
The main research topic we considered in this paper was the professional competence of educators engaged at the field of informal adult education regarding a base for processes of standardizing and licensing. Proceeding from one of the basic andragogical assumption that competence to learn is one of the most important and fundamental human competence, we considered term competence as a set of abilities consisting of knowledge, skills, attitudes and professional values to perform own work effectively and efficiently, according to the normative acts and documents accepted by a profession or occupation at a given time. Exploration of this problem is one of the main constitutive aspects of the broader problem – i.e. problem of the process of professionalization in the field of adult education – especially if one consider it from the multi-leveled perspective determined by answering to the questions about: duties, tasks and roles of adult educators; human resource base in the field of adult education; and essential capacities necessary for adult educators performance.

Theoretical and Empirical Framework
The problem of professional competence, especially its cognitive component, in current literature is treated from different standpoints. Assuming that profession is an occupation based on specialized knowledge, obtained through professional preparation, Freidson wrote that professional competence is conceptually and contextually specific, rationale constructed set of knowledge and abilities obtained through long-lasting and intensive professional preparation at professional schools and universities (Freidson, 1986). However, Abbott claims that base for process of professionalization is in the cognitive competence, expressed through processes of reduction and abstraction. Under the process of reduction he assumed possibility that some professional competences are under the jurisdiction of some other (s) professions, i.e. that such competences are same as in other professions, while process of abstraction is a possibility to apply abstract knowledge (specific cognitive competence) from one profession to the another professional fields. All of the professions are networked and they are in constant interaction, but every profession, due to the core of professional competences, have certain jurisdiction above the own professional field through the (a) „social control,“ expressed by public and legislative mechanisms, and (b) „cultural control,“ expressed through duties and tasks accomplished by the members of the profession, who have (by certain legislative proposed) necessary, in formal education obtained sum of knowledge as a base for forming set of necessary professional cognitive competences (Abbott, 1988).

While process of reduction one could find in some occupations, process of abstraction is distinctive for professions, because only the system of abstract knowledge (as a base for professional cognitive competence) is able to redefine problems and tasks, to protect them from unprofessional activities and to give necessary support for...
understanding new problems, what imply possibilities for outlasting of some profession in the competitive context.

Between the authors who had intensive discourses about phenomenon of profession and professionalization, there are no doubts about cognitive competence as their base presumption, because professional activities consist of rigorous practical application of underlying theory. But, also, “Complexity, instability, and uncertainty are not removed or resolved by applying specialized knowledge to well-defined tasks. If anything, the effective use of specialized knowledge depends on a prior restructuring of situations that are complex and uncertain.

An artful practice of the unique case appears anomalous of established techniques to recurrent events“ (Schön, 1983). Glazer argued that depending continuity and intensity of manifestation of cognitive competence during professional performance is possible to make distinctions at “major” and “minor” professions (Glazer, 1974, in: Ibidem). Obtained professional competence, distinctively than in vocational (or occupational) competences is only partially caused by at rationale based context of application, because every profession have own exclusive sum of knowledge (theoretical base and specialized skills) which delineate it from other professions and shapes professional identity. Learning of specialized knowledge and skills make demarcation line between different professions and between professional and unprofessional in the field of professional performance (Despotovic, in: Kulic and Despotovic, 2004).

Professional competence is so exclusive that even in a professionally decontextualized fields allowed to the members of one profession to be completely recognizable due to cognitive competence and certain skills; it is one of the „instruments for monopolization of the professional market services“, i.e. key factor for „distribution of professional expertise“ (Larson, 1977, pp. 187).

Due to the specialist, theoretical knowledge, inherent to the professional competence – it is institutionalized key for the control of professional performance (Savicevic, 1999). And Glazer too, explains that application of the professional competences into practice is dominant in “major” professions, while in “minor” professions and occupations, respectively, dominate application of theoretically not well founded skills (Glazer, 1974, in: Schön, 1983). Some andragogues share similar opinion, and emphasize that process of the professionalization of the field of adult education begins with possibilities to obtain some core professional competences at universities and professional schools, and later with broader spectrum of programs for continuing professional education (Kerka, 1994; Merriam & Brockett, 1997; Watkins, 1999; Savicevic, 2003, etc.)

Besides, some authors were connecting professional competence with some specific professional constitutive elements. Trantalidi considered relationship between professional competence and autonomy (Trantalidi, 2004), while Lankard-Brown (Lankard-Brown, 1999) perceived connection between professional competence and processes of standardization, certification and licensing of profession.

For the purpose of empirical research, Schön (Schön, 1983) articulated these ideas in such of manner that many other authors used it for different empirical researches of the problem of professional competence (Billet, 2006; Nilsson, 2007; Ovesni 2007), as well as overlapping phenomenon – perception of own professional performance (Schön, 1993), professional expertise (Dreyfus, 1992, in: Daley, 2001), relationships between learning and professional performance (Grey, 1999, in: Evetts, 2003; Daley, 2001).
A great majority of their findings shows that most influence at the process of abstraction in the professional performance (usually operationalised through perception of possession and scope of applicability of theoretical knowledge, evaluation of own relationship toward obtained professional competence, perception or evaluation of the level of applicability of obtained professional competence, etc.) have the fundamental qualities and locus of instrumentality, contingency, and objects and characteristic of the professional performance.

Interesting findings (Daley, 2001; Ovesni, 2007) showed that professional competence is contingent upon time; that it is instrumental – caused by effects; that it’s application is root for changes of state or condition, and rarely have form of artefact.

Sometimes professional competence was perceived as very broad, due to the scope of awareness of different factors, methods, techniques and procedures, objects and manners of professional performance; while there are clear indications about necessity that professional competence scopes knowledge about historical, ethical and organizational aspects of the professional performance.

Using writings of Parsons and Abbott as a base for his empirical research, Wilson claims that one of the corner stones for the process of the professionalization of the field of adult education (with emphasis to informal adult education) is control of the profession through the processes of accumulation and generation, accessibility and using of knowledge, i.e. the professional competence, which is not only technical competence (based only at the skills). “By controlling the production, access, and use of professional knowledge, professions can thus monopolize the market for their services... Producing a recognizable professional commodity means producing a professional trained in discipline-specific knowledge and skill who, as the only available purveyor, can ‘sell’ that expertise in the professional marketplace” (Wilson, 2001, pp. 77).

Importance of the complex professional competence of adult educators is emphasized in some studies as basic principle in standardization of the professions, which stands above integrity, professional responsibility, respect for people's rights and dignity, concern for others' welfare, and social responsibility (Carter, Howell, Schied, 2001); professional competence represents complex of theoretical knowledge, ethics, and skills was one of the main empirical finding in the research of ethical issues in adult education (Gordon & Sork, 2001).

However, the study of Watkins showed that a lot of “the responsibility for ensuring continuing competence falls on the individual”... what imply necessity for... “increasing competence in a wider context with benefits to both professional and personal roles” (Watkins, 1999, pp. 63).

Otherwise, in some researches there are clear indications about need for a clearer definition by professional bodies of what constitutes professional competence, what involves current competence instead required competence, identifying suitable means of developing the skills needed, and evaluating its effectiveness (Allaker and Shapland, 1994, in: Ibidem).

**Research Problem and Objectives**

Based of such theoretical and empirical framework the main research problem considered in this paper is the perception of their own professional competence among educators engaged at the field of informal adult education regarding a base for processes of standardizing and licensing.
Understanding that competence is a set of abilities consisting of knowledge, skills, attitudes and professional values to perform own work effectively and efficiently, according to the normative acts and documents accepted by a professional association at a given time, we developed a few research objectives concentrated on the examination of perception of own professional competence of educators engaged at the field of informal adult education:

- perception of the model of gaining own professional competence,
- perception of scope of own influence,
- perception of the contextual factors which have impact into own professional competence,
- perception of the constitutive elements and of dominant educational forms for gaining theoretical and practical professional knowledge).

Basic research hypothesis is that certain elements (model of gaining professional competence, scope of influence, contextual factors, and constitutive elements and dominant educational forms for gaining theoretical and practical professional knowledge) have dominant role in processes of foundation and performing profession of educators in the field of informal adult education.

Research Setting, Design and Methods

The empirical data were collected from a nationwide random sample of 281 respondents. The studied population was all adult educators in Serbia, employed in the institutions included in An Adult Education Society’s Directory of Adult Education Institutions (Drustvo za obrazovanje odraslih, 2005). A sample of total 281 educators engaged at the field of informal adult education was selected from 730 adult educators who participated in a study on the base of the field of professional performance. Response rate for the research was high (91.0%)

In an empirical aspect of research we applied quantitative, non-experimental, descriptive research method. Accordingly, basic techniques for gathering data were questioning and scaling by questionnaires, five-point Likert-type scales and dichotomous Mokken-type scales. Consensual content validity was established by a cohort of 7 experts in the field of adult education and methodology of pedagogical and andragogical research (Delphi method), where their comments and corrections were incorporated in a final version of the battery of instruments. Reliability of this study was ascertained by the calculated statistical coefficients of reliability, Item-Item analyses, Guttmann or Cronbach α coefficient. The Cronbach α coefficient for one instrument consisted of Likert-type scales was 0.924, for another instrument consisted of Mokken-type scales Guttmann coefficient showed the values between 0.762 and 0.817, what suggest high reliability of instruments and acceptability in social sciences researches.

The Microsoft Excel, SPSS 8.0 for Windows, and Statistica 5.0 for Windows were used for data analysis. These items were subjected to a few common procedures, as well as few nonparametric tests and factor analysis (based on maximal likelihood component analysis with the Varimax rotation).

Findings

Ranking with test statistic based on ranks in Friedman test, and based at Van der Waerden’s transformation (Table 1 at the next page) showed that educators engaged at
the field of informal adult education higher ranks assigned to continuing professional education, own understanding of humanistic reasons for professional performance and to cooperation with colleagues, while accordingly, some lower ranks they assigned to own professional experience, previous professional preparation, formal university professional education and possession of necessary certificates and to informal professional education (what was expected due to the lack of their formal professional preparation).

Findings of Freidman and Kendal W test indicated that all of the included items, related to the perception of the model of gaining own professional competence, was represented sufficiently – that perception of dominancy of continuing professional education, own understanding of humanistic reasons for professional performance and cooperation with colleagues, as well as subsidiarity of the formal university professional education and possession of necessary certificates and of the informal professional education, as results significant on p<0.01 level, showed necessity for designing carefully modeled curricula for professional preparation for education in the field of informal adult education with simultaneously performed activities in designing specific programs for their continuing professional education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My professional competence is based on my...</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>continuing professional education</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understanding of humanistic reasons for professional performance</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooperation with my colleagues</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional experience</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>previous professional preparation</td>
<td>4.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formal university professional educational and possession of necessary certificates</td>
<td>4.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informal professional education</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ranking of data related to the perception of scope of own influence indicated that educators engaged at the field of informal adult education considered all of the items included in as important, because there are no statistically relevant significances between their ranks (Table 2), what means that they perceived their professional competence important in the finding and in maintaining their jobs, and in shaping their own professional responsibilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My professional competence ...</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>helped me to find job</td>
<td>1.950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helping me in maintenance of my job</td>
<td>2.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shaping my professional responsibility</td>
<td>2.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on ranking data related to the perception of the contextual factors which have impact into own professional competence (Table 3, at the next page), as results
significant on p<0.01 level, one could conclude that educators engaged at the field of informal adult education gave priority to learning and respecting of professional ethic more than to organizational culture or to culture of local community. Such findings indicate high differentiation of responses and knowledge of respondents about universal constitutive elements of professional competence.

Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For obtaining my professional competence was not of importance only possession of knowledge but also respecting and learning about...</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professional ethic</td>
<td>1.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organizational culture</td>
<td>2.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>culture of the local community</td>
<td>2.134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Friedman Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>As. Sq.</th>
<th>Kendall's W</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>281</td>
<td>13.77</td>
<td>2</td>
<td><strong>0.00</strong></td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ranking of gathered data about the core resources of practical knowledge, useful for professional performance as integral element of professional competence of the educators engaged at the field of informal adult education shows, statistically significant on p<0.01 level, similarities between formal university professional education programs of continuing professional education, professional practice, and self-education as highly valuated reliable resources, while rank assigned to the colleagues as resources of practical knowledge is significantly lower (Table 4).

Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The core resources of my practical knowledge, useful for my professional performance, is based on my ...</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>formal university professional education</td>
<td>2.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>programs of continuing professional education</td>
<td>2.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional practice</td>
<td>2.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-education</td>
<td>3.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colleagues</td>
<td>3.364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Friedman Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>As. Sq.</th>
<th>Kendall's W</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>281</td>
<td>17.31</td>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>0.001</strong></td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical analysis of perception of the dominant educational forms and patterns for obtaining theoretical and practical knowledge necessary for performing own profession between educators engaged at the field of informal adult education showed that respondent highly valuate formal university professional education and programs for continuing professional preparation, and respectfully, professional practice.

Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
<th>Factor 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
<td>-0.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.105</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
<td>-0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>-0.590</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td>-0.101</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>-0.084</td>
<td>0.673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>-0.070</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>0.1517</td>
<td>0.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>0.373</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>-0.852</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>-0.196</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>-0.969</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>-0.939</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor analysis (Table 5 and Table 6 at the next page) based on maximal likelihood component analysis with the Varimax rotation allowed (due to the satisfying numeric value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin criterion (0.754) extraction of six factors.

Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E.P.</th>
<th>Eig.</th>
<th>%tot.var.</th>
<th>Cum.Eig.</th>
<th>Cum.%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.304</td>
<td>11.521</td>
<td>2.304</td>
<td>11.521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.385</td>
<td>6.923</td>
<td>3.689</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2.388</td>
<td>11.942</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.169</td>
<td>5.847</td>
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</table>

The first one (colleagues) explains 11.5% of total variance – because of the negative value one can conclude that respondents do not perceive their colleagues as valid resources of knowledge necessary for obtaining relevant professional competence.

The second (self-education) and the third (learning through own professional practice) extracted factor with relatively high potentiality in explanation (6.9% and 11.9% of total variance) – showed that respondents do not perceive self-education or learning through own professional practice as valid resources of knowledge necessary for obtaining relevant professional competence. As non-valid resource they perceived all of the rest extracted factors, too – the fourth (8.3% of total variance) – programs for continuing professional preparation, the fifth (6.0% of total variance) – previous professional preparation and the sixth (5.8% of total variance) – theoretical knowledge.

Findings clearly indicate necessity for urgent activities in modeling professional offer for educators engaged at the field of informal adult education at the universities and modeling appropriate programs for continuing professional education, based at core of professional competence (theoretical knowledge, values and skills).

Conclusion

Research findings are completely in accordance with theoretical foundation and relevant researches at another field of different professions and in the whole field of adult education, because of indicia that while there is no uniformity in professional preparation of adult educators engaged into the field of informal adult education, there is no any possibility to claim that they are profession. But, findings about negative perception of colleagues, self-education without relevant basic education, learning through own professional practice, luck of the: programs for continuing professional preparation,
previous professional preparation, and theoretical knowledge shows willing of educators engaged at the field of informal adult education to raise themselves from the position of semi-professionals through obtaining of relevant professional competence.

Such findings are in accordance with theoretical and empirical findings of all of the authors, mentioned in theoretical framework of this paper, who made diversification between two models of procedural knowledge as base of professional competence, necessary for professional performance, what makes relevant base for forethought about urgent needs for interconnected, by solid formal structures powered professional actions between the educators engaged at the field of informal adult education, universities, professional and vocational associations, and relevant NGOs, in to the process of introduction of the professional standards and the formal codex of professional ethic as prerequisite for progress in the processes of rising professional competences and professionalization of the field of informal adult education.

References


Quality lifelong guidance for quality lifelong learning: The role of the qualified guidance practitioner\(^7\).

Lifelong Guidance: A priority issue

The emerging issues within education, coupled with the changing labour market and rapid social changes mean that the development of a lifelong guidance (LLG) model via the European Union is a high priority issue. The findings of a series of surveys and studies on the role of guidance and counselling\(^6\), not only for the western societies, but also for the developing ones, speak for the development and the provision of various programs and services for different population groups (Unesco, 2002; OECD, 2004; Hansen, 2006). This all suggests that high quality guidance services play a crucial role in supporting citizens managing lifelong learning, career development and personal goals (Van Esbroeck, 2002; Skills Commission, 2008; CEDEFOP, 2009).

An international survey commissioned by the OECD, EC and World Bank and carried out in 39 countries in the years 2001–2004 focused on the following goals:
- to describe the national guidance systems in education, training and career
- to determine similarities and differences in the national policies in guidance and
- to point out the strengths and the weaknesses of the national systems, in order to develop common guidelines for a lifelong guidance model.

The results of the survey supported the need for lifelong guidance programmes and services for all. One significant result of the survey has been the adoption of an inclusive definition of guidance that is being widely used in the field:

‘Guidance refers to a continuous process that enables citizens of any age and at any point in their lives to identify capacities, competences and interests, to make meaningful educational, training and occupational decisions and to manage their individual life paths in learning, work and other settings in which these capacities and competences are learned and/or used. Guidance covers a range of individual and collective activities relating to information-giving, counselling, competence assessment, support, and the teaching of decision-making and career management skills’ (Council EU, 2008a, p. 2).

In this socio-economical and educational framework, lifelong guidance and counselling has gradually developed as a priority area in the fields of lifelong learning (LLL), training and in the world of work. The European Council, held in Lisbon (2000), has been followed up by ongoing actions, decisions, and guidelines that are being formulated and implemented throughout Europe. All this activity has the aim to redefine, reorganise and improve guidance services. Within this concept lifelong guidance in considered as a key function, for central policy goals to be achieved, such as personal development, lifelong learning, employability, social cohesion (Commission EC, 2000; Council EU, 2004; 2008). A series of research projects, training programs and networks have been initiated.

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\(^7\) **Acknowledgements:** Special thanks to my colleague Anthony Montgomery and to my friend Katerina Plastara, for advice with regard to editing.

\(^6\) Regarding the terminology used in the field, there is a great variety of terms used in the different countries to describe career guidance activities and/or services. Such terms can be 'educational, vocational or career guidance', 'guidance and counselling', 'occupational guidance/counselling', 'information, advice & guidance' (IAG) etc. In this way, the European Council adopts the inclusive term 'guidance' “to identify any or all of these forms of provision” (Council Resolution 2004, 2).
The ultimate goal of all these activities is to produce and provide quality guidance services that can be easily accessed by all citizens, at the time they need them, e.g. they are citizen-centered and meet the individual needs. To serve these purposes guidelines and handbooks for policy makers, guidance theorists and practitioners have been developed (OECD & EC, 2004; Athanasou & Van Esbroeck, 2008). Furthermore, to meet the new demands, a movement from traditional to more modern theoretical and methodological approaches in the field has been established (Collin & Young, 2000; Brown & Lent, 2005; Papavassiliou-Alexiou, 2009).

In order to formulate an ideal model of lifelong guidance, CEDEFOP (Wannan & McCarthy 2005, p. 24-31) proposes six key features:
(i) **Citizen-centred features**, which are developed to provide access to all citizens, throughout their lives, to guidance services, to motivate citizens to participate and benefit from lifelong learning opportunities, to allow citizens to play a key role in mechanisms of quality assurance
(ii) **Policy development features**: Guiding Principles for LLG programmes are lifelong learning and the development of employability, relating to current and planned social and economic development. In the formulation and implementation of relevant LLG programmes stakeholders are involved such as ministries, users, social partners, service providers, education and training institutions, guidance practitioners and parents.
(iii) **System coordination features**: National guidance systems are flexibly organized and operate across education, training, employment and community sectors. Cooperation and coordination between sectors is strongly suggested for an effective provision of services. Therefore establishment of networks and partnerships on the local, regional, national and international level is strongly recommended.
(iv) **Review features**: Periodical review of LLG systems is recommended in order to promote cooperation across the sectors, develop effectiveness, adjust programmes and services to changing socio-economic conditions. Apart from review, research is undertaken in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the various system components, develop strategies for particular population groups, improve the psychological tests and produce alternative methods as well as to formulate new theoretical models.
(v) **Targeting features**: Specific guidance services are targeted to groups who are at risk of social exclusion\(^\text{19}\). These measures will support the integration of these groups into the world of work and society
(vi) **International features**: Europe is the reference field for guidance provision in the member-states. Cooperation among them includes assistance to other countries in the development of guidance programmes, help for training the guidance workers in training fields not available in their country, exchange of information and dissemination of guidance material among the countries.

**Lifelong Guidance for Lifelong Learning**

The close relationship between lifelong guidance and lifelong learning has become in the last ten years a reality that is not to be doubted. The Memorandum of Lifelong Learning (EC, 2000, p. 16) explicitly points to guidance as one of the 6 central policy areas,

\(^{19}\) To these groups belong: persons who did not complete compulsory education; women; old workers; members of linguistic and other minority groups; persons with disabilities; migrant workers; workers in fragile economic sectors and enterprises who are at risk of unemployment (Wannan & McCarthy 2005, 26).
the objective being to ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities throughout their life. In the Councils’ conclusions on adult learning (Council EU, 2008b) the importance of quality information and guidance services have been stressed, more person-centred approaches are encouraged, which can result to more active and independent learners. It is worthwhile to note that the Council Resolution (2008a) focuses directly on integrating LLG into LLL strategies. In order to implement an active guidance policy under the national LLL strategies, the Resolution recommends the development of concrete measures and activities directed towards the four following priorities: encouraging the lifelong acquisition of career management skills, facilitating access of all citizens to guidance services, developing quality of provision and encouraging coordination and cooperation among national, regional and local sectors (Council EU 2008a, p. 3).

The aforementioned general policy guidelines suggest concrete action, for an effective connection between LLG and LLL. Moving towards this direction, Unesco have published a study concerning the roles and challenges faced by guidance and counselling in relation to lifelong learning in the 21st Century. The editors of this research, William Borgen and Bryan Hiebert, have formulated essential questions that provide the groundwork for developing concrete actions, regarding the support of individuals: (2002, p. 20-21):

- How can guidance and counselling infrastructures be created to assist individuals in making informed decisions about education and training?
- How can individuals be assisted through LLG services to consider educational and training opportunities, within the context of a broader life plan?
- How can individuals be helped to become more self-sustaining and adjust to changing educational and labour market demands?

We elucidate and explore the questions put forward by the research via a case study focused on the field of guidance provision for the adult learner (Papavassiliou-Alexiou, 2008, p. 506):

‘A woman between 30 and 40 wants to get back to work after a long break for childcare. She needs to catch up with the new developments in her field and find a job. She wants to be effective and achieve her goal but she has no idea where and how to start. Questions like “do I need some kind of training to catch up?”, “what training would be appropriate for my needs?”, “What would be the first step and the right decision to begin with?” confuse and upset her. Furthermore, things get worse, when this woman is a single parent and/or an immigrant.’ In this case we discuss vulnerable groups with multiple disadvantages. How can this woman be supported by guidance services, to confront her difficulties?

Reflecting on the above example we can unfold and describe the first axel of guidance provision addressing adult education. Guidance services for the adult learner can be implemented in four clear function-steps (s. figure 1): (a) Information. The individual needs first to know the training opportunities that are being offered and that suit her situation. Getting informed that there are some educational programmes in her field, run by public or private sectors, is a first step to calm her anxiety down. (b) Decision making. The second step is to select the appropriate programme and be satisfied by this decision. In order for a rational choice to be made the counsellor and the counselee should take all factors (time, costs, family, content and duration of the programme) into account. (c) Support during the attendance. Once the choice is made the implementation
begins. Adult trainees are confronted with many internal or external difficulties, during the training (Jarvis, 2004; Kokkos, 2005; Rogers, 1999). Guidance support is decisive for a successful attendance and completion of the programme. (d) Transition. Guidance provision is not concluded when the training programme ends. The central goal of the programme is the better transition and integration of the individual within the labour market. The guidance practitioner goes therefore further, providing the counselee with the necessary career skills to succeed in the phase of job seeking.

Referring to the time factor the above described guidance functions take place in three phases: i. before the programme choice ii. during the programme and iii. after the programme’s completion (Papavassiliou-Alexiou, 2005).

**Figure 1**

*Guidance functions in adult education*

Summarizing, guidance services for LLL support him/her the learner. The utilisation of guidance services may lead to more rational course selection and more satisfied learners, who complete their education or training and thus have better employment opportunities and a higher life standard. Hiebert & Borgen, (2002, p.141) admit that LLG services will enable a larger part of population to see opportunities for themselves in LLL, to follow learning paths according to their needs, to make better use of the received education and understand its connection to their career journey.

The second action axel of LLG in adult education refers to the institutions themselves. LLG plays here the role of ‘brokerage’ between supply and demand, e.g. between potential learners and training institutions (EC, 2000, p.17). In this respect guidance services inform education and training institutions of their potential students’ needs. Institutions can thus offer better-planned and implemented programmes, which meet the needs of their students. Matching the individual’s skills and interests with the
available training opportunities can lead education systems to make the best use of human resources; a fact that has a decisive impact on national economies (Plant & Turner 2005; Van Esbroeck, 2002).

The role of the qualified guidance practitioner

The key for achieving the effective combination of LLG and LLL is the quality assurance of the delivered guidance services. As quality is a common issue in the globalized society, quality issues in guidance have come to the forefront too. Plant (2001; 2004) points out that a ‘plethora’ of perspectives have been produced on the issue of quality. In the last 15 years a long list of standards and/or guidelines, linked to the many and different aspects of guidance have been produced either by single professional guidance associations (e.g. American Counselling Association, 2001; Deutscher Verband fuer Berufberatung, 2001) or by national councils, as a result of cooperation among social partners, government, NGOs, users, etc (e.g. Council for Accreditation of Counselling and Related Educational Programmes, 1996; National Steering Committee for Career Development Guidelines and Standards, 2001).

According to Evangelista (2003) a good quality service needs on the one hand to be recognized by the field experts and on the other to fully meet the expectations of the individuals using it. He defines quality as a ‘social concept’, a result of ‘negotiation among those involved in the planning, assessment, supply and realization of a product or service’ (ib. p.1). To assure the quality of guidance services he proposes a tri-variable model where (i) ‘human resources’, (ii) ‘other productive factors’ and (iii) ‘productive processes’ are combined. Following this model, “the availability of optimum productive factors which are then utilised by qualified human resources in accordance with optimum processes” result to optimal performance of the provided services (ib. p.1,2).

The guidance practitioner competence is the most significant determinant of quality guidance provision, for he/she is the central provider of guidance services. Labour market developments and social change have, undoubtedly, an impact on guidance practitioners’ roles. The diversity in working environments as well as client groups is a fact among as well as within nations, which results in increasing demands on the practitioner and the potential for a diverse occupational profile. S/he is nowadays found to work in a diversity of environments and with different client-groups (Bulgarelli, 2009). On the one hand working environments may vary from school, to adult education institutions, social services and employment sectors, and the client-groups can be school students, adult learners, at risk groups, unemployed, employees and workers, multicultural groups, individuals need orientation, re-orientation and re-integration in the labour market etc. On the other hand guidance practitioners are called upon to also support education and training organisations and employment enterprises aimed at enabling citizens to manage

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20 In their article Plant & Turner (2005) present some good practices of guidance services for lifelong learning. The examples given refer to workplace guidance provision in the UK and Denmark, aiming to support and motivate low skilled workers in upgrading their skills, through participation in training programmes.

21 The Standing Conference of Associations for Guidance in Educational Settings (1992), for example, identified ten guidance activities: informing; advising; assessing; teaching; enabling; advocating; networking; feeding back; managing; and innovation/systems change. Therefore quality standards in guidance differ from country to country according to their point of reference. Some focus on staff performance as others on the quality of the material used or the delivery (Plant 2004, 142-143).
their learning and work (Arthur, 2008; Niles & Karajic, 2008; Plant, 2004; Repetto et al. 2008).

It is more than clear that, within this concept, education and training of guidance workers need to be reconsidered, revised and updated, in order to provide them with the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is therefore logical that the guidance practitioner needs lifelong learning him-/herself. As a response to this necessity a lot of work has been produced in the last years on national, European and international levels. The result is the production of a series of education and training models for the guidance practitioner. International institutions like the OECD and CEDEFOP recognise the importance of these developments and have established a common framework of international guidelines that outline the necessary competencies for defining the qualified guidance practitioner. Such a framework can work as a tool for curricular design and the construction of continuous training of workers in the field.

To present or even more to analyze all these models is beyond the goals of this paper\textsuperscript{22}. We choose to stay focused on a most recent project, which covers the European level, though with reference to the international work in the field. We refer to the Competence Framework for Guidance practitioners, developed by CEDEFOP on 2009.

The CEDEFOP Competence Framework for guidance practitioners and its appliance to LLL

The competence framework for career guidance practitioners is the product of a relevant study by CEDEFOP in 30 European countries. The main purpose of the project was the development of a common working tool for supporting guidance practitioners and policy makers in producing national and sectoral frameworks, quality-assurance tools and professional standards (CEDEFOP, 2009, p. 74).

As one can see in figure 2 three main categories of competence are identified in the framework (ib. p.75):

(i) Foundation or transversal competences are defined as the abilities, skills and knowledge that should be exhibited by guidance workers in all their professional activities. Recognising and responding to clients’ diverse needs is, for example, a foundation competence.

(ii) Client-interaction competences are directly connected to communication activities between guidance worker and client, such as face-to-face conversation or distance guidance provision. Developing strategies and goal-setting in one example of client competence.

(iii) Supporting competences refer to additional activities needed to support the work of guidance practitioners. They actually ensure the availability and promptness of facilities, networks and resources needed for service delivery.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{1. FOUNDATION COMPETENCES} & \\
\hline
1.1 Ethical practice & \\
1.2 Recognise and respond to clients’ diverse needs & \\
1.3 Integrate theory and research into practice & \\
1.4 Develop one’s own capabilities and understand any limitations & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{The competence framework}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{22}A list of the most important competence frameworks to date is provided by CEDEFOP (2009, p. 66f.)
The framework may be considered as short, but analysis of specific competences relating to the relationship between LLG and LLL can help to understand the ways in which these competencies can be useful for the guidance practitioner in his work with the lifelong (adult) learner.

- **Foundation competence 1.2: Recognise and respond to clients’ diverse needs.** Connecting with our counselee example, given in section 2 of this article, the counsellor should be able to define, during the interview the needs of the adult woman for additional training and supporting her in choosing the appropriate training programme for her. Prior knowledge, experience and diverse roles of the adult counselee have to be always taken into consideration in the counselling context.

- **Client-interaction competence, 2.2: Enable access to information.** Referring to our example of the woman in our case, she most probably does not know what training opportunities are available, who delivers them, when and how to approach them. The task for the counsellor is not only to make these opportunities known but to support his/her counselee to become able to critically identify information sources, assess them, interpret them and choose among them the most appropriate for her situation. We talk here about the development of a group of ‘information-handling skills’ (CEDEFOP 2009, 81).

Supporting competence, 3.2: Operate within networks and build partnerships. The counsellor should be able to give time to further train and develop him-herself, cooperate with colleagues in local, national and European settings, or to participate in guidance networks. Executing such tasks helps to increase his/her knowledge base about education and training, and thus s/he can be more effective in meeting the needs of the client.

**Closing remarks**

During the first decade of the 21st century lifelong guidance has become a priority area connected to the fields of personal development, education/training and the labour market.
This fact is documented internationally in every policy, related to socio-economic development. Lifelong guidance is positioned in the forefront of each official document, conducted in the above policy areas, and is considered as an important tool for achieving the goals of lifelong learning.

As a result a good deal of research projects, training programs, handbooks and guidelines has been produced, to support the development of an ideal lifelong guidance model. As the involvement of every citizen in lifelong learning is considered desirable, lifelong guidance services are called upon to play a crucial role in the achievement of this goal. Adult learner guidance services need to provide information about the training programs, support in the course choice, coaching to promote course attendance and help in transition from training to work. In this way well informed, satisfied individuals and better trained workers are expected to emerge.

The LLL guidance provisions can act as a ‘brokerage’ between supply and demand, by tailoring the training opportunities to the needs of the potential learners. In this way lifelong education can make the best use of human resources. Quality in guidance has only recently become a discussion issue. The competence of the guidance practitioner, among other things, is considered the most significant determinant of quality provision. The guidance worker's profile has significantly changed, as new roles have emerged in response to socioeconomic demands and the increasing diversity of client groups. The developments within the field, the changing nature of the workplace and the rapid changes in demographics all mean that the need for guidance practitioners to have competency frameworks is of increasing importance. The recent CEDEFOP study on the guidance practitioner competences identifies three big categories: (i) foundation competences, (ii) client-interaction competences and (iii) supporting competences. Each of them consists of many more concrete ones which appropriately processed can be usefully implemented, among others, in lifelong learning environments too.

References


**Educating adults – just anybody's business? The absence of teacher quality requirements in Norwegian adult education.**

**Adult educators in Norway: important but invisible**

In 2006, the results from an extensive survey were published, focusing on how adult students attending flexible modes of studies in higher education, experienced their total study situation (N=1477) (Grepperud, Rønning & Støkken, 2006). Among the several issues that were investigated, the students were encouraged to consider different aspects of how the study they attended was organized. The answers show that adult, flexible students appreciate good teachers and evaluate well structured didactic approaches as very important. In particular they mention: i) the teacher's ability as lecturer, ii) the teacher's efforts and will to indulge in dialog and discussions with them, and iii) the teacher's ability to plan, structure, manage, and follow up the study programme. The prospect of getting such “stimuli” and input when attending the occasional assemblies at campus, is highly appreciated and sought after among these students (Grepperud, Rønning & Støkken 2004, 2006). Another, quite recent study, confirms that the role of the teacher plays an important part when students evaluate and analyse what quality in higher education means to them (Finbak, Bye Johansen & Rønning, 2009). In this study, 176 students (fulltime and flexible) were asked to write down 10 points as indicators of what they intuitively associate with “quality in higher education”, then rank the 5 most important indicators, and substantiate this a little further. “Good lecturers” came up as the one most important factor, irrespective of age, type of study and gender.

In the study which this paper is based upon, the importance of the role and competence of the teachers in charge of adult education, is further substantiated. Teachers’ attitudes and level of competence seems to be an important factor at all educational levels. Pupils as well as students in higher education express this both in positive and negative terms. Quite a few adults have memories of being humiliated or devaluated by their teachers. One of our respondents expressed this:

> I did participate in a language course in Spanish once, but I quit before it finished. The teacher ridiculed and laughed at us during class. She was a so-called “native speaker”, asked us to read aloud, then corrected us sharply, and in an unsavory manner (Researchers).

The fact that adult students often stress the importance of the teacher’s significance to their study work and learning outcome is contrasted by the lack of attention given to the teacher’s role in Norwegian adult education. The issue seems to be invisible - or of secondary importance - both in educational policy, as a topic in educational research, and in the practical field. The legislative authorities (the Law of Education) do not offer any directions or instructions to indicate whether any particular competence is necessary for people who are responsible for teaching adults. Historically, adult teacher competences are absent as an issue as well (Tøsse, 2005). This lack of interest is also obvious among the most powerful suppliers of adult education in Norway,
i.e. Folkeuniversitetet (Adult Education Association). In this context, questions of teacher competence has been on the agenda just once, as long ago as at the end of the 1970-ies (Arvidson, 1998). In 1997 a new national competence reform was introduced (NOU 1997:25). It was suggested that strengthening adults' competence was necessary in order to meet the rapidly increasing and changing demands of working life. Among other things, it was suggested that the national teacher training programmes had to undergo changes and, include adult pedagogics (NOU 1997: 25, pp. 16-18). Today, 12 years later, the conclusion is that this has not been followed up in any respect. The issue was absent when the role of the Study Organizations was evaluated recently (NOU 2007:11). In a present analysis of what needs to be done to improve Norwegian teacher training, there are no indications of how to go about facilitating adult learning, and competences needed in this respect. As one of our respondents says:

I have over the years been employed in three different teacher training departments in this country, and none of them have ever given any thought to adult learning, which is completely absurd (Researcher 1).

However, there are exceptions to the rule. In the field of distance education, the relationship between teacher and student has always had a central position, both in terms of being a research area, and in the practical field. In the 1980-ies, the distance education suppliers were instructed by a governmentally appointed agency to offer teachers a particular training programme. The reason behind this, however, may be explained more related to the study model as such, than the fact that most of the students were adults. This demand imposed on the teachers was suspended after a few years. However, the question of teacher competence has emerged on the agenda in two specific areas of adult education. First, we are speaking of the so-called “basic competence areas”, like reading, writing, mathematics and digital competence. Second, we are facing the challenges of teaching our new citizens, the immigrants. The need for special teacher competences is obvious within these areas. For instance, it is documented that around 400 000 adults in Norway lack the sufficient level in reading and mathematics comprehension in order to function well in society and working life. In addition, 27 percent do not master modern technology (VOX, 2009).

On the other hand, the fact that the significance of the teachers’ role and teacher competences receive only a modest, or even no recognition, in debates and evaluations concerning adult learning, is not a particular characteristic of the Norwegian educational system. We observe the same trends in all the Nordic countries (NVL, 2008), and in Europe, as presented in the ALPINE project (Adult Learning Professions in Europe, 2008:9):

Adult Learning staff play a key role in making lifelong learning a reality. It is they who facilitate learners to develop knowledge, competences and skills. However, nor much is known about the particular group of practitioners. At the European level there is a lack of information about various aspects of the profession: such as who they are; how they are recruited; what competences/skills/qualifications they are expected or required to possess; what their specific roles and tasks are, what their employment status is; how their professional development is organized; how they are assessed: and how attractive their profession is.

To sum up, we are facing a situation where the question of teacher competences and teacher quality only play a marginal role in the debate concerning adult learning in Norway. In cases where this question is somehow introduced on the political agenda, or
manifest itself through practical measures, the focus is still not on what is particular about adults as learners. It is rather on specific or problematic issues, like i.e. learning disability or related problems. In this respect, we seem to face a contradiction. The adult learners themselves ascribe their teachers’ vital importance, but this is so to speak disregarded by other agents in this field. This contradiction is the main focus of this paper.

The study

In the spring of 2009, 16 (10 women, 6 men) persons, centrally placed in what may be called the Norwegian adult educational field, were interviewed. Three main issues were in focus:

1) To what extent is it considered necessary to have special qualifications in order to teach adults?
2) How can it be explained that this issue seemingly is of little interest to the adult education sector in Norway?
3) Which perspectives are there on, and which suggestions can be given, in order to improve this situation?

In this context, the adult educational field is to be interpreted in an extended sense. Therefore, respondents were strategically chosen from all levels, and from a wide variety of positions in the adult educational field, and asked to participate in the study. The chosen ones all possess a unique overview and knowledge from the field. They also represent different functions in the field, from the study organisations to higher education, including policymakers/bureaucrats, organizers/course suppliers, researchers and teachers. All of them have long and varied experience (20-40 years). Several also have possessed different roles and positions over the years. The respondents are categorized in three groups:

- Bureaucrats from the educational sector – public sector, two levels (5 respondents)
- Researchers – two main groups: occupied with adult learning issues (4 respondents) and within teacher training with experience from teaching adults (2 respondents)
- Practitioners – people who work on a practical level either by teaching, or being in charge of organizations supplying/coordinating/developing courses (5 respondents).

The interviews were semi-structured and lasted for 19 – 46 minutes. Seven respondents were interviewed face-to-face, while 9 were interviewed by telephone. All interviews were recorded. Mordal (1989:30) mentions a few disadvantages by telephone interviewing. The most important of the constraints mentioned, is the fact that the lack of direct and personal contact makes it necessary to be briefer than in a face-to-face situation. The telephone interviews, as expected, turned out to be shorter than the face-to-face ones, but the answers did not suffer from superficiality or “quick” answers. All the respondents seemed to be quite interested in the topic introduced to them, and exposed a definite involvement, due to their long experience. Besides, most of the respondents were familiar with sharing their points of view with media of different kinds. By using telephone interviews, we also gained that we were able to contact and get access to respondents of high priority to us. The first category of questions we wanted answers to, was the following:
To what extent is it considered necessary to have special qualifications in order to teach adults?

When the respondents were asked to share their reflections of what adult teachers’ competence should be like, all of them related this to their own experience, in particular from the point of view as teachers or organizers. The topic was discussed and introduced from different angles. One of the respondents (a researcher with teaching experience) put it this way:

Earlier I was a teacher at an institution for higher education, where we also had students admitted on the basis of recognition of prior learning. Among others, one of the students was a carpenter. But I observed that he was having problems, coming directly from a manual occupation and straight into a theoretical study. In retrospect, I learned from this, what knowledge, attitudes and skills are important for a teacher to possess (Researcher 2).

To several of the respondents, their own experience of succeeding in teaching adults has contributed to form their commitment to and motivation for the field. It has also affected their perception of what is relevant and valid knowledge when teaching adult students. But the respondents’ consistent references to their own experience, in stead of i.e. also referring to an academic discourse, may be an unfortunate indication of the weak position this field of knowledge held in the Norwegian academic system.

However, the respondents all agreed that a particular competence is needed when one is responsible for teaching and supervising adults. Exactly what this competence should contain varies, dependent on which groups of adult students they had met. This is due to the fact that adult students represent a wide variety of interests, motivations and abilities. The question is therefore if not adult teachers should possess a set of competences, rather than one particular competence?

All the respondents emphasize however that a basic condition to succeed as an adult teacher is their familiarity with the subject to be taught. Being familiar with the subject in question, the teachers can relate to the students’ experience and previous knowledge. This increases the legitimacy of the curriculum presented to the adult group, and it gives them both a chance and the challenge to connect theory and practice, which is considered an indication of quality:

Having a background from working life is clearly an advantage, in order to be able to communicate in a language the students understand and are familiar with. (Practitioner 1).

In a recent study conducted among coalminers, who participated in a part-time technical study, one important result showed that they considered it a strength when their teachers’ competence consisted of both theory and practical experience (Grepperud, 2009).

Our respondents were asked to go more into detail about how they think about the more specific aspects of being an adult teacher. The results show that both the attitude and the knowledge dimensions are considered very important, and that these aspects together reflect what may be called an acknowledgment of the adult student. Implicitly, we find a strong willingness to understand and take into consideration the total life and study situation of adult students, and that teachers ought to act and relate according to this. This point of view was stressed and repeated many times during the 16 interviews. Three main reasons were given to substantiate this point of view:
1. The importance of recognizing the students’ experience and prior learning. Adult students carry with them life-experience and knowledge that the teacher can utilize, build on and develop further. Our respondents expressed it this way:

*We need to be genuinely interested in getting a good picture of what the adult students actually know. We must recognize their prior learning in order to give them feelings of mastery and competence. What divides adults from children and young people is their “luggage”, in terms of life-experience. For the teachers, it is a question of how successfully they relate to and activate this “luggage”. (Researcher 3).*

*Those who are going to work with adults do not necessarily need to have studied adult learning as a subject at university, but they need to understand that this is people with life-experience. The teachers need to listen, and value that adult students actually can contribute. (Practitioner 2).*

Focusing on the adult students’ experiences in order to utilize it, implies that teachers have got to take the time and effort in order to get an overview of the students’ “portfolio” of prior competence. Teachers who work with adults with low formal education i.e. often observe that they carry with them negative experiences from previous schooling. This implies that they have to be aware of possible negative attitudes and experiences amongst the students, that might be a barrier towards new learning. In some cases, a focus on re-learning, in order to reduce negative attitudes and anxieties, can be of vital importance for further learning.

2. Recognition of their life-situation is the second challenge to consider in order to acknowledge adult students’ special study conditions. Understanding the context adult students are a part of, implies being aware of that they study within the constraints of a daily life situation. Family and work are time consuming activities, running parallel to the study activity. A good adult teacher will understand and make some allowance for this situation:

*Adult students lead very different lives, they have different needs, compared to the young students. They have a family, children, they are mothers and grandmothers, they work full time – and as you know – they have to be responsible for all the things that constitute adults’ everyday life. One must also take into consideration their employers who impose on them to study, but do nothing to adjust their work situation accordingly. Besides, these students seldom are a campus. (Practitioner 3).*

In distance education, it has always been acknowledged that some adjustments need to be made in order make it possible for their students to study efficiently, their life-situation taken into consideration. The distance in time and space between teachers and students is a challenge as well. These external study- and life situation conditions are very important to adult students, and they always refer to them when they are asked to describe how they go about their studies. Factors in their external context are often mentioned when these students consider to drop out (Grepperud & Rønning, 2007). Our respondents also point out that adults, irrespective of their educational background, need to be followed up in a more personal manner. However, students with low levels of prior education are more prone to wish a tighter follow-up from their teachers. Some of our respondents call this a “personal or pedagogical care”. In some cases, this contact between student and teacher is even marked by a kind of extended “life-couching”:

*In some cases, the teachers must be “up to” the situation, and take responsibility to follow up the adult students even after the 6 hours at school are over for the day. They are expected to be some kind of human adviser that these people need. (Practitioner 1).*
3. The third point to be mentioned concerning how to acknowledge adult students’ situation, is recognition of the person. Our respondents emphasized the importance of “seeing” and recognizing their adult students, irrespective of their background, in order to make them feel comfortable and respected in the study situation:

_The students who attend our courses (in higher education) are highly motivated, they are eager and they are going to use the new knowledge in their jobs. But they are a bit anxious and insecure as well, even the guys in suits. It is a long time since they were in a classroom – and they are a bit unfamiliar with the situation. So it is not given that they have a lot of self-confidence in the situation. This is why we have got to meet them with care and respect. (Practitioner 3)._

An expression like “we’ve got to protect the students’ dignity” is often used by the respondents. This implies that the teachers must demonstrate a willingness to listen, communicate and engage in dialog with the students.

The three points mentioned above, altogether constitute a basic attitude all adult teachers should possess, in order to be considered competent. Our respondents claim that these attitudes can be acquired through specialized teacher training. In addition, it is important to include these attitudes when developing didactic principles to be applied on adults. However, the interviews did not give us any specific directions as to go about this challenge. On the other hand, some general principles and guidelines for teaching adults were suggested, like “it is important to design the course by applying relevant methods”, “the teachers must be able to identify the students’ prior knowledge”, “they must demonstrate an ability to connect theory and practice” etc.. Some more specific skills needed amongst adult teachers were mentioned:

- To be able to recognize and address problems with reading and writing.
- Be good motivators.
- Be able users of ICT.
- Be good supervisors.

_How can it be explained that this issue seemingly is of little interest to the adult education sector in Norway?_

Based on the interviews, three conclusions may be drawn concerning the need for adult teachers to possess a particular pedagogical competence. First of all, the respondents unanimously agreed that adequate subject competence is of the utmost importance, but it is equally important to understand what it takes to relate successfully to adults as students. Secondly, exactly _what_ is needed, is in line with what we already know about adults’ study conditions and learning processes. Thirdly, the interviews reveal an absence of a more fundamental reflection on adult teachers’ competence. For some of our respondents the interview was a rare invitation to give the issue a more thorough thought.

The respondents mention quite a few aspects that may explain the lack of interest in adult teacher competence in Norway. Some draw attention to the prevailing lack of interest in adult students in the educational departments at colleges and universities in Norway. It is suggested that researchers and university teachers ought to be encouraged to put this issue on their agenda:
There must be an initiative from the higher education institutions. Arguments about the need for teacher competence coming from the professionals, count much more than coming from some ordinary person, who just write something about it. (Bureaucrats).

The respondents claim that it is reason to believe that access to an adult teacher training programme would stimulate the motivation to study this issue in depth, and maybe recruit teachers and other professionals as well, to specialize in this field. This hypothesis is partly confirmed based on the observation that there is a rather big interest to attend the few courses and educational programmes that are offered in Norway today. However, both the practitioners and bureaucrats were quite critical of how they had been met by the educational researchers in this matter. They agreed that the educational researchers often expose negative attitudes towards the adult educational field as such, and also to the issue of a need for adult teacher training. In some cases the respondents claimed adult education was without legitimacy among the established educational researchers in Norway. Not only are they opposed to the idea of a particular teacher training, our respondents were also under the impression that they were opposed to adult education as a professional field as well. In this area, Norway has taken a negative position, compared to the other Nordic countries and Europe. Even those few researchers who work within the field admit that the thinking and perspectives concerning adult teachers has been absent, so to speak. One of the respondents answers quite abruptly “absolutely not!” when asked if teacher competence has ever been a topic in his/her own department (Researcher 4).

The respondents connect the lack of research interest to the marginal status adult education has in Norway. This is visible in terms of meager public funding, little attention from politicians and the educational bureaucracy (at all levels), and absence of a public debate. The adult education section in the Department of Education i.e. has been reorganized, and as seen from the point of view of many of the practitioners in the field, it has almost “vanished“. Despite the establishment of a particular organ for adult learning (VOX) to look after the development of the field, some of our respondents claim that this has not improved the situation.

Yet another explanation that is offered by our respondents is the fact that the field is quite fragmented, and is therefore not able to stand out as a united interest group. This problem is enlarged because only a small part of the adult population has a legal right to education. For instance, The Competence Reform (1997) initially had on the agenda to give all employees the right to education, within the frame of their workplace. But this failed. In addition, being an adult teacher seldom is a full-time occupation. On the contrary, it occurs quite often that teaching adults is a voluntary part-time job. This is the case at all levels of the educational system, from pastime courses to higher education:

This thing about adults and adult education is mainly understood as a part-time activity. So therefore it is not the main focus of those who teach secondary- or high-school courses offered to adults. (...) I suspect that they do not give it priority. (Practitioner 4).

A couple of the respondents also mention that the low status which characterize the adult education field, may be connected to the fact that from time to time it is a “dumping-site“ for burned-out teachers from the ordinary school-system.

Based on the many practical and economical limitations that exist, as implicitly mention above, it is not possible to pursue the idea to design a big scale, adult teacher
training. A complete and compulsory education for adult teachers would turn out to be too expensive, and it would possibly also prove difficult to recruit enough teachers.

Some of our respondents explain that the lack of focus on teachers’ competence also may be regarded as a result of the ideological and theoretical trends that has characterized the field. On the one hand, the democracy of the study circle has had a strong influence on the pedagogy. Within this line of thought, the best teachers are our equals, those who have the same level of knowledge as ourselves. This is, among others, inspired by the work of Paulo Freire. It has been further inspired and enhanced by a more “un-political” way of thinking, in the direction of believing in adult learners as basically self-regulated, in terms of having faith in that learning from the practical field has all that it takes to acquire the knowledge needed (tacit knowledge, the master-apprentice-, and learning from experience-tradition). In the centre of this thinking, there was also the belief that adult education should take on the role as counterpart to the official (read: bourgeoisie) educational system. The implication of this has been that in Norway, in contrast to the development we observe in the other Nordic countries, important parts of the adult education field is isolated from the academic system.

Altogether, the aspects mentioned above, explain why many of the representatives of the adult educational field have not exerted themselves, in order to place teacher competence on the agenda. This applies to most of the respondents in this study, and to other representatives of the field as well. Surveying several decades, show that there has only been a few attempts to do research related to this topic in the Norwegian and Nordic countries (Brattsset, 1987). On the other hand, as expressed by our respondents, a few entrepreneurs and enthusiasts have invested an immense amount of effort to secure the supply of adult teacher competence in their own area of work. One respondent, representing one of the suppliers of distance education, shared this with us:

> We demand from those who are going to teach in our courses, that they must go through certain training, directed at teaching adults in our context. This is mandatory before they start. The training is designed just like distance education, in order to let the teachers experience the students’ role in a “hands-on” way. The extent of this training is equal to a few study-points, and they get a diploma to show what they have accomplished. We started doing this in the middle of the 1970-ies. (…). All our teachers are employed part-time and we follow them up closely. Two teachers work full-time, and their responsibility is to follow the others up all the time. We arrange meetings with the teachers on a regular basis, both with everyone present, and with the ones who teach particular subjects. And finally, we have a net-based discussion forum, where the activity is good. (Researcher 5).

In the following, we will try to give an answer to the third category of questions presented to the respondents.

**Which perspectives are there on, and which suggestions can be given, in order to improve this situation?**

All the respondents agreed that some kind of formalized adult teacher training would be a good thing to strive for. But on the other hand, they warned against making it too extensive, suggesting that 15-30 study-points would have to do. They also suggested that this ought to be offered as a specialization course, building on ordinary teacher training, but also allowing an open entry for others interested in teaching adults. It is interesting to register that the respondents claim that in addition to some kind of formalized training, personal qualities as maturity, practical experience from working life, and talent, are highly desirable. This came up during the interviews, when topics like entrance
regulations and a possible design of this kind of study, was discussed. Among the respondents who are responsible for recruiting teachers to their own courses, some put it this way:

*It is difficult to tell which skills an adult teacher must possess, it has got do with being in control of something, has not it? It seems like some people just “have it”. I do not know exactly what this is, it’s something that makes the students well at ease in the situation, and that they are getting what they expect.* (Researcher 4).

The respondents also added that participation would have to be voluntary. Imposing such training on *all* adult teachers, i.e. coming from the Ministry of Education or others, was not considered recommendable. On the other hand, the respondents seemed quite confident that if such courses were offered, they would be highly in demand. Some, however, were not totally opposed to the idea of making adult teacher training courses mandatory, but only limited to those who teach adults on the secondary or high-school level:

*As a matter of fact, I think that the Ministry of Education should issue some guidelines for competence requirements, directed at adult teachers. The most important thing to be achieved by this, is to avoid those teachers from the mandatory school system who find it too strenuous to teach children and youngsters, and hope that teaching adults will be easier (...).* (Practitioner 1).

Finally, all the respondents expressed wishes that the Ministry of Education would “step forward”, and in plain text express that formal teacher training is important and desirable. This might function as a push forward, and it would possibly stimulate a further development of the adult education field. Due to the ongoing work to get a new legislation for adult education in place, there are some hopes and expectations, that we eventually will be presented with guidelines how to improve the teachers’ competence. If this happens, it will represent an improvement, and maybe within reasonable time, rise the status of this field.

**Conclusion – “it all depends on the teachers”!**

Initially in this paper, we pointed out that adult learners generally attribute much importance to the teacher. This is a point of view that is fully supported by our respondents:

*The teachers are the Alpha and Omega. As a course supplier, you can administer as much as you like, but it boils down to that all depends on the teachers.* (Practitioner 2).

Our respondents expressed some worry about the fact that the role of the adult teacher, and teacher competence, is receiving so little attention in Norway. One of their main conclusions is that this is THE explanation to the low status of the adult educational field. More focus on the adult teacher will contribute to counteract this.

However, there are some reasons to be optimistic. The topic is under discussion in the corridors of power these days, in the Ministry of Education. The new adult education act that will be introduced soon, will hopefully include this topic somehow. Another positive trend to notice, is the fact that the higher educational institutions in Norway are increasingly active in offering flexible education to adults, at all levels. The higher education system is also very preoccupied with quality work and quality improvements at
the moment. This includes training teachers and researchers in the art of being better
teachers. Eventually, the adult education field will profit from this.

Finally, the need to identify good models, and find good examples to build on, in
order to counteract the prevailing negative situation, and to succeed in doing so! In this
respect an interesting project has come to our attention as one possible model. It is called
the ABLE-project (Pennsylvania Stated Bureau of Adult Basic & Literacy Education, 2001).
They have developed a guide with specific quality indicators within 10 areas, all
concerned with adult teacher competence. Every indicator differentiates between
novices, experienced and experts. Indicator number 1, i.e. is associated with being able to
create a good learning environment, and it comprises three areas of competence (ABLE,
2001, p. 13):

- Provides a safe and suitable learning environment
- Displays beliefs, behaviours and practices that are supportive of adult learners
- Conducts classes in a manner conducive to learner interaction.

A national framework like this will have a clear relevance to Norwegian conditions. It will
also certainly comply with our respondents’ wishes to see examples of positive and
committed counselling, in order to develop adult teacher competence in Norway in the
years to come.

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Pedagogical support in the system of education of adults.

Introduction
Today pedagogical support is regarded to be the strategy and tactic of education of the XXI century. However it is unfair to consider the phenomenon of support to have appeared in the till recent past, it has had the long period of development in the history of pedagogical science. The humanistic theories of teaching and education include the idea of support of student’s personality, as well as the care concern for the person’s development and education. The sources of pedagogical humanism can be found in history of philosophy, pedagogics, where the bases of the social-philosophical vision of teacher’s functions are put.

The conceptual knowledge of pedagogical support was developed by the member-correspondent of the Russian academy of education O.S. Gazman. Developing the conception of pedagogical support O.S. Gazman proceeded from the assumption that development of child is more successful when the processes of socialization and individualization are in harmony. The first process promotes the child’s mastering the social values, norms and methods of conduct and activity (social aspect), and the second process promotes the formation of child’s individuality (the development of individuality in a concrete man).

Analysis
Analyzing the practice of teaching and education in the educational establishments of Russian Federation by the end 80-s and beginning of 90-O.S.Gazman comes to the conclusion, that schools and their pedagogical staff realize only socializing function and extremely poorly provide the process of individualization. Individualization in education is the system of facilities, helping the growing man to understand his difference from others: his weakness and physical, intellectual, moral, creative force. It is necessary for spiritual recovery in understanding oneself, for independent and successful advancement in the differentiated education, for the choice of purport and the course of life (O.S.Gazman, 1995).

The scientist describes education as specially organized process of producing of the socially approved values, normative qualities of personality and standards of conduct. He also describes teaching as the transmission and mastering the system of knowledge about nature, society, man and the methods of human activity. He says that education and teaching are the processes of person’s adhesion to the general and due. And consequently, according to his opinion, there is no process in the system of education, directed on the development of child’s individuality and personal inner life. So the pedagogical support is supposed to play this role.

The subject of pedagogical support is the process of co-determination of child’s interests, aims, possibilities and ways of overcoming one’s obstacles (problems), which can prevent him from the desired results in studying, self-education, communication, and way of life.

O.S.Gazman includes psychological, social, and medical components in the system of pedagogical support as all of them are integrated by educational establishment. The
actual question for pedagogical support arouse as following: «What kind of person should I be?», «What should I be?», «How to live? How to build an individual way of life, how to choose the optimum correlation of the intellectual, emotional, physical loadings, method of reaction to failures and successes, suitable type of labor activity, different ways of leisure activities, optimum character of relationships with people?»

O.S. Gazman’s idea of semantic and pedagogical sense of concept «support» consists is that supporting is possible only for those features which already exist, so the development of independence and self-dependence are supported. It is important for understanding of the phenomenon of pedagogical support. The keywords of pedagogical support, as the author concludes, are «the problem of child», while the keywords of education are «the problem of teacher» as a representative of the society, as exactly he is to give a child the access to life in society. As soon as a child has a desire to be attached to something, he meets difficulties, then pedagogical support goes into effect.

O.S. Gazman supposes that today the primary purpose of education (providing personal self-determination and self-realization) can not be attained only within the framework of teaching and education. Otherwise speaking, school determines children in knowledge, methods, values, norms, relations. However determination and self-determination are absolutely different processes. Self-determination is, foremost, a personal choice, and it supposes correlation of outer world’s requirements and the inner personality, the objective and subjective reality by the individual possibilities, capabilities, difficulties, settings, attained and desired features.

From our point of view the following O.S. Gazman’s conclusion is very important: «Our help to the growing man in self-determination and self-realization makes the specific task of pedagogical support. Without this sphere education remains objective, a student still comes forward as a mean of realization of the depersonalized programs of teaching and education, becoming a mean of teacher’s self-realization». (Gazman O.S. 1995).

The problem of pedagogical support, as part of education, is innovative, because it has never been examined as a subsystem of the whole. The concept «pedagogical support» is new for modern Russian education.

Gazman O.S. introduced the new concept «pedagogical support» in the pedagogical theory and practice, developed its conception, defined essence, role in the educational process, principles, stages:

– diagnostic - fixing of fact, signal of problem, planning of terms of diagnostics of the supposed problem, finding the contact with a child, verbalization of problem, co-estimation of the problem from point of its meaningfulness for a child;

– searching - organization of co-searching of problem/difficulties’ reasons and origin, an outside look to the situation;

– contractual - planning the teacher’s and the child’s actions (division of functions and responsibility in decision of problem), adjusting the contractual relations and conclusion of treaty in any form;

– active – the child acts himself; the teacher approves his actions, stimulates, pays attention to the success and independence of his deeds, encourages his initiative; besides he co-ordinates the actions of other specialists at school and out of it, directs exigent help to the child.
– reflective - collaborative teacher-child discussion of successes and failures of the previous stages of activity, establishment the fact of solvability of problem, interpretation the child’s new experience of vital functions.

Students and colleagues of the scientist (Anokhina T.V, Bederhanova V.P. Jusfin S.M. Krylova N.B. Mihajlova N.N. Polyakov S.D.) continued the development of theoretical and technological bases of pedagogical support.

Continuing the development of his ideas, his colleagues brought in some conceptual corrective amendment. The colleagues understand pedagogical support as a delicate pedagogical technology, directed to assistance to the processes of self-determination and personal self-expression, development of one's unique individuality.

Anokhina T. links the concept of pedagogical support with the help in overcoming obstacles (difficulties, problems) of self-realization in educational, communicative, labour and creative activity. This author interprets a concept of pedagogical support as following: «the system of facilities which provides a help to the children in an independent individual choice – moral, civil, professional, existential self-determination, and also helps in overcoming obstacles (difficulties, problems) of self-realization in educational, communicative, labour and creative activity» (Anokhina T. 1996).

Debate

Overcoming of obstacles, which prevents the development, is an inevitable process of becoming an adult. The purpose of pedagogical support is in the removing obstacles, which interfere with successful independent advancement of child in education. The essence of teacher’s supportive activity is the process overcoming of obstacles together with a child which prevent independent educational results.

The term «obstacle» is viewed upon as the generalized concept, including difficulty, delay, barrier and stop, task, question, doubt, negative state, situation of problem. Obstacle removes or dissociates personality from achievement of the desired result.

The source of obstacles is the lack of any personal, social or material characteristics. Accordingly Anokhina T. gives the following classification of obstacles:

- subjective (personal) - «I - obstacles»;
- social - «They - obstacles»;
- material.

Anokhina T. and Gazman O.S. select the basic principles of pedagogical support's efficiency:
- the child’s consent for help and support;
- personal forces and potential possibilities’ basis;
- faith in one’s possibilities;
- bearing in mind the ability of a child to overcome obstacles independently;
- cooperation, collaboration, assistance;
- confidentiality (anonymity);
- good will and lack of estimation;
- safety, health-care, providing of human rights
- realization of principle «Do not make any harm».
- reflexive-analytical approach to the process and the result.

Researchers came to the conclusion, that it is necessary to support the inner personality, the person’s capacity for transforming attitude towards his own life, his individuality, uniqueness, that select him from all others and allows being himself at the
same time. The purpose of the pedagogical support is the development of unique personality.

Mikhaylova N.N. Yusfin S.M. continued the research of conceptual positions of pedagogical support, having offered the following tactics: «defence», «help», «assistance», «co-operation», which reflect the process of development of child’s capabilities to manage a problem, making it the subject of activity. Gazman’s followers examine specific tactics which have specific tasks. A teacher designs and realizes certain tactics, basing upon the character of problem, circumstances of its origin, attitude of child and his close people towards his problem.

The names of the tactics («defence», «help», «assistance», «co-operation») reflect concrete direction of pedagogical support depending on the certain aim. working over the concrete problem situation a teacher uses one of these tactics or combines a few, following development of situation. The scientists developed description of tactics, which includes the description of situations and set of professional abilities which are needed for their realization (Aleksandrova E.A. Jusfin S.M. Mikhaylova N.N. 2006)

In modern researches the pedagogical support is not opposed to education. Krylova N.B. interprets a concept of support in wide social-cultural context as an element of any collaboration and co-operation, as it is the mark of positive attitude towards man’s activity and readiness of assistance to his undertaking and self-realization. It is suggested to interpret a concept of pedagogical support as major principle of the personally-oriented (humanistic) system of education. This principle distinguishes Pedagogics of Freedom and Pedagogics of Necessity. (Krylova N.B. Aleksandrova E.A. 2005).

Originally the term “pedagogical support” applied only to the system of school education. The further researches of domestic and foreign scientists expand the field of support in education. However it is possible to talk not only about the supporting of schoolchildren but adult learners as well. An adult learner also needs help, defense, assistance and interaction, especially in the situation of vagueness, vital or professional choice.

The features of different kinds of support (social, methodical, psychological, administrative, educational support of the adult person) are also revealed in modern researches.

The development of the theory of support in education is carried out now in following directions:

1. The sphere of application of support extends:
   - Students;
   - Teachers;
   - Adults trained in system of professional skill improvement;
   - Heads of educational institutions and others.
2. Different kinds of support are developed:
   - The psychological;
   - Social, social-pedagogical;
   - The methodical;
   - The administrative;
   - The professional;
   - Educational and others.

Students require pedagogical support at a stage of change of a direction of their professional training which is characterized by some difficulties. The situation of change
of professional training direction of is considered as crisis. In this case pedagogical support should be directed to the creation of conditions for successful adaptation of students in the new situation. The professional change is caused by the influence of two groups of factors: external (social and economic) and internal (psychological). The change of a profession caused by socio-economic factors (bankruptcy, enterprise liquidation, staff reduction and others), is defined as compelled, and leaving for other labour sphere, caused by psychological factors, can be considered as voluntary.

The crises of professional human life are the following reason of professional change. Both the highly professional person as well as the person only beginning the professional way can survive professional crises during a life. Professional crises can arise on a joint of the separate age periods: at a vocational training stage, in the completion of the educational process and before the beginning of professional work, at a stage of transition to an adjacent profession.

In this case pedagogical support is considered as the form of actions of subjects of the educational process directed on overcoming the student’s problems, arising in personal development and self-development in change of a professional direction. One of the features of pedagogical support of students is orientation to professional self-determination of the future experts in the situation of changing a vector of professional training.

The next feature of pedagogical support is a support of the adult person in professional work and training. Bakuradze A.B. Fokinoj O.A. Pjataevoj S.A. Zamjatinoj S.A.’s research are devoted to the given problem. Scientists have come to the conclusion that the experts having unresolved professional-personal problems require support on the stage of transition from one level of professional self-development to another (i.e. during the crisis period of self-development).

In this case pedagogical support of professional self-development of the expert is considered as a special kind of developing interaction with the person, focused on revealing, the solution and the prevention of problems, constructive overcoming of crises, continuous formation of subject experience in which the person finds possibilities for successful self-realisation and promotes development of partners in interaction.

O.A.Fokina's object of research is the administrative Support of the teacher from the head of educational institution. Administrative support is defined as purposeful activity of the organisation of such interrelations and interactions between participants of educational process who are capable to render the necessary and adequate help to the teacher in the course of self-determination and self-realisation and professional growth. Administrative support of professional-personal development of the teacher represents the process of co-definition the teacher’s professional interests, overcoming problems interfering with mastering the model personally-focused pedagogical activity (O.A.Fokina, 2005). Administrative support is urged to help the teacher in activization his pedagogical activity and finding his individual pedagogical style.

Zamjatina S.A. considers professional support of teachers as means of overcoming and the prevention of a professional exhaustion. Professional support is understood as system of the measures promoting overcoming and the prevention of a professional exhaustion of the teacher aiming his professional-personal growth (Zamyatina S.A. 2006). Professional support not as the disposable help, it is a long process of support of the teacher, focused on overcoming of his professional exhaustion and the decision of the acute psychology-pedagogical questions arising during this period, and also creation of
conditions for successful certification process. According to the scientist, professional support can have the following forms: consultations, training, pedagogical practical work and diagnostics, which develop the teacher’s consciousness, pedagogical reflexion, and his comprehension of new possibilities (Zamyatina S.A. 2006).

The concept «support of administrative activity» which is defined as purposeful development the authority personnel's actual administrative abilities, helping them to study a condition of object of management and to introduce corrective amendments in the administrative activity is examined in modern researches. According it, the purpose of administrative support is the development of actual administrative abilities on motivation of labour behavior of teachers through the system of improvement of professional skills and research-work in the organizations, which is the way of organizational development. Thus, the authorities’ participation in process of administrative support becomes a part of their professional work. Administrative support of labour behavior motivation can be realized in system of professional skill improvement (Bakuradze A.B. 2000).

The pedagogical principles of administrative support are: integrity, the importance of personal administrative experience, priority of independent educational research activity of authority personnel, correlation of the purposes of support with requirements of authority personnel. The organizational-pedagogical model of administrative support is based on the specified principles, combining full-time tuition of authority personnel in system of professional skill improvement and their research activity in their educational institutions.

Thus, support is required by adult-students, who have unresolved professional-personal problems on a stage of transition from one level of professional self-development to another (during the crisis period of self-development). The crisis period of professional development is connected with disappointment in work, an error in a professional choice, negative experience of professional work, absence of mutual understanding from administration, colleagues etc.

The carried out analysis of a problem in modern researches has allowed us to define pedagogical support of the adults as process of cooperative determination of student’s interests, aims, possibilities and ways of overcoming problems, which prevent his reaching the educational goals and practical results.

Epilogue

The essence of pedagogical support of an adult learner in the system of higher professional and post-graduate education consists in arrangement of pedagogical conditions which determine the inner circumstances for personal self-development. They are the creation of developing educational environment, high level of motivation and reflexive culture of teacher, observance of axiological and andragogical principles of subject-to-subject interaction between a teacher and a student, realization of personal approach and the support of pedagogical initiative.

The sense of pedagogical support consists not so much in helping to eliminate available problems, obstacles, but first of all in helping to seize way of detection, the independent decision of the problems, to focus on constructive overcoming of the crisis periods, initiative development.

The indexes of pedagogical support's efficiency is the following:

– the dialogic interaction between a teacher and a student;
– the success of student's professional development;
– the growth of claims in accordance with the development of the student’s possibilities;
– the teacher’s mastering the conception and technologies of the learner-centered approach in education;
– the teacher’s and student’s ability of the reflection of their pedagogical activity, ability to correct their pedagogical conduct in accordance with personal development.

Nowadays the student’s preparation for the master’s degree in the Orenburg state pedagogical university is considered to be one of the main university’s tasks as it
- promotes the maximal usage of university’s scientific-pedagogical potential, stimulates creative, scientific and scientific-methodical activity. The undergraduates participate in many types of scientific researches;
- helps to react flexibly to the necessities of science and education. The individualization of the master's degree programs on the base of fundamental bachelor preparation allows undergraduates to adapt themselves to future professional activity just in the process of teaching;
- promotes the modern tendencies of interdisciplinary synthesis in modern science and education, gives additional possibilities for preparation of high quality specialists in interdisciplinary areas.

The system of Master's Degree of Education advances the theoretical level of knowledge, perfects the organization of undergraduate’s independent work, varies the forms of organization of research work and the forms of its informative, material and technical providing.

The persons, requiring support and accepting it as well as the persons who are carrying out it are the subjects of process of pedagogical support. So, pedagogical support is understood as the process of interpersonal subject-to-subject interaction.

The students who take the program «Master's degree of pedagogics» at the university are the teachers who have a basic pedagogical education and the certain experience of professional work.

Here are the results of interrogation of these students. They notice the higher level of training; the change in the professional perception. There are more possibilities for independent training in an individual direction. They learn how to study; that is the skill which is appreciated more than just knowledge. For the majority the program «Master's degree of pedagogics» is the possibility of getting essentially other level of education in comparison with a bachelor degree level. It is the excellent approach to training; the way to get some new, additional knowledge and skills.

The motive connected with possibility of professional dialogue in a new environment of the personally involved in the process of studying colleagues is important. The environment creates special atmosphere which supports, gives stimulus to study, to professional realisation.

The other motive is the self-value of the Master’s diploma as the diploma of higher level and the additional possibilities given to its owners on a labour market.

Also they mention the desire to receive an additional education, or to change their profession, to master a new one (distinct from previous). Here the magistracy has a number of advantages comparing with the second higher education.

The students notice that Master’s diploma gives to the graduates more confidence. («The Master’s diploma gives the chance to me to feel more confident as a professional (possession higher degree), and as a person (as an indicator of some achievements). It is
especially important in the conditions of higher education distribution as a whole which can make its less significant whereas the diploma of the master puts the person on higher step»).

The undergraduate’s pedagogical support is carried out through:
- the help in the decision of questions, related to student’s personality and professional self-determination;
- the concern about a student, creation of the special facilities for the display of the possibilities and capabilities, exposure of prospects of professional development, providing the free search for the decision of problems;
- the assistance to the personal and professional growth of student through bases of the program «Master's degree of pedagogics»;
- the teacher-student interaction in the process of studying with the purpose of joint decision of individual problems.

Pedagogical support is carried out as dialogical interaction of the teacher and the master by definition of potential possibilities of the last, construction of prospects of personal and professional development, search and a choice of ways of creative self-expression of the master taking into account his individuality, level of professionalism, readiness for a reflexion of the pedagogical activity.

Pedagogical support of the master in educational process is carried out in following directions:
- the help in intellectual development (development of ways of productive thinking, rational receptions of educational activity, cogitative operations);
- the help in realisation of motivation of a professional and personal choice (comprehension of requirements, motives, aim-denoting activity);
- the assistance to formation of an adequate self-estimation and a condition of internal emotional comfort (emotional balance, feeling of confidence);
- the assistance to development of strong-willed qualities, to overcoming of shyness, laziness, a disorganization, etc.);
- self-control formation (self-organisation, self-management, self-respect);
- the development of creative abilities (originality, original decisions, individual style of activity and behaviour);
- the interaction in implication searching activity (formation of valuable orientations).

The pedagogical support in educational process includes the following stages: diagnostic (revealing and problem fixing), search (collegial search of the reasons of a problem), contractual (designing of actions of each of the parties with distribution of functions and responsibility), active (maintenance of success in the problem permission), reflective (the analysis reached in the problem decision). Pedagogical support of self-determination of the master in educational process is realised through tactics: protection, the help, assistance, interaction – also assumes use of methods and receptions: exercise, training, conversation, an example, pedagogical legal profession.

Pedagogical support urged to help the master in his pedagogical activity, to find the individual style. The result of pedagogical support is the personal growth of the master expressed in self-development, self-education, self-knowledge, self-understanding, self-realisation, self-organising, in development of ability to self-determination (personal and professional), to self-checking, to choice realisation in crisis situations.
References
Some thoughts on the contents of the training course for the ‘animateurs’ of the environmental education in France\textsuperscript{23}.

Introduction

Today environmental education is not only for school children but also for all generations and walks of people on the earth. Therefore, the necessity to properly train and develop the environmental educators is an urgent and important theme. In this article the author wishes to clarify the competences needed for these educators.

The circumstances of the formation (training) for the animateurs in France

In this section the circumstances of the formation of the animateurs according to the period of the time involved is examined.

Augustin and Gillet make 3 typical distinctions of the poles of modeling professional animateurs regarding time (before 1960-, till the end of the 1960s-, in the 1980s and beyond) (Augustin & Gillet, 2000, p.159). From the point of view of the author, 1970-1980 is nominated as the ‘socio-cultural’ era, 2000- as the ‘era of global and local actions relating to territory’. The five eras according to the author are described below.

Era 1: Before 1960

After les lois sociales (social laws) 1936, the work time of French diminished to less than before. As a result, the epoch of enjoying leisure and sports was ushered in. At the same time, the activities of people turned to issues that concern both the political and practical aspects of city life (Robinet, 2004, p.53). As a background to general education, the reaction against ‘absolute’ savoir scolaire was intense. Manifeste de Peuple et Culture (The Manifesto of the People and Culture) 1945 had violently protested against this school knowledge and its monopoly. The widespread criticism before the war was repeated, specially in the movement of Auberges de jeunesse (Saez, 1994, p.23). This was the era when the animateurs had the role of militants.


The process of professionalization of the métier of animateurs began in the 1960s (Robinet, 2004, p.53). The public and private training centres, diplomas of animateurs, in a legislative context with particular laws of 1966 (arrêté portant création du diplôme de conseiller d’éducation populaire) on the continuing training areas, were developing (Besnard, 1980, p.118). The problems were the definition of the content and objectives of the training for animateurs. It was hotly discussed whether the training for animateurs was even possible (Besnard, 1980, p.133). This was the era when animateurs were beginning to take on the roles of technicians.

\textsuperscript{23} Acknowledgements: The author of this paper wishes to thank all the people and institutions who kindly provided her with the valuable documents and information necessary for this study.

The role of animation socio-culturel (ASC) developed in the ‘70s was to try to involve all organizations and sectors of social life. Animateurs socio-culturel, had the job to effect a generalization based on the existence of a social activity performed by a group of individuals (Simonot, 1974, p.9, p.28). Animateurs social, cultural, sportive, educational, socio-educational and so on, were conceived (Besnard, 1980, p.83). CREPS brought together the training centres of the éducation populaire for the young people (Saez, 1994, p.24). In 1978, at the seminar of UNESCO, an attempt to clarify the requirements and standards of training of the animateurs was made (Besnard, 1980, p.134). Also in 1978, the first training sessions for animateurs «étude du milieu» (environmental study) and «aménagement de l’espace» (management of space) were initiated by the Direction Régionale de la Jeunesse et des Sports de la Région Centre (source:GRAINE (Groupement régional d’animation et d’initiation à la nature et à l’environnement) Centre). It was the era when the animateurs who worked for animation socio-culturel were born.

Era 4: 1980–2000

Competence as a generalist was needed for the animateurs. This means the competence to analyze the local situation, establish diagnostics from that analysis, construct the propositions, identify the local partners, elaborate ways of measuring results and implementing them, conduct technically the decisive actions and report them (Gillet, 1995, p.168). At the end of 1990, in local communities, mainly in the municipalities, the establishment of a sector for animation (animating activity) gave the opportunity for animateurs to become community officials (Mignon, 1999, p.26). For the professional training and the attempt to obtain a diploma for animateurs, rules became inevitable. However there appeared the problem that the training courses did not correspond to the substantive issues on the social and cultural function of animation (Mignon, 1999, p.105). Against this background, in 1991, the Ministry of Jeunesse et Sports elaborated a blueprint for the training in animation. One of the objectives was to design a system of training which covers all skill levels and provides ‘bridges’ to diplomas of other ministries (Ministère de l’emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.136). This was the era in which animateurs began to work as mediators.

Era 5: 2000–present

Professionals in the Animation socio-culturel are seen on the one hand as engineers of the social, on the other hand as specialists of the conception of the management of the territorialized project, even though the occupation may be competing with other professions (Ministère de l’emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.134). The field of animation is expanding from leisure time to personal development, inclusion in society, trainings, the handicapped, social economy, tourism and local management: these are the new frontiers of animation (Augustin & Gillet, 2000, p.173).

Augustin and Gillet discuss how ‘The animateur becomes a man (sic) of action, a strategist, a man of praxis without illusions about the world, so lucid but persevering to pursue the hope (Augustin & Gillet, 2000, p.176).’ Ragi states: ‘The specific approach of the animateurs lies in the original combination of singular and universal, the local and the global, to the individual and the collective (Ragi, 2003, p.110).’ The expression ‘animateurs de terrain’ (Gillet, 2006, p.120)’ to correspond to the territory can be seen. At the same time, the animateurs who can have a local and global vision are needed.
Nowadays, there are the four main types of training for the general *animateurs*: Academic (at the university), *Jeunesse et Sports, Affaires Sociales* and Agriculture. Mignon states: ‘These four types of training do not yet have a common perspective to redevelop (Mignon, 2005, p.112).’ Training content is not consistent between centres (Ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.138). The cost of training (Ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.140), the absence of a true corpus of knowledge and know-how related to the *métier d’animateur* (Ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.173), the need to strengthen basic skills in each family of jobs (Ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité, 2000, p.176), the possibility of the *formations individualisées* (Mignon, 2005, p.113), the capitalization of a number of skills units (Mignon, 2005, p.114), are still being discussed.

In the author’s perspective, after experiencing the era of militants, technicians, workers of *animation socio-culturel*, mediators, the *animateurs* are now working as global and local actors, corresponding to the territory. They are confronting and combating the various themes of the modern world, among which are included environmental issues. That is the reason for the author to study here the roles and competences of the *animateur d’environnement*.

The competences and capacities expected for the *animateurs d’environnement* in the reviews of studies.

What competences and capacities of the *animateurs d’environnement* are discussed?

*The competence of reflecting on the interconnections between the disciplines and the differences of option (based on the study of Croizer and Goffin)*

Croizer and Goffin distinguished the two types of environmental learning: education and training (*formation*).

Table 1. The clarification of the relations between environmental education and training (Croizer & Goffin, 1999, pp.141-143).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spheres</th>
<th>Environmental education</th>
<th>Environmental training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The target</td>
<td>individual and social</td>
<td>professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application time</td>
<td>schools</td>
<td>universities, enterprises, and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The duration of the process</td>
<td>continues (ongoing)</td>
<td>punctual (for a certain period of time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>· comprehensive and continuous</td>
<td>· focus on the transfer of knowledge and skills for vocational purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· focus on the growth of the person</td>
<td>· address the person as a member of a social-economic community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· as a goal, the development of knowing-to-be (<em>le savoir être</em>), and knowing-for-action (<em>le savoir agir</em>) transferred to the acts of daily life</td>
<td>· acquisition of knowledge and know-how is essential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The process</td>
<td>· developing a personal ethics</td>
<td>· the preparation for the exercise of professional responsibilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 1, the environmental training has different conditions to those of the environmental education. That means it has to have its professional courses. One of them is the training of *animateur d’environnement*.

Croizer and Goffin state thus: ‘Environmental training has its traditional educational mission (to promote critical thinking, creativity, autonomy and research). Furthermore, environmental problems are also related to our consumption patterns and individual behavior. Therefore, environment training should include ethical and social dimensions (Croizer & Goffin, 1999, p.144).’ They also mention thus: ‘The training has a set of scientific knowledge and technical skills proposed in an explicit way. The dialectical aspects, the personal development of participants and the clarification of value systems that underlie any environmental decision remain implicit (Croizer & Goffin, 1999, p.144).’ Therefore, Croizer and Goffin remark that ‘being able to reflect on interconnections between the disciplines and the differences of option is an integral part of the expertise of environmental professionals (Croizer & Goffin, 1999, p.146).’

**The capacity to confront the difficulties and help the people to live with the idea of innovation (based on Le Gall’s study)**

Le Gall interviewed Mr. D. Courteaux, an *animateur* of agriculture and environment, who works for the *Pays du Centre Ouest Breton*. On the basis of this interview, Le Gall listed the following missions for *animateurs*:

- to intervene on the valuation of natural heritage and environmental education.
- to work on the development of renewable energies and energy saving, also act directly on the protection of the environment.

Le Gall states that the people have to maintain and grow the territory in a lively and dynamic way. The mission of the *animateur d’environnement* is to help them.

Still there are difficulties for them, for example, the complexity of funding issues regarding European funds, the magnitude of the task, the shortage of time, the shortfall of the money for certain projects, the urgency to protect the natural heritage and biodiversity, the issues of sustainable development, the inactivity of the environment committee, etc (Le Gall, 2009, p.35).

From these points, the *animateurs* of agriculture and environment have to have the capacity to confront these difficulties and help the people of the territory live with the idea of innovation.

**The capacity to think, question oneself, and act critically (Sauve)**

Sauve states that in environmental education, it is important to clarify and justify one’s position in the living environment in a critical, competent, and responsible manner. The *animateur* is both ‘strategic’ (modulating *animation* approaches and strategies), ‘mediatic’ (facilitating, communicating, and regulating political, economic, and logistical aspects of projects) and ‘activistic’ (engaging in inducing critical consciousness). Therefore, the concept of *animation* and the role of the *animateur* are subjects of critical discussion in the context of training programs (Sauve, 2001, p.34).
According to Sauve, the main approaches adopted in the training programs for *animateurs* of environmental education are as follows:

1. A reflexive approach: Analysis of critical incidents, individual interviews, and group discussions.
2. An experiential approach: An approach to problems (socio-environmental or educational) or projects (eco-management and eco-development (Sauve, 2001, p.34)).
4. A practical approach: Integration of the reflexive, experiential and critical approaches
5. An interdisciplinary approach: A gateway to various fields of knowledge (experience, tradition, common sense) to enrich the understanding and analysis of complex realities
6. A collaborative approach: Teamwork between teachers and between the other players in the educational community (la communauté éducative), thereby helping the protagonist to become active and responsible (Sauve, 2001, p.36).

She goes on to state thus: ‘Critical, theoretical research or case studies aim at developing a critical conscience and a capacity for action among individuals and social groups in order to tackle the realities that pose the problem (Sauve, 2001, p.41-42).’

In short, Sauve stated that the capacity to think, question oneself, and act critically is one of the most important competencies that *animateurs* of environmental education need to acquire.

**The capacity to understand the background of environmental policies (Herve-Fournereau)**

In 1973, the European Community (EC) chose to include environmental education in environmental politics (JOCE Série C112 du 20/12/1973). Herve-Fournereau states as follows: ‘The tangle of national and community power contributes to give environmental education a plural expression concerning the policies (future design, function of the educative activities and the formation) (Herve-Fournereau, 2002, p.243).’ With regard to NGOs, Herve-Fournereau remarks, ‘The appreciation of the projects supported by the EC in the field of education reflects the predominant role played by NGOs which support the teachers as well the general public (Herve-Fournereau, 2002, p.247).’ Concerning the enterprises and companies, she states, ‘Companies are required to build relationships with stakeholders such as institutes and universities to jointly reflect on the adequacy of training and expectations of economic actors (Herve-Fournereau, 2002, p.248).’ Herve-Fournereau concludes, ‘The adoption of educational and vocational training in the field of the environment is a priority of and challenge faced by the European construction (Herve-Fournereau, 2002, p.248).’

In this sense, *animateurs* of environmental education ought to understand the intentions of the EC, and the state in general, and at the same time, of various other players such as NGOs or enterprises which may become educational partners and fund donors.

**The ability to understand the logic of environmental education and to connect it with their practice (Burger)**

Burger states that training courses for environmental education *animateurs* are based on the principles of active pedagogy, i.e. immersing oneself in the subject and regions, using sensitive and sensory methods, meeting actors from different backgrounds
and with different points of view, confronting ideas and practices, taking into account the logic of the various actors, and seeking solutions. The field of environmental education includes awareness of the issues faced by a territory on different scales, for which the answers are rarely unique.

Environmental education benefits from a growing recognition within civil society, in other words, the need for an indispensable ‘environmental culture’ for all. Further Burger argues that the people who practice environmental education need to have theoretical support, for example, links between theory and practice, and the ability to step back and evaluate their actions (Burger, 2001, p.165).

Therefore, the animateurs must understand the logic behind the environmental education and be able to connect this logic to their practices.

**The capability to choose the appropriate approach to an issue, depending on the time and occasion (Thubé)**

According to Thubé, ‘For the actors in civil society, organized through NGOs, environmental education is defined as an education that places values at the centre of each action. Primarily, this education seeks to define and acquire the values which can help people understand the place and role of everyone on the Earth. Therefore, the pedagogy leading to autonomy is adopted (Thubé, 2006, p.44).’ By exchanging knowledge and approaches through the dialogue between practitioners, researchers, and teachers, and by matching the expectations and needs of actors in the territories through the training of values such as independence, solidarity, responsibility, and collaboration, environmental education becomes clearly constitutive of a process of sustainable development. Thubé argues that the approach can be plural, crossed, and even contradicting. Furthermore he states that the training is to be turned constantly towards emancipation, sharing, critical reflection and action (Thubé, 2006, p.45).

In the practice of environmental education, it is important to be able to choose the appropriate approach to issues, depending on the time and occasion.

**The ability to understand the world through various possible ways (Cottereau)**

According to Cottereau, ‘Formation refers to the knowledge to be acquired by subjects to learn in the social, cultural, and economic context. The chain of intent is organized in a triangular fashion; the three aspects are as follows: didactic logic of the content and methods, psychological logic of personal development, and social logic of the situation (Cottereau, 2001, p.58).’ She mentions the various ways that are considered important during the period of formation.

Cottereau goes on to say, ‘To consider the environment is to reconsider all the relationships between individual/society/nature. We must take into account that the interaction between the instrumental complexity (body/heart/mind), mental complexity (rational/symbolic/imaginary), anthropological complexity (individual/species/society), temporal complexity (past/present/future), emotional complexity (direction/meaning/feeling), ontological complexity (personalization/socialization/ecologization), and cognitive complexity (formal/practical/existential knowledge) (Cottereau, 2001, pp.61-63).’ Among these, what appears to be the most important for Cottereau is ‘écoformation’—the formation that involves learning by intuition, by listening to the world that surrounds us, and by extreme
sensitiveness. From the author’s point of view, the competence to understand the world through these various possible ways is needed for an *animateur d’environnement*.

**The survey**

The survey was conducted to understand the precise content of the training programs and determine the competences and capacities that *animateurs d’environnement* are expected to have.

**Survey outline**

Three surveys have been conducted thus far. The first was made from August 20, 2003 to December 10, 2004, with all the CREPS (Centres régionaux d’éducation sportive et physique) in France as the survey group. The second was conducted from November 16, 2006 to July 31, 2007 with the same survey group.

The CREPS were chosen because ‘they are excellent public institutions dependent on the ministry of Jeunesse et Sports, which train future *animateurs* and offer professional diplomas (Martin, 2003, p.77)’, and ‘they can organize training alone or jointly with private organizations (Mignon, 2005, p.117)’. The group for the third survey (from November 22, 2006 to May 16, 2007) included all the lycées agricoles in France; the details of this survey will be described in another article. At present, a fourth survey is being conducted with the private institutions (IFREE, Le Loubatas, Maison de la Nature des Hautes-Alpes, Piste Sud, GRAINE Pays de la Loire, LEGTA Edgar Faure, Mouvement Culture Bio dynamique, Le Viel Audon, Éducation Environnement, CPIE Bresse du Jura, GRAINE Aquitaine, Association Le Merlet, MFR de Mondy, Planète Sciences Méditerranée, CREPS de Reims).

**Survey method**

The survey was conducted via letter correspondence, requesting the precise contents of the training program.

*Survey 1*

- CREPS PACA (Provence-Alpes-Côte d’Azur), Houligate, Franche-Comte, Bordeaux, Montpellier, Reims, Wattignies, Vichy, Strasbourg, Poitou-Charentes, and Limousin responded. (11/21)
- CPIE (Centre Permanent d’Initiatives pour l’Environnement) Bresse du Jura (Franche-Comte), GRAINE Aquitaine (Bordeaux), CPIE Val d’Authie (Wattignies), ESPACES et RECHERCHES (Vichy), and La Loutre (Limousin) were introduced (5) and submitted the necessary documents to the author.

*Survey 2*

- CREPS Franche-Comte, Montpellier, Dinard, Reims, Limousin, Corse offered their responses. (6/22)

**Survey reports**

*The structure of the system of environmental education in France*

The framework of education is described in the following manner.

*Environmental education in France is like a big family with many networks.*

(Mr. E. Billion (CPIE Val d’Authie, Co: CREPS de Wattignies), personal communication, November 6, 2003.)

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24 The original letters and documents are all in French.
The significance of this ‘big family’ is clarified below.

‘La Loutre’ of ‘Limousin Nature Environnement’ is a private association for the protection of and education on the environment. Limousin Nature Environnement is also a regional federation with a membership of fifty associations for nature conservation. It adheres to France Nature Environnement, a national federation. The nature centre of La Loutre is the educational wing of the federation and organizes formation BEATEP (Brevet d’État d’Animateur Technicien de l’Education Populaire), and other formation for educators, nurses, students, etc. There are one-day animations, half-day ones, as well as those lasting for several days, staying overnight in tents. They are conducted for all ages, from kindergarten to university students, and on various themes (water, air, energy, mammals, birds, nature circles, etc.). The animations are financed by the collectivités locales and the state, and are free for the general public. Some of the activities include Eco-interpretation (eco-trails), Centre de Loisirs (held during school holidays for children aged 6–12 years), and Chantier de Jeunes (volunteers from the youths aged 14 years and above). From time to time, the conferences are held on topics such as waste, energies, etc. (Ms. P. Kremer, (assistant, La Loutre (Co: CREPS du Limousin)), personal communication, November 24, 2006)

Need for animateurs

The need for animators is quite clearly indicated in the original document.

Brief History of the l’animateur éducation à l’environnement
(The sentences have been shortened.)
In the 1980s, the concepts of energy and urban environment were beginning to be discussed much more than before.

In the concept of animation, the individual is not a mere recorder of knowledge or expertise in the service of nature but is a person in need of development—an asset.

Ever since the 1990s, two trends are observed in education—eco-citizenship and an educational medium. Environmental education is not only a cultural project but also a social project. It unites institutions, elected officials, teachers, parents, associations, and business leaders. It finds its place in associations, social centres, local authorities, parks, eco-musées, private companies, etc.

The scope and nature of animateur interventions are vast.

Their objectives include a spirit of discovery—emotional, cognitive, ethical, and participatory. Today, they use the systematic approach for global and evolutionary environments, which has physical, biological, social, economic, political, and historical aspects. This approach is interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary. (original document)
Mr. E. Billion, (CPIE Val d’Authie (Co: CREPS de Wattignies, Ms. P. Bressange)) personal communication, November 14, 2003.

The structure within which the animateurs work

The job profile has been identified:
• L’animateur environnement
He (She) accompanies, supervises, and leads groups within a thematic environment and works with a project team.

Key activity areas include:
Associations:
• Associations for environmental education, CPIE and other structures, and many groups within the Réseau Ecole et Nature.
• Associations for nature, learning societies for the protection of nature.
Centres:
Les centres d’accueil for classes de découverte.
The structure of outdoors that open the sport or discovery of environment activities.

Local governments:
Local governments, municipalities, municipal associations, and unions elected in the course of sensitization (landscapes, waste, water) in a territory and local development.

Establishments of Tourism:
The structure of tourism on development project of a nature tourism in holiday villages, Gite Panda, (work as specialized tour operators)

Musées outdoors and indoors:
Parks regional, Parks national, eco-musée, nature reserve, and Maison de site.

Since 1991, BEATEP Environment of Espaces & Recherche has created 156 professionals. The rate of employability varies according to the year; it reached over 80% in 1996 and 1998. (original document)

Mr. T. Dalbavie, (ESPACES et RECHERCHES (Co: CREPS de Vichy)), personal communication, October 16, 2003)

The qualifications of the animateurs

Animateurs must have the necessary diploma, as shown below.

The organizations with which educators are associated must be subject to the approval of the Ministère de l'éducation nationale. (They can also have the accreditation of other ministries, for example, ecology and sustainable development, agriculture, and sports).

Educators must individually receive the approval of l’Inspection Académique Départementale. For this, they must possess a professional degree of animation in their special domain such as animateur technicien de l’Education Populaire, option environnement. They may be inspected during their activities. Further, associations of environmental education propose educational projects to the elected officials (departmental/provincial) who accept or refuse to fund them.

Once a project is accepted by these elected officials, animateurs have to seek out teachers willing to participate. Teachers at primary schools and middle high schools are not trained in environmental education. This educational work is delegated to associations approved by the Ministry of Education. Projects that the educators propose conform to the school curriculum. They just have to convince the teachers of the subject, as students need to be aware of the environment.

(Ms. V. Guislain, (CPIE Bresse du Jura, (Co: CREPS de Franche-Comte, Ms. F. Perrod)), personal communication, January, 29, 2004)

The training for animateurs and their success

From the survey, the author observed that the average duration of the training for animateur d’environnement is approximately 10 months. During that period, the trainees are expected to develop all the necessary competencies, as described in section 5-2 of this article. The trainees advance through two stages of tests before proceeding to the final stage, at which a jury judges whether they have acquired the competencies necessary for their profession. Not all the trainees can complete the trainings and obtain the diploma.

This training (CREPS Provence-Alpes-Côte D’azur, Site de Boulouris, Formation BEATEP Activités sociales et Vie locale, which includes 120 hours of training on environmental education) took place from January 2004 to November 2004. Twelve students had enrolled and nine passed the entrance test.
In the first stage—general training—only one trainee was unsuccessful.
In the second stage—technique and pedagogy (performing before an audience)—I believe that all eight were successful.
With regard the last stage—the jury evaluations—I do not know how many qualified and obtained the certification. Especially, since I no longer work at CREPS de Boulouris—which has been conducting this training since late 2004.
The candidates must pass all three tests to obtain the final diploma.
The training has not been renewed because BEATEP has been replaced by the BPJEPS (Brevet Professionnel
The condition that makes the trainees to go through the period of training
Congé individuel de formation (CIF) or individual training leave, laid down in the Code du travail, Article L6322-1/1 May 2008, makes it possible for candidates to obtain leave for enhancing their professional skills.

Individual training leave permits employees to, at any point in their working life, follow their initiative and undertake individual training activities, regardless of their participation in the training programs in line with their current profession.

The competencies and capabilities cultivated in the formation
The survey method
The author determined the competencies and capabilities required using the newest program of the formation for animateurs d'environnement. (C:Réseau Ecole et Nature)
The contents of the documents listed below were also used.
Documents were offered by
1) CREPS de PACA (November 22, 2003. Ms. S. Griffie)
   • Training BEATEP ‘Discovery of the natural heritage’
2) CPIE Bresse du Jura (January 16, 2004. Ms. V. Guislain) (Co: CREPS de Franche-Comte)
   • DEFA (Diplôme d'État relatif aux Fonctions d'Animation) program
   • Objectives and development of the Formation Eco Interpretation modules • Métier BEATEP • BEATEP objectives of the modules • Evaluation of BEATEP • BEATEP learning methods • Métier Eco Interpretation • Training Eco Interpretation
3) GRAINE Aquitaine (September 22, 2003. Ms. A. Seguin) (Co: CREPS de Bordeaux)
   • Booklet BEATEP (environment) • Application BEATEP • Information documents BEATEP • Planning BEATEP
4) CREPS de Reims (October 17, 2003. Mr. M. Béteille)
   • Annual calendar of training in environmental education
5) CPIE Val d’Authie (November 6, 14, 2003. Mr. E. Billion) (Co: CREPS de Wattignies)
   • BPJEPS description of activities
   • brief history of the animateur education environnement
6) ESPACES et RECHERCHES (October 16, 2003. Mr. T. Dalbavie) (Co: CREPS de Vichy)
   • BEATEP Animateur Technician of Environment simplified repository of training
   • 2003 information • Individualized training • Formation of a long duration (10 months) • Training of the animateur d'environnement 2004 • Presentation of the training
7) CREPS de Dinard (November 17, 2006. Ms. K. Essirard)
   • List of education training for teachers and Environment Animateur.
   • Content of the different unites of training

An example of formation from the survey
Formation BPJEPS (Documents of Réseau Ecole et Nature)
Animateur, Generalist of the environment and sustainable development
Implemented at Franche-Comte

Objective: to acquire the skills necessary to work as an animateur of environmental education and for sustainable development.
Target: employees, applicants for employment.
Conditions of access: good general knowledge, reasoning, and concern for natural and human heritage; aged 18 years and above.
Tuition of the training (in euros): individual: 2,000. Company: 5,920.

Contents
Unit of Competence 1 (UC1): communicating in professional life.
Written and oral communication, research of documents, and technology of information and communication.
UC2: taking into account the characteristics of the audience to complete an educational activity. Adopting psychological, physiological, sociological approaches for different age groups (infancy, childhood, adult, and elderly).
UC3: preparing an animation project and evaluating it.
Methods of assembling projects: needs assessment, setting of goals and partners, development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.
UC4: participating in the organization of the structure.
The different types of structure, their organization, operation, and institutional environment.
UC 5: preparing an animation activity on recreation for all ages.
Three technical supports are covered (physical and recreational activities, socio-cultural activities, scientific and technological activities) on the different aspects of preparedness, security, and regulation.
UC6: overseeing a group during the animation activity for all ages.
Group dynamics and the role of the animateur, conflict management, and conducting meetings.
UC7: mobilizing the knowledge needed to conduct educational activities and discovery for all audiences. The institutional partners; animation and environment actors; and concepts of law, accountability, regulation, insurance, security, and protection of children.
UC8: conducting an educational and discovery activity.
The purpose of a holiday: receiving people, team management, development and implementation of an educational project
UC9: mastering the tools and techniques necessary for the implementation of actions in all public recreation activities.
Developing the technical skills related to physical and recreational, socio-cultural, and scientific and technological activities
UC10: adaptation unit: natural and cultural heritage and sustainable development.
Principal ecological concepts – study of environment (geomorphology, flora, fauna, cultural heritage, scientific and naturalistic practices, territorial actors, documentary sources, and use of identification keys) – concept of sustainable development and its implications – issues of the environment (water, waste, energy, greenhouse effect, and development education) – reading the landscape to investigate the evolution of territories – method of identifying potential animation in its sector of interventions.
UC11: conduct animations: natural and cultural heritage and sustainable development in schools.
L’Éducation Nationale –the school project and the class project – the objectives of acquiring primary and middle high schools – the needs of teachers – the framework for school intervention in the Jura and Doubs and disparities between regions – the regulation of sorties scolaires – intervening in schools.

Reflections from the survey
The author sees the above units in the following manner:

- **UC1** covers the communication skills earlier mentioned by the author as the mediating role of animateurs.
- **UC2** covers the capability to choose the appropriate approach depending on the time and occasion mentioned in the study of Thubé.
- **UC3** covers the ability needed for global and local actors.
• UC4 covers the ability to reflect on the interconnections between different options mentioned by Croizer and Goffin.
• UC5 covers the ability to understand the logic of environmental education and to connect them with their practice stated by Burger.
• UC6 covers the ability as a militant.
• UC7 covers the capacity to understand the background of environmental policies discussed by Herve Fournereau.
• UC8 covers the ability of the ASC workers to activate people.
• UC9 covers the competence of animateurs as technicians.
• UC10 could indicate the ability to act critically by reading the landscapes, as stated by Sauve.
• UC11 covers the ability to educate students and teachers on environmental issues as well as for them to be aware of the difficulties faced by the local people and help them tackle these difficulties effectively and innovatively, as stated by Le Gall.
All the competence may be developed by what Cottreau calls ‘écoformation’, which means to understand the world through numerous possible ways.

Conclusion
In conclusion, the environmental educators of today are expected to have the competences to know the value and heritage of their territory; make this knowledge public; understand the hopes for, and issues about the territory; see the big and global picture; and work together with the spirit of ‘synergy’, in the interest of development.

References


PART 3 | Confronting quality: Theoretical assumptions and practical challenges

Making reality: Concept formation, power and knowledge.

Introduction

Foucault refers to powerful discourse as 'regimes of truth' (Couzens and Hoy, 1988:19) that enables us to see knowledge as 'tied to politics, that is to power'. This challenges that the concept of truth implies knowledge that is beyond all possible doubt becomes unsound. As Dreyfus and Rabinow (1983) note, Foucault did not accept the usual sociological categories, both in the questions he posed and the concepts he introduced (Townley, 1993). His desire was to understand the power relations and how power affect everyday lives. As Foucault (1981:94) states 'Power is not something that is acquired, seized or shared, something one holds on to or allows to slip away. Thus, power is relational; it becomes apparent when it becomes exercised'. As such, power is associated with practices, techniques and procedures not institutions. Townley (1993) notes 'Power is employed at all level and through many dimensions' and that 'Thus questions such as “who has power?” or “where or in what, does power reside?” are became what Foucault terms as the “how” of power: those practices, techniques, and procedures that give it effect’.

Power and knowledge relations are inextricably interwoven (see for example Eribon: 1991). According to Usher and Edwards (1994:85) ‘modernity's liberal-humanist paradigm, which is dominant in western industrialised countries and whose influence spreads even wider, accustoms us to seeing knowledge as distinct from, indeed as counterpoised to power’. They claim that ‘knowledge is a (disinterested) search for truth which power gets in the way of and distorts’. They go on to note that the implication therefore, is that ‘truth’ and ‘knowledge are only possible under conditions where power is not exercised (Usher and Edwards, 1994:85). However, the acknowledgement of the relationship of knowledge, power and truth provides a postmodernist position that questions the ethical stance between this triumphant (Usher and Edwards, 1994). As such, postmodernist epistemology challenges us to question our own thinking and our personal comfort zones. It openly challenges the modernistic scientific discourse. Johnson and Duberley (2000:109) note, ‘which imperialistically expunges plurality and forces epistemic closure’ Therefore, postmodernism gives approval to relativism via a subjective epistemology and ontology, and truth becomes relative to an individual's engagement with the world (Jeffcutt, 1994; Alvesson and Willmott, 1996; Johnson and Duberley, 2000). As such, all knowledge is socially produced and is, therefore, defective since social interests distort it. Therefore, all knowledge is distorted and independent standards of truth do not exist. Therefore, postmodernism challenges the notions that truth claims can be objectively arrived at. Foucault (1988) notes that:
'My problem has always been the problem of the relationship between subject and truth. How does the subject enter into a certain game of truth? So it is that I was led to pose the problem power-knowledge, which is not for me the fundamental problem but an instrument allowing the analysis - in a way that seems to me be the most exact - of the problem of the relationships between subject and games of truth.'

A critical theorist’s perspective is that valid knowledge can only emerge from a situation of open, free and uninterrupted dialogue, and takes the form of self-conscious criticism (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1998:260-299). Habermas (1963, and 1970:360-375) being a principle exponent of this genre and an opponent of positivism argues that the idea of a neutral apolitical science, based on a rigid separation of facts and values. He claims this is untenable since questions of truth are inextricably bound up with political problems of freedom to communicate and to exchange ideas. Different individuals might conclude that contradictory views of the ‘same’ phenomena by different individuals and groups are equally ‘true’ from their own perspective. Bird and Hammersley (1996:33) note it can ‘create the social worlds they purport to describe, for instance through textual strategies of various kinds’. Therefore, we cannot be sure of the ‘truth’ or falsity of our claims about reality. As Popper (1959) argues, it is not possible to produce laws that will necessarily be found to be true for all time, and that there is always the possibility that at some future date the theory will be proved wrong, or falsified. The issues are not only that we can be certain of ‘truth’ (or falsity) of our claims, but also as Bird and Hammersley (1996:33) note:

‘That we have no grounds for believing that there are phenomena which are independent of our knowledge of them, since all the knowledge we can ever have is formed by our culture, and that culture is one of many.’

As McHale (1992) notes, the essence of the modernistic project is encapsulated by the question 'how can the world be truthfully known?' Therefore, epistemology is value ridden as Usher and Edwards (1994:149) note, 'epistemology is never «innocent» because it always contains within itself a set of values'. This means there is always politics in personal exchanges, which implies power relations. Epistemic reflexivity makes us more aware of the necessary place of research communities and the power of the exclusion and closure of such communities. It can be argued that values are a central concern in the research act in the formulation of conceptual models and the creation of research question and those researchers need to be consistent of their role in their conception. This is especially so when conceived within the organisational settings where organisational politics and power can influence pre-conceived and taken for granted notions of the researcher of how the “organisation works” (Armitage, 2008). As such, the creation and building of organisational models and conceptual frameworks (as they are sometimes called) has to take into account these dynamics and account for their influences upon the eventual “picture of reality” of the organisation that consequently emerges. The next part of the discussion considers the role of conceptual frameworks before reporting the findings of a small scale study concerning the development and construction of conceptual frameworks within the research act.

**Building conceptual frameworks**

A conceptual framework is used in research to outline possible courses of action or to present a preferred approach to investing a set of issues or problems. The framework is built from concepts linked to behaviours, functions, relationships and objects that might
not exist within an organizational environment. Conceptual frameworks are a type of intermediate theory that have the potential to connect to all aspects of inquiry e.g. problem definition, purpose, literature review, methodology, data collection and analysis. They can act like maps that give coherence to the inquiry and can take different forms depending upon the research question or problem (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Maxwell, 2005). Shields and Tajalli (2006) have identified several types of conceptual frameworks such as working hypotheses, descriptive categories, practical ideal type, models of operations research and formal hypotheses for the field of public administration. Conceptual frameworks are linked to particular research purposes, for example, the include exploration, description, gauging, decision-making, and explanation/prediction type studies. When the purpose of the research and conceptual frameworks are aligned other aspects of the research process such as the choice of methodology/methodologies for example surveys, interviews, analysis of existing data, direct observation, focus groups and type of statistical techniques and qualitative data analysis is made explicit.

If the researcher and the institution are to gain from the experience undertaking organisational research then it should be a collaborative and participative endeavour, then the outcomes of studies will be of benefit to both professional practice and institutional policymaking. Therefore, the researcher must take into account the practical nature, outcomes and impact that their study might have upon professional practice. Policy-making and the creating of conceptual frameworks are central to collaborative and participative research studies and should be derived from various sources within and from an organisation (see Miles and Huberman, 1994 who provide a detailed explanation of developing of conceptual frameworks). However, ‘traditional’ assumptions are still held by many researchers and participants alike concerning the nature of collaborative and participative practitioner-based research. The development of conceptual frameworks can be seriously flawed if individuals are alienated from the modelling process of ‘organisational life’ (Armitage, 2008). Nadler (1980) and Lawler, et al (1980) have identified these assumptions as follows:

**Assumption 1**: The researcher has most or all the information and knowledge needed to carry out a well-designed research project.

**Assumption 2**: Any instrument the researcher designs or selects will be accepted by the organisation.

**Assumption 3**: The institution and its stakeholders do not need to know the researcher’s orientation or the purposes of the research.

**Assumption 4**: Researchers do not need to know the institutions orientation or “implicit” organisation theories.

**Assumption 5**: Institutional commitment to participating in research can be obtained in the interest of ‘science’.

**Assumption 6**: Adoption and implementation will follow assessment, diagnosis, and solution identification.

This suggests the researcher as ‘the expert’ approach assumes that institutional stakeholders will be ready and willing to cooperate with the research agenda set by the researcher. Further, for those who take part in the study will not exchange their thoughts and ideas about how things “can done for the better around here”. As a result they will be eager to get involved without any second thoughts. It also assumes that the researcher can remain oblivious to the organisational context into which they intend do their study. As such, this may not be an inappropriate approach to engage those who are ultimately
to benefit from the outcomes of collaborative and participative practitioner-based research. For example, ‘good’ case study research takes into account the context in which a study takes place and conclusions are specifically focused on a particular issue or set of issues (Armitage, 2008). Other reasons for doing collaborative practitioner-based research might concern themselves with the attainment of human potential and self-efficacy. This can be achieved, for example, by action research approaches that create communities of professional practice and knowledge leading to new insights, substantive theory and model building of organisational practice and policies and the formulation of further research questions to be investigated (Armitage, 2008).

Creating conceptual frameworks: Methodological approach to the study

Focus groups were independently conducted over a twelve-month period during the delivery of postgraduate research methods modules. These consisted of three groups of 7 MA, 12 MBA and 5 Doctoral students, which are within the recommended ‘number range’ participants per group (Macintosh 1993; Kitzinger 1995; Goss and Leinbach, 1996). Each focus group session lasted approximately from two hours. Data was collected using focus group discussions and then subjected to grounded analysis (Easterby-Smith et al, 2001). Kitzinger (1994, 1995) argues that interaction is the crucial feature of focus groups because the interaction between participants highlights their view of the world, the language they use about an issue and their values and beliefs about a situation. Interaction also enables participants to ask questions of each other, as well as to re-evaluate and reconsider their own understandings of their specific experiences. As such, each of the focus group participants was asked to consider the three questions concerning the formulation and conceptualisation of research problems and questions:

1. Why is collaboration essential in the development of conceptual models?
2. What levels of collaboration are needed in the development of conceptual models when formulating research problems?
3. What is the process by which practice-based researchers abstract their research problem to formulate a conceptual framework in order to ‘convert’ their abstraction problems into ‘concrete problems of organisational reality’?

Findings

Why is collaboration essential in the development of conceptual models?

All the respondents were in general agreement that collaboration is a central requirement when developing and formulating organisational research questions. This was especially so for those concerned with practitioner-based research problems. The findings revealed the following issues as being central in the development of conceptual model building. One of the focus group members identified that the complexity of organisational life forced practitioner-based researchers to be ‘live’ to the fact that individuals working in such environments would have multiple views of reality was the function of a researcher to determine what the problem was and to engage with organizational members. As one, focus group respondent stated:

‘[The] disagreement and selection of alternative issues and deciding upon the real issues to investigate are vital if we are to get to the nub of the problem. It enables us to assess what data is to be accessed for the study and that we do not go off on the wrong track’
Another focus group member identified that fact that shared understandings was needed amongst organisational members, if practitioner-based research was to be truly collaborative so that:

'A lack of consistency of interpreting data was gained and that a shared understanding of causality of how changes impact in one part of organisation impact upon other parts of organisation can be understood better'

Another respondent from the focus group discussions identified that problem formation was dependent upon meaning and language, which was organisational specific. This was an important feature of a researcher’s role in order to understand the research problem, in terms of the ‘local’ organisational language stating that:

'In order to label problems language, meaning and interpretation of these was needed in the context of how organisational members conceived them to enable any inconsistencies between the researchers model and those of organisational members to be avoided'

What levels of collaboration are needed to development of conceptual models?
Collaboration in the development of conceptual models was not confined merely to those who were deemed to be ‘members of staff’ or to particular sections of the organisation. Responses to this question suggested that it was important that ‘internal audits’ of current practices were, as one respondent stated, an essential feature that:

'Organisational members’ must take part in order to for them to get ‘an overall feel of the problem and to identify those who are to be involved with the solving of the particular organisational problem’.

This led one of the focus groups to identify (and was subsequently agreed by the other focus groups) to be an essential feature of practitioner-based research. Also a ‘joint research effort’ was needed if organisational ‘buy-in’ was to have permanence beyond the confines of a research project. One focus group also mentioned that using an outside researcher to undertake an ‘expert assessment’ assessment of the problems and issues was necessary in order to obtain an independent view of the current situation. The combined findings of the focus groups fell into three main groupings as follows:

Determining levels of collaboration
- The researcher contributes theory and research tools (the expert) whilst the organisational members provide local knowledge
- The reasons for carrying out the model building process
  - Time constraints
  - Joint problem solving
  - Negotiation of issues with organisational members
  - Interaction and collaboration with organisational members

Outcome of collaboration are:
- Research outputs are more effective with researcher and collaborative approaches
- Collaboration engenders ownership and commitment of organisational members to use results
- Ability for organisational members to adopt, and use models, is higher with collaborative approaches

Advantages of collaboration when building models leads to:
- More robust choices on deciding on the elements of the model
• More informed debate when developing categories and interrelationships between the concepts of a model

**What is the process by which practice-based researchers formulate problems?**
In response to this question each of the focus groups were asked to provide a process (methodology) for developing conceptual models. Whilst each of the focus group produced their own approach, an identifiable process emerged from their discussions either implicitly or implicitly in their feedback.

**Step 1: Who should participate in the model building process?**
• Management – all levels
• The staff/shop floor
• Management and technical
• A combination of these which is contingent upon circumstances and issues to be investigated

**Step 2: The use of focus groups/workshop**
• Participating in the focus group
• Working collaboratively with colleagues and the researcher
• Helping monitor the process of the workshop by providing feedback to colleagues and researcher
• Providing feedback on the written presentation of the joint model

**Other findings**
The findings also revealed issues that the researcher needs to think about in their role and the relationship they have with the institution as well as that they have with stakeholders who will take part in the study. For example, is the researcher an internal or external member of the organisation? Are they participants or non-participants in the research process itself? Furthermore, the practitioner-based researcher needs to be good organiser and astute organisational politician when negotiating access to information in order to work with professionals in small knit communities of practice.

A researcher undertaking a collaborative practitioner-based study requires a number of skills. The first is to be a good listener in order to take in the views at all levels in an organisation to get a feel of ‘how things are around here’. A sympathetic ear and being supportive is also needed. This is especially the case for those who might feel ‘vulnerable’ and wary as to the reasons why a study is to be undertaken. A researcher ignoring their feelings might jeopardise the entire research project if negativity becomes infectious. The second is that of being an effective net-worker. This should be an essential part of the researcher’s toolbox. Doing a successful institutional study often requires the help of others to ‘open doors’ especially when dealing with gatekeepers so the ability to be an effective ‘power broker’, negotiate successfully and diplomatically without causing offence is an essential part of the researchers ‘skill set’. Being a good facilitator, able to work collaboratively with stakeholders and showing a supportive attitude towards stakeholders are essential qualities of the collaborative practitioner-based researcher. Finally, institutional stakeholders who take part in the study must not overlook the important characteristics of trustworthiness, honesty and reliability. Without these qualities the researcher will almost certainly encounter barriers of non-cooperation of
those they participate in the study with and might result in their complete withdrawal if they feel they are being ‘sighted’ in any way.

The findings also revealed that when conducting collaborative model building ethical issues are paramount. The researcher must always ask themselves the following questions before entering the research environment:

- Who is the client?
- What is the power relationship of researcher to participants?
- Can I access to data – issues of confidentiality?
- Where findings should be disseminated?
- When should findings be disseminated?
- Are there dangers of ‘scapegoating’? For example exposing and blaming a teacher for unsatisfactory professional practice.

**Discussion of findings**

The findings indicate that a researcher needs the information and knowledge that organisational stakeholders have to design correctly the research. This is vital if the researcher is to engage participants. For example, the formation of a new organisational policy will need to draw upon the experiences of organisational members who work with each other and their clients/customers on a day-to-day basis if the right sets of problems and questions are to be addressed. The kinds of measurement instruments used and the content of the measurement instruments need to reflect a good knowledge of the local culture and climate of an organization. This requires the researcher to take into account the way participants will react to surveys or observational instruments. For example, it is important that researchers do not intrude into the ‘private life’ of organisational members without first agreeing with them what instruments will be used. It would not be advisable to carry out observations of if it might compromise the privacy and personal space of individuals. Sensitivity in the design and use of instruments is needed if the researcher is to maintain participants trust. The researcher needs to know the implicit theories of organisation (how things work around here) and its cultural makeup. The researcher must have a sound grasp of ‘what is going on around here’ before they commence their study and to treat the teaching staff as a single ‘corporate entity’. Even in a small organisation this might be advisable in view of the fact that they are engaged in a wide set of issues in their day-to-day practice. For example, the experiences of a new member of staff will probably be different from an experienced senior manager. It is important that the researcher recognise these differences before making general assumptions about the ‘culture’ of the organisation.

Client commitment to participation in research can best be obtained by involving the institution and its stakeholders in the design of the research. Further by fully communicating to them the purpose of the research. This is important because collaborative practitioner-based research is intended to empower participants beyond the ‘confines’ of the research study. It empowers them then to become independent organisational problem solvers in their own right. If organisational members are not engaged in the design of a study then the implementation of its outcomes might not be embraced since they are not owned who helped to formulate them. For example the introduction of a new policy might include only senior managers in the scoping and design of the study. This will therefore ignore those at the ‘coal face’ who have to deal with issues directly on a day to day basis. This could lead to the formulation of the wrong
research questions to be formulated and the further alienation of individuals in the lower hierarchies of the organisation who have to cope with these issues on a ‘one to one’ basis. Moreover, any outcomes might not address strategies for dealing with ‘flash points’ or in the improvement of the organisation environment.

Implementation and adoption are most likely to follow when research participants have been actively involved in the research process. The involvement of organisational members and strategic policy makers is vital for the long lasting effectiveness of a study. For example, a study that investigates the effectiveness of a new performance system a will require that all members of staff need to be involved in the successful implementation of any organisational policies that might emerge from its findings. This is vital in terms of both organisational performance and morale and the empowerment of individuals by involving them for example in disseminating findings (even when the study is in progress) displays timely communication with those who have to translate findings into practice. It is also important that channels of communication to the researcher are available to organisational members who will have to implement and manage any subsequent research findings or policies so that new lines of enquiry might be explored in the next cycle of the study as in the case of action research for example.

Conclusions
Undertaking collaborative and participative practitioner-based research in organisational contexts can be both rewarding and revealing (Armitage, 2008). It comes in many guises. For example, action research approaches that are familiar and popular in organisational settings, as are ethnographies, and socially constructed experiments that attempt to explore the dynamics of organisational settings (see Partington, 2002). However, no matter the approach taken, organisational research relies upon the voluntarily participation of participants. For example, social experiments which might investigate organisational behaviour or action research where the participants may be involved in the design of the study, or in helping to find solutions to the problem being investigated. Participants may also be involved in implementing the outcomes of the research and in their management. This is especially so if this involves a change process or drawing up of an organisational strategic policy document. If the findings from collaborative research are to be effective outcomes and solutions for professional, practice collaborative practitioner-based research should engage a variety of stakeholders ranging from organisational members, customers, local authorities and the local/global community. This can be an emancipatory experience for those stakeholders involved in the study as it provides an ethos emphasising autonomy and empowerment in the solution of real life problems. This would suggest that a researcher acting in isolation from their research environment is constrained if they wish to undertake a collaborative practitioner-based research study. If valid outcomes are required to support change (for example in the classroom or to inform institutional policy making initiatives) within local authorities then the researcher needs to be sensitive to those who take part in the research study.

Whilst there are advantages of undertaking collaborative and participative practitioner-based research, however, it does need to guard against certain traditional attitudes concerning the research process. Thus, as this small-scale study has suggested a new set of assumptions are required when undertaking collaborative and participative practitioner-based research. The findings suggest that the context of the research study
must be taken into account before entering the organisational environment. Also, the practice-based researcher needs to recognise the needs of the institution as well as those of stakeholders that take part in the study. This means they need to strike a balance between being ‘directive’ rather than always having to assume the ‘expert’ leadership role’. In other words, they have to adopt a ‘facilitative attitude’ during the research process.

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Researching pedagogical self-concepts of German company trainers\(^{25}\).

Introduction

Against the background of Europe-wide declining numbers of employees and craftsmen, the fast increase of knowledge and innovation advances grows the importance of lifelong learning. In-company trainers are regarded as key figures in this process, as for example the Trainer Qualification Edict (“Ausbildereignungsverordnung”) in Germany and the Maastricht Communiqué on European level emphasize.

In-company trainers are “people, who stimulate learning and integrate initial and/or continuing training and education functions into their jobs (preferably by actively engaging in carrying out training activities) and who are employed by a private or public enterprise” (Eurotrainer Consortium 2008, p. 3). In Germany there is a dual system of education, which means that students for two or three years in parallel learn in a school and in a company. Most trainers were in-company trainers and especially responsible for the first year of training and exam preparation.

Three kinds of skills are relevant for the trainer’s work:

- technical or professional skills,
- organisational and management abilities,
- pedagogical and social competences (Eurotrainer Consortium 2008, p. 6 f.).

Professional skills acquired by vocational education and several years of working as a craftsman were usually regarded as minimum requirement to work as trainer. As the Eurotrainer study shows, those qualifications were well developed in European countries. Organisational and management abilities contrariwise are usually not mentioned in reforms of vocational training, although they are crucial for tasks like quality monitoring, project coordination, administration, and cooperation with other departments, other companies, vocational education schools and further education centres. Pedagogical and social competences finally were more and more picked up as an important issue in reforms and trainings for trainers, particularly with regard of learning processes, integration of vocational and further education, mentorship and knowledge transfer (Eurotrainer Consortium 2008, p. 6 f.).

Pedagogical knowledge is one basis for pedagogical action, but it can be supposed that another cognitive aspect is of great importance: a consciousness of the pedagogical role, a pedagogical self concept has to be developed (Paul-Kohlhoff 1977, p. 72). A pedagogical self concept includes attitudes towards the learning persons, educational contents, methods and goals, but also assumptions concerning one’s own professional role and institutional affiliation. It derives from social experiences, and it influences a person’s behaviour and relations. I assume that the pedagogical self concept has several, not coherently connected dimensions, which are in different extents accessible to conscious reflection (compare Meister 2005, p. 13 f.).

\(^{25}\) Acknowledgements: I thank the trainers, who gave me the opportunity to interview and to learn from them, and my inspiring and encouraging colleagues, especially Rainer Bremer, Ludger Deitmer, Roland Tutschner, Anna Schulz and Michael Burchert.
Research method

In my doctoral thesis, the pedagogical self concept of in-company trainers was evaluated with so called dilemma questions, an interpretative method deriving from developmental psychology. A dilemma puts the acting person in the situation to decide between two or more options, which all are adequate and promising, but implicate certain benefits and disadvantages or uncertainties. I assume that during the development of a pedagogical self concept several conflicts concerning the new role were solved and than are the base for everyday's work or routine. By dilemma questions such problematic situations – each representing a class of problems – were discussed, so that the basic ideas and the logic of decision making become manifest. While Lawrence Kohlberg (2007), surely the most popular user of the dilemma method, formulated hypothetical situations to study moral development, my approach includes questions on the trainer’s everyday-working-life and can be adapted to the single trainer’s situation. This is done because work-related, professional attitudes are examined, and it is probable that the same concepts and (defence) strategies, which base on acting in work, will become manifest in the answers. Not only the questions, but also the way of asking differs from other interview methods: it allows critical questions, scrutinizing and confrontation.

Since no studies about pedagogical self concepts of in-company trainers could be investigated, research results about teacher’s pedagogical self were studied to find out relevant categories (Meister 2005; Ilien 2008). Those categories alone of course are not sufficient to describe the work of in-company trainers. On the one hand the research on teachers implies that the school subjects have strong impacts on pedagogical convictions (Dick 1994, p. 89 in Meister 2005, p. 10): according to this the special knowledge imparted in in-company training should imply certain teaching concepts. On the other hand it is obvious that in-company trainers work in structurally different contexts than teachers – for example a teacher deals with much more students than a trainer. Finally in-company trainers – contrarily to most teachers - already had developed a professional identity as craftsmen, which they do not give up without further ado.

The results of those considerations were the following questions:

1. **Introduction: How did you become an in-company trainer, and how long are you working in this position? What are your tasks?**
   This question addresses to the special situation of the interview partner, which is important to know, because I assume that the concrete working conditions influence the development of self concepts (Paul-Kohlhoff 1977).

2. **Which of the trainee’s strengths do you pick up in the beginning of the training, and which weak points do you expect? How do you cope with differences in the trainee’s achievements? What is from your point of view essential for the training? What is important in the time of preparation for final exams?**
   These questions invite to talk about how the trainers view the trainees - especially the interpretation of deficiencies is focused: a trainer should regard the trainees’ lack of skills as pedagogical challenge, while a craftsman might rather expect a quick adaptation on standards. A dilemma might result when only very good or very weak trainees can be supported in favour of homogeneity.

3. **If you could decide: in which areas of the training would you invest, in which economize?**
With this dilemma question priorities can be expatiated, e.g. the trainee’s functional adaptation vs. qualified autonomy. Here also the scope of view is important: were only changes in the own company mentioned, or does the trainer refer to networks, regions and national regulations?

4. *Is cooperation between trainers in your company important? How do you react, when a trainer does not achieve appointed learning goals?*

This dilemma refers to the trainer’s strategy of problem solving when values like loyalty towards colleagues and the demand to do good work are in a potential conflict.

5. *How would you react if a trainer colleague would suggest letting the trainees work out certain subjects autonomously and as a group?*

Starting from this question pedagogical strategies (when does learning happen?) as well as view on trainees (what are they able to do?) can be discussed.

6. *What do you think about final testing which considers only the achievements in the final exams, not long-term efforts?*

This dilemma question refers to the standard practice of exams in most apprenticeships in Germany: only the results of final exams decide about the trainee’s mark. The trainers were challenged to reflect the dilemma, that on the one hand the whole development of a trainee should be assessed, on the other a well trained apprentice should be able to act competently in most standard situations.

7. *Did you have to learn new professional contents since you work as a trainer? What was your learning perspective (craftsman vs. teacher)?*

These questions can inspire reflection about knowledge acquisition and the difference between being a trainer and being a craftsman.

8. *Would you like to continue working as a trainer? Why?*

The last question focuses on reasons for being a trainer, which might vary a lot.

These eight bundles of questions were regarded as the core of the interview, but since each trainer’s special situation or point of view is regarded as important, also tailor-made, spontaneous questions have been asked, following the intention to learn more about the trainer’s ways of argumentation and emphasizing.

Interviews with young and with experienced trainers, in big and in small enterprises were conducted. In big companies in Germany, trainers usually work as full time trainers, while in small enterprises they often are part time trainers or craftsmen with pedagogical tasks. In big companies, there are usually special rooms and training machines for apprenticeship in the first year, whereas in small companies trainees work in the everyday-working processes from the beginning on. These differences in working conditions may lead to different interpretations of the role as a trainer.

A trainer’s biography might require solving of three development tasks: a) vocational studies to gain relevant knowledge, b) reflection of learning problems and aids on biographical level, c) development of special didactical knowledge which generalises those problems and professionalises their solving. Referring to young trainers who had worked as craftsmen, the first development task can be regarded as solved, and the second can not be traced anymore. The third development task, the shift of professional self concept from craftsman to trainer, can be regarded as the now relevant development task.
Findings

Several interviews with trainers have already been conducted and the analysis shows a fascinating range of conceptual emanations, with pedagogical self concepts varying in their goals for training, choice of pedagogical methods and proximity to craftsman’s work. In this paper the first interviewed group, three young trainers from big companies, will be presented. All of them are occupied in international enterprises with more than 57 000 employees, and will be referred to as Mr. Bellamy, Mrs. Howard and Mr. Friedrichs.

Working conditions

All three trainers moved into this position voluntarily, and they do their jobs up from three months (Mrs. Howard) to two years (Mr. Bellamy and Mr. Friedrichs). Only Mr. Friedrichs had an early idea of being a trainer: “I probably became a trainer because I imbibed it with my mother’s milk: when I was born, my father worked as a trainer. When I was a child I said that I wanted to become his deputy, the deputy of my father”.

While Mrs. Howard is only conducting training modules, Mr. Bellamy and Mr. Friedrichs do also serve as so called “development tutors”, contact persons for the trainees during the whole process of apprenticeship.

To ask for people’s ideas concerning change of their working conditions does not only reveal a lot about the companies’ apprenticeship, but also about the trainer’s priorities and problems. In this context, Mr. Bellamy wished to appoint someone to support the trainers by doing administrative work, and to have more machines for the training on a new, forward-looking technology. Mrs. Howard also said that a certain machine would improve training processes, and she emphasized that in no way there should be economizations in the area of apprenticeship. Mr. Friedrichs found it important to employ more trainers, because the learning groups were very big (around 25 persons).

To all three interviewed young trainers, cooperation and teamwork with other trainers in their company was very important. Experienced trainers were regarded as competent mentors and persons of trust. Confronted with the dilemma question concerning the failure of a colleague, all interview persons regarded it as important to solve the problem by a dialogue with the trainer, on a further level including the other trainers in the team. To tell the training supervisor about the problem was regarded as non-collegial; on the other hand no interview partner admitted to remain silent about the problem.

View on learners and methods

To all three trainers, working with young people seems to be a challenge. As the trainees’ strengths they regard curiosity (Mrs. Howard) and being proactive (Mr. Friedrichs), as a field to take care of their lack of motivation (Mr. Bellamy), the process of growing up (Mr. Friedrichs) and working in groups (Mrs. Howard). All three trainers seemed impressed by the trainee’s development throughout the apprenticeship. Mr. Bellamy formulated this in the following way: “Sometimes you have to tighten the screw on some on them, they are still a bit in this awkward adolescent phase; it’s always those three years up from 16. That is a total change. Some come in here, are totally extroverted, and when they go out, they are super-craftsmen, with 100% professional
skills. The others are contrary... They also become top-craftsmen, but they come in as wallflowers, and each one has to be treated differently”.

Mr. Bellamy also seems to have the most differentiated strategies to motivate and to teach his trainees: he particularly tries to find out the trainee’s weaknesses and to provide tasks which empower the young people - like repeating a certain practice with increasingly less time, teaching a group of student apprentices, delivering alternative tasks or breaks, participation on journeys to another headquarters of the company to learn how to survive without parental support. He provides social support, demands that the questions for final exams were profoundly worked off during the first year of apprenticeship, and wishes that there was the possibility to award good achievements with money, because to him this seems to be the main stimulus for most trainees. The apprentices also were motivated by providing the use of compensation days or technical materials for private matters. Mrs. Howard finds it most important to encourage the trainees to ask and to be proactive, while Mr. Friedrichs tries to support the under-performing apprentices by special education.

For Mrs. Howard and Mr. Friedrichs life long learning was an important topic, and the goals which they formulated for apprenticeship were justified by this (Mrs. Howard: being initiative, Mr. Friedrichs: social competences). Mr. Bellamy contrarily emphasized on aspects important for the work in the training company: safety, tempo and working on a high quality level.

**Trainer or craftsman?**

Another question of this exploration on pedagogical self concepts is, if the trainers still regard themselves as craftsmen. All interviewed persons negated this, and the three trainers in our focus had different reasons why they wanted to keep working as trainers: Mr. Friedrichs said, that he liked to work both with interesting practices and with young people; Mr. Bellamy emphasized the variety of his tasks, and Mrs. Howard regards the new job as a personal challenge, which she would not give up, until she masters it well. Nonetheless, when they were confronted with new knowledge or abilities to be learned, all three trainers tried to process the information in the same way, in which they would have done it as craftsmen: e.g. they chose further education courses for craftsmen, not for trainers. Mr. Bellamy and Mrs. Howard also stated that they regard the accumulation of new competences as an extension of their qualification as craftsmen. As Mrs. Howard put it: “I am becoming more versatile (...). Here you learn more about what else there is, which technical possibilities there are”.

**Conclusions**

On the one hand, trainers have similar tasks as school teachers. On the other hand, they need to have and provide practitioner's knowledge and skills. The exotic point of the explored trainers’ self concept is that – unlike craftsmen who cooperate with new colleagues – they want to be far leading in knowledge and skills and to provide more than practical know-how: basic skills, background knowledge and professional attitudes like responsibility. And unlike teachers, these trainers still represent the goal of apprenticeship: a competent, life long learning craftsman.

The young trainers I interviewed do not participate in further education modules for trainers, but use offers for craftsmen, and they develop pedagogical strategies on their own or with team colleagues. This underlines the importance of self regulated
learning on the job, but may also be regarded as a hint towards reflecting their own learning biography (see Meister 2005, p. 10).

Just like the presented German in-company trainers, trainers who start working in adult education have to develop a pedagogical self concept including ideas about teaching goals, contents and methods, attitudes towards the learners and the own institutional affiliation. To accompany this development as a researcher is a fascinating task, allowing deep insight in the trainer’s work, attitudes, but also the implications of institutional and governmental regulations.

The research on pedagogical self concepts differs from normative research paradigms by not defining concrete “competences” which the “good” trainer must have. This avoids several problems associated with the competence discourse like the question of quality generalisation (do all trainers need to have the same skills and knowledge?) or labelling - some competence concepts can be read as a list of occupational tasks, which resembles to the empty logic of a tautology: trainers should be able to do, what they have to do. To find out which working tasks (X, Y, Z) trainers have to master is of course important, but it is not very useful to call this the X, Y and Z-“competence”, because there are many possibilities to solve a task.

It is also possible to apply the pedagogical self concept and dilemma questions in the field of further education. That would not address to a methodological or content level, but help to make explicit a trainer’s opinions and feelings and support his/her self reflection: “Beliefs need articulation if they are to be changed” (Bullough 1997, p. 95 in Meister 2005, p. 11).

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Teaching educators: Metacognitive strategies.

Introduction

The directional lines of the international texts for the education in the 21st century define the regulation of behavior based on the principle of autonomy as the basic principle of every educational procedure. The core of modern education indisputably consists of the constant spherical development of the human personality and consequently its equipping with autonomous thinking, so the natural and historical reality, as it emerges from the Curricula, can be approached. To obtain this function, it is necessary that the trainers be able to construct knowledge, deconstruct erroneous beliefs and reconstruct patterns based on critical rethinking.

Nowadays, the aim of teaching is the provision of knowledge and intellectual tools for the individuals, so they can obtain full control of their lives. Research data connects effective teaching-learning with metacognition, since it proves that the development of metacognitive skills establishes every effective prerequisite in the efforts for self-improvement of individuals and it is thought as an essential element for lifelong learning and self-education.

The term metacognition or metacognitive skill was introduced in psychology by Flavell in 1970. It involves the ‘after’, because it observes knowledge. It refers to the knowledge that someone has about their cognitive procedures and their results, as well as everything concerned with them. It involves the individual's ability to actively handle, to consistently regulate and co-ordinate all the procedures involved in learning. It is therefore the knowledge, apprehension and stance that someone has about the level and the potentials of his thought, his personal information elaboration system, their selves, the motives and the procedures that facilitate him (Arends, 1997; Κακαβούλης, 1993). In other words, metacognition is our ability to know what we know, what we do not know, why we do not know something and how to learn it.

According to Stenber & Powell, metacognition, one of the basic elements of critical thinking, means that we predict how accurately we can remember something, we control which course our thought follows, we design our cognitive moves, we assess the correctness of our plans and evaluate the results of our efforts to solve problems. (Ornstein & Lasley, 2004).

The metacognitive skill developed through the intensive interaction of the personal traits of the individual and their unique way of thinking with the demands of a specific task and the environment (Κολιάδης, 2002; Κουτσελίνη-Ιωαννίδου, 1995). Metacognition makes the learner capable of choosing, modifying and inventing strategies to solve specific and particular problems. For the construction of knowledge is it essential that someone has previously learned the cognitive strategies and their mental actions during the encounter of a new situation.

When a person is involved in an intellectual activity a question is posed; if their actions refer to the cognitive or metacognitive procedures. A strategy is characterized as cognitive or metacognitive depending on the way it is used. The former is activated for the achievement of a particular learning task, for example the comprehension of a text,
while the latter is applied deliberately, so we can check if the target has been achieved, for instance posing questions to confirm the comprehension of a text (Κολιάδης, 2002). Classifications of cognitive and metacognitive strategies have been described (Arends, 1997; Κολιάδης, 2002; Κωσταρίδου-Ευκλείδη, 1997; Ματσαγγούρας, 2003)

1. Collection strategies: in this stage, the codification of information from the short-term to the long-term memory happens. Knowledge is completely mechanical. The techniques that are used are the loud revision, the highlighting of the key parts, the summaries.

2. Organization strategies: the information is integrated in the already existing conceptual schemes. Ways of organization are the record of the key parts with diagrams, charting and finding of relations.

3. Elaboration-analysis strategies: they aim to connect the new knowledge with the existing one. In this stage, memory techniques are used; key words, questions, notes.

4. Observation of comprehension strategies: The level of achievement of the goal and the correctness of apprehension is checked. The organized schemes are used to explain, to predict, to assess and to reorganize the external structures of data. Revision studying, self-questions, paraphrases, re-examination of sequences.

5. Thymic strategies: they help to maintain the suitable emotional condition for the realization of the learning goals. Stress treatment, time management, priority defining of the targeting goals, creation of expectation for positive results influence learning.

6. It is claimed that different individuals use different strategies, while the same person uses different strategies for different tasks (Corkill, 1996).

The solution of a problem definitely demands the simultaneous activation of cognitive and metacognitive actions. The success of the solution of a problem depends on the correct use of cognitive strategies, the utilization of metacognitive knowledge and the constant self-adjustment of the cognitive system for the encounter of cognitive quandaries. The approach in a difficult task and the level of understanding of the way with which the subject will solve the problem depends on the level they realistically evaluate what they are capable of learning (Shoenfeld, 1987). Consequently, each one of us, in order to be an effective problem solver, has to display strategies that can be applied for the reconstruction (charts, diagrams, symbols etc) and comprehension of the problem (comprehension of the nature of the target, known-unknowns), for the planning and execution of the solution (simplification, bisection, generalization- specification, use of quota, means and aims analysis, restatement, consults by experts, brainstorming) as well as for the observation of the execution and the assessment (examination of the solution from different perspectives, search of additional information and clarifications) (Κωσταρίδου-Ευκλείδη, 1997).

It is an undeniable fact that the effective solution of problems, which derive from either the daily life or the objects of the curriculum - maths, physics etc- can be achieved through the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The metacognitive emotions created, affect the self-apprehension of the individual and enhance their confidence and determination to insist on the regulation of their mental actions (Goleman, 1995; Ιωαννίδου-Κουτσελίνη, 2006).

**Aim and targets of the research**
The fundamental aim of our research effort is to highlight and record the views of the students in the Faculty of Primary Education in the University of Athens, so we can, up to a degree, contribute to the planning, organization and improvement of the quality of the provided work. We aim at exploring the information management of the students of the Faculty, based on metacognitive observation. We define the following targets:

A. Which techniques-strategies of learning they use to approach a text
B. How they check its comprehension and
C. How they solve difficult problems.

At the same time, a record of comments and remarks concerning the level of each one's self-evaluation in problem solving is presented.

Research methodology

For the collection of data the participating students were asked to fill an anonymous questionnaire which was given to each one separately. The questionnaire is divided in two (2) parts. The first part includes questions concerning the personal elements of the students, with regard to sex, age, their studies and prior or present experience of participation in educational programs. In the second part, the participants are asked to freely state in a passage the course of their mental actions when approaching an educational task or solving a problem. According to the way each one realizes or has been used to working, while approaching a task, the planning, the procedure and methods or strategies used arise. From this research, the facility with which they handle the previously mentioned functions for the comprehension or learning of a text also arises. In addition, there are suggestions for the solutions that the students try to give in difficult problems. Finally, they have the opportunity to express their views on the way they evaluate themselves, as a problem solver, or to express any further comment.

For the elaboration of data, the method used is the content analysis. Content analysis is regarded as an effective and suitable research tool which can be applied to define the presence of particular words or meanings in a text and to organize the speech both qualitatively and quantitatively. Holsti (1969) defines content analysis as the technique of drawing conclusions, distinguishing objectively and systematically defined characteristics, through messages. The topic is taken as an analysis unit. The topic is defined as the classification and codification of the kindred views of the subjects after their thorough record as they were stated in the freely written speech.

The sample of the research

The research was conducted in the Pedagogical Faculty of the University of Athens; it started in January and finished in March 2009. The sample was random and was composed by 71 pre-graduate students of the faculty. The distribution of subjects per sex and age is listed in tables I and II. Their experience from studies or participation in other educational programs is listed in Table 2I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Distribution of subjects per sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The proportion between men and women represents the Greek condition of sex distribution in the Pedagogical Departments.

Table 2. Distribution of subjects per age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>85.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 and over</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen, the biggest percentage of questioned subjects belongs in the 18-22 age group, when the main studies take place.

Table 3. Distribution of subjects according to their experience from participation in educational programs outside the University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the 12 students with experience in studies and educational programs, 7 are above 23 years old and have a degree in a Greek university.

Presentation of the results

According to the collective results emerging from the analysis and record of the students' suggestions, 335 reports which are classified in three basic subject categories have emerged, as it can further be seen:

A. The 186 suggestions concern the methods-strategies used by the students, or the ways with which they manage to learn something from a text when needed.

B. The 73 reports are related with the process of checking the comprehension of a text and

C. The 76 reports of the students give answers to the process of solving difficult problems or assimilating difficult texts. The emphasis put by each student on the process of planning, organization and control for the assimilation of the material they are interested in, fully correspond to the formation of the following categories (Table 4).

Finally, there was a question on how the participants evaluate themselves and there were quite interesting views.

Table 4. Distribution of reports per subject category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In which ways they manage to approach a text</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How they check the comprehension of the text</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How they try to solve difficult problems</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. In the first subject category the use of key words and highlighting of main points is recorded in 47 reports. In 29 reports, there are revision readings mentioned. In 19 suggestions there are side titles or subtitles used. Finally, 14 are based only on careful reading while 2 only express the main idea of the text.
However, there are some strategies recorded which are followed for the approach of a topic. Therefore, based on the suggestions, we have memorization of the whole text and memorization through dividing in units. In 26 suggestions no strategy is used while in 17 the text is analyzed, organized and related to others. (Table 4a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4a. How they manage to learn a text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. In the second subject category the effort put by the questioned students is remarkable in order to check the comprehension of a task and the 73 proposals are stated as following: The 22 proposals of the students concern control through self-questions. 32 reports exclude the process of checking, in other words they are not so interested in checking comprehension rather than memorizing the particular object. 4 reports concern questions by others, 6 rephrase the text in their own words and 13 check by finding the main idea. (Table 4b).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4b. How the comprehension of a text is checked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask self-questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept questions by others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check if they have spotted the main idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rephrase the text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. In the last subject category there are answers on the ways with which the students try to solve difficult problems. In 14 reports the problems are related or compared to others already known. 17 analyze the data based on what they know, 12 refer to others for help, 6 advance step by step from the easy to the difficult parts, 5 do not try at all to push themselves, 1 uses constant trials. Last, there were 21 evasive and general statements like “I do what I think is best”, “I carefully think about it” or “I have a specific method in my mind” (Table 4c).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4c. How they solve difficult problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I relate and compare them with others I know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I analyze the data based on what I know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ask others for help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I advance step by step</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not try at all, I quit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use constant trials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evasive and general proposals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this point it is quite interesting to record the views of the students on how they evaluate themselves as problem solvers.

Table 5. How they evaluate themselves as a problem solver

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A good and very good solver</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mediocre up to weak</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Bad</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Did not answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It seems that a significant number of students with enough confidence regard themselves as relatively competent in dealing with problems while almost half of them feel mediocre and do not hide the difficulties they meet (Table 5). Some characteristic, colorful answers of students that are not bad but neither especially strong are cited; “I try to work systematically but when I meet a difficulty, I panic and abandon the effort”. In another point, “I can quite easily distinguish the data and understand what is asked, but I cannot often find the correct way of solving and get to wrong results”. Someone else says “my mediocrity is due to my mood” or I am weak because “I have difficulty in connecting what I theoretically know”.

Conclusions and final remarks

We have explored data management of a proportion of students of the Pedagogical Faculty of Athens.

The data analysis has shown that a massive number of the future teachers use highlighting of main points or key words as learning techniques. Revision readings are their second option. Use of side titles and memorization of a part or of the whole text draw almost the same ratio of preference. A relatively large number of the questioned students admit not using any kind of strategy for the organization of their lesson, while 9% believe they know the cognitive stages of elaboration of input. It is obvious that during the acquisition of knowledge, the students settle for mechanistic methods. There is lack of organization charts, diagrams, paraphrases, questions, notes. There was no report that the type of the text is a modifying criterion in their choice. Moreover, expanding new knowledge did not seem to bother them, since they do not search for alternative uses.

When it comes to the checking of comprehension of a text, a large number of students admit not using it, something that means that they do not realize how they learn and think. 30% prefer self-questions. A big percentage, if they spot the main idea, believes that they have accomplished their goal.

The biggest part of the participants gave unclear and general answers on how they solve difficult problems. A large number of subjects believe that separating the data and the questions will lead to the solution of the problem. Most of those who go on planning and executing the solution prefer the quota method or the help of an expert, while less students the bisection of the problem as means of surpassing the difficulties. Representing the information as well as checking the result was not valued as important procedures, since they were not mentioned in any questionnaire.
Most students seem to be aware of their weaknesses, since they characterize themselves mediocre or weak solvers. But a considerable percentage over appreciate their potentials, because they put themselves in the good or very good solvers, although they had admitted not using cognitive and metacognitive strategies correctly. However, the effective approach of every cognitive object demands conscious co-ordinate mental process-planning-implementation-diffusion, if we aim at independent learning, more permanent knowledge and higher performance.

References


In Greek

The Importance of Reflective Thinking in Practice.

Introduction

The main concept of the paper is that critical reflection can disengage educators from false assumptions and expectations, stock knowledge and routine solutions in their daily practice and help them be more resourceful, flexible and effective. This process is regarded highly important for the educators’ professional development, enhances quality of learning and offers a new perspective on current educational needs and demands.

Theoretical framework

This survey is based on the theoretical framework of Critical Pedagogy and studies the nature and impact of practice that engages reflection. Critical Pedagogy aims at liberating people from the conventional ideas, assumptions and values that are conveyed through the educational process. The educational process is analyzed as highly oppressive and controlled by the dominant social and economic groups which seek to legitimize and secure their power and position by imposing an ideological domination (Brookfield, 1995; Masschelein, 2004). Educators have the option to help students learn how to doubt, oppose and, finally, break out of oppressive ways of thinking and acting that are imposed on them through conventional value frameworks, belief systems and behavioural patterns which construct the dominant structure (Brookfield, 1995).

Critical Educational Theory considers that teachers can develop the ability to engage in reflection in their practice and be in close collaboration with their students (Brookfield, 1995). On one hand, this means that teachers can learn how to detect/recognize their own unexamined assumptions that are associated with certain expectations and wrong judgements and decisions as far as teaching practices are concerned; this process can help educators reconsider old, as well as seek new teaching approaches (Brookfield, 1995; Facione, 1998). On the other hand, the teachers can focus on dismantling the power structure in their classroom and optimize the use of students’ experiences by allowing their students to recall, reconsider and discuss their past experiences in the classroom; this process may help students give a new meaning to their experiences. In the long term this may lead to students’ liberation from false consciousness and they may achieve distance from their entanglement in their sociocultural context (Brookfield, 1995).

According to Brookfield (1995), naming, analyzing and understanding experiences using dialogue among equals (teacher-student, student-student) may be a productive process in the sense that it leads to a new understanding of personal experiences and, generally, of the world we live in with the prospect of changing it. Mezirow (1990) also underlined the importance of the interpretation of experience in the learning process. Zepke & Leach (2002) wrote that social class, origin and cultural identity—that is the social framework we live in—decide the way we make sense of our experiences. More specifically, according to Mezirow (1990), our expectations, which derive from our assumptions, structure the way we make meaning of our experiences. The interpretation of our experiences leads our way of thinking, our decision making and, consequently, our
actions. Through reflection we reconsider our experiences and have the chance of making new meaning of our experiences and, thus, think and act differently.

Dewey (1933), who regarded reflection an integral part of learning, defined reflection as the active, persistent and careful consideration of any assumption or piece of knowledge by examining the grounds that support it and the conclusions it leads to. Reflection has, primarily, the sense of self-reflection—which is a way to look back into yourself- but refers to thinking in general, as well.

Later on, Mezirow (1990) wrote about critical reflection that it questions the presuppositions on which our beliefs and expectations are founded and, thus, eventually, it enables us to understand our experiences from another perspective. This new interpretation which guides our decisions and actions towards a different direction results in transformative learning. Emancipatory learning takes place within the transformative process. Emancipatory learning is the process during which educators try to transcend their false consciousness, re-orient their practice, search for alternative solutions to difficult situations and problems and act accordingly (Mezirow, 1990).

Freire (1970) worked for emancipatory education in Brazil and focused on its broader dimension, that of the social impact of learning. He believed that emancipatory learning is very important since it brings about both individual and social empowerment. According to Freire (1970), this happens through reflective engagement which contributes to people’s liberation from the dominant ideology by challenging the assumptions that justify the oppressive norms we think and live by. Freire used the term ‘conscientization’ to define the process that enables people to detect and overcome distortions of reality through self-reflection. This ‘awakening’ is not confined in an individualistic attitude, though. For Freire, conscientization is implemented by ‘praxis’, that is, by taking action to achieve social change. Heany & Horton (1990)-who have studied Freire’s work- made clear, that the process of conscientization is not meant to be limited to educational structures or be confined in school walls; it should extend into society. Most importantly, Freire (1970) explained that the vision of reconstructing social reality should be supported by realistic goals and strategies related to the social context. Finally, Freire (1970) did not fail to underpin people’s fear of questioning authority and struggling to reform society (“fear of freedom” p.31), since our need to feel safe is usually stronger than our need for freedom. Conscientization is carried out during a dialectic teaching process that takes place in the classroom, among students who share their experiences and study common problems to reach joint solutions under the light of new evidence and with the help of the teacher (Freire, 1970).

All the above have made quite lucid that the teaching/learning process that involves criticality requires certain teaching skills and strategies. Brookfield (1995) outlined the ways educators can seek to cope with reflective teaching: Firstly, self-reflection is essential to examine the way we teach by recalling our experiences not only as teachers but as students, as well. This reconsideration may explain our attachment to certain practice choices in the light of the grounds these choices were made as being acceptable, suitable and useful.26 Secondly, it is of utmost importance to give our

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26Brookfield (1995) adopts the term ‘hegemony’-which was introduced by Gramsci- in order to define the situation in which certain ideas, norms and actions are regarded by the majority of people as normal, acceptable and existing for our own good, while, in reality, they are constructed and imposed by a powerful minority of people who want to secure their interests. This ‘hegemony’, that is the dominant ideology, is highly oppressive and manipulative as it dictates the way we think and act inside and, even, outside the
students the opportunity to express their ideas and feelings especially about aspects of our teaching that cause them problems and confusion but may not catch our attention. Thirdly, critical discussions with colleagues about daily experiences and common problems may reinforce our critical stance towards routine problems which look personal and insoluble at first sight. Lastly, studying the bibliography of reflective practice may prove quite helpful.

On a more practical level, Brookfield (1995) suggests that educators should motivate students to participate more actively in the teaching process if they want to transcend superficial understanding and gain professional knowledge. A very resourceful technique is setting questions that are understandable, interesting and motivating the students to think critically and work with their classmates to come up with new questions, express their opinions or make comments and suggestions. Brookfield (1995) also gives the guidelines for students’ evaluation and teachers’ self-evaluation, in an attempt to help educators promote teaching effectiveness: Journals where students write summaries of their daily experiences are quite enlightening for both students and teachers since they reveal hidden aspects of the teaching/learning process. Open discussions that aim at the improvement of practice, especially in cases of serious problems, are also advisable. Portfolios are good tools for students to keep track on their progress and understand their weaknesses and inclinations. The students can also write letters to future students in the same course and refer to the requirements or difficulties of the course. Furthermore, the use of questionnaires about the most important incidents that took place during the learning process (e.g. when they were most engaged or most disengaged as learners, what they found most useful or confusing or surprising during the lesson) may enhance the teacher’s reflective engagement. In all cases students should be encouraged to express themselves freely and exercise their critical ability, either when they have to write or report something or when they discuss learning or other issues with their classmates. Teachers can benefit from this insight into their practice by making readjustments in their practice or the use of teaching material and their evaluation standards, in order to improve learning results.

Teachers can also benefit from keeping teaching journals and answering questionnaires that refer to daily practice. They can study the personalities of teachers they admire or write a note of advice to a future teacher in the same course. Taping the teaching process or watching another colleague while teaching are some of Brookfield’s (1995) suggestions to educators who are willing to explore more profoundly the nature and impact of their practice, reach a new understanding and be open to experimentation with new practice choices.

We could sum up the suggestions about reflective teaching mentioned above by underlining the significance of teacher-student co-operation in the classroom, which introduces a new approach to learning for both students and teachers. This approach requires, on one hand, the students’ active interest and contribution to their learning working with their classmates and, on the other hand, the teachers’ desire to improve their teaching, assuming an air of autonomy which springs from their better understanding of their students’ needs and the pitfalls of conventional practices.

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classroom. According to Mezirow (1993) ‘hegemony’ in the classroom is represented by the teacher who gets through the conventional norms which support the dominant minority and, thus, restrict students’ ideas and actions. Adopting criticality towards the presuppositions that guide our practice choices is the only way to counteract the continuous impositions of ideological domination (ideology critique).
The research

The research was carried out within the context of my thesis during my post-graduate studies in Continuing Education, in the Department of Educational and Social Policy at the University of Macedonia, in Thessaloniki, Greece. The significance of reflective engagement in practice is illustrated in daily teaching experiences at times when educators experience uncertainty, confusion or frustration in cases of problems due to ineffective practice. When educators do not seek refuge in routine solutions and do not compromise with poor learning results, they get into the adventure of exploring their experiences to find the reasons for their ineffectiveness and they are in search for other practice choices. This retrospective and introspective process involves reflection.

The purpose of this survey is to explore the nature and impact of practice that engages reflection and highlight the importance of this engagement as offering grounds for meeting students’ needs and answering educational demands as well as contributing to teachers’ professional development and possible improvement. Therefore, the two central issues under consideration in this study are: Firstly, the relation of reflective thinking to practice and teaching effectiveness. Secondly, the impact of reflective practice on the educators’ professional development and identity related to their professional and social role.

Two research journals were used in the survey. The main idea and the construction of the research journals were based on the study of Brookfield’s suggestions about students’ and teachers’ self-evaluation tools and particularly the ‘Critical Incident Questionnaire’ (1995), ‘Critical Practice Audit’ and ‘Draft Student Opinion of Teaching Form (2006).

Thirteen Greek state school teachers, eleven women and two men, from 27 to 57 years old, twelve of them teaching in Thessaloniki and one of them in Athens, took part in the survey. One of the participants is a kindergarten teacher, another one works as a Greek language teacher in secondary education and eleven participants are primary school teachers (seven of them teach all lessons except for English, P.E. and music, two of them are teachers of English, one is a P.E. teacher and another one is a music teacher).

The most important obstacle to carry out the survey was the length of time it required. Moreover, all the participants were, initially, startled and felt uncertain and nervous as soon as they realized that the survey was about them as individuals and professionals and that they had to write about their own experiences and tell their personal stories in the classroom. Each participant spent about three hours to complete the two journals: approximately 15-20’ on Research Journal 1 and about 10’ at the end of the day for a fortnight to complete Research Journal 2. The survey was conducted from March to May 2007.

In Research Journal 1 the participants completed 17 open sentences. The construction of the first journal was based on five axes: a) The participants’ perception of their professional role in relation to the principles and assumptions they teach by and what, generally, makes them proud, gives them satisfaction or frustrates them in their job, b) Enhancement of students’ critical ability in relation to the subjects and certain topics that are taught, as well as the teaching methods used by the participants, c) Ways of students’ evaluation and teachers’ self-evaluation by stating when they feel they have reached their teaching aims and how they think they could improve their practice, d) Ways of enhancement of the participants’ critical ability by examining the way they deal
with difficult situations and problems, how often and in what ways they, actually, communicate with their students, how feedback affects or changes their practice, and, finally, what is the impact of their relation to their colleagues and which of them they admire and e) In retrospect, what changes the participants have gone through as professionals, in relation to their experiences and what assumptions, expectations, practice and conduct choices have reconsidered and re-evaluated. The fifth axis draws most of the interest in Research Journal 1, since the participants come to an awareness of the knowledge they have gained and the progress they have made in their careers due to their experiences.

In Research Journal 2 the participants completed 4 open sentences for a fortnight. It is a daily report of classroom incidents elaborated by the participants’ feelings, thoughts and reactions to situations that caused them satisfaction, confusion, disappointment, anger, difficulty and surprise. The last open sentence about a new pleasant or unpleasant experience that surprised them draws most of the attention, since it underlines the unpredictability of classroom reality and leads the participants to thoughts that were either marginalized in the fuss of daily routine or had never crossed their minds before. It is an instant of awareness/consciousness that a recollection of a simple classroom event brought out. More importantly, this insight may serve as a foresight in future circumstances.

The study of the findings was based on the interpretive method which requires critical assessment of the findings by the researcher. Assessing the findings meant to pursue and explore the practice and meaning of reflective thinking in the participants’ statements, bearing in mind the main issues of the theoretical framework (critical/reflective, transformative, emancipatory learning etc). The assessment aimed at the understanding of the meaning of the findings and their interpretation, in an attempt to illustrate the importance of reflective thinking in daily practice. There are four categories of findings: teacher-student interaction, feedback, students’ evaluation and teachers’ self-evaluation, professional development.

In the first category of findings the participants felt that their continuous interaction with their students results in the growth of a relationship and feelings which play a decisive role in the teaching/learning process, since they promote mutual understanding, effective teaching and job satisfaction. The importance of the interactive process in the lesson is illustrated, primarily, in the answers to sentences:

1) The basic principles of my practice are... (In my opinion, teaching involves...)
2) What makes me really proud in my job is my ability to...
4) What I find satisfying in my job is...
11) State how you communicate with your students... (discussions related to the teaching subject/topics or current issues of everyday life, students can express their feelings about...)

In this set of sentences the participants’ answers give the overall impression that teacher-student interaction is realized through dialogue and students’ free expression of opinions and feelings about matters that refer to either the teaching subject/topic or to everyday life issues. These conversations are encouraged by the teachers and contribute to the discovery of students’ perspective, problems, needs, interests and deeper feelings. Consequently, interaction builds up a close teacher-student relationship and makes the teachers experience various feelings: concern, understanding, uncertainty, frustration, sadness, joy and satisfaction. More significantly, the next stage of this revealing process is
the participants’ intense feeling of commitment towards their students and their eagerness to satisfy their students’ educational and inner needs.

The significance of communication is put forward by two more sentences:

5) The subjects and teaching units/topics that are suitable for enhancing the students’ critical ability are...
6) The teaching methods I use to teach these subjects or teaching units/topics are...

The teachers mentioned all the subjects of the curriculum (Language, History, Geography, Religious Education, Art etc) and a variety of topics (ecological problems, travelling, TV, consumerism, accidents etc) that can promote criticality. Communicative methods, such as discussions, setting questions, making suggestions, reaching conclusions, making charts and categorizations, project work, are first on the participants’ list as promoting criticality in all disciplines. What’s more, the most popular teaching method among the participants (8 out of 13) is working in groups. They suggest it as the most effective method for motivating their students’ (even those with poor performance) to participate in the lesson. Group discussions and assignments encourage students to work together and exchange ideas to carry out a task. The participants pointed out that this method encourages working in a co-operative spirit—though this is not always easy—and results in the socialization of the students, who, eventually, become more tolerant, critical and inventive.

In the second journal it is obvious that the participants’ anxieties about covering the teaching material, helping students understand it, keeping them quiet are very important aspects of their practice. Nevertheless, the theme of communication is repeatedly brought up in teachers’ recollections of daily classroom events as highly inspiring, facilitating and contributing to both their and the students’ learning. The last set of sentences of this category refers to colleagues’ working relationship:

13) My colleagues’ opinion about common problems made me think that...
14) The colleagues I admire are...

Even though the participants mention that common problems are brought up in casual daily conversations during the breaks, partnership with peers does not seem to work. Only 3 of the participants mention the need for discussing common teaching and educational problems to find joint solutions and get decisions for necessary changes. There are still many reservations about establishing a working relationship towards this direction. Finally, from the answers to sentence 14 emerges the profile of the conventional teacher who has a good relationship with his/her students, is prepared to work hard, can maintain discipline and achieve good learning results.

Feedback is the second category of findings. Feedback refers to all the information we get (input) from the students’ behaviour and expressed feelings about how they understand and learn the material they are taught. It is a decisive factor for the course of teaching since it offers both insight and the potential for change. Three sentences refer to feedback:

3) What I find frustrating in my job is...
10) In frequent cases of students’ reluctance, refusal, excessive noise etc I...
12) The feedback I get during the lesson leads me to...

There is an obvious tendency on behalf of the participants—only one did not complete this sentence—to have second thoughts about their practice in cases of ineffective teaching, and, moreover, feel anxiety and self-doubt that trigger their criticality. Nonetheless, what the participants, actually, seek is to balance between the
autonomy their job offers (since they are responsible for the students’ learning and they know their needs better than anyone else) and the restrictions of the system as far as curriculum, stereotyped practice choices and evaluation norms are concerned. Having the incentive to offer what is best for their students, though, the participants state that they resort to reconsideration and try implementing their practice with new techniques, extra material and activities aiming at self-correction and practice improvement.

The most frequent problem associated with negative feedback—in both journals—is the problem of excessive noise. The teachers answered that lack of discipline, bad behaviour and noise usually disorganize their lesson. Seven teachers choose to discuss the problem at first and then 5 out of 13 resort to scolding and even punishment at times. Three of the participants brought up the problem of self-conduct (2 their self-conduct and 1 the students’ self-conduct), too. The teachers’ skepticism is reinforced by the fact that strictness does not pay and, what’s more, it breaks their bonds with their students. Therefore, the participants seem to prefer a mild approach to the problem but what they actually do depends on the circumstances and the teacher’s personality. 27

Evaluation, the third category of findings, refers to the impact of the quantitative assessment of knowledge and skills learned. There are three sentences that focus on the output of the teaching process:

7) I evaluate my students’ performance by...
8) I know I have achieved my goals when...
9) I could improve myself if...

Three of the participants evaluate only learned knowledge and skills as it is depicted in oral examination and written tests and assignments. Seven assess knowledge and skills along with other attributes of the students’ performance. The majority of the participants (9) believe that other aspects of students’ performance are as important as or more important than knowledge and skills. In fact, their evaluation standards are moulded by aspects such as: how much their students try in order to cope with the course, if they do their homework regularly, their active interest, good conduct, critical ability, co-operation with their classmates, the overall performance of the class etc.

As for teachers’ self-evaluation the main theme is that of meeting the students’ needs and making sure their students have learned the taught knowledge. As there are usually more than one answers to every sentence, the participants referred to other attributes of learning, as well, such as the students’ participation in the lesson, their socialization, their sensitization to certain issues, the students’ positive feelings towards learning, the progress of weak students and added that these aspects of learning are very important to them, too.

Apparently, the stereotypes of quantitative assessment prevail in this category of findings. The educational framework decides the curriculum, the practice and evaluation norms but fails to acknowledge different aspects of students’ performance, learning under certain/difficult conditions, students’ personal needs or problems. Generally, a lot of attributes of learning and teaching are ignored by the educational system. Nevertheless, it is obvious in both journals that the participants try to find ways to

27The teachers’ reactions at moments of crisis do not solely depend on classroom circumstances since interpreting an experience depends on a number of factors, such as our previous experiences, our assumptions and expectations, our views, feelings and mood, as well as our personal goals and desires (Larrivee, 2000).
enhance their effectiveness by taking under consideration other aspects/factors, too. Moreover, the participants-all but one who was to retire in a few months- expressed their eagerness to improve their teaching and there are also demands and suggestions for training courses, sample teaching sessions and constantly updating their practice.

The last category refers to professional development. The last three sentences aim at helping the participants to write down the conclusions their professional experiences led them to:

15) If I could give a piece of advice to someone who starts her/his career as a teacher, I would...
16) A mistake/Mistakes that has/have taught me a lot is/are...
17) Please write about any changes you have experienced in your assumptions about teaching or in your perception of your professional role...

The participants mentioned that knowledge is necessary in their profession but highlighted the most important attributes of a prospective teacher, e.g. to show concern, understanding, patience and respect to students, have a lot of energy and co-operative skills, be willing to make changes etc. Finally, the last two sentences are on the same theme: becoming conscious of the steps towards improvement. The participants had to probe into the past, rethink their career experiences and note down the changes in the assumptions underlying their practice and conduct and write their thoughts about the impact of these changes on their careers. In fact, the teachers transcended false awareness related to various aspects of their professional life: their practice, relations with students, parents and colleagues, self-conduct, maintaining discipline, commitment to students, readiness to make changes etc. Most importantly, the teachers answered the last two sentences not so much with regret but with content and an understanding of the importance of their role not only in their students' lives but in the social context, as well.

![Diagram of Teacher-Student Interaction and Professional Development](image)

**Figure 1**

Process of mastering professional knowledge and professional development.

To sum up, teachers' professional development and identity can be studied in relation to their teaching experiences which spring from daily teacher-student interaction and continuous feedback. The interpretation of these experiences-which is determined by a number of factors- modifies their reactions to the input of their teaching, as well as
guides their assessment of the teaching output. In cases of problems and poor learning results, the teachers experience inner conflict and confusion and they may seek a new way to cope with the situation. It is clear in the participants’ answers that the educational framework discourages and inhibits any attempt to break away from its restrictions and norms, so the option of taking the risk to disentangle from the conventional, unsuccessful choices to deal with the problem is not the easy way out. Nevertheless, when it is necessary, the participants assume a reflective stance, experiment on new practice and conduct choices and acquire professional knowledge. The reflective process has offered them a new perspective and better prospects. Reflective thinking optimizes past experiences in order to deal with present situations and builds up the knowledge that will serve as the grounds for a future similar process of change, under certain circumstances. This contributes to an everlasting developing process.

Conclusions - Suggestions

The findings of the survey have underlined the significance of reflective thinking in practice. All the participants have experienced difficult situations in their practice when stock knowledge and routine solutions did not work for them. That critical moment, under the pressure of uncertainty and confusion but also with a sense of responsibility towards their students and bearing in mind their professional role, they felt they had to respond to the challenge. Their skepticism was not restricted in an insight which just alerted them to their inadequacy. They explored, found and tested new possibilities to deal with the crisis. They, actually, transformed their way of thinking and acting. This transformative process leads directly to experimentation, this is testing the new solution or practice choice. Testing the effectiveness of different options means building up professional knowledge which is generated by the educators’ initiative. This emancipatory learning gives the educators a sense of autonomy and they perceive their professional role as of great importance not only in relation to the microcosm of the classroom but also in the macrocosm of society.

Common ground in all 13 journals is the potentiality to resort to reflective practice under certain circumstances. In order this potentiality to become capacity there is the suggestion of educational/training courses that will teach the theory and practice of the reflective approach. Different reflective journals for each discipline in combination with lectures and sample teaching sessions may be the answer to the needs/demands of the participants in the survey who want to update their practice, mainly, with practical solutions, as some of them pointed out. During the lectures the educators can explain the reflective process (theory and practice) to the students and the way they can complete journals and/or questionnaires that refer to the course. Then, a number of sample teaching sessions will be discussed and criticized by each student personally or/and in groups. This will be a guided activity, at first. Near the end of the course the students can participate in sample teaching sessions. A formative assessment (judging the performance of the group in the beginning and in the end of the course) and a descriptive personal assessment (evaluating each student’s performance in the sample teaching sessions) are recommended.

In tertiary education undergraduate and postgraduate courses with a similar content to the courses mentioned above would be advisable. A preparatory stage with discussions on current social issues and problems would be helpful. Keeping portfolios could prove very useful.
Another suggestion would be reflective journals and questionnaires as tools for teachers’ self-evaluation. Teachers’ self-evaluation would be mostly helped if it were accompanied by journals and questionnaires as tools for students’ evaluation of the lesson and their own learning.

Apart from all the difficulties the suggestions above involve, a modern and innovative approach to learning is required to answer contemporary socioeconomic demands. Generally, the reflective approach rejects the individualistic and competitive orientation of education (notion of comodification of learning) and brings in the foreground the spirit of open-mindedness and co-operation, promoting social analysis and criticism. Accordingly, reflective teaching and learning relates to skills such as skepticism, understanding, tolerance, co-operation, flexibility and active citizenship which suggest a sociocentric approach to learning and fit the socioeconomic reality. Finally, this paper supports that the reflective approach is a modus operandi that embraces all aspects of teaching and learning with the potential for pervading all aspects of life and, thus, it offers a hopeful answer to educational demands with a significant social impact.

References
Legal English Courses at Universities by Non-Lawyer Teachers. Towards the Model of Educating Legal English Teachers in Poland.

Introduction

English for Legal Purposes (ELP) classes at universities are a relatively new branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in Poland. Designing and conducting ELP courses have become everyday reality and a must for many Polish university English teachers during the last few years. Law studies have developed into one of the most popular, fashionable and prospective faculties which secondary school graduates choose with a hope for brisk, well paid and prestigious careers in the future.

Almost overnight the need for very specialist ELP courses arose. Teachers and course designers were confronted by the groups of young lawyers-to-be who wanted to attend language courses relevant to their needs, who, on the other hand, had very little knowledge of law and very often a vague idea of what they would like to do after they graduate from Law Faculty.

Employing lawyers was not a solution, as they lack the pedagogical background for teaching a second language course. Moreover, lawyers would probably be not interested in teaching due to financial reasons. As a result, teachers, course designers and university language centres’ supervisors who, on the contrary, have never had a legal education, had to deal with highly professional material and train students for TOLES (Test of Legal English Skills - exam in Legal English, highly respected by international law firms and the Law Society of England and Wales) or ILEC (International Legal English Certificate - Cambridge University test of Legal English skills exams, solve their lexical dilemmas, prepare and run ELP courses (Deutch, 2003:141).

Most university teachers were not only laymen and had (and still have) no diplomas at law, but also they had no experience in designing ELP courses. Even if they had run ESP courses before, they did not necessarily know how to design an ESP course, because most often they followed the syllabus/content of a chosen course book and did not have to bother about the procedures of the course design process which include: needs analysis, target and present situation analysis, researching learning situation, writing syllabus and materials and finally teaching and evaluating the course.

The new tasks which opened for English language teachers included issues of how to:

- design ELP courses;
- select (or develop) teaching materials;
- gain and develop the content knowledge;
- reflect on and reconsider FLT (Foreign Language Teaching) knowledge.

Since law is a specialised discipline, the knowledge of which can only be acquired by means of in-depth, lengthy studies, the most often asked questions regard the issue whether the teachers should feel intimidated by the fact they are not specialists in the field they are required to work in. Is the assumption that university English teachers can train their students in any variety of English realistic? Is it reasonable that the teachers are thrown at the deep end and left alone? Should not they be supported if the university authorities care about the level of instruction provided?
Tertiary language instruction in Poland - a brief overview

Foreign languages instruction has always been criticised in Poland for its ineffectiveness. Polish National Chamber of Control in 2005 criticised Polish primary and secondary public schools in its report entitled: “Conditions of foreign languages teaching in Polish public schools” for:

- allowing for oversized language groups;
- using syllabuses which have not been authorised for school use;
- employing unqualified teachers (linguistically and pedagogically);
- using textbooks which have not been authorised for school use;
- offering fewer teaching hours than required;
- not guaranteeing lower and upper secondary schools students the possibility of continuing learning the foreign language they were taught in primary school.

In the academic year 2007/2008 the Council of Higher Education\(^{28}\) in Poland introduced the standards of education which defined the profile of a higher school graduate who should know a foreign language at Level B2 CEFR\(^{29}\) and be able to use the specialist language typical of the discipline of his/her studies.

However, new teaching standards are very often the only changes introduced at the tertiary level of foreign language education in Poland and tertiary educators must confront various constraints; the most serious ones lying very often on the part of their students.

According to Eurydice Report published in October 2008\(^{30}\) Poland occupied the last position compared to other European Union member states in the number of clock hours of foreign languages instruction offered to pupils (456 hours).

In practice 86 per cent of secondary school graduates sit basic level of “matura”\(^{31}\) examination which in reality can be passed by pupils who know English at Level A2 CEFR.

Therefore, there are still students who enrol at universities and have not attained the required Level B1 CEFR in English and in some cases have even not exceeded the elementary or pre-intermediate level after 8 or sometimes 10 years of language instruction. These students begin learning a foreign language at university from the elementary level once again and have no chance to acquire Level B2 CEFR at the end of language course offered by their university.

In Poland tertiary education is offered by 138 public (state) universities and 325 private ones. Poland has got one of the highest scholarisation rates in Europe – almost 50%, which has increased sharply by 40% during the last twenty years. However, the question about “quality and not quantity” arises, while there is a lot of controversy about the standards of education offered by private universities. This also applies to foreign language instruction.

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\(^{28}\) The Council of Higher Education is a representative body of higher education in Poland which formulates Polish educational policy as regards higher education (www.nauka.gov.pl/mn/index.jsp?place=Menu08&news_cat_id=1410&layout=2).

\(^{29}\) The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Learning, Teaching, Assessment, abbreviated as CEFR, is a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe.


\(^{31}\) “Matura” is a secondary school final examination which students who want to continue their education at tertiary level must take. Corresponds to British A Level examinations.
Designing Legal English (LE) courses at universities

Ministry requirements and ambitions of university authorities to enhance their offer and attract more candidates have transformed English language courses at universities into ESP courses. Theoretically, they are meant to satisfy the students' needs and fit into the university's or faculty's profile. Therefore, business schools will usually offer their students Business English courses, while law schools will offer English for Legal Purposes courses.

However, students who enrol at a university are too young and inexperienced to be aware of their occupational language needs. As Strong (2003:1) points out, they come unprepared to the study of law, since it is qualitatively different from the study of other subjects. Moreover, very often they do not have a clear vision of what they would like to do in their future job, where they see themselves in 5 or 10 years’ time. Therefore, inevitably, the heaviest burden of responsibility for structuring the language courses at universities is shifted onto the shoulders of the language educators.

An ideal ESP/ELP course should be designed pursuant to the results of the needs analysis which is the key element of the ESP/ELP course design process. Identifying actual language needs of the first year students which theoretically helps design more attractive syllabuses for tertiary language classroom, in practice rarely provides any meaningful information. Most of the students have never attended any ESP/ELP courses before. They may be aware of what they do not know and what their weaknesses are, what activities they like participating in or what they dislike learning. They may be conscious of some effective learning strategies which they adopt when learning the language, but most of them will not be able to formulate what their specific linguistic needs are.

Therefore, a needs’ analysis conducted at the beginning of a language course at university should concentrate on the present and the learning needs of the learners. It should be designed to help the course designers gather some information about the learners themselves: their likes and dislikes, learning strategies, general English lacks and wishes, learning motivators and demotivators. This kind of analysis will concentrate on identifying the factors which will affect the learning process and what learners will need in order to learn the language.

Another very important piece of information that should form the basis of the ESP course syllabus is the overall studies curriculum which the students participating in an English course will follow. A teacher or a group of teachers responsible for the course design are advised to consult the university authorities for the details of curricula of the study programmes which students in the language groups in question will pursue. Such information can be easily obtained from the dean's office or even more easily form the university website where studies curricula are uploaded.

Combining the content of the foreign language course with the content the students will study during classes and lectures in other subjects, is vital. Students will be able to base on the knowledge they acquired earlier during the course of their studies and it will help avoid the situations when students hear about some business or legal concepts first time during their English classes. It will help teachers feel less intimidated, as they can rely on their students and their knowledge and treat them as experts who can explain the intricacies of some specialist terms. The teachers will fulfil the role of foreign language experts, while the students will use this language to deal with the doubts concerning the subject matter.
The above element of the course design process is especially important in the case of English for Legal Purposes (ELP) courses. Offering the students a strictly ELP course from the very beginning seems problematic. Secondary school graduates who start studying law usually have a very vague idea of legal concepts. It would be extremely difficult to talk with them in a foreign language about legal systems, the nature of law or the sources of law when they have not gone through these topics in their native language yet. The situation may change dramatically for the better after the first few months of their Roman Law course which will always be offered at the beginning of the law studies.

Therefore, it is advisable for the teachers to spend the first semester of ELP course at university discussing general business topics related to law, e.g. employment, types of business organisations, ethics or finance before burying themselves and the students in Legal English.

Another important aspect of the language which needs developing at an early stage of ELP course are communication skills, i.e. interpersonal skills, conversation, discussion, presentation, negotiation, persuasion or summarising which every student will need in their professional careers after graduation. Northcott (2008:28) advises that the common core of any ESP course can always constitute elements of EAP (study skills), as they are used consistently across disciplines. Later, along the course, the teachers should consult the studies curriculum as it will be much easier to cover the language of company law after the students earned the credits for this subject in their native language. Therefore, course designers must always keep in their minds that ESP/ELP courses at university cannot function in isolation from the curricula of other subjects the students learn.

The most appropriate type of needs analysis for classic ESP courses is a target needs analysis which concentrates on defining the skills that the learners should obtain by the end of the course. In order to identify these skills the future situation in which the foreign language will be used should be researched. However, in the case of ELP courses the situation may be much more difficult, as law firms and lawyers in general are not very keen on participating in any research. The lawyer’s environment is very hermetic and very difficult to engage in any scientific projects.

Therefore, in such cases course designers can rely on ELP teachers experience and knowledge. Experienced language teachers who have taught different groups of learners in different institutions will probably constitute the best source of knowledge on how to structure ESP courses. A few years of teaching ESP courses can give English teachers confidence that what they teach is what their students need. Most ESP teachers in Poland are laymen, so the content they teach is also new for them at the beginning. They must study business or law textbooks gaining the knowledge of the subject matter which they teach, but which they have never been trained at before. A several years of experience in teaching ESP courses may guarantee that the teachers will become successful course designers who will understand the needs of the new generations of students better than they do themselves.

The biggest dilemma of ELP courses at universities is the content to teach, since most of the teachers are laymen who have not been trained at law and have got a limited knowledge of the subject matter. Course designers argue whether it is reasonable to aim at developing students’ knowledge of law and lean towards extending their linguistic and communicative competence, language functions and then professional vocabulary. No lawyer will able to function successfully in an international environment if his/her
linguistic competence is below Level B2/C1 CEFR. On the other hand, any university graduate whose linguistic competence exceeds Level B2 CEFR will easily and quickly grasp legal English on the job. However, being thrown at the deep end is not what university graduates expect from ELP courses they attend during their studies. Therefore, course designers and teachers must identify the lawyers'-to-be language requirements. Moreover, the observation shows that students’ motivation to learn rises sharply the moment they start learning aspects of Legal English. Therefore, as it has been postulated earlier, ELP courses at universities should be synchronised with curricula of other subjects and should evolve into Legal English course as soon as the students gain some knowledge of law at lectures and classes in their native language.

Selecting and structuring teaching materials

At the time when ‘Legal English’ tertiary courses started to be taught in Poland, there were no appropriate ‘Legal English’ handbooks on Polish market. Some teachers had to begin specialising in ‘Legal English’, some teachers became the authors of Legal English course books.

Two English teachers from Leon Koźmiński University wrote a Legal English textbook “Key Legal Words” (2004) - one of the first LE textbooks on Polish market. Obviously, they could not avoid mistakes but they saved the lives of other teachers for a while. This book became “the Bible” for many teachers preparing LE classes.

Producing in-house materials is very time consuming. According to Pilbeam the proportion of writing time to teaching time fluctuates between 10:1 and 5:1. Moreover, there is no guarantee that a good language teacher will become a good author. Some teaching establishments decide to publish in-house materials and especially course books, as these will enhance the institution’s prestige.

Since 2004 the situation on the Polish market has changed significantly for the better. Now, several course books are available which allows for running ELP classes at universities from as low as A2 level and preparing students to sit international certificate examinations testing Legal English skills.

However, as there is no ideal course book, there are still new challenges arising for Legal English teachers. The striking weakness of the available Legal English course books is the lack of communicative tasks. Therefore, it is the teachers’ job to produce their own communication tasks or modify those offered by the textbooks.

Some tasks offered by the course books will be too complicated for pre‐experienced learners. They will need slowing down the pace of the task, breaking it into smaller and easier components, rehearsing, modelling and practising the delivery. Therefore, a very important phase of communicative activities will be the pre‐task phase when learners must be familiarised with the language forms and content. At this stage they will need feedback on comprehension and perhaps revision.

Learners will have to be taught lexicalisation strategies, i.e. how to put the meaning into words; however, in Legal English there is no much room for improvisation. Therefore, during ELP classes revision is crucial. Legal English learners memorise loads of new vocabulary, so they must recycle it regularly.

In ELP environment Legal English teachers, apart from providing input, interaction opportunities and feedback, must facilitate and catalyse the process of learning. They should take due care and facilitate the perception of communicative material through enhanced clarity of presentation. Teachers must aim at attracting students’ attention
through the guidance along the task, breaking the complex ones into subtasks, specific instructions, repetition of some tasks and unrestricted time on some tasks. Finally, they must aim at facilitating memory processes through regular revision and recycling of the lexis.

The new demands and a new teaching situation have coerced teachers into adopting numerous teacher roles which include:

- course planner and designer;
- teaching materials designer/author/adapter;
- task creator/editor (providing the task input, including lexis, grammar, culture information);
- task guide/instructor;
- participant (serving as a model for students);
- monitor/controller;
- linguistic feedback provider;
- motivator;
- skills/material consolidator (providing practice and revision opportunities);
- natural interaction facilitator;
- “law student” (as a layman must acquire the knowledge of law, e.g. from the students);

**Constant development**

As it has been stressed above most university LE teachers were laymen with no legal education. Even though they had the practical knowledge of course design procedures, the biggest problem was the content to teach. For most teachers Legal English was a great unknown. Suddenly experienced teachers found themselves in a situation in which they had to teach a variety of English they had never been trained at. They had to explain the intricacies of the Polish legal system based on Roman law tradition using common law terminology. The situation was psychologically difficult and some teachers decided they did not want to lose their face, self-confidence and perhaps good reputation in front of their students. Some experienced teachers were not keen on the idea of retraining and teaching something absolutely new which required studying a new discipline. This seemed risky and threatening, so it was safer to stay fixed and unmoving.

Their worries were quite unjustified, because as a Polish applied linguist professor Maria Wysocka notices (2003:1) *the teacher’s professional competence starts developing the moment the teacher makes the decision about embarking on a teaching career and finishes the moment the decision about abandoning the teaching career is taken.* Despite the fact that the situation was new and challenging, some teachers faced the new demands, even though sometimes they found themselves in the situations when they had to admit to their students that they did not know the answer to their question.

With the decision about launching Legal English teacher’s career, even experienced teachers once again had to approach their work as “freshmen” and start working out their own “know-how” along with acquiring the content knowledge of law. It was a chance for them to specialise in a relatively niche variety of English. Such situation should be approached with openness and readiness to change and to take risks. It is an
occasion to stop and examine one’s actions, intentions, moves and attitudes towards teaching.

**Learning about teaching**

Popularisation of tertiary Legal English courses created new opportunities for the professional development of English teachers. They found themselves in a situation in which they not only taught but also learnt (about teaching and law). It was not just a situation reminding the times when they were on initial trainings course while they were “green” college or university students. It was a situation which reminded the teachers, also the experienced ones that they should develop throughout their teaching career and never let themselves “set in the concrete” (Scrivener, 2005:370).

This situation taught the teachers that one can never be too certain about his/her professional situation, and must remain open to the possibility of change or being wrong. Therefore, at any stage of professional development teachers must be open to new developments and knowledge; they should keep asking questions, exchanging ideas with other teachers, changing their opinions, collecting practical ideas and techniques. These activities can be very inspiring and can encourage a more exploratory way of working. As, the more you know, the more you want to discover.

Scrivener (2005:376) proposes a model for teaching and learning. Apart from the traditional stage of preparation and performance, the author recommends involving feedback from others and teachers themselves, recalling what happened during the class, reflecting on it, drawing conclusions and improving by trying new options next time. In this way teachers can gain new experience and develop throughout their teaching careers.

![Figure 1](image)

*A model for teaching and learning (Scrivener, 2005:376)*

In order to take responsibility for the professional development teachers can use three sources of information (Komorowska, 2005:254):

- **their knowledge and expertise** they have gained teaching other ESP courses, observing their colleagues, reading specialist state-of-the-art literature;
- **feedback** from the external sources of information:
- **students**: which can be carried out in a form of short mini-questionnaires after classes during which new activities were practised; students mark “True/False” statements such as: *I like working in groups; I like role-plays/acting out scenes/simulations; learning grammar is easy; I have been active today,* etc.;
• professionals (e.g. colleagues, ELT consultants, supervisors whom we trust): which can be obtained from the class inspection the teacher asks for or gets on a regular basis as a school requirement;
• auto observation: teachers should learn to observe themselves and self-assess their classes after running them and discover their weak points; they can do it with the help of:
• a questionnaire (with some questions like: what are you proud of, what were the main challenges for the students, at what time you felt uncomfortable, etc.);
• self-assessment, i.e. reflecting on the things which happened during the class (hot feedback – immediately after the class and cold feedback – some time later);
• action research, i.e. choosing a general area the teacher wants to work on, experiment or improve; doing background reading and research on the topic; putting into practice and finally analysing and reflecting on the outcomes.

Learning the content
It is obvious that there is a clear need for Legal English teachers to have some subject specific knowledge (Northcott, 2008:41). Unfortunately, Polish teachers rarely can count on the university authorities to offer them regular help at retraining or expanding their knowledge of law. The ideal situation might include:
• participation in trainings/seminars on various aspects of Legal English run by practising lawyers;
• enrolling at Law School, or at least attending lectures for law students;
• enrolling at or participating in some lectures at postgraduate programmes in law;
• attending PhD seminars for law students;
• having access to a well-equipped library;
• organising trainings on Legal English examinations procedures.

In reality teachers must search for such opportunities themselves and take advantage of them which sometimes cannot be possible due to time or financial constraints. As Northcott (2008:40) suggests, how much the ELP teacher needs to engage directly with legal subject matter will be affected by the learners’ level of legal knowledge and also by what other exposure learners have to legal output.

However, there are many other possibilities for individual development which include:
- reading about law;
- writing about law;
- writing their own teaching materials;
- attending a conference or seminar;
- going to a conference or seminar and giving a talk;
- finding some in-service teacher trainings;
- applying for EU funding to cover the expenses of teacher training;
- applying for ERASMUS or COMENIUS grants;
- writing a PhD thesis;
- writing a course book;
- running in-company English courses with practitioners;
- talking to professionals: friends-lawyers, relatives-lawyers, lawyers working at your university;
- giving private classes; e.g. to a friend who is a lawyer;
- starting an educational blog or your website;
- creating teaching materials bank;
- talking with other teachers;
- observing your colleagues’ classes;
- exchanging teaching materials with other teachers;
- running a seminar for your colleagues;
- starting teacher development group (you will discover that your colleagues have similar worries and questions);
- starting Special Interest Group for students or teachers;
- networking (e.g. IATEFL, EULETA).

Conclusions and recommendations

Each teaching situation in the case of ELP courses is different. What subject specific knowledge is needed depends on the specific context of the learners. Therefore, each time teachers must work out their own teaching method (know-how) taking into consideration various variables:
- learners’ age and experience;
- mental stage of learners’ cognitive equipment;
- learners’ language proficiency;
- group size;
- learners’ needs in terms of the content, future roles, etc.;
- skills to learn.

In ELP courses working out the teaching method corresponds to adjusting the learning process to the specific parameters and needs of language learners in the specific educational setting. The teachers must be prepared to be open to change and new challenges. They can be trained in special/occupational purposes course design procedures and prepared how to approach changing conditions during their teaching career. It is vital that the teachers stay willing to confront the changing needs of the market and language learners. In the new situation the language teachers should be ready to gain new content knowledge, master new techniques and test new methods which will lead them towards working out their own teaching “know-how” and best practice. This can help the teachers enhance their position on the teaching market and help them stand out from the still growing group of ESP/ELP teachers.

Waiting for the help from the teaching institution will probably not be the best strategy and a vain hope. It is the teachers’ job to show their initiative to develop and to gain new skills. Those teachers who are not afraid of challenges and changes will get a chance to specialise and to build their position on the market. It can be argued that the teaching establishments should support their teaching staff and invest in their training, as it will increase the competitiveness of the institutions. Unfortunately, there is also a very strong competition among the teachers. Therefore, the teachers should show their initiative and resourcefulness and look for the new opportunities of self-education in order to strengthen their skills and convince the teaching establishment’s authorities to participate in the process.

References


A study on trainees’ attitudes in Second Chance Schools in Greece, regarding the effectiveness of the teaching method “Project Method” used by teachers-tutors.

Introduction

As project method we mean an act which is specified in time, place and theme, and is carefully designed and directed upon concrete objectives. The project Method is an open process of learning whose limits and procedures are not strictly defined, while at the same time it evolves, occasionally, depending on the situation, the particular desires and interests of participants (Frey, 1986; Krivas, 2007).

The starting point of the project method must be searched in pragmatism, the philosophical movement that appears in the middle of the previous century, and gives precedence to action and the practical use of knowledge in everyday life (Frey, 1986:31). J. Dewey (1934) and W. Kilpatrick (1918) are considered the main representatives of pragmatism, and represent the "progressive movement" in education. Similar, perceptions to those of American pragmatists expressed in the "School of Labour" were also presented in Germany by G. Gaudig and H. Kerschensteiner, who are seen as key representatives of pedagogical reform (Krivas, 2007).

According to Chrysafidis (1994), the following pedagogical assumptions expressed by many educational reformers are considered the foundation upon which the application of the project method is based:
• Development of manual labour as a counterweight to memorizing and verbalism.
• Strengthening the active participation of trainees in the learning process.
• Use of facts relating to the immediate reality as a starting point for learning.

The use of the method is associated with the internal reform of the educational process, whose elements are the following: a) school opening towards the local community, b) equal learning opportunities for all students regardless of their demographic characteristics, c) use of direct space as a starting point for learning, d) a systematic study and approach of their daily problems at school, e) interdisciplinary approach to knowledge (Papagiannopoulos, Simon & Frangoulis, 2000; Vrettos & Kapsalis, 1997).

Within the framework of the point of view mentioned above, the trainer's role is not central, but it is instructive - advisory, with interventions only when trainees request it. In the project method the centre of the learning process is shifted from the trainer to the trainees from individual work to team work.

The project as a method of experiential learning, apart from the field of formal education, is used in recent years in the field of adult education (Frangoulis & Mega, 2009; Kotti, 2008; Lemonidis, 2003). In SCS, it is used as the primary training method for adult learners. Trainees are exposed to new experiences and are then asked to reflect on these,
using previous experiences, the principles of adult education and the principles of experiential learning (Brookfield, 1995; Kotti, 2008; Mantzanaris, 2007). The project method is used in Continuing Vocational Training for adults and is implemented by the Centres of Vocational Training, as its use combines the creative use of theoretical and practical knowledge gained by learners during the process of attending the program. In the field of in-house education and training, the method is applied to trainees who during their training are invited to produce a co-operative work, which is a product of their theoretical and practical training (Fragoulis, Valkanos & Florou, 2008).

**Developmental stages of project method**

According to Krivas (1999), the developmental stages of the method are: a) reflection, b) planning of teaching activities, c) conducting the activity, d) evaluation. Each one of these stages is analysed in separate phases.

**Stage A - Reflection**

This stage includes the selection, awareness and investigation of the subject. It aims at creating a climate of reflection and research, which will lead smoothly to the research process. The choice of the subject is made after a dialogue among all members of the working group is conducted. The initial stimulus may be revealed through an object of the curriculum or after a discussion on a local or wider topic, or after reading a newspaper or magazine article, which the trainer or the trainees brought to class (Brinia, 2006:79). The trainer at this stage causes stimuli, participates equally in the exchange of views and, when requested, assists learners to reach their choice. Having selected a specific topic, the trainer is responsible for the learners’ wider awareness on this issue. For this awareness he or she may use written material (articles, brochures, books, posters, cards, photos, etc.), as well as audiovisual material (slides, videotapes, audio cassettes, etc.). The trainer aims at creating questions of interest to all members of the group through an effective dialogue. The better the awareness process is organized and implemented, the more efficient the investigation will be (Helm & Katz, 2002:140).

The topic investigation can be realised in many ways. One of the most common ways is the use of a collaborative technique, called brainstorming. According to this technique, all members of the group freely express any word, phrase or topic which comes to their mind about the chosen subject. All trainees’ opinions are written, without any comment or assessment. When this process is over, all ideas are logically classified and a discussion of each category follows. In this discussion, trainees express their knowledge and experience, decide which categories interest them most and how they would like to investigate them (Reece & Walker, 1997).

**Stage B - Developing teaching activities**

In the project method trainer and trainees make an effort so that the trainees’ proposals are converted into teaching practice (Chrysafidis, 2005:94). At this stage it is decided what the members of each group will do (individually, or separately into smaller groups), which methodology will be used, what activities will be pursued, which places will be visited, which experts will be contacted, etc. The more detailed and well organized the activity planning is, the easier and faster the investigation will be. As in the previous stage, the role of the trainer is crucial. He or she will find, perhaps, something relevant to
the topic, will help, make references, will support and encourage trainees in their effort to approach the topic (Petty, 1993:209-210).

**Stage C-Conducting the activity**

At this stage the working group acquires an understanding of the planned activities. Trainees are invited to apply in practice what they have planned, to bring in groups and in class the material found, to process and classify it and assess the value of knowledge gained while dealing with this topic (Brinia, 2005: 30-32). Trainees work individually, in small groups or in some cases all together, depending on how they planned the learning process. The trainer works closely with them to answer any questions, to encourage and to help them overcome problems that would lead to the loss of interest and frustration. The phase of gathering information, besides being particularly important in the overall development of the project, it is also quite necessary. It is useful during this phase to have, whenever necessary, breaks of feedback and information. During information breaks, team members interrupt their activities, for a short or a longer period, and they are all gathered together to be informed about the development of their research and to exchange their opinions on future activities. In these breaks, the smaller groups present in written or oral form the material collected so far, listen to the comments of other groups and decide on the continuation of the research undertaken (Illeris, 2004:193).

During intervals several issues are discussed such as: a) good or bad cooperation among team members, b) solving of interpersonal problems, c) possible changes in the composition of the groups. One of the method’s aims is to teach trainees to cooperate, communicate and work in groups. During the phase of gathering information, we often meet the trainees’ need to express themselves in more imaginative ways. The trainer’s knowledge and inventiveness can help immensely. Dramatization or role-play, individual or group paintings, creating drawings, cartoons, posters, writing of literary texts, music composition, photos, and constructions are just some of the ideas that can be carried out. The most important thing here is not the result, which is usually very valuable, but the expression process in many different ways, communication, creativity, etc. (Krivas, 1999:157-158).

After completing the process of collecting information, the phase of synthesis and processing follows by the different groups. The recorded information is announced to everybody and discussed, compared and evaluated. The most important elements are recorded, completed, and all these together with the original material of awareness and the other material collected or created by the groups during information gathering, is an excellent guide to the evolution of the program. This material can be exhibited in a specially designed area of the school or community and it becomes food for the thought and a motivational factor to other trainees, teachers and members of the local society. In this way, the project exceeds the four walls of the classrooms and becomes a way of socially assisting and linking school with society and life (Illeris, 2004:193).

**Stage D-Evaluation**

In the project method, evaluation is a shared assessment of the work, and a discussion on whether the original objectives have been achieved or not, how the whole process went and what the results were (both positive and negative ones) (Brinia, 2006:82) among all members of the working group is conducted. Evaluation is also a
matter of assessing the individual and the collective experience, conducting an identification of errors and problems, as well as, reminding participants of the rich knowledge gained and the experiential material that was used. Such an evaluation presupposes both an evaluation of the “other”, as well as, a self-evaluation, and is considered positive rather than negative and aims at improving and promoting work and cooperation among the participants. According to Frey (1996), the quality of the activities and the collective effort are of particular pedagogical value, as it determines the success of a program, even if the final result is not considered successful. Finally, in the evaluation of the project, we are mainly interested in whether the knowledge and experience gained and the skills developed form new values and attitudes that change any possible previous negative attitudes of trainees and trainers. These changes are the essence of real learning (Mezirow, 2007).

Methodology

Sample

The sample of the present research was gathered from 248 trainees in SCS in Greece. From the total number of participants in this study, 102 (41.1%) were men and 146 (58.9%) were women. 32 (12.9%) of them were 18-27 years old, 54 (21.8%) were 28-37 years old, 64 (25.8%) were 38-47 years old and 98 (39%) were 48-57 years old. 86 individuals (34.7%) were single, 113 (45.6%) were married, while 49 (19.8%) were divorced or widows/widowers. 200 (80.6%) of the participants lived in an urban region, 16 (6.5%) in a semi-urban region and 32 (12.9%) in a rural region. 87 people (35.1%) were unemployed, 80 (32.3%) were self-employed, 48 (19.4%) were occupied in the public sector and 33 (13.3%) were occupied in the private sector.

In order to conduct a better data analysis we grouped the variable concerning the trainees’ professional situation into two categories: unemployed trainees and working trainees. The unemployed trainees were 87 (35.1%) while employed trainees were 161 (64.9%). Finally, 119 individuals (48%) had a monthly income of up to €1,000, 65 (26.2%) from €1,001 to €2,000 and 64 (25.8 %) from €2,001 to €3,000.

Data collection

For this research a questionnaire was designed on the basis of the use of the project method in the SCS. The questionnaire consists of two parts: The first part of the questionnaire includes the trainees’ demographic characteristics, such as sex, age, marital status, place of residence, occupation and monthly income. The first part consists of 41 questions distributed in five sections:

a) Instructional planning: It includes nine questions that refer to the aims and objectives of the educational process, as well as, to the connection of theory and teaching practice. The questions are of the following type: “Does the use of the project method contribute to the harmonisation of training intervention objectives with your personal needs?” and “Does the use of the project method contribute to the su1Table 1nterconnection between theoretical and practical knowledge?”

b) Utilisation of experiential participative techniques: It includes four questions that refer to the use of experiential and participative techniques in the teaching practice. The questions are of the following type: “Does the use of the project method contribute to the choice of mainly experiential participative techniques?” and “Does the use of the project
method contribute to the use of experiential participative techniques suitable to your personal characteristics?”,

c) *Utilisation of adult learning principles*: It includes ten questions that refer to the use of the principles of adult education in the teaching practice. The questions are of the following type: “Does the use of the project method contribute to the creative exploitation of the circle of learning (I act, I observe, I think - I revise)?” and “Does the use of the project method contribute to the encouragement of your active participation in the training process?”,

d) *Utilisation of suitable educational materials and a supervisory means of teaching*: It includes six questions that refer to the use of educational materials and a supervisory means in the teaching practice. The questions are of the following type: “Does the use of the project method contribute to the use of educational materials suitable to the content of the study?” and “Does the use of the project method contribute to the use of suitable supervisory means of teaching?” and,

e) *Utilisation of suitable evaluation processes*: which consisted of six questions that referred to the evaluation of educational practices and trainees’ self-assessment. The questions are of the following type: “Does the use of the project method contribute to the growth of your self-assessment process?” and “Does the use of the project method contribute to the critical reflection and the recognition of errors?”

Finally a five-point Likert scale (1= Too much, 5= By no means- not at all) was used to measure the trainees’ perceptions.

**The Results**

The instrument was analysed for its psychometric features, taking into consideration the distribution of single items and combined scores. The variables were factor analyzed, by employing the Principal Components Method for factor extraction and by rotating the factors in an orthogonal fashion. The eigenvalues and a diagram of factors were used for the determination of the number of factors with factor loadings which are bigger than 0.40. Before conducting each factor analysis, the theoretical and practical conditions that were required for the application of factor analysis were investigated and the sufficiency of data was confirmed. The review of distributions of variables showed that the answers had a satisfactory variance, while the size of the sample ([N]=248) is considered sufficient for factor analysis.

As far as the internal consistency of factors was concerned the indicator Cronbach's alpha, concerning the factors which consist of at least three elements, was calculated. The indicator refers to the analytic presentation of each factor.

By using the factor analysis for the questions and based on the eigenvalues that ought to be bigger than 1 as well as on the diagram of factors, a solution of five factors was adopted. The five factors totally explain the 87.62% of the whole variance.

More specifically, the following factors appear in the analysis: a) *teaching methods and evaluation*, b) *participative techniques and audiovisual aids*, c) *learning and objectives*, d) *communication* and e) *learning environment*.

The first factor, *teaching methods and evaluation*, interprets 22.151% of the total variance. It includes 8 questions which were of the following type: “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the revision of ineffective methods and practices?” and “Does the utilisation of the Project Method contribute to the development of self-assessment processes?”. The mean was 2.02 and the standard deviation 0.85.
internal consistency index Cronbach's alpha was 0.969.

The second factor, *participative techniques and audiovisual aids*, interprets 19.962% of the total variance. It includes 10 questions of the following type: “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the use of experiential participative techniques suitable to the learning content?” and “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the use of suitable supervisory means of teaching?”. The mean was 2.41 and the standard deviation 0.69. The internal consistency index Cronbach's alpha was 0.953.

The third factor, *learning and objectives*, is interpreted as 19.889% of the total variance. It includes 4 questions of the following type: “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the achievement that the training intervention aims at?” and “Does the utilisation of the Project Method contribute to the heuristics route to learning?”. The mean was 2.10 and the standard deviation 0.82. The internal consistency index Cronbach's alpha was 0.96.

The fourth factor, *communication*, interprets the 16.050% of the total variance. It includes 3 questions of the following type: “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the development of equal relations of communication among your classmates?” and “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to equal behaviour towards all trainees no matter what their demographic characteristics are?”. The mean was 1.90 and the standard deviation 0.89. The internal consistency index Cronbach's alpha was 0.946.

The fifth factor, *learning environment*, interprets the 9.615% of the total variance. It includes 3 questions of the following type: “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the creation of a suitable training contract?” and “Does the utilisation of the project method contribute to the harmonisation of the objectives of the training intervention with your personal needs?”. The mean was 2.31 and the standard deviation 0.79. The internal consistency index Cronbach's alpha was 0.872.

The factor means show a more general but positive opinion of the trainees in SCS concerning the usefulness of the project Method. More specifically, they seem to believe that the project method improves to a great extent at a communication level between the members of a school community, as well as, at an instructional level during the educational process. They also tend to believe that the project method contributes from a considerably high to a very high degree of learning as it fulfils all training objectives, creates a suitable training climate, and develops participative techniques among participants for the use of audiovisual aids.

The use of the t-test showed the differences between the two individual groups (men - women) (Table 1). With the aforementioned t-test analysis, a statistically significant effect of the variable “sex” was found on the following factors: “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” (t = -2.069, p = 0.00 < 0.05) and «Learning environment» (t = -5.373, p = 0.00 < 0.05). Male trainees believe less that the use of the project method contributes positively to the use of participative teaching methods and the appropriate audiovisual teaching techniques, as well as, to the development of an appropriate learning environment, than women do.
The effect of age is statistically significant where the following factors of the questionnaire are concerned: «Methods and evaluation» (F2, 245 = 43.086, p < 0.05), “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” (F2, 245 = 34.681, p < 0.05), “Learning and objectives” (F2, 245 = 32.998, p < 0.05), “Communication” (F2, 245 = 108.407, p < 0.05) and “Learning environment” (F2, 245 = 15.480, p < 0.05). Using Scheffé’s method of multiple comparisons it was found that:

a) trainees from 18 to 27 years of age and from 48 to 57 years of age believe (more than other age groups) that the utilisation of the project method contributes to the use of experiential participative techniques, as well as, to the improvement of the methodology and evaluation of teaching practices. It also contributes to the use of participative techniques and appropriate audiovisual aids, to the effective approach of learning and the fulfilment of teaching objectives, to the communication among the members of the educational community and to the development of an appropriate learning environment.

b) trainees from 18 to 27 years of age and from 48 to 57 years of age do not appear to vary in their views on the project method, apart from matters relating to communication and the learning environment in which older age groups (48-57 year of age) feel that the project method contributes less to the above than the younger age group (18-27 years of age).

c) People between 28-37 years of age are less persuaded than other groups that the project method helps in communication (Table 2).
The effect of the variable concerning marital status is statistically significant as far as the following factors of the questionnaire are concerned: “Methods and evaluation” (F, 245 = 17.877, p < 0.05), “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” (F, 245 = 15.747, p < 0.05) “Learning and objectives” (F, 245 = 67.226, p < 0.05), “Communication” (F, 245 = 54.645, p < 0.05) and the “Learning environment” (F, 245 = 4.145, p < 0.05) using Scheffé’s method of multiple comparisons it was found that:

a) single trainees believe less, that the project method contributes to the improvement of the educational methodology and evaluation of teaching practices in the effective approach to learning, in the achievement of the training objectives and in communication among the members of the educational community, than groups of married trainees and divorced or widowed trainees,
b) married trainees seem to believe less, in the positive effect of the project method and in the use of participative methods and audiovisual aids, as well as, in the effective approach to learning and teaching, in the achievement of the training objectives, as well as, the communication with the other members of the educational community, than the divorced or widowed trainees and,
c) single trainees are less confident than their divorced or widowed classmates that the project method helps in the use of participative methods and audiovisual aids and in the learning environment. As far as the last one is concerned, there is also a differentiation with married trainees (Table 3).

Table 3. Means, Std. Deviation and F-test by “Marital Status” of trainees for the factors of the questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>F (2.245)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methods and Evaluation</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2.5399</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td>17.877*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1.8320</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/widow</td>
<td>1.5417</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative techniques and audiovisual aids</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2.4419</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td>15.747*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2.5717</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/widow</td>
<td>1.9449</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and objectives</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2.6279</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td>67.226*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistical significance < 0.05
The effect of the variable “Residence” is statistically significant. As far as the following factors of the questionnaire are concerned: “Methods and evaluation” (F2, 245 = 5.259, p < 0.05), “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” (F2, 245 = 31.101, p < 0.05) “Learning and objectives” (F2, 245 = 4.665, p < 0.05), and the “Learning environment” (F2, 245 = 51.214, p < 0.05). Using Scheffé’s method of multiple comparisons it was found that:

a) trainees who live in urban areas believe less, that the project method contributes positively to the methodology and evaluation of their teaching practice, or in the use of participative techniques and appropriate audiovisual aids, or to an effective learning approach, as well as, the creation of an appropriate learning environment, than trainees who live in rural areas,

b) trainees who live in semi-urban regions seem to believe less, that the utilisation of the project method contributes effectively to the improvement of the methodology and evaluation of teaching practices, as well as, to the positive impact of the method on the use of participative techniques and appropriate audiovisual aids, than trainees who live in agricultural areas and,

c) trainees who are residents of urban areas compared to trainees who are residents of semi-urban regions are less convinced that the project method helps in using participative techniques and appropriate audiovisual aids, as well as, in the improvement of the learning environment (Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>F (2.245)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/widow</td>
<td>1.2602</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>24.645*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2.2558</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1.9115</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/widow</td>
<td>1.2313</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning environment</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2.5039</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>4.145*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2.1947</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/widow</td>
<td>2.2381</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistical significance < 0.05

Table 4. Means, Std. Deviation and F-test by “Residence” of trainees for the factors of the questionnaire.
Using a t-test which shows differentiations between the unemployed and employed people, it was found that there is a statistically significant effect of the variable «sex» to the factors: “Methods and evaluation” ($t_{246} = 3.959$, $p = 0.40 < 0.05$) and “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” ($t_{246} = -2.842$, $p = 0.40 < 0.05$). The unemployed trainees believe less, that the utilisation of the project method contributes positively to the improvement of their teaching methodology, as well as, the evaluation of teaching practices, and participative techniques appropriate for audiovisual aids, than the participants who are employed.

Table 5. T-test means and standard deviation by trainees’ work situation for the factors of the questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>Work situation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t (246)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methods and Evaluation</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.959*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative techniques and audiovisual aids</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>2.842*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and objectives</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>-0.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>-1.588</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The effect of the variable «Income» is statistically significant. as far as the following factors of the questionnaire are concerned: “Methods and evaluation” ($F_{2,245} = 5.242$, $p < 0.05$), “Participative techniques and audiovisual aids” ($F_{2,245} = 28.393$, $p < 0.05$) “Learning and objectives” ($F_{2,245} = 5.308$, $p < 0.05$), and “Learning environment” ($F_{2,245} = 5.954$, $p < 0.05$). Using Scheffé’s method of multiple comparisons it was found that:

a) trainees who have a monthly income of up to €1,000 believe less that the project method contributed positively to the improvement of their methodology and the evaluation of their teaching practices, or to the use of participative techniques and appropriate audiovisual aims, as well as, to the effective approach in learning and teaching performance objectives, than trainees who were paid €1,001-2,000,

b) trainees who have a monthly income of €1,001-2,000 seem to believe less in the positive impact of the project method, to the use of participative methods and
audiovisual aims, as well as, to the improvement of the learning environment, than trainees who have an income of more than €2,000 (Table 6).

Table 6. Means, Std. Deviation and F-test by “Income” of trainees for the factors of the questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>F (2.245)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methods and Evaluation</td>
<td>Up to 1000€</td>
<td>2.2316</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,001 – 2,000€</td>
<td>1.6875</td>
<td>0.673</td>
<td>5.242*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,001 – 3,000€</td>
<td>1.9338</td>
<td>1.173</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative techniques and</td>
<td>Up to 1,000€</td>
<td>2.6605</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td>28.393*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiovisual aids</td>
<td>1,001 – 2,000€</td>
<td>2.4015</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,001 – 3,000€</td>
<td>1.9250</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and objectives</td>
<td>Up to 1,000€</td>
<td>2.2185</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>5.308*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,001 – 2,000€</td>
<td>1.8115</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,001 – 3,000€</td>
<td>2.0625</td>
<td>1.159</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Up to 1,000€</td>
<td>1.9664</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>3.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,001 – 2,000€</td>
<td>1.6667</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,001 – 3,000€</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning environment</td>
<td>Up to 1,000€</td>
<td>2.2353</td>
<td>0.693</td>
<td>5.954*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,001 – 2,000€</td>
<td>2.5897</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,001 – 3,000€</td>
<td>2.1667</td>
<td>1.126</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistical significance < 0.05

Concluding remarks and suggestions

This study was conducted to investigate trainees’ attitudes in SCS in Greece, regarding the effectiveness of the teaching project method used by teachers - tutors. The results indicate that men compared to women were less supportive to the view that the use of the project method did not contribute to the development of an appropriate learning environment. As regards the trainees who were between the ages of 18 to 27 and those between the ages of 48-57 there was a significant difference in the use of the project method as it contributes to the improvement of their teaching practices, as well as, to the improvement of the overall learning environment. Different views, as to the improvement of the learning environment, were expressed by people belonging to the age groups between 38-47 years of age. Trainees who were active employees appreciate the contribution of the project method in the improvement of their teaching methods, as well as, in the learning environment more than non-active participants. This view is in line with results of other surveys which indicate that men compared to women in the educational field prefer to use more traditional educational techniques than modern ones (Frangouli, 2009).

The research also showed that the participants’ residence influenced their opinion on the effectiveness of the use of the project method in the operation of SCS, as the participants who live in urban areas appreciated the benefits of the method less than those who live in suburban or rural areas. Regarding the monthly income of the trainees those between €1,000 – 2,000 appreciated the possibilities offered by the project method to improve the quality of their teaching and the educational process in general less than the trainees with an income of more than €2,000. This view is explained if we take into account the results of other surveys which indicate that low-income trainees want their
training to be targeted and usually use traditional methods and techniques, as they consider the above mentioned methods and techniques more effective.

The results also indicate that men compared to women were less supportive of the fact that the use of the project method contributes significantly to the use of participative techniques, as well as, to the use of appropriate audiovisual teaching aids. It seems that, people living in urban areas were willing to acquire knowledge through the use of traditional teaching methods rather than contemporary experiential participative methods, such as the project method. Trainees between the ages of 28-37 were less persuaded than other groups that the project method helps in communication. As far as the marital status of the participants is concerned, it seems that it did not affect their opinion in the use of the project method in order to improve the educational process and the fulfilment of the educational goals, as well as, to improve the communication climate among learners. A different opinion was expressed by single trainees. This opinion concerns the improvement of the communication climate during the process of the project method.

The project method can be applied as a key method of teaching in SCS and its application can be combined with the use of other innovative methods, such as the visible thinking method.

It is essential that students’ project works resulting from the use of the method, are presented to all students of the school, as well as, the general public, at an event which will take place at school. This fulfills the opening of SCSs into the local community, presenting their action and content of lessons, while trying-at the same time-to raise awareness among the public regarding how they operate.

The use of modern teaching methods in the operation of SCSs, are compatible with the pedagogical context of adult education, as it contributes to the development get further of the institution of such schools, having as a result the mitigation of social exclusion effects, largely affecting students of SCSs. The project method can stimulate thinking (at the highest cognitive level) such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation, and in many cases it requires the application of practical skills. The integrative nature of the skills which are needed in project work may be motivating for some trainees, but still requires careful strategies from the teacher’s perspective. For example, trainees may need guidance on selecting a topic that is both motivating for them but is also within their capabilities. Therefore, a project should be challenging but should not be so demanding that it cannot be achieved (Gray, Griffin & Nasta, 2000).

An important issue concerning this method is the training of educators so as to be able to serve adequately as project supervisors. Efficient use of the project requires systematic training of teachers, which should be combined with both a theoretical knowledge provision as well as practical training. Teacher training can be carried out by using both traditional and modern forms of training such as distance education. It is widely accepted that the majority of the educators are not well-trained and most plunge into the challenge and are forced to find their way to a practice that may either function or not. In our opinion the best way to learn to supervise projects is through carrying out projects, analyzing and reflecting individually and/or collectively on all the aspects and problems that emerge. It is also a good idea that supervisors as well as trainees study the concept and theory of project work. However, the general experience is that if this is done in advance, when there is no personal experience in which to relate the theories and...
teaching methods, then it becomes too abstract to have any significant value (Illeris, 2004).

References
Frangouilis, J. (2009). Study surveys completed in the characteristics of TEC. Prefectural HPC Ahaia. (unpublished research) (in Greek), Patras: NELE.
PART 4 | Quality in adult education provision: Redefining basic assumptions

The Necessity for Improvement of the Adult Educators’ Teaching Efficiency and Readiness Level as an Important Factor for the 'Quality' Provision Concerning the Field of Vocational Education and Training in Greece: The case of the State Institute of Vocational Training (I.E.K.) of Epanomi in Thessaloniki.

Introduction

The legislation concerning the vocational education and training in Greece appears to be quite recent since it first appeared in 1992 after the vote for the Law 2009. After the passing of this law, both the operation of the Organization of Vocational Education and Training (OEEK) and the operation of the Institutes of Vocational Training (IEKs) were set up. The main objective of these institutes was to provide students with every sort of vocational training, initial or even complementary and assurance of qualifications so that people can be able to enter the job market easily and at the same time to adjust to the rapidly transforming terms of the productive procedures. Therefore, IEKs supply students not only with abilities but also with knowledge and experience, elements that are applicable and considerably necessary for the market in general.

Despite the fact that IEKs do not belong to a particular educational level in Greece, they, in any case, bridge the gap which exists between high school and university. They substantially constitute the main concept and expression of the post-secondary vocational education and training. The establishment of the state IEKs came up in order to complete the pre-existing -but not officially certified- operation of the private ones that used to flourish at that particular time. Those years were marked by the fact that a great deal of students could not attend university courses due to the limited availability number of entrants.

We can easily realise how important the role of the people who teach in the institutes of vocational training is. The level of their teaching efficiency and readiness is absolutely crucial for the ‘quality’ provision towards the students of IEKs, therefore our interest is focused on that fact. In the present study we will examine and analyse the overall efficiency and readiness level of these educators that are hired -after objective processes of their selection have been followed- in order to teach for the semester 2009A in the state institute of vocational training of Epanomi in Thessaloniki, Greece.

The general frame of the post-secondary education worldwide
Although high school education still remains an important system for the purveyance of vocational knowledge and skills, post-secondary institutions are better suited for work force training because such training takes place closer to practical use. Post-secondary education stands in the middle between high school and tertiary-university education. It is known worldwide as a series of courses that belong to Level 4. These courses help to direct young people into the labour market after they have finished compulsory, relatively general education and find it difficult to follow their interests on the labour market.

*Post-secondary education identified as Level 4 worldwide*

Under the definition of the ISCED Levels one finds the following words describing Level 4: ‘Level 4 covers programmes that straddle the boundary between the upper secondary and post-secondary education. Level 4 programmes cannot be considered as tertiary programmes because often they are not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at Level 3. Students are typically older than those in ISCED 3 programmes’ (ISCED, 1997). Moreover, Level 4 is equivalent to a degree or diploma which confirms that the holder has successfully completed a post-secondary course of study, at the equivalent level, of at least three and no more than four years or a part-time course of equivalent duration at a college or university as well as, where applicable, completed the appropriate vocational training alongside study at a college or university (Rauner & Grollmann, 2004).

A typical student at Level 4 will be over 18, having successfully finished a higher secondary education but he/she will not attend university. He or she will probably be employed but it could be easily claimed that their job is not very safe, they may even do something at their workplace which is a bit outdated and will soon be made redundant. Some courses at Level 4 will also be tailor-made for the unemployed so that they can find a job in the future.

These facts explain why the category of Level 4 does not only refer to hobby courses or courses held for special interests. Such courses might enhance personal development but are also a relevant part of life-long learning and have a significant importance on the labour market.

*The situation on the labour market for students of Level 4*

As the age of the students is comparatively high, employers will anticipate that the maturity of these applicants is also quite high. Additionally, the level of education is lower than that at universities and therefore the entry salaries will be lower. These are regarded as good reasons for employing anyone who has finished a Level-4 course successfully.

Level-4 courses can also be targeted more precisely towards the needs of industry and thus reduce unemployment. Industry itself can demand what type of work force it desires. Practically-oriented courses would therefore be of more interest.

However, as the labor market becomes more specialized and economies demand higher levels of skill, governments and businesses are increasingly investing in the future of vocational education through publicly funded training organizations and subsidized apprenticeship or traineeship initiatives for businesses. At the post-secondary level,
vocational education is typically provided by an institute of technology, or by a local community (Wikipedia, 2009).

Vocational education has been diversified over the 20th century and now exists in industries such as retail, tourism, information technology, funeral services and cosmetics, as well as in the traditional crafts and cottage industries. As Psacharopoulos (1997) illustrates, it has been, it is and it will remain in the future one of the hottest-debated subjects in all countries of the world.

With the creation of a real job market which guarantees the freedom of movement of workers, Europe faces the question as to whether to decide for or against types of vocational training which have vocationally-oriented work as their center point. The Copenhagen Process indeed encourages, with its central instruments such as, for example, ECVET, the tendency towards a European job market that is based on modulized and, more or less abstract, qualifications. With the concept of sectoral dialogue, the way, however, towards the development of core European vocations as the basis for skilled work-based labor markets is still possible (Rauner, 2008).

**Approaches of a European occupational education and training policy**

Countries exhibit a wide variation in their emphasis concerning vocational education, vocational school models and participation in vocational education across demographic groups (Rodgers & Boyer, 2006). A current imperative for vocational training is to be highly responsive to ‘demand-side’ requirements (Billet, 2000). In December 2004, the European Union confirmed in the Maastricht 2004 Declaration (Communiqué of Maastricht, 2004) its decision to establish an increased comparability, transparency and recognition among the national educational systems. This declaration again underpinned the Copenhagen - (Bruges) Process of 2002 and specified the September 2003 declaration of the Council of Ministers in Berlin on university education. On the way towards an open, concise and comparable “vocational education and training landscape”, there are currently three predominant streams (Blings & Spottl, 2008) (Figure 1):

1. The first approach is the realisation of comparability on the certificate level. With the provision of formal instruments, the comparability of qualification profiles should be safeguarded by mutually recognizing the certificates.
2. The second approach originates from the Copenhagen process and tries to attain transparency by awarding Credit Points (European Credit Transfer System for Educational and Vocational Training – ECVET System). This is where the controversial debate of a European qualification framework fits in.
3. The third approach is basically pursued by transnational Leonardo-da-Vinci projects supported by the European Union. With the aid of the Social Partners, sector oriented core occupational profiles are developed and implemented. The success of this approach lies in the fact that it results in transparency and comparability on the level of contents. The common denominator of the European core occupational profiles are the work processes in the countries. The so-far surveyed automotive sector and the closed loop and waste economy sector correspond at a rate of 70 to 80 per cent. Social dialogue and other social partner involvement, such as the tripartite bodies, is extensive and apparent at all levels in Vocational Education and Training policy and implementation in Europe: national, regional, sectoral and local. Significantly, the social partners are involved irrespective of whether the prevailing socio-economic model
involves legal regulation as in the majority of countries, voluntary arrangements as in the UK or a hybrid of these as in the formalised cooperation found in Finland and the Nederlands (Winterton, 2006).

**Approaches – Three European Ways**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contents oriented “European” profiles</th>
<th>Transparency of Certificates</th>
<th>Comparability of Certificates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Design of occupational profiles</td>
<td>Identification of credit points in a national frame</td>
<td>Creation of formally oriented instruments to compare certificates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focus of the approach

Research

- Identification of work related requirements (Leonardo supported)
- Value of national certificates (credit points)
- Comparison of value of certificates (Copenhagen process, Greek/Italian initiative)

*Figure 1*

Three ways to the mutual recognition of graduations in Europe (Blings & Spöttl, 2008: 165).

### The organisational and operational frame of the IEKs in Greece

IEKs started their operation officially in 1992 and since then they supply National Certificates or Diplomas of Vocational Training to all those students who are in need of knowledge that marks and belongs to the field of post-secondary education. Students who do not succeed in entering higher tertiary organizations may continue their studies at IEKs so as to be able to acquire extra qualifications necessary for their future career in the labour market.

### The Greek Law 2009/1992 concerning ESEEK, OEEK and IEKs

In 1992, there was the first systematic attempt to put the issue of vocational education and training on a new basis under the Law 2009. This specific Law was the result of the continuous need to invest the funds that came from the Third Support Framework and of the two negative conclusions for Greece: firstly, the insufficient financing for many years of the vocational education and training system reduced its effectiveness as an institution of competencies production necessary for the economic and social reality and secondly, because of the absence of an organized system of vocational education and training, the funds of the First Support Framework were wasted on actions, programmes and initiatives of doubtful effectiveness (Ioakimidis, 1998).

Under the Law 2009/1992 the national System of Vocational Education and Training (ESEEK) was established and the Organisation of Vocational Education and Training was implemented (OEEK) supervised by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. Apart from other things, The Law 2009 foresees the establishment of new educational institutions called IEKs which are divided into public and private ones and do not belong to the educational system or to any educational grade. OEEK takes the role of the organisation responsible for the operation of all public IEKs and the supervision
of all the private ones (Charalambous & Pavlidou, 2008). In an effort to be more specific, Zarifis (2003) summarises that OEEK was charged with the establishment, organisation and operation of IEKs.

**The major aim of the IEKs**

The main objective of these institutes was the initial or the supplementary training for the improvement of the labour market and its productive process as well as the subsequent entrance of people in it. Therefore, IEKs supply students with all the abilities, knowledge and experience that are applicable and considerably necessary for the market in general (Mardas & Valkanos, 2002).

In a theoretical level, IEKs address an exceptionally wide audience concerning graduates from compulsory education, high schools, technical-vocational schools and also adults who, because of a potential change in the labour market, would like to acquire a kind of professional specialisation in order to update their knowledge and skills and familiarize themselves with new methods and technology (Charalambous & Pavlidou, 2008).

**The current situation in the IEKs**

Nowadays, IEKs have prevailed in the area of post-secondary education and they are believed to be the only providers of the form of initial vocational training. Their status and role were strengthened to an important extent after the passing by the Greek government of the certain Law which equalized the Technological Educational Institutes with the Higher Educational Institutes (Law 2916/2001). Moreover, according to the recent Accompanying Report of 2008 that concerned the establishment and the operation of Colleges, IEKs –unlike what the Law 2009 expressed- are recognized as post-high school institutions of the formal Greek educational system.

Since IEKs fulfill the needs of the post-secondary educational level, they are regarded as belonging to the field of ‘adult education’ in general. As Saitis (2007) points out, the institution of IEKs constitutes a form of life-long education and training. This is certified by the fact that apart from some specialties which demand junior high school studies, the majority of IEKs strictly accept graduates of senior high schools. Consequently, the teaching process in IEKs should follow all these methods and techniques that are expected to be used when a teacher - trainer attempts to work in the adult education level.

**The definitions concerning the terms ‘efficiency’, ‘readiness’ and ‘quality’ in the adult teaching process**

The fact that IEKs are part of the post-secondary educational provision inevitably poses a great deal of responsibilities and duties on behalf of those people who wish to work as trainers-educators in all these institutes. The terms ‘efficiency’ and ‘readiness’ constitute two important considerations concerning ‘quality’ about adult education in general, so much attention should be paid in order to meet these two requirements in IEKs which serve the initial vocational training -that is-, adult education.

**The terms of teaching efficiency and readiness**

The definitions about teaching efficiency and readiness are closely connected to the terms of ‘educational efficiency and readiness’. The reason is that the teaching
process constitutes in any case a part of the whole educational activity. This means that it is important to analyse the level of the educational process at first and then the teaching process.

The ‘educational efficiency’ includes not only the training that any candidate teacher receives during his/her studying years but also the subsequent degree which designates his/her readiness. We can conclude that the readiness is designated by the state through the acquired degree which concerns the scientific, the theoretical and the research training of every educator confirming the ability of carrying out his/her educational duty. The ‘educational readiness’ refers to the successful implementation of the above in the educational process that is the ability of the immediate perception of all the irritations and the appropriate reaction to these irritations. This reaction is considered the outcome of the appropriate preparation and education (Georgogiannis, Lagios & Kouneli, 2005).

In accordance to these terms we can define the teaching efficiency as the teachers’ training in the scientific, the theoretical and the research training in the teaching sector. On the other hand, teaching readiness is thought to be the successful implementation of the above in the educational process as a result of the educational activity.

Unfortunately, the successful completion of a proper university preparation accompanied with the unbiased use of a series of selection competitions cannot introduce on their own presuppositions capable of guaranteeing the contemporary operation of the teachers’ profession. Things are much more complicated. Both teaching efficiency and teaching readiness are safeguarded through combinations of motives, dues and opportunities which facilitate and impel teachers towards the continual learning and improvement, especially at the beginning of their career (Athanassoula-Reppa et al. 1999b).

**The ‘quality’ provision in general**

We could claim that there is no widely accepted definition for the term ‘quality’. As Mavrogiorgos (2007) stresses, there is much and interesting discussion for the European definition of ‘quality in education’ which is closely connected to the strategic goal of creating a European Union seeking for it to be the most competitive and the strongest knowledge economy in the World. This discussion and attempt for the quality in education analysis seems to present some certain defining negative elements that more or less mark schools in general, such as:

- Schools are ineffective, unproductive, old-fashioned, unsuccessful and non-controlled.
- In these schools teachers are unready, indifferent, inappropriate and uneducated.
- In these schools students express signs of failure, low grades and problematic behaviour.

Quality cannot be dictated from above but must evolve from within the institution itself, while centralized leadership establishes the priorities and environment to support local initiatives. This balance is at the heart of revitalizing training quality (Herschbach, 1997). Nowadays, as Pashiardis (2004) claims, the concept of ‘quality’ tends to be standarised and amounted as it is systematically connected to the effectiveness, the productivity and the evaluation. This can be regarded quite logical if we bear in mind that effective schools’ place their focus of attention on teaching so that the students’
knowledge level is improved. The successful implementation of the school goals constitutes the outcome of the co-operation and the special interest expressed for the school teaching and learning.

As a result, the quality of the teachers – educators teaching is marked as a logical, purposeful, dynamic, complicated and multi-dimensional process. It is considered as one of the most important factors for the attainment of positive results concerning the teachers’ profession. Additionally, the teachers themselves believe that students’ success or failure depends to a great extent on their own performance in class, so they should regard themselves responsible for this repetitive appearance of either success or failure (Hatzidimou, 1995).

**The ‘quality’ provision in the field of Vocational Training**

Vocational training requires general studies. Quality training demands the inclusion of a general element; as technological developments supersede technological developments, so the proportion of time devoted to general education needs to rise. Trainees need to learn things that job-specific technical education is not sufficient at teaching; notably the need to develop the capacity to go on learning, almost regardless of the context of that learning. Increasingly, what is important is not so much what the trainee knows in terms of specific skills as an awareness of the process of learning. A central consideration within that process of learning is related not to tasks but to people. Part of this can be taught in a workshop but there is much more that needs to be learnt, and which can best be accumulated within a discussion-based general education course. For discussion of this kind allows students to engage in the process of understanding the views of others and, gradually, the attitudes behind the views; in short, beginning to appreciate what makes other people tick. This is the kind of education that trainees require at this stage in our industrial history. Moreover, it is the kind of training that industry should be demanding. These reasons are behind the call for a further education curriculum with at least one-third devoted to general education (Fowler, 1998).

The EC EUROPROF project has been exploring the possibilities for international co-operation in the delivery of new programmes for VET professionals. While it is considered difficult and perhaps undesirable to develop a common European curriculum, a number of partners in the project have wished to go beyond traditional co-operation such as short periods of student and staff exchange. These developments occur particularly across borders in regions which have traditionally had close links. However, despite historic cross-border regional collaboration there still remain different traditions and institutional arrangements which need to be explored and overcome if collaborative developments are to be sustained. In the last six months there have been a series of meetings between the Department of Education at Groningen University in The Netherlands and the Insitut Technik und Bildung at Bremen University in Germany. The aim is to establish a jointly accredited MA programme for VET professionals (Santema, 1997).

Vocational education and training is not limited to the provision of initial training in the form of apprenticeships. Once an individual has achieved a qualification, he or she has a large number of options for further training and qualifications (Cockrill & Scott, 1997). Consequently, as Irmie (1995: 283) emphasizes, “raising the status of vocational education may be the most urgent task society is facing if a skills gap is to be avoided“.
The teachers’ role in adult education - teaching

More than ever, nowadays, it is believed that the teachers’ role is crucial in any form of educational process. Hager (2004) stresses that their role is to devise and implement strategies for bringing about and enhancing the learning process. Such an opinion unfolds in any case the significance of this role accompanying every teacher who is involved in the teaching action.

Things are significantly different as far as ‘adult education’ is concerned. It constitutes a scientific field and at the same time a field of implementation that is different from the education one which concerns children and teenagers (Courau, 2000). Adult education is a process through which adults that no longer attend school classes, take on activities in order to acquire knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes aiming at spotting and solving personal or collective problems efficiently. This definition differentiates the typical education-system students from those people who are interested in adult education (Kapsalis & Papastamatis, 2000). It can be clearly understood that adult education lessons do not require ‘teachers’ limited by the wide aspect of this term but ‘educators’, since the teaching – learning process addresses people outside the typical school environment.

In such cases, the educator is not simply obliged to possess knowledge that has to be transmitted but on the contrary, he or she stands as a facilitator that coordinates and supports the learning processes. Simultaneously, it is regarded essential to motivate the trainees either as separate people or as team members and be in the position to handle or overcome complicated situations and even impacts sometimes. Finally, the educator should also negotiate with the trainers, listen carefully to their requests or criticism concerning the way of his/her behaviour or the way he/she conducts the activities, accept his/her ignorance and lack of knowledge about certain issues, as well as be able to learn from his/her trainees (Vergidis, 2006). As Rogers (1996) illustrates, the adult teachers’ goal is to move ahead of the natural learning procedure and facilitate the trainees to make its outcomes more permanent.

To achieve this, the adult educator must use particular both educational techniques and also supervisory material during the teaching process that are compatible to the ‘principles of adult learning’. These techniques should be utilised alternatively so as to facilitate trainees in thinking, writing, conversing, listening, commenting and even exercising personally or within a team, whereas the supervisory material can help to concentration and restraint of information adding clarity to the educators’ messages (Kokkos & Lionarakis, 1998). Noye and Piveteau (1998) claim that an educational technique suggests processes which follow certain order, that is the implementation of some steps, while the pedagogic tools are used in a supportive way in education so that the educator can be more effective.

The teachers’ role in Vocational Training

Vocational teaching is characterised more by socialization than by qualification which means that it is more a question of transmitting dispositions and attitudes than of giving the knowledge and the skills required for specific tasks (Frykholm & Nitzler, 1993). In the classroom, vocational learning is actively co-constructed by teachers and students, determined in part by the dominant structures of thought that prevail in particular employment sectors and particular levels within those sectors (Oates, 2004).
One of the most direct and cost-effective ways to improve student achievement is to employ better teachers. Students of the ‘best’ teacher will gain up to a whole grade level in achievement over students of the ‘worst’ teacher. Superior teaching, moreover, tends to be constant across different school years, indicating that achievement gains are not just the function of a particular class (Hanushek, 1981). Although ability and experience contribute to higher student achievement, there is no sure way of telling what portion of student achievement is a result of teacher characteristics and what portion is a product of the particular teaching pattern and strategies employed.

Most often, vocational teachers themselves have only a basic education and little or no professional training or work experience. The preparation of vocational instructors requires both professional and practical work. Teacher training programmes can supply professional training, but they cannot offer sufficient exposure to job skills. Vocational teachers who are a product of teacher training programmes seldom have sufficient practical skills. On the other hand, vocational teachers recruited from industry have practical skills, but they usually lack basic education and professional skills (Herschbach, 1997). Vocational educators can play a leading role in the field by trialing the use of more holistic approaches to develop the higher level competence needs which can increase the benefits of school-based apprenticeships (Velde & Cooper, 2000).

The educators’ knowledge level concerning adult education and Vocational Training in Greece

In 1998, the Hellenic Open University (EAP) started its operation, supplying students with post-graduate degrees in the field of ‘adult education’. Additionally, during that period, the University of Macedonia in Thessaloniki created the BA study programme called ‘Educational and Social Policy’ where the subject of Adult Education is taught (Noye and Pivetoe, 1998). Finally, a few years later, with the foundation of the National Center of Certification (EKEPIS) in Greece, the education of the adult teachers who were to teach in the Centers of Professional Training (KEKs) became compulsory in the form of long-term seminars so as to be capable of acquiring a rather higher teaching level concerning both the teaching and the implementation of the ‘secrets’ of the adult educational level. A Records of qualified – certified adult educators exist concerning those people who both hold a title relevant to the teaching material and also coherent teaching – professional experience (Kapsalis, 2006).

As a result, the specialization in adult teaching is offered in various ways to those who are interested in acquiring it. During this decade a great deal of people have specialised in adult teaching in Greece. This fact should result in the provision of a quite higher quality level as far as adult teaching in IEKs is concerned. In this study we will examine and analyse the readiness and efficiency level of these educators that are hired after objective processes of their selection have been followed in order to teach for the current semester in the state institute of vocational training (IEK) of Epanomi in Greece.

The case study concerning the educators of the IEK of Epanomi in Thessaloniki, Greece

In a period of an intense economic recession that a lot of values are in a state of doubt and the proper exploitation of the human capital is more imperative than ever, it is considered interesting enough to examine the perspectives of the IEK of Epanomi for the designation of its future action and direction, taking into account some important elements concerning the educators’ qualifications level as far as adult education is
concerned at first and then the ‘quality’ provision that is supplied to the students of the IEK of Epanomi.

**Introductory elements concerning the IEK**

The state institute of vocational training (IEK) in Epanomi is one of those institutes that are located outside the city of Thessaloniki. Its operation started in 1993 in a building where the Vocational High School of Epanomi operates. For sixteen years this particular IEK offers training mostly to high school graduates. At first, specialties that belonged to the field of informatics and economy-administration were offered. Later on, it was activated in the fields of constructions and mass media production. Nowadays, there are also specialties concerning the fields of health-aesthetics-social services and those of engineering-electricity.

**The Educators - sample**

The teaching staff concerning the semester 2009A consists of 84 educators who were hired to teach at the IEK of Epanomi for this particular semester. 51 (60.7%) of them are male, while 33 (39.3%) are female educators. Additionally, 23 (27.4%) of them hold a postgraduate title or a PhD, 61 (72.6%) hold BA titles or just certificates. Furthermore, none of them holds a title in ‘adult education. Finally, only 7 of the educators (8.3%) were successfully certified by the EKEPIS, whereas 77 of them (91.7%) were not further trained in ‘adult teaching’ in any way (Table 1).

**Table 1. Absolute and relative frequencies concerning the educators’ sex, post-graduate titles and certification of EKEPIS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-graduate title in general</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>23 (21 Masters + 2 PhDs)</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>72.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-graduate title in ‘Adult Education’</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certification of EKEPIS</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The selection of the educators as the objects of our research came over because: a) they constitute one of the most significant intervenors between students and the
society - working environment, b) they are in contact per week and have a more spherical image not only for the educational system but also for the students and the teaching tools that are used.

Findings

The teaching staff concerning the semester 2009A consists of 84 educators who were hired to teach at the IEK of Epanomi after an objective process of their selection was followed. As we noticed in Table 1, the majority of them 51 (60.7%) are male, while 33 (39.3%) are female educators. This fact does not seem to be in accordance with the general opinion that the percentage between men and women who decide to fill in application forms in their effort to work as educators at the IEKs is equally parted, neither with the total one of 48% that concerns the male educators being selected to teach for the semester 2009A in the region of Central Macedonia in Greece.

As far as the post-graduate titles are concerned, 23 (27.4%) of the educators hold a post-graduate title or a PhD, while 61 (72.6%) hold BA titles or just post-graduate certificates. We can claim that the educators’ level concerning all the required qualifications and skills is regarded satisfactory if we bear in mind the fact that almost the one fourth of them holds a master or a PhD. On the other hand, there are 11 educators (13.1%) who do not hold a BA title but a post-secondary one (Table 2). Although it would surely be preferable for all the educators to be at least BA graduates, some of them who are not graduates of this educational system level may in most cases either have long work experience or deal with subjects that no specialization is offered at universities.

![Image](image.png)

**Table 2. Absolute and relative frequencies concerning the educators who hold only post-secondary titles but not a BA one.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educators holding only a post-secondary title and not a BA one</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>86,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, a lot of surprise is caused in Table 1 by the fact that none of the educators holds a title in ‘adult education’. Even though there are two educators who currently study ‘Adult Education’ at the postgraduate programme of the Hellenic Open University (EAP), this number is considered extremely low and quite frustrating in any case revealing inefficiencies that concern skills and qualifications relevant and essential to the field of adult education in general. Since IEKs concern the initial training of adult students a satisfactory quality provision level would be preferable accompanied by educators with increased qualifications in adult teaching.

Finally, only 7 of the educators (8.3%) were successfully certified by EKEPIS, whereas 77 of them (91.7%) were not further trained in ‘adult teaching’ in any way (Table 1). This particular certification is thought to be quite satisfactory, especially in the cases of absence of a post-graduate title in adult teaching, as it requires a great deal of attending learning hours in classes offering in this way all the participants useful knowledge that
concerns mostly micro-teaching focused and specialized in the field of adult education. The post-graduate ‘adult education’ title holders are excluded from the process of the EKEPIS certification since they are expected to own the appropriate qualifications and skills so as to be capable of working as educators in an effort of offering their experience and knowledge to adults. Nevertheless, the existence of a percentage which reaches 8.3% is regarded as only partly sufficient concerning educators certified in the process of adult teaching—learning.

We can notice in Table 3 below that twelve of the educators (14.3%) are permanently appointed teachers in the Greek secondary educational level system. This percentage is absolutely low, irrespective to whether they are able to deal with adult trainees. Almost all of them are male (91.7%), while there is only one female permanent teacher (8.3%). However, even if all of them are thought to be pedagogically sufficient to work as teachers in the secondary level of the Greek educational system, they are not marked by the appropriate level of knowledge, skills and qualifications in order to be well-qualified to work as educators in any adult teaching classes. Despite the fact that plenty of the teaching methods and techniques concerning ‘adult education’ become more and more useful parts of the traditional primary or secondary educational level, the majority of the permanently appointed teachers in Greece seems to be unaware of the existence of these special educational techniques or supervisory material which facilitate the learning procedure concerning the field of adult education.

**Table 2. Absolute and relative frequencies concerning the educators who are permanently appointed as teachers in Greek Primary or Secondary Education.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permanently appointed teachers in the Greek Secondary Level Education</th>
<th>Absolute frequency</th>
<th>Relative frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

Our era ‘demands’ from teachers the acquisition of knowledge and skills through processes of professional development that are offered via the continual training procedure starting from the beginning of their career until their retirement. The initial training is regarded insufficient in offering teachers all the necessary knowledge and skills that are needed throughout their professional life (Papanoum, 2003). The training models have changed approaching formats different from the traditional ones which were based on educational processes that took place outside the school environment in institutions and frameworks that provided education. According to the new training forms, the in-service training, the mentor’s coaching and the practical work in school classes are included (Graham & Thornley, 2000; Martinez & Coombs, 2001). As far as the field of adult education is concerned, things are much more difficult since it is required by all educators to possess special teaching qualifications essentially tailored to the adults’ needs and interests.

The case study of the teaching staff at the IEK of Epanomi in Greece concerning the educators who were hired to teach for the semester 2009A reveals the ‘unexpected’ situation that has mostly prevailed in IEKs in general, depicting through an existing
'paradox' what really happens at least in the state ones. We noticed that the majority of them (60.7%) are male, while the other 39.3% are female educators. Additionally, 23 (27.4%) of them hold a post-graduate title or a PhD, 61 (72.6%) hold BA titles or just post-graduate certificates. What’s more, none of these educators holds a title in ‘adult education’. This constitutes a fact that surely raises questions concerning the level of quality being offered in Greek IEKs related to the adult teaching and learning. Finally, only 8.3% of the educators were successfully certified by the EKEPIS, whereas 91.7% of them were not further trained in ‘adult teaching’. Inevitably, without doubt this percentage can be regarded as partly sufficient concerning the number of certified educators in the adult teaching – learning process.

We also noticed that there are 11 educators (13.1%) who do not hold a BA title but a post-secondary one and that only 14.3% of the educators are permanently appointed teachers in the Greek secondary educational level system. Almost all of them are male (91.7%), while there is only one female permanent teacher (8.3%). Nevertheless, on one hand, they are not familiar with the appropriate level of knowledge, skills and qualifications in order to be well-qualified to work as educators in any adult teaching classes and on the other hand, they are marked by the absence of any awareness concerning those special educational techniques or supervisory material which facilitate the adult education learning procedure. Things are getting even worse if we take into consideration that a percentage of 45% of the 84 educators that teach in the IEK of Epanomi were also hired to teach for the same semester at least in one other IEK in the region of Central Macedonia in Greece. Unfortunately, -bearing in mind that almost the same number of educators is occupied in more than one IEK in this country in general- this fact confirms that the above situation concerning the afore-mentioned region is more or less quite common for all the IEKs.

As a result, it is easily understood by the findings of this survey that some things have to be changed rapidly in any case. Nowadays, this opinion seems to meet more and more confident supporters as time passes. Herschbach (1997) points out that the improvement of the quality of vocational teachers should be a priority. In general, pre-service professional preparation programmes need not be extensive - if key components are included, such as laboratory organization and management practices, instructional methods, student evaluation, and so forth. Short pre-service training, perhaps as little as ten to twelve weeks, coupled with periodic in-service training and on-site supervision, may be a more cost-effective combination than extensive pre-service training. It may be a better option to select teacher-training candidates from those who already have technical skills than to attempt to provide costly and ineffective skill training. For teachers with marginal technical skills, internships, work placement and short formal courses during off times may be a better alternative than extensive residential programmes.

Unfortunately, things are considerably complicated in Greece concerning educational units. Greek state schools do not seem to be in the position to conform their own strategy. Thus, they cannot implement strategic goals, for instance, the change in curricula, the gradual decrease of the proportion between a teacher and students, the introduction of new technologies or maybe of innovative forms in education. These long-term strategic plans are decided in the upper levels of the Greek system’s managerial hierarchy, whereas schools are just required to implement them through a series of administrative processes (Athanassoula-Reppa et al. 1999a).
Consequently, strong centralized leadership must make a commitment to change. At the same time, a degree of autonomy is necessary for local institutions because ‘quality’ is as much a result of characteristics unique to each institution as it is a result of centralized policies and procedures (Herschbach, 1997). As far as organisations of vocational training and life long education in Greece are concerned, there appear to be some limitations of a minor extent, leaving major possibilities for the substantial implementation of strategic planning with fewer commitments from the central administration and a frame of autonomy and independence concerning their operation and management and even the strategic goals of the unit in general (Athanassoula-Reppa et al. 1999a). What’s more, their flexibility and participation not only in matters of economic administration -such as the educators’ payroll, the operation expenses and the educational material purchase- but also in matters dealing with human resource management -such as that of hiring teaching staff according to the teaching needs of the existing specialties- increases to a great extent their level of autonomy and freedom, without them being subjected to the extreme pressure of the Greek central authority (Valkanos, Anastasiou & Androutsou, 2009).

To achieve this goal, an internal educational policy concerning each educational unit separately based and focused on the special needs that these units appear to have should be imposed and implemented by the Greek Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. Such a somehow relatively ‘radical’ action could mostly facilitate all post-secondary vocational training organisations permitting them in this way to be capable of taking on these particular responsibilities that will contribute and lead them towards the seeking of an increased level of ‘quality’ provision appropriate for all students who are expected to play both an important and also a differentiated role in our contemporary post-modern societies. These particular institutions should logically be occupied with the imperative need of searching for and then hiring trainers - teachers specialised in the field of adult education who will not be familiar or even obsessed with the technique of ‘lecturing’. However, there ought to have been given in advance a fulfilling level of motivation by the upper authority through a constantly increasing potential of abundant and appropriate options for all these future adults’ educators so that they can be in the pleasant position to attend adequate and satisfying number of programmes and acquire those relevant titles that have properly placed their emphasis on this quite new scientific field in Greece.

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Law 2916/FEK 114, 11-6-2001, Greece. *Structure of the tertiary education and regulation of the issues of its technological field*.


The contribution of the Center of Adults' Education (C.A.E.) in the development of the district. The example of the Nomes of Chios and Trikala.

The Adult Education Centres and their operation

Nowadays lifelong learning is considered a necessary presupposition for the personal and professional growth of the citizens. Most of the modern organizations offer the possibility to their personnel to improve their knowledge and through the assistance of new technologies, to acknowledge a world where the continuous upgrading of skills is a prerequisite for success. At the same time, in individual level, more and more people are interested in improving their educational level in sections that they were always interested in. Many of them acclaim that they didn't have such an opportunity in the past through flexible educational programs. The above are available through the educational programs of Adult Education Centres (A.E.C).

Operation and Service of Adult Education Centre (A.E.C.)

The last few years the necessity for continuous education has been realised, in order citizens to correspond in the continuously increasing requirements of professional, economic, social, political and personal life.

The General Secretariat of Adults' Education (G.S.A.E) of the Ministry of Education plans and coordinates programs of «Lifelong Learning», which offer the possibility to all adults to be properly educated and acquire new skills, in order to correspond to the modern economic, social, professional and personal requirements. In the institutional framework of lifelong learning, Adult Education Centres (A.E.C) are also included, which are able to give adults equal opportunities for education to all citizens with no exceptions. These programs aim in the best social life for all citizens and to help them enhance their lives with more creative activities.

The operation of A.E.C. is supported and promoted by the Institute of Continuous Adult Education (I.C.A.E), which comes under the authority of the General Secretariat of Adult’s Education. Adult Education Centres are a project included in the Operational Program for Education and Lifelong Learning of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs and is co-financed by the European Social Fund (E.S.F.), and the Greek State.

The educational programmes of A.E.C.s are provided from October to May of every educational year for free. Every adult can participate in these programmes (unemployed and employed) regardless their age, education, country of origin, religion, residence etc.).

A.E.C. offers programs in various thematic units most of which last 25 - 50 hours. The 25-hour programmes are regular and are provided monthly, while the 50-250 hour programmes are released on the A.E.C site.

The cognitive fields, in which the educational programs of A.E.C. belong to are:

- Greek Language - History,
European Languages - European History,
Environment - Culture - Tourism - Regional development,
Basic Knowledge of Mathematics - Statistics,
Technologies of Informatics - Technologies of Communication,
Economics - Administration - Business,
Citizens in Action: Rights - Obligations,
Culture - Arts - Administration of Free Time,
Special Programs.

Regarding the frequency of the programs implementation per educational year, at the beginning and at the termination the following are applied:

The yearly educational programmes (250 hours), as well as the educational programmes from 125 to 225 hours are provided once per year. The beginning is realised in October (the first Monday of October) and the termination is located in May of every educational year.

The educational programmes of 75-100 hours are provided twice per year. Their beginning is realised during October and February.
The educational programmes of 50 hours are provided four times per year and they begin during October, December, February and March of every year.
The educational programmes of 25 hours are provided monthly, in October of every educational year.

Beginnings of classes are exclusively realised at the beginning (first 15 calendar days) of every month.

The successful completion of Lifelong Learning programs means the acquisition of the following certificates (depending on their duration), which are granted by the General Secretariat of Adult’s Education:
Up to 75 hours in «Certificate of Education»
Up to 250 hours in «Certificate of Lifelong Learning»

A.E.C. intends to contribute, through the educational programs they offer, to the personal improvement, employment, the participation to social activities as well as to the cultural amelioration of all citizens, regardless their economic and social status, the country of their origin, their age, their sex, their educational level, their religion and their place of living. Thus the educational programs offered by A.E.C. address to all adult citizens (18 years old or older). There are also special educational programs that address to socially vulnerable teams (Gipsies, Prisoners, Muslims, and Immigrants). In Greece nowadays there are 56 A.E.C.

Characteristics of Instructors and Students of A.E.C.

An important parameter, which is absolutely connected to the effectiveness of programs, but also to the specific character of adults’ education, is the instructor and its role. The instructor of each program places the students in the centre of each lesson so as to contribute to the teaching. The instructor takes up the responsibility to help his/her students during the lesson and guides them as far as the learning of each course is concerned. He also takes up the responsibility to give students some crucial advice on subjects that he’s well informed and which went by unaware by the learners, concerning the material of the program he/she teaches. He is trying to encourage and promote the collaboration of the students, as well as trying to participate to their routine problems, giving them the impression of being a “fellow-worker”.
In order to ensure the effectiveness of the educational programs, many researchers have turned their interest to the special characteristics, that adults have, as students, having also the expectation that they will realise the particular educational needs of adults, which could be taken into consideration from instructors. Thus the adult students' characteristics are enlisted as follows (I.C.A.E. 2007): *They attend the educational procedure, having concrete objectives*, which means that they are educated, due to the need of especial knowledge and abilities, which will allow them to cope with modern and future life conditions. The objectives of the students might be professional success, the achievement of best social roles, personal improvement and of acquisition of personal prestige.

*The adults have a wider range of experiences* and thus they can better obtain more elements during the educational process.

*They know what is the best way of learning for them*, and that happens because adults have already been taught many things by different teachers through various training activities. For this reason they got used to a concrete way of studying and generally to a way of learning new things and new elements, contrary to their juveniles, who are trying to find the right method of studying.

*“One man talking” is repulsive*, because they tend to actively participate. This happens because each adult student wishes to be seen as a responsible person, and to take part in open dialogues and communication. They often attend an educational program because they need special knowledge for their jobs or for certain activities of their life. Thus, the curriculum should not be standardised and prefabricated, but it is should be adapted to their own learning objectives. The instructor is faced more as an expertise or colleague, but not as an indisputable authority (Rogers, 2003).

*They face learning obstacles*, which can be classified in 3 categories: bad organisation of educational activity obstacles, social obligations obstacles and personality obstacles.

*They develop defence and resignation mechanisms during the educational process*, because they try to protect their beliefs and not to have their habits changed. It is therefore likely some of the adult students not to accept the instructor’s suggestions and advice.

The two-way communication of trainees and trainer, involves dialogue, elaboration, enrichment of opinions, exchange of experiences. Thus, the adult education, in any case: promotes the personal growth, maintains the improvement of professional life, opens new paths for continuous learning, improves knowledge and skills level of the general population for economic, technological, cultural and social development, encourages the active participation to every field of life cultivates the idea of democracy and respect to human rights.

The service of Chios’s a.e.c. in the development of the district

Chios’ A.E.C. has a dynamic presence through its educational programs, which took place in many rural regions of Chios. More specifically, during the last 3 years educational programs were held by A.E.C. in Mesta, Thymiana, Halkeios, Kallimasia,
Armolia, Lithi, Lagada, and finally Kardamyla. In these programs a lot of adults participated and there was a variety of students’ ages and educational background. In picture 1, we cite the applications collected and the departments created per Municipality in Chios Prefecture during 2006-2009. Most applications were collected in the Municipality of Chios and 103 departments were created and in the Municipalities outside of the city, 51 departments in total. Here we observe that in a lot of Municipalities, while quite a few applications were collected, the creation of departments was not possible (minimum required number of students in order to create a department is 12 individuals), with the result some of them to be included in departments in the city of Chios.

![Chart 1](image)

**Chart 1**
The applications collected and the departments created per Municipality in Chios Prefecture (2006-2009)

**The Educational Programs of Chios’s A.E.C. and its Human Resources Structure**

During the educational period 2006 - 2009 A.E.C. of Chios Prefecture realised 154 educational programs (Table 1). Totally, 2391 adults participated as students and they were educated by 54 instructors on the courses cited in Table 1.

**Table 1:** The educational programs that took place in Chios during the educational period 2006-2009.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Programs 2006 - 2009</th>
<th>Number of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Language I</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business English</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English in Tourism</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Language I</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Language II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By studying the available data of the last 3 years, it is evident that in the total educated population, the feminine population occupied the majority by 68% of the total (Figure 1).

**SEX OF A.E.C. STUDENTS OF CHIOS DISTRICT**

![Figure 1](image)

*The age percentage of men and women that took part in the A.E.C educational programs Of Chios Prefecture*


By examining the total number of people who were educated at the A.E.C of Chios Prefecture according to their age, it appears that the biggest percentage belonged to the age category of 30-44 years consisting 41% (978 individuals), the age category of 45-64
follows, consisting 26% (613 individuals) and the category of 25-29 years which constitutes 19% (456 individuals), who are presented in figure 2.

A general tendency of attendance of individuals above 40 in educational programs is noticed. This is due to the fact, on the one hand, in the increase of this age-related team in maximum levels of education, and on the other hand, in the general demand of services from individuals of bigger age for educational services, aiming at the better exploitation and management of their free time.

Figure 2
The ages in students’ number that took part in the educational programs of A.E.C Of Chios Prefecture

Figure 3 presents the analysis of the number of A.E.C students of Chios Prefecture according to their educational level, dividing them into illiterate, graduates of Elementary, Junior High and Senior High School, and graduates of University and Technical Institutes. It is worth noticing from the figure data that most of the students have graduated from higher education (31%) and they wish to complete their knowledge by participating in A.E.C educational programmes. Next to this majority there are 687 graduates of Senior High School (29%), while none from the participants was illiterate. Hardly 5% of the students were graduates of Elementary school.

Figure 3
The educational level of C.A.E students Of Chios Prefecture
In Figure 4, the professional status of the A.E.C Of Chios Prefecture students is being presented, showing the number of the students that at the period of education were workers, unemployed, pensioners, housewives, university students / students and unoccupied. The majority of the A.E.C students works (57%), while a smaller percentage is pensioners (5%). 396 housewives (17%) attended the educational programs of A.E.C to improve their daily life and occupy their free time. The percentage of unemployed is presented relatively low and amounts in 8%.

![PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF A.E.C STUDENTS OF CHIOS DISTRICT](image)

**Figure 4**  
*The professional status of A.E.C students Of Chios Prefecture  
Source: A.E.C of Chios Prefecture, Base of Telematic Network, 2006-2009*

Finally, the educational programs of C.A.E of Chios Prefecture occupied individuals of various teams (Figure 5) as people with special needs, immigrants which wished to learn the Greek language for their better professional development, as well as individuals from fragile teams such as that of prisoners of Chios juridical Prisons, by the creation of 11 educational programs, which were educated in the following programs: «Bodily and Mental Health», «Creative Thought, Production of Innovative and Original Ideas», «Advisory Service of Prisoners» and «Greek Language» for the immigrants jailed.

By studying the participation of various teams in the educational programs of A.E.C. Of Chios Prefecture, it was found that hardly 5% of students belonged to fragile teams. In this population, prisoners constituted 3%, people with special needs 1% and immigrants 1%.

![TARGET GROUP OF A.E.C STUDENTS OF CHIOS DISTRICT](image)

**Figure 5**  
*The target groups of A.E.C. students Of Chios Prefecture  
Source: A.E.C of Chios Prefecture, Base of Telematic Network, 2006-2009*
By investigating the Programs that assembled the biggest interest, it is confirmed that two only thematic units, «Informatics Technologies - Technology of Communications» and the thematic unit «European Languages - European History» assembled 69% of the departments that were created (Figure 6). More specifically, the thematic units of «Informatics Technologies - Technology of Communications» presented the biggest rally of created departments that assembled 31% as well as «European Languages - European History» assembling 38% of A.E.C. educational programs Of Chios Prefecture.

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6**
Analysis of A.E.C. thematic units Of Chios Prefecture that assembled the greatest interest
*Source: A.E.C of Chios Prefecture, Base of Telematic Network, 2006-2009*

Figure 7 presents the analysis in educational programs and particularizes in those that accumulated the bigger interest. The following was found: “Informatics II: Basic Knowledge of PC in today’s society of information” presents the greatest rally of departments by the creation of 18 programs, in the second place “Informatics III: Introduction to Excel - PowerPoint - Access” with 15 departments is found, while in the third place among the Programs with the bigger rally of departments «Italian Language I» and «Business English» with the creation of 12 departments each, can be found.

![Figure 7](image)
The A.E.C. educational programs of Chios Prefecture that assembled the greatest interest

The service of Trikala’s a.e.c. in the development of the district

Centre of Adult Education in Trikala functioned at October 2004, achieving 412 Educational-training Programmes. Training up to today ⇒ 5,626 citizens. There was a great demand to Computer learning and European languages programmes due to the increasing needs of the Nome’s municipalities.

Table 1. The Educational Programs of Trikala’s A.E.C. and its Human Resources Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Programs 2006 - 2009</th>
<th>Number of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Languages</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatics II-III-IV-V-VI</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology of Informatics and Communication (250 hours)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultures-Arts-Handling free time</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Citizen: Rights and Obligations</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy-Business-Administration</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment, Culture, Tourism, County Side Development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic knowledge of math’s and statistics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Programs</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


By studying the available data of the last 3 years, it is evident that in the total educated population, the feminine population occupied the majority by 69% of the total (Figure 8).

SEX OF A.E.C. STUDENTS OF TRIKALA DISTRICT

By examining the total number of people who were educated at the A.E.C of Trikala Prefecture according to their age, it appears that the biggest percentage belonged to the age category of 30-44 years, the age category of 45-64 follows, and then follows category of 25-29 years.
Figure 9
The ages in students’ number that took part in the educational programs of A.E.C Of Trikala Prefecture

Figure 10 presents the analysis of the number of A.E.C students of Trikala Prefecture according to their educational level, dividing them into illiterate, graduates of Elementary, Junior High and Senior High School, and graduates of University and Technical Institutes. It is worth noticing from the figure data that most of the students have graduated from higher education and they wish to complete their knowledge by participating in A.E.C educational programmes. Next to this majority there are graduates of Senior High School.

Figure 10
The educational level of C.A.E students Of Trikala Prefecture

In Figure 11, the professional status of the A.E.C Of Trikala Prefecture students is being presented, showing the number of the students that at the period of education were workers, unemployed, pensioners, housewives, university students / students and unoccupied. The majority of the A.E.C students works, while a smaller percentage is pensioners.
Most of the programs materialized in general population and then follows programs where took place in immigrants.

By investigating the Programs that assembled the biggest interest, it is confirmed that two only thematic units, «Technologies of Information - Communication» and the thematic unit «European Languages - European History» assembled 76 % of the departments that were created (Figure 13).
Conclusions & Proposals

We live in a time that constant education is considered to be a necessary condition for the personal and professional development of every citizen and employee. Aim of CAE is to be established in the conscience of all as a valid and reliable institution of for life learning, which provides in the all adult citizens the possibility for learning and acquisition of basic knowledge and dexterity that them will be essential supplies for the confrontation of their daily needs.

References

Dimitrouli, Kalliopi, Themeli, Olga, Rigoutsou Helen, 2007 “The Education of Adults in Prisons. The result of an effort to our country”.


Focusing on the quality of learning processes.

Introduction
Quality of an educational Institution can be defined differently. Results may vary depending on which functions and processes have been assessed. That means that when talking about quality of education or an educational Institution comparison needs definition which process or system are in question. Institutions have different reasons in assessing quality and getting good results. Obviously they need to assess their performance aiming at to improve their processes. In addition to that competition on students and finance on educational market are continuously hardening. In that competition situation Institutions need to advertise themselves to succeed.

Good quality image based on quality certificate which proves successful outer body auditing is a remarkable asset in that competition. Educational institutions are happy to tell that to potential students and financing institutions. Quality certificate is matter of weight on education market despite what has been audited. Quality opinions ware clarified at two Finnish Universities of Applied Science. The other topic in that clarification was to study what kind of quality promises those Educational Institutions give concerning their basic function namely education and how they are going to keep given promises. (Packalén 2008).

The main conclusion of the clarification was that neither of those Universities presents clearly their quality promises about their educational task. Promises are given a lot but promises are directed primarily to areal developmental tasks, strengthening of competitively of areal business life, international actions etc. Promises according to that clarification can be estimated to be quite loose discussing of working life.

Interpretation of data it looks like that Promises and Curriculums has a weak connection which comes up as described loose common discuss of working life. Instead of Education and Learning as interactional dialog between Teacher and Student do not appear. (Packalén 2008).

“Discuss of Working Life” or “The Concept of Professional Culture and Education”?

Determination what is quality especially in vocational education is depending also on starting points and basis of education and curriculums. Starting points and basis of Finnish vocational education changed after educational reform at early 1990’s. Earlier emphasis was mainly in professional culture and education. The policy of universities of applied sciences has concentrated in building institutions and control systems. In education emphasis orientation is towards working life and on contacts with business life. Central concept and goal when developing university of applied science ware expertise, producing new knowledge, applied research and orientation towards working life.
Expertise in the context of concept of professional culture and education can be defined as knowledge based and skill based readiness which is the result of education and training. Different professional fields have experience of their own. Experience is developing step by step and it can be developed continuously. Professional ability construct on one hand the matter it selves and the basis of it and on the other hand understanding the aim of activity of the work community. The task of expert is to provide apply and assess knowledge. (Mutaneynm 2008, 58 - 59).

“The discuss of working life” as starting point of vocational education means primarily educating such kind of skills that various organizations and service systems require and quality is defined according to these things. When planning education based on needs for training expressed by “working life” it is essential to recognize meta-skills behind those expressed needs.

The concept of professional culture and education as a starting point of education is perhaps a wider than concept of orientating towards working life. It is associated with understanding and skills of certain professional field. The key point is teaching and learning meta-knowledge and -skills of that professional field and that makes the quality.

**Economy or learning?**

Essential question concerning quality of learning is how the success of the educational institute is assessed. Do the qualitative performance and success of a university or similar educational Institute vary when assessing quality primarily with meters based on economy or primarily with meters based on achieved learning results of students? Is the primary focus on economy or on learning results?

Quality can be defined by assessing the requirements of the customer now and in the future. But who is the customer in Education? Who are customers of public educational institutes? Are students customers? If they are, what kind of customers they are?

Do the efficiency of an organization move so as it is over into teaching process and learning process so that also those processes will be as efficient as the organization it selves.

In Finland and obviously also in other European Countries institutions are growing ever bigger by joining. Argumentations in joining educational institutions together are based on getting more resource and saving money by rationalize functions.

In practice bigger institutions need larger administration and more administrators as well as premises for them so savings must be collected from other sources. Despite of the fact that share of other workers than teachers is growing salaries of teachers still form remarkable part of expenditure of an educational institute. So savings have been realized there in many institutes. That means less contact guidance per student, increasing of self-steering for students.

When assessing quality the focus instead of learning process and education process is merely in measuring supporting processes and managerial aspects aiming to support the decisions of administration for example flow-through and cost per unit.

Right kind of management process and especially leadership enable and lead organisation to improve its performance and quality. That makes also possible at the time to reduce costs by reducing lost, redoing and fatigue at work. It also increases inner conflicts and at the end of the day increases customer loyalty.

When focusing present quality opinions and quality systems to evaluate institutions managerial and economical success, the quality of educator’s education and
quality of education is mainly measured by meters of flow-through and cost per unit. Thus the question that who is qualified is often measured with other meters than educational skills.

Attention in constructive curriculum is focused in trying to meet the quality in learning according to the curriculum in interaction between teaching processes of the teacher and learning processes of the student in the context of resources available. The aim of supporting employment is to support in meeting quality objectives. (Raivola 2000, 23).

Aristotelian educational starting point could be that studying is students own inner project and the aim of that is “to become the person who he or she is”. In that case the students are often aloud to choose by him or her self what he or she wants to learn. His or hers degree of satisfactory is important meter of quality. It is good question if this kind of educational philosophy is justified with public resources. This kind of discussion is most actual in development discussion of Finnish vocational adult education institutions and universities of applied science.

From the starting point of the concept of professional culture and education the vocational education is the process of operating principal. The aim of that process is to improve and find best practice in that particular professional field. Teaching should be more focused in operation and operating than information and informing.

**Meaning of Customer?**

Another keystone concerning quality is meaning of the Customer. Is it the one who is studying and maybe paying part of costs? Is it the government, municipal or some society that arranges the school system or education or maybe taxpayers are customers? Quality systems often raise the meaning of a customer very high. That means that actions and functions of the producing organization are focused to meet specified needs of the customer. Quality is then defined in what extension these needs of the customer are satisfied. (Besterfield D. et all, 1995, Teboul, J. 1991)

An adult student may be customer of an Educational Institute especially when talking about non compulsory education where student himself chooses and buys a course or equal teaching. He or she may be provided with royal conditions and facilitations. The Adult Student may be the Customer of the Educational Institute but when learning he or she is not a customer in a sense of quality. Learning processes consists but teaching, tutorial and supervising processes also students own processes, earlier study, various skills, capability and experience. When the implementation he or she has bought starts he will be a part of the learning process and thus also responsible on his or her part for the success of the course and his or her own learning. The student cannot externalize his or her learning or evaluation of it. In learning process the student is not a customer but the subject.

Often quality of an educational institute is defined according to student feedback. There are no commonly accepted standard concerning satisfaction of a single person. Student satisfaction is thus not very reliable way to assess learning especially because feedback is often addressed merely to support processes and external factors than learning itself.

What ever are measured in the name of quality, essential is that measurement or assessment is systematic so that results can be estimated with same basis. The other principle is to try to find and set such meters that as could as possible describe the parameters we are interested in.
The relationship between learning and quality can be study and assess e.g. by using different methods and tools among others Quality function deployment (Besterfield D. et al. 1995), Best Practice and Ability Potential by using “ability prism”. (Packalén 2002) Quality function deployment is planning tool focused on customer expectations. QFD was first applied within vehicle industry in Japan in but can be applied to practically any manufacturing or service industry. It is a team-based management tool which helps to transfer “customer voice” into final product of the producing organisation. Application of Quality function deployment is also known as House of Quality because of the structure of QFD can be thought as a framework of a house. Quality function deployment could be used also in planning education. It gives platform for collecting information and provides method to use that information in translating learning demands into requirements for an educational organisation and further to help planning curriculums and implementation plans.

Experienced educationalist is able to be aware of success in learning and teaching. He or she is also capable to change used methods following students learning process. When striving to improve learning- and teaching processes it is most important to recognize these processes. In this case improving is taking best practices in use. Best Practice is well known method in improving performance and processes in various business fields. It can also be used in improving educational processes. Using best practice needs openness and confidence. High hierarchy and bureaucracy do not feed the method.

Using Quality function deployment and Best Practice methods trained and experienced teachers are able to translate in teams expressed learning needs into language of teaching meta-knowledge and – skills behind those expressed needs. By using Ability Prism it is possible to get feedback on taken actions. Team oriented cooperation between teachers is essential as well as sufficient resources and power of decision. It is interesting and of coarse also important that individual students and individual teachers appraise his or her share. But first teachers can together in teams evaluate that information it is possible to build best practice processes and to get into the spiral of continuous improvement.

Improvements

Instead of concentrating in organisation building Institutions should focus in building different learning spaces with interaction between learners and between learners and teachers. Very important element in Learning Space – in Japanese way – is interaction. With interaction student can change so called target knowledge into understanding and skills.

Learning processes should be described and concretised. Instead of building functional multilevel hierarchy organisation new modern way in leading and manage expert organisations like teachers and educationalists should be taken into action in educational institutes. Teachers and educationalists should have resources and power of decision needed. Now teachers and educationalists are in the lowest level of hierarchy and e.g. curriculums are planned as well as decisions of resources are made somewhere in a higher level of organisation hierarchy by managers and other bureaucrats.

Teaching and processes should be planned so that student is able to meet wanted Meta knowledge and Meta skills with his/her learning process. The effectiveness of teaching can be assessed by measuring learning against these aims and targets.
Assess increase of ability achieved in educating educators learning process with educational institute may be quite complicated and takes much time and effort. Self assessing tools could be useful for that purpose if they are enough simple to use and yet capable to give information about the situation.

Expertise is never absolute, it is potential. An expert can always improve widen and deepen his or her expertise. The basic idea of ability prism is that that ability potential of an expert is always income of multiplication of knowledge, skills and hinku, which means driving force factor.

Self assessing tool Ability Prism for assessing changes in ability against certain task or vocational needs could be one answer for that. The idea in Ability is to assess own present knowledge and skills against needed. But knowledge and skills even how much are not enough for doing the job. You need also something that gets you to do what has to be done. Compulsion carries in certain amount as long as it exists but there are many other factors effecting to our striving force. In Finnish language we have the word “hinku” that collects together and describes that force.

If present knowledge, skills and hinku are valuated in numerical values against needed we can multiply values and trace a prism using values \((x,y,z)\) as edges of the prism. Now the volume of the traced prism describes the potential and when valuating next time and tracing now prism we can easily see the possible change, which factor and what direction.

Especially academic studies emphasizes in increasing knowledge. Vocational training on the other hand emphasizes in skills needed e.g. for working life. Using ability prism student him or her selves are able to observe in a quite easy way his or her learning and also changes in Hinku. A change in personal ability prism gives also useful information about learning knowledge and skills as well as changes of hinku to supervising situations with the teacher. By means of education the form and size of individual ability prism may change quite much. In a work group or team it is actually only asset if there are group members with different kind of ability prism.

The value of Hinku is variable. One day a person may have it more and the other day less than average. When a person has something really interesting to do his or her Hinku goes up and also his or her ability potential increases. He or she achieves that day much in that doing. Sometimes if you for example have troubles at home your hinku may go down. In those days you do not achieve so much. Sometimes or someone’s hinku may also become distorted. Then you all are in trouble.

![Ability Prism as characterization of Ability Potential.](image)
Knowledge orientated Ability Prism is typical format of Ability Prism for a rather young person who has just been graduated at university or comparable knowledge orientated institute with minor working experience. The format of skills orientated ability prism above could be typical for a trained skilled person. The owner of “Hinku” orientated Ability Prism could be estimated to be eager than his or her knowledge or skills require.

What does quality mean in context of education?
In this article we have been studying quality in education by asking questions about measurement and customers of education. We have taken only few keystone causes for quality into examination. We have recognised that the elements of educational quality is much based on those starting points set to education. There are many different educational starting points. Here we have handling only two of them: Discuss of Working Life and Concept of Professional Culture and Education.

Measurement is essential premise when striving towards quality. Defining premises of quality within education is not an easy task. Every time when defining quality also quality meters and how to use those meters have to be defined. In this connection we asked weather measuring of quality is based mainly on economic or learning base. We also asked who is and could be the customer for education.

Our main point about this topic is that keystone of educational quality especially in vocational education is interaction and dialog between students and teachers as well as learning needed meta-knowledge and skills.

When assessing quality the focus instead of learning process and education process is merely in measuring supporting processes and managerial aspects aiming to support the decisions of administration for example flow-through, cost per student, cost per unit.

How do quality of hat is the difference of quality when assessing it against system performance

The economical welfare of the educational institute or other similar point does not have any direct interaction with the quality of learning. Financial welfare and working organisation are important factors which for they part make producing qualitative teaching and learning possible.

We also raised three tools for improving quality of education: Quality Function Deployment, Best Practice and Ability Prism. These tools are useful for assessment of individual person’s learning process as well as for assessment of extensive working community.

References


Osakeyhtiö


Introduction

EU’s agenda on adult learning calls on all countries to promote adult learning in Europe and to place it firmly on the political agenda. This action plan on adult learning amongst other things will raise skill levels, reduce social exclusion, promote active citizenship and support employability and mobility in the labour market “through investment in citizens’ knowledge and competence at all stages of their lives.” Among the major challenges identified is lifting the barriers to participation for all groups, especially the ageing population and migrants. According to the European Council “education and training are critical factors for achieving the Lisbon’s strategy objectives of raising economic growth, competitiveness and social inclusion”. Moreover, “set the strategic goal for Europe to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based society in the world by 2010” (European Commission. Adult learning: It is never too late to learn, 2006; European Commission. It is always good time to learn, 2007).

According to European Commission “politicians at European level have recognised that education and training are essential to the development and success of today’s knowledge society and economy. The EU’s strategy emphasises countries working together and learning from each other.” Thus, “knowledge, and the innovation it sparks, are the EU’s most valuable assets, particularly as global competition becomes more intense in all sectors. ...High quality pre-primary, primary, secondary, higher and vocational education and training are the fundament for Europe’s success. Lifelong learning must become a reality across Europe. It is key to growth and jobs, as well as to allow everyone the chance to participate fully in society.”

1. “Making lifelong learning and mobility a reality;
2. Improving the quality and efficiency of education and training;
3. Promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship;

Acknowledgements: This paper was based solely on the ENTITLE project and the work that all partners delivered. We thank them all. Valuable information derived from the project description, outcomes and recommendations. Thus, ENTITLE’s Website was a vital resource. We would like to thank all partners for writing the guidelines, the organizations participating in the project and the MLA, EUN and MDR for their work concerning the IAF and editing the Guidelines. Finally, special thanks to Rob Davies and Carol Usher of MDR partners, project managers of ENTITLE, for their support.
4. Enhancing creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship, at all levels of education and training."

It is evident that for the EC “an advanced knowledge society is the key to higher growth and employment rates. Education and training are essential priorities for the European Union in order to achieve the Lisbon goals”. Therefore, the EC established a Lifelong Learning Programme in order “to contribute through lifelong learning to the development of the European Union as an advanced knowledge society, with sustainable economic development, more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (European Commission. Education and Training. Lifelong Learning Programme (2009).

There is a widespread interest in the role of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in adult learning and is seen increasingly to occur through the leisure activities that are now mediated by digital technologies as part of people's social and cultural lives. New technologies can offer all members of society the opportunity to match learning to their specific needs and circumstances.

There is a role for the public libraries to play in adult learning by offering new and innovative services and activities that empower citizens to successfully achieve lifelong learning, helping to increase the number of qualified, skilled and fulfilled people in Europe of any age, class or gender. This essential role that Europe's 180 million users can play by offering non-formal/informal learning education and training is in the heart of EC’s agenda. (ENTITLE. Project background, 2009; Davis, 2008).

The ENTITLE Project (Europe’s New libraries Together In Transversal Learning Environments)

ENTITLE (http://www.entitlelll.eu/) is a multilateral project under LLP KA4 Dissemination and Exploitation of Results. Entitle focuses on the contribution to be made through informal learning settings in libraries to lifelong learning, combating digital illiteracy and social exclusion, paying special attention to gains achieved through the applications of ICT.
The project aims:

- to identify, describe and disseminate the many instances of good practice, specific services, tools and approaches used for learning in public library settings, in order to support these activities and to enable a fuller understanding of their contribution to Europe’s learning agendas, and
- to provide an evidence-based framework for further and wider comparison where this relates to impact on learners. (ENTITLE. Objectives, 2009).

The key activities and results of the project includes: the identification of good practices, initiatives and projects in the area of libraries and lifelong learning, surveys from all countries participating in the ENTITLE project providing policy background, good practice instances, dissemination and exploitation activities concerning public libraries and learning in these countries. The production of guidelines stress the valuable policy provisions for public libraries in lifelong learning, and the impact assessment framework, a common tool that will assist in collecting and presenting data on the impact of learning in learning organisations. Other activities are the organisation of 11 national workshops and a final conference in order librarians, key experts, teachers, lifelong learners and practitioners to debate the emerging results, the creation of Guidelines and the Impact
Assessment Framework of the project. Final, the creation of a web-based environment in order to disseminate the results of the project.

The ENTITLE focuses on 12 countries: Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and UK. From Greece, the Central Public Library of Veria is participating in this project.

The main target group of ENTITLE are public and other libraries, library staff and library managers, decision-makers, national, municipality and regional learning departments, policy makers in regional, national and European level, practitioners, teachers and teaching staff in schools, vocational trainers and adult educators as well as associations and networks in the cultural and educational sectors.

The Central Public Library of Veria (CPLV)

The CPLV (www.libver.gr) is a leading library in Greece, with a long lasting presence on the Internet, social networking/Web 2.0 services and significant role in the provision of up-to-date information, electronic and traditional library services to the public. The CPLV has played a significant role in bringing awareness to the Greek library community, librarians, stakeholders and library experts concerning the role of the libraries and other cultural heritage organisations in providing lifelong learning and e-learning services, take advantage of the ICT developments and support educational programmes, lifelong learning activities, information literacy and digital literacy programmes, all for the benefit of the public.

Since 1994, CPLV participated in 12 funded European Projects focused mainly on the above issues. Today CPLV participates in the ENTITLE (2007-2009) and the Untold Stories project (2007-2009) that deals with the creation of digital stories by immigrants. It is evident that throughout the years CPLV plays a vital role in the local, regional and national community in providing lifelong learning services for its users and distance users.

The Impact Assessment Framework (IAF)

This section of the paper presents ENTITLE’s expert-validated Impact Assessment Framework designed for use at national, regional, local and institutional level in order to support “quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the impact of libraries’ learning activities and services on learning participation, outcomes, etc. for children, schools, adult learners in general and learners involved in vocational education”. This will provide “library and partner adult professionals, researchers and decision makers in Europe with a common, validated means of collecting and presenting data on the impact of their learning provision on learners, across their major target learning ‘sectors’ and to establish a basis upon which they can in future establish trends and developments in a manner which is convincing to strategic policy makers, funding bodies in the education, culture employment sectors etc.” (ENTITLE. The Impact Assessment Framework, 2009). The Museums, Libraries and Archives Council in UK (http://www.mla.gov.uk/), with the support from all partners, had the responsibility to develop and deliver the framework. The presentation of this section is based on the Impact Assessment Framework as published at the ENTITLE’s Website. The full version of the IAF can be found at http://www.entitlelll.eu/eng/Assessment-Framework.

The key aspects of the framework are: (ENTITLE. The Impact Assessment Framework, 2009).
Developing your Story

Select your service you want to evaluate; outline why this service is needed; what resources you will need to deliver the service; which specific activities you will need to deliver; what outputs and outcomes you expect to achieve.

In order to get a view of the full range of impact that a library service has on users, IAF recommends to develop a story that describes NEEDS (describe here the problem(s) the service is attempting to solve or issue(s) it is addressing); INPUTS (describe here the resources which could enable services effectiveness); ACTIVITIES (describe here the processes, techniques, events and actions of the services); OUTPUTS (list here the expected direct results of the programme activities, described in terms of the size and/or scope); OUTCOMES (these are specific changes in the attitudes, behaviours, knowledge, skills and enjoyment of end-users that we expect to result from our services); and IMPACT (describe here wider community, and/or societal changes expected to result from your services, which might include improved conditions, increased capacity, and/or changes in the policy arena).

Selecting SMART Indicators

The SMART indicators are: Simple to implement, Measurable, Action-focused, Relevant, and Time-bound. Select SMART in order to capture whether you have achieved the expected outputs and outcomes.

Examples of Output Indicators include: number of people involved in activities, library membership numbers and records and minutes of meetings. Moreover, ENTITLE has identified the following two output indicators as relevant for Library Learning Services across Europe:

Number of unique users who participated during the year in learning services/activities provided by public libraries which were designed to:
- enable people to improve their skills in one or more aspects of ICT use and
- increase their interest in reading and/or to improve their reading abilities.

Deciding on the right Data Collection Methods

This is a critical step in capturing the impact of your work. There are many methods and methodological tools that you can use. The IAF recommend using short questionnaires, focus groups, one-to-one interviews, participant/visitor logs (e.g. keep name, unique identifiers such as postcode and age), observations (e.g. how participants behave during the activities) and comment cards (e.g. people can write general comments about the activities they experienced). Consider whether the method you have chosen will generate the information that you need; consider issues like who will collect the data? Is the data collection simple to administer and analyse?

Analyse Results

Raise issues like, what are the data telling about your original story? does the evidence suggest the goals of the service have been made? Look for pattern or trends, any common themes emerging from your data; do not draw general conclusions from small samples. Always link your analysis to your original story.

Present and Use Findings
Present clearly your findings from your evaluation. There are many ways to present your data like write short summary reports to key stakeholders or publish the results online. Use findings to improve what you do. Disseminate your findings.

Guidelines

One of the main key results of ENTITLE project is the production of Guidelines for librarians and library staff that work as educators and trainers. The project produced a series of concise guidelines, with related recommendations, highlighting effective policy provisions for public libraries in lifelong learning, drawing attention and linking to established and emerging good practice in the provision of services for learning. The guidelines were authored by a working group from five of the partners and edited by EUN and MDR. “The core of the guidelines focus on the continued development of the transversal role of libraries and their partners in supporting learning across children’s, adult and vocational education, in the varying economic, social, cultural infrastructural and professional conditions across Europe”. There are six Guidelines: 1. Strategies, policies and advocacy for public libraries and lifelong learning, 2. Libraries and the Lifelong Learning Landscape, 3. Planning and Managing Learning Services, 4. Resourcing, 5. Evaluation and 6. The Learning Environment. Each guideline is presenting in four main sections: Current Assessment, Conclusions and Recommendations, Good Practice and References. These guidelines will be translated into the national languages of the participating countries and disseminated across European institutions (ENTITLE. Guidelines, 2009).

This paper will present the main themes and issues of each of the six Guidelines. The presentation is based on the Guidelines as published at the ENTITLE’s Website. The full version of the Guidelines can be found at: http://www.entitlelll.eu/eng/Guidelines.

Guideline 1. Strategies, policies and advocacy for public libraries and Lifelong Learning

The first guideline is “concerning informal learning settings in libraries and their role in promoting lifelong learning and combating digital illiteracy and social exclusion. It has a specific focus on strategies, policies, and advocacy”. It presents the European Union policies on Lifelong Learning as well as the major pillars of Europe’s i2010 initiative. Additionally, the guideline analysis the Role of public libraries that can be played by providing non-formal/informal education and training. Public libraries “represent a highly valuable and widely accessible resource in the informal learning landscape of Europe. However, the extent to which this potential is recognized and acted upon by the education sector, varies enormously between Member States”. Thus, “national government policies increasingly providing a strong context for public libraries to be accepted as playing a full part in delivering lifelong learning strategies and examples of successful implementation are beginning to emerge. Public libraries play a significant role in local communities and at their best are able to assume a new role in local communities as ‘lifelong learning provocateurs’.” From a survey conducted by ENTITLE, it is evident that only in two countries public libraries have a central role in published national Lifelong Learning strategies, whilst the rest have weak or no reference to public libraries at all. The current provision of services by public libraries is rich and courses are organised all over Europe which are intended to enrich formal learning curricula. Some libraries contribute to vocational education or acquiring qualifications. Other types of provision are linked to classroom curricula in a variety of areas. Public libraries have strong record in Public
Access Computing which well equips them to play a role in this area. Moreover, “public libraries can be particularly effective in working with individuals or socially excluded groups, drawing them back into the learning cycle and improving their quality of life, for example by organising after-school and holiday activities, helping young people to spend their free time beneficially and focusing on people with special needs”.

**Guideline 2. Libraries and the Lifelong Learning Landscape**

The second guideline emphasizes in “effective policy provisions for public libraries in lifelong learning, drawing attention and linking to established and emerging good practice in the provision of services for learning. This section looks at the place of libraries in the lifelong learning landscape, considers some of the issues and provides examples of good practice”. It is clear that the lifelong learning landscape is crowded, competitive and changing fast. Today, learners can choose from offers from the Internet, Web 2.0 and social networks for learning, schools, colleges and universities, private companies, the workplace, television, cultural heritage organisations and libraries. Therefore, library managers should “appreciate the environment in which they operate, learn from examples of good practice, and assess the opportunities for partnership as well as possible treats from competitors”. The guideline makes a reference at the IFLA’s (2004) report *The Role of Libraries in Lifelong Learning* that supports enhancement of the role of public libraries in lifelong learning at various levels.

The guideline analysis the Public Library Lifelong Learning Landscape across Europe and demonstrates the range of services and activities that public libraries offer to millions of users. Finally, the guideline presents Good Practices concerning themes such as co-operation with schools, commercial companies, local citizens’ groups, adult learning centres, arts and cultural organisations, organisations for those with special needs and language and cultural centres.

**Guideline 3. Planning and Managing Learning Services**

This guideline highlights the “effective provision for public libraries in lifelong learning, drawing attention and linking to established and emerging good practice in the provision of services for learning”. It looks at “issues related to effective planning and management of such services”. It present the IFLA/UNESCO guidelines for the development of *the public library services* (2003), name three important management tools: community needs analysis, monitoring and evaluation, and performance measurement. Here the *community needs analysis* is analysed.

In this guideline we argued that public libraries have to a significant “extent already responded through innovations such as: expanding online access to cultural content and providing remote access to services through computers and mobile devices, enabling users to gain access from home or wherever they happen to be”. There has been a move towards the idea of a public library as a kind of “multifunctional community centre, a new type of social institution designed to order to advance informal learning, develop community spirit and address social inclusion”.

In terms of lifelong learning, public libraries provide a mosaic of services such as activities to support formal learning and assistance for homework, support for basic skills needs, ICT courses, training in the use of e-services (e-banking, public services), usage of GPS, mobile-phone, public self service solutions, information literacy promotion, courses in digital photography and computer graphics, interactive games, business information
e.g. market research, business start up sessions, patents information, support to those seeking employment and careers guidance, storytelling and reading clubs for children and adults, presentation of new books, authors, literary circles and competitions, debates/meetings on different topics e.g. health, politics, genealogy courses and language courses. Additionally, public libraries provide information literacy programmes and electronic communication and information courses. The provision of these services by libraries places high demands on the skills of library staff and on library resources. Thus, “innovation in service provision requires managerial focus, commitment and prioritisation of resources. It acknowledges the importance of cooperation, and the competencies that exist in networks and finally it advocates replication”. Good practices from Denmark, Finland, Portugal, Slovenia and United Kingdom are presented.

Guideline 4. Resourcing

This guideline is concerning “informal learning settings in libraries that are meant to promote lifelong learning and combat digital illiteracy and social exclusion. It has a specific focus on the provision of resources. Sufficient resources in the form of funding and well-qualified staff are a precondition for the development of innovative library programmes and projects”. The guideline focuses on staff training needs and skills required. It argues that library staff should possess skills which enable them to deliver the services such as information literacy, digital literacy and ICT skills, which public libraries can provide effectively and beneficially in this context. Some of the most important skills which librarians much have or acquire are: technical skills, educational/pedagogical skills, presentation techniques, organisational and marketing skills, communication skills and other skills dealing with issues like digital copyright, freedom of information and security. On the other hand, each country, region and community has its own specific funding opportunities for support public libraries. However, public libraries still depend in the main on local or central government funding. In many countries, municipalities or other local authorities receive ‘block grants’ from central government, and the municipalities subsequently decide the exact amount to be allocated to libraries. In recent years, opportunities to apply for grant funding from private companies and sponsors seem to have increased. For example in Denmark and the UK, National Lottery Funds have provided in order to support library services. Another main source of funding for public libraries is EU programmes and especially the Lifelong Learning Programme. Thus, libraries have to be actively aware of the possibility of applying for sponsorship from private companies and NGOs for their programmes. Even though many library organisations such as IFLA and UNESCO recommend offering library services free, public libraries can generate income by offering paid services such as annual membership fees, fines, reservation fees, charges for leading CDs or DVDs, database searching, etc.

Guideline 5. Evaluation

The fifth guideline is concerning “informal learning settings in libraries and their role in promoting lifelong learning and combating digital illiteracy and social exclusion. It has a specific focus on evaluation”. Public libraries “have a long-standing interest in measuring and evaluating their performance in achieving the core goals for which they are funded”. The guideline presents performance measures and performance indicators for services, types of benchmarking (metric and process), the international standards of
ISO 2789:2003 and ISO 11620:2008, and definitions of some relevant terminology (inputs, processes, outputs, outcomes and impact). Based on ENTITLE’s work, ENTITLE has produced a step-by-step approach to conducting an evaluation based on the Generic Learning Outcomes (GLO) model. This model seeks to capture the key areas of learning that the library sector can feasibly deliver using its own unique strengths. This guideline analyses further the GLO model that it can be found at ENTITLE’s Website.

**Guideline 6. The Learning Environment**

This final guideline looks at the “effective provision for public libraries in lifelong learning, drawing attention and linking to established and emerging good practice in the provision of services for learning”. Hence, it looks at “the learning environment which libraries can create for their users together with operational factors may influence this and provides examples of good practice. Throughout their history, public libraries have striven to provide learning facilities of various kinds for their user communities. However, within current reality, there is an increasing need for public libraries require to evolve into a new kind of learning institution”.

This guideline focuses on “the environmental influences within the public library by discussing the physical and virtual environments involved, together with the resources required to pursue such an evolutionary process, which will enable public libraries to perform a core role in delivering Lifelong Learning”. Today, physical learning environments, in many instances, are giving way to or being ‘reborn’ as digital learning platforms. It appears vital for the role of public libraries in Lifelong Learning that they remain aware of this recent evolution and become fully involved with this process.

**Conclusions**

This paper presented the ENTITLE project that aimed to identify, describe and disseminate the good practices, specific services, tools and approaches used for learning in public libraries, in order to support learning activities. Furthermore, it presented the Impact Assessment Framework, a tool designed for use from library organisations in order to support the evaluation of the impact of libraries’ learning activities and services on learning participation and outcomes. Hence, the paper presented the six guidelines developed by ENTITLE project highlighting effective policy provisions for public libraries in lifelong learning, drawing attention and linking to established and emerging good practice in the provision of services for learning.

Finally, the paper debated the need for Europe’s public libraries to play a central role in delivering lifelong learning services, to expand their learning offer to new clients, evaluate and straitening the environment in which libraries operate and learn from other organisations good learning practices. Thus, assess the opportunities for partnership, cooperate with policymakers, local educational agencies, non-profit organisations and schools, invest in services and secure funding by been aware of the funding opportunities that might arise. Libraries have an obligation to the public to deliver lifelong learning services in order to reduce social exclusion, promote active citizenship, and engage in leisure learning. As a result, libraries should be transformed into “learning environments” and “open learning centres”.

**References**


Educating young and non-experienced adult educators in Thrace: Evaluation of a seminar.

Introduction

Adult education keeps growing and expanding rapidly, in Greece and worldwide, due to the great interest of governments, scientists and individuals for lifelong education and training. It is a new type of educational process, open to all citizens, considered not simply as an occasional effort, but as an adult process that leads to the renewal and/or specialisation of the general and special knowledge, the skills, the attitudes, but also of the wider ways of approaching life. This means that individuals are involved willingly in personal processes of learning for several reasons: either because they were not given the opportunity in the past, or in order to improve the knowledge and the skills related to the job one already has, or even to change job or way of life (Kedraka, 2009a).

The Hellenic Adult Education Association (HAEA) is a non-profit, non-governmental organization and its mission is to promote the scientific development of Adult Education in Greece and Southeastern Europe, to support the professional development of its members, to enhance the communication and to create a sense of community among its members (www.adulteduc.gr). Since 2004 the Hellenic Association for Adult Education is trying to cover needs concerning the implementation and the development of the field in Greece, through dialogue and activities providing information, training and support on relevant issues.

Among the different categories of activities undertaken by HAEA to promote Adult Education, educational and training activities are the most common ones and they include:

a. Organization of conferences, one-day educational events, seminars and/or workshops.
b. Implementation of pilot training programs.
c. Development of (self) learning material for the HAEA members.

The roots of the Pilot Seminar in Thrace

In 2006 HAEA decided to follow an active strategy in order to diffuse the principles and practices of Adult Education all over Greece, because, indeed, most of the congresses, the activities and the educational and training events usually take part in Athens or Thessalonica, the two major cities of the country. Therefore, active members who live and work in different parts of the country, with the support of HAEA, and after taking into account the specific needs and conditions of their region, undertake the responsibility to organize seminars and educational activities in different parts of Greece. A record of such initials is hosted in the site of HAEA.

Within this concept in April 2006 a one-day educational event under the title: Social Skills and Adults Education took place in Alexandroupolis. In that conference almost 300 people participated not only during the lectures’ part but also in one of the three seminars that were organized during the second part of the conference. The assessment of that first attempt to introduce Adult Education in Thrace was made with the intention to have an initial clue on the needs of both trainers and trainees, who live and work in East Macedonia and Thrace, the most remote region of Northern Greece. Data was collected.
on an Evaluation Form that participants filled out at the end of the conference. Results showed that there was a great interest for Adult Education but also a great need for more information and training concerning theory and practice. Men and experienced adults’ educators seemed more positive, whereas women and those with higher educational background seemed more reserved in their enthusiasm, but they all agreed that they enjoyed the lectures and -mostly- the workshops of the conference. The most interesting finding was that participants, although coming from different educational and working backgrounds, proposed to HAEA to start seminars and any kind of educational procedures, also using the open and distance education methodology, confirming thus the interest for the field of Adult Education in the region (Kedraka, 2007)

**The Pilot Seminar for Adult Educators in Thrace**

As a follow-up of that first conference in Thrace, HAEA organised in 2008 a full seminar for adult educators living in the region. It was considered as a pilot educational action of HAEA, because it was a good chance to detect, apart from the advantages, the realistic difficulties of such a try. The seminar took place in Alexandroupolis, from November 2008 to January 2009. Its **duration was a total of 30 hours**, spread in four meetings lasting five hours each, while the rest ten hours were covered by distance learning.

**The objective of the seminar** was to introduce young and non-experienced adult educators to the main principles and practices of Adult Education, as well as to get them acquainted with active learning. The “hidden” aim, however, was to create a core team of adult educators in this remote region of the country, who would be able to function as a basis for further activities and implementations concerning Adult Education. 27 individuals that live in the wider region of Thrace\(^3\) took part in the Seminar. The criterion for accepting them was their interest and their involvement into Adult Education. It was a non-**homogeneous team**, with different ages (the great majority was from 23 to 35 years old and only 5 of them were between 35 and 50), occupational and educational background, most of them having a small or even no experience and knowledge on the field of Adult Education. Some of them worked in institutions which educate adults (eg, Second Chance Schools or Evening Schools or Training Centres for Unemployed) or as occasional educators in training programs for adults, running with European funds under prefectures, municipalities, local institutions etc, some were ‘fresh’ graduates of University that seek their professional orientation, while others worked as freelance professionals educating adults in the new technologies or in enterprises and finally, some of them were school teachers in elementary and secondary education. The first day of the Seminar participants received a complete file with **educational material** (books, researches, articles, drills etc) to support their theoretical background and to help them in the development of a small essay they should do. By the end of the Seminar a **Certification** was given. We must note that they sponsored themselves to cover its low - by all means- cost. The educators were: Professor Alexis Kokkos, the President of HAEA, and Dr Katerina Kedraka, member of HAEA, both teaching in the Hellenic Open University in the field of Adult Education.

Learning was drawn in **three modules**:

- **Short retrospection in the field of Adult Education**, with focus on the following subjects:

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\(^3\) Cities of Orestias, Didimotiho, Alexandroupoli, Komotini and Xanthi.
The basic principles and methods of the field
Introduction to the theory of Tranformation Learning
Adult Education in Greece –institutions and structures
Active learning and educational techniques for adults: planning, organisation and evaluation.

**Acquaintance with useful techniques for teaching and researching:**
- Microteaching as a tool for the adult educator
- The qualitative research and the data collection techniques of interview and observation which are often used in field.

**Practical Applications of teaching or researching:** presentation of an activity/practical application designed and written in the framework of the ten hours’ distance learning part of the seminar. These activities were built in three stages:
- The forming of small groups with 3-4 participants for preparing and presenting the assignment. They could choose among a microteaching, or a small research with the use of either interviews of observation as a data collection technique. Groups were free to decide upon the subject and the title of each assignment, according to their common interests and previous knowledge and skills.
- The presentation to the entire group of each assignment.
- The actual assignment in written and/or electronic form.
- During this whole working procedure the educators were supporting them at all levels any time the participants asked for their help.

**The evaluation of the Seminar**
The evaluation of every program addressed to adults is essential for its quality, since it provides a critical feedback on the content and its link to the trainees’ educational needs, the learning methods, the educational material, the educators, the trainees’ interest and participation, the planning and the administrative support of the program (Hasapis, 2000). All these aspects are of major interest for its designers but also for the educators and the participants, since a full assessment can contribute to the elimination of any weak points and at the same time, to the confirmation of food practices which can be used in future educational activities (Vergidis and Karalis 1999). Evaluation can follow many different models, but for the Seminar in Thrace HAEA decided to follow a two tail final evaluation procedure based on both the opinions of the participants and of the two educators, who were also the designers of this particular seminar. The purpose of evaluating this pilot program was to collect any comments and proposals regarding the best possible running of such a program in an area where participants do not have any experience but also they do not have many chances to be introduced to Adult Education. Any evidence of success or failure at any phase of the program meant to be used in the future to provide a better program, especially for a remote region of Greece, like Thrace.
The educators, after discussing thoroughly, focused their evaluation on the following points (Kedraka, 2009b):
- The **willing participation** of 27 individuals from the region of Thrace, who were strongly interested in Adult Education since they applied during the very first week after the announcement of the Seminar. Due to the number of people interested for

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34 also published to the website of HAEA (www.adulteduc.gr)
participating to the Seminar, HAEA decided that instead of 20 participants, as it was at first decided, to finally admit 27.

- The interest, the deep and active participation during the four meetings shown by the trainees.
- The high level and the creativity of their work-presentations and essays.
- The positive attitude during all phases of the Seminar.
- The expected practical difficulties, like time planning or finding a proper place to host it, that come along with each training program, that however with good will, collaboration and common spirit were easily solved.

**Evaluation by the trainees - Methodology**

The evaluation based on the opinions of the participants was attempted by the end of the Seminar. In order to collect data we followed the next procedure: during the last hour of the fourth (last) meeting, just before the closure of the Seminar, participants were asked to anonymously record their opinions about the Seminar on a piece of paper, by writing down key words on the outline of each participant's palm. Our aim was to have a spontaneous, quick, easy and direct assessment of the learning procedure they had taken part in.

With this technique a total of 85 words (or an even small phrase) was gathered. They were analyzed with the method of Content Analysis, interpreting them on a qualitative approach basis. Koulaouzidis (2008) notes that the interest, and at the same time, the difficulty in quality approaches is the interpretation of data from the researcher, because the truth is not supported by uncontradictable evidence, but by the persuasiveness by which the experiences of narrator are interpreted.

**Findings**

A careful and repetitive study of the 85 key words or phrases collected by the trainees, led to a first taxonomy of the 85 initial assessment comments (Tsourvakas, 2003) made by the participants to the Seminar fewer than three major categories as following:

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<td>Further information on educational techniques Information</td>
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| Methods of teaching |

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</tbody>
</table>

| Methods of teaching |
The names of the three categories were given by the author of the present study, taking into account their context. Concerning the needs of this paper we note that translation of course is an issue; however, an effort was made to attribute the original meaning of the key words and phrases pointed out by the participants. According to the above taxonomy three categories of comments can be created: those concerning the learning outcomes of the Seminar, those concerning the experience the participants went through and finally, some comments about things that they would like to improve.
On a second effort to reach out the essence of this evaluation, we reduced the initial 85 comments to larger groups of comments, but we kept the three major categories, as it appears on Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational results</th>
<th>Learning Experience</th>
<th>Ask for</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning, knowledge, skills and attitudes, techniques of teaching and researching,</td>
<td>Easygoing, educators, interest,</td>
<td>Longer duration, practical skills,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deepening in challenging approaches for educating adults</td>
<td>collaboration, interaction, energetic</td>
<td>more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>participation, stimulation,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reflective satisfaction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2 we marked with bold the three core points -key words or phrases- that according to our opinion better lead us towards the very essence (we could say the “heart”) of the evaluation.

Summarising, we finally focused on three basic qualitively selected points, deriving from the original comments the participants of the Seminar made when they were asked to evaluate it:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational results</th>
<th>Learning Experience</th>
<th>Ask for</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deepening in challenging approaches for educating adults</td>
<td>Reflective satisfaction</td>
<td>More</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Hasapis (2000) refers to evaluation as a procedure that aims both at the evaluation of the formulated objectives of a program (evaluation of results and consequences) and at the evaluation of contribution of the basic activities and characteristics of the program to its effectiveness (evaluation of activities). The main characteristics on which an evaluation could be based, according to Hasapis (2000, p. 106), are:

- the content of thematic units and its correspondence to the needs of the trainees
- the learning methods
- the educational material
- the educators
- the degree of the trainees’ energetic participation
- the planning and the time given to the educational activities
- and, finally, the administrative support of the program.

As it occurs from the findings of this study, trainees-future and in most cases non-experienced-adult educators felt that the Seminar was a very interesting and stimulating learning experience for them. They strongly noted that they acquired knowledge and skills for approaching adults, though they still have needs, especially on the field of teaching techniques. In general, if we follow Hasapis’ (2000) list of characteristics as above, we assume that young and non-experienced adult educators found rather useful the thematic units of the Seminar but they need extra education on more specific areas.
This is an expected finding, taking into account their lack of basic studies and experience on the field of Adult Education.

The most interesting finding, however, is that through their active participation in the educational process of this Seminar, they managed to experience communication and sharing, with both the group of the trainees and the educators. It seems that this Seminar was a not only a great chance for learning but -most important- for having the chance for interaction, reflection and critical thinking on the role of the adult educator, which was the main objective of the program. By the end of it they were content and happy, having worked on a creative and communicative basis and achieved a stimulating satisfaction through their work. Going back to Hasapis’ list we could summarize that they were satisfied from the learning methods and the educators but mainly their satisfaction derives from their active participation in the learning activities. Some minor problems appeared concerning time planning, which by no means could dim their perception of having participated in a fruitful program.

Conclusions

We can conclude by saying that this Seminar was an adult learning process, since the trainees adult educators who took part in it felt they were strongly involved in personal processes of learning. They state that this Seminar introduced them to knowledge, skills, attitudes, but also to wider ways of approaching Adult Education, because of the emphasis paid on the reflective learning that young and non experienced adult educators seem to need, in order to fulfil their role. They seem to be interested to learn more and reflect critically upon the attitudes of an adult educator and the various aspects of his/her role. According to this educational experience they were involved in active learning, which offered them satisfaction as a most appropriate and stimulating way for acquiring knowledge, skills and techniques for educating adults.

In two words, what was the outcome of that first, pilot Seminar for young and non-experienced adult educators in Thrace? First of all, a group of activated, interested and willing young adults’ educators has been formed. Secondly, future cycles of seminars were proposed, that have already started for this year (2009-10) -a challenge but also a responsibility and an engagement of HAEA. At the end we would like to pose an open question that came out of this particular Seminar and its evaluation and on which we could work on, in order to bring Adult Education a step forward: How can we increase focus on learning processes and attitudes?

References

Kedraka, K. (2007). Expectations, opinions and demands on Adult Education in Northern Greece, KINITRON, 8, 71-82. (in Greek)

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Professional improvement as a factor of professional (dis)satisfaction\textsuperscript{35}.

Introduction

In Serbian schools INSET (in-service education for teachers) was obligatory for the teachers, psychologists and pedagogues, demanding 100 hours of professional improvement per five years. This paper is describing results of an empirical research conducted in order to discover main factors of teachers’ work dissatisfaction. Theoretical basis of the research is Herzberg’s theory of motivation. One of hypothesized causes of work dissatisfaction was the number of obligatory seminars (the main form of INSET in Serbia). The sample consisted of 120 teachers from Belgrade elementary schools. The technique used to collect data was a 5-degree scale questionnaire. There were 10 factors hypothesized as causes of potential dissatisfaction. Main results show that the causes of high dissatisfaction are public attitude towards teachers and politics of Ministry of Education. The factors causing moderate feeling of dissatisfaction are salary and attitudes of parents towards school. The professional improvement causes a slight dissatisfaction in the questioned sample of Belgrade teachers. In the further analysis, subjects were compared considering four variables: gender, age, years of service and the type of school where they teach.

Professional Development of Teachers in Serbia

The professional development of teachers in Serbia is organised, nowadays, through inset (in-service training). The development was previously organised externally, by professional associations, taking place once a year and lasting several days. The inset system started working in 2002. Its goal is, among others, to create the prerequisites for enabling the teachers to acquire new knowledge and skills within the scope of their professions, to develop their classroom performances enhancing the pedagogic-psychological competencies (Alibabić, 1998).

For the academic year 2008/2009, there are presently available programmes that cover different areas, including: teachers’ professional-methodical development, identification and improvement of particular skills in children, new knowledge from the teacher's professional area, promotion of teachers’ competencies for choice and evaluation of textbooks, leadership in education, school marking, communication skills, conflict resolution and class management (Institute of Promotion of Education and Training, 2008).

Certain studies show the existence of a correlation between the teachers’ in-service training and the pupils’ achievement, i.e. that the in-service training programmes in teachers affect the achievement enhancement with pupils, indicating the significance of high-quality and comprehensive trainings for the teachers (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). Many European documents, which deal with this subject, emphasize that the teaching staff should lead in the trend of lifetime education. This is

\textsuperscript{35} This article is the result of the project: Education for Knowlegde-Based Society, No. 149001 (2006-2010), financially supported by Ministry of Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.
the prerequisite for elevation of the national educational level and increase in the country’s competitiveness in the international market.

Another purpose of the in-service training in Serbia is to overcome the following problem: namely, there is no specific programme, in every University faculty of our country, intended for the students to be teachers in the future. These faculties, although offering teaching courses, too, do not often render the opportunity of students’ practical training. Thence, it is likely as well that a teacher performs the teaching without certain knowledge and skills (pedagogic, didactic and psychological) necessary for the adequate performance of this job.

For more than two decades, the Serbian legislation provides for the teachers to get professionally improved. The earlier provisions did not define any consequences of insufficient attendance of the professional improvement programme. It used to be organised far more seldom and, in addition, the teachers were willing to attend it for their sense of duty in respect of their profession or for personal interest. We can perceive a difference, here, in motivation to professional improvement participation. We could say that such motivation used to be, during the previous years, until 2002, prevailingly intrinsic, stimulated by teachers’ willingness to follow the events and enhance their competencies. At the time of effecting this Survey, a number of hours of compulsory professional improvement was imposed – 100 hours in five years, under the threat of losing the operation licence in case the teacher fails to fill the quota. Here arises the issue of nature of the motivation for such a conception of professional development. The fact that programmes of professional development occur during the weekend, certainly does not improve teachers’ motivation. There are some of the numerous offered programmes that suite, for sure, the teachers’ interests. However, it can be assumed that nature of motivation changes and it becomes, either partially or entirely, extrinsic. It has turned out that the teachers, sometimes, join the development programme quite reluctantly, motivated only by the need to keep the licence. It is an important issue whether a large number of hours of compulsory professional improvement is the most adequate solution. A huge quantity of new information does not necessarily mean that the teachers will implement these new facts in their professional practice. In addition, another relevant concern is the teachers’ attitude towards such a conception of the professional development, or should we put it like this: are the teachers, perhaps, dissatisfied with the large number of hours of compulsory professional improvement? Moreover, it is important to examine how the teachers feel about the opportunities for professional improvement offered to them and whether these elements contribute to the feeling of dissatisfaction in general. We will deal, in more detail, with the importance of job satisfaction and the modality of defining it in the following section.

**Herzberg’s two factor theory of motivation to work**

The theoretical starting point of this Survey is the Herzberg’s Theory (Guzina, 1980). Based on his studies, Herzberg formulates the two factor theory of motivation to work. The theory is called ‘two-factor’ because, to his opinion, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two qualitatively different manifestations, i.e. two independent continuums. Their causes and effects are independent, too. Therefore, one group of factors leads to job satisfaction, while the other group leads to dissatisfaction.

To Herzberg’s opinion, the group of factors leading to satisfaction includes the job aspects relative to its contents, i.e. love to teach, achievements in job performance,
recognition for the job assigned, etc. On the other side, the factors leading to job dissatisfaction are considered by Herzberg as the external factors: work conditions, workload, school leadership, interpersonal relations, salary, management policy, etc. having given the common name: work conditions, i.e. context or hygiene factors. It is worth noting that, to Herzberg, the hygiene factors cannot create the feeling of job satisfaction. They may, at very best, make a person feel no dissatisfaction. However, what generates the true feeling job satisfaction is the very nature of the job we do. Based on the considerations mentioned in the previous section, we are going to classify the compulsory professional development into the group of context factors, since we perceived it as a workload factor and a potential cause of job dissatisfaction. This hypothesis, too, has been tested throughout the Survey.

This Survey has been aimed to identifying the sources of job dissatisfaction with teachers and to measuring the sensation of the overall job dissatisfaction, including dissatisfaction with particular aspects of the job. For the purpose of this paper, the emphasis will be put on professional development as a potential factor leading to job dissatisfaction. The overall job dissatisfaction has been understood as the average of the manifested dissatisfaction with all the above named job aspects, determined on the basis of the Herzenberg’s theory of sources dissatisfaction and analysis of teaching profession. These factors are: attitude of the Ministry of Education to teachers, school organisation, interpersonal relations at work – with bosses and peers, pupils and their parents, allowances, workload, way in which the teaching profession is treated by the public, and professional development (i.e. the modality it is conceived and number of obligatory hours of professional development).

Based on the Herzberg's theory, all the above listed factors are considered to be potential sources of dissatisfaction. Thus, the continuum reflecting the relation towards the above said aspects ranges from absence of dissatisfaction to high degree of dissatisfaction.

It is of importance to assert whether job dissatisfaction exists and to what extent, primarily for the sake of the employees themselves. Job dissatisfaction, just like job satisfaction, influences the quality of living and may influence the mental health, as well (Herzenberg and Mauser, 1975, compared to Davies and Shackleton, 1975). The teaching job dissatisfaction is particularly significant for the nature of teachers’ responsible and demanding profession, having far-reaching effects, the profession that implies work on children’s education and training.

In previous surveys there had been determined that job satisfaction is higher with women than with men, although the women usually get lower status and lower salary jobs. It had been also recorded that the job satisfaction grows in time (Davies and Schackleton, 1975). In this Survey we are going to verify these assertions on a sample of teachers. We are also going to verify the correlation between the job dissatisfaction the years of professional service, and then the fact whether the employees in public schools and those in public schools differ on this variable. In our country, private elementary schools are relatively new phenomenon. They differ from public schools for the fact that attendance thereof involves larger amount of money, whereas in public schools it is free. Then, classes are composed of fewer pupils, teachers’ salaries are higher, and such schools are better equipped than the public ones.

There are no records from the previous that any comparisons were made between attitudes of the employees in private and those in public schools. This is the reason why
we can consider the obtained results interesting, especially because indicate that there are statistically significant differences among the respondents.

**Objectives of the Survey**

The first objective of the Survey is to establish whether there exists, and to what extent, the teachers’ job dissatisfaction, i.e. the average of the manifested dissatisfaction with each of the above named job aspects and each of the aspect listed in the questionnaire. The second objective is to establish whether there exists, and to what extent, a dissatisfaction with the professional development (i.e. the modality it is conceived and number of obligatory hours of professional development). The third objective is to establish whether the manifested dissatisfaction can be reasoned with certain demographic variables.

**Hypotheses of the Survey**

The first hypothesis says that there is job dissatisfaction among the elementary schools teachers.

The second hypothesis says that the dissatisfaction is manifested in relation to all the factors offered in this Survey as potential dissatisfaction triggers: attitude of the Ministry of Education and of the public towards teachers, school organisation, interpersonal relations at work – with bosses and peers, pupils and their parents, allowances, workload, way in which the teaching profession is treated by the public, and professional development (i.e. the modality it is conceived and number of obligatory hours of professional development). As a part of verification of this hypothesis, we are going also to examine, thus, whether the professional development contributes to the feeling of dissatisfaction, and to what extent.

The third hypothesis says as follows:

There is no significance of difference in job dissatisfaction, either taken as a whole or regarding the dissatisfaction with professional development, among the following respondent categories:

a) men and women
b) respondents with different number of years of service
c) respondents of different age
d) respondents employed in private and public schools

**The general method and technique of collecting the data**

For the poll survey purposes, the systematic non-experimental method has been applied.

The ZP-2008 Questionnaire has been developed by the researchers especially for the purpose of this Survey.

The questionnaire was given in the form of 5-level Likert scale, where the numbers from 1 to 5 denote the following:

1- not dissatisfied, 2- partially dissatisfied, 3- mostly dissatisfied, 4- very dissatisfied, and 5- expressly dissatisfied. The responses reflect the dissatisfaction with each of the above stated potential factors.

**The Instrument Reliability**
For the sample of 120 respondents and questionnaire of 33 items, the Gutman Lambda 1 reliability coefficient is 0.90, which is considered a very high reliability coefficient. Then, Alpha reliability coefficient is 0.88, which classifies it into the category of high reliability tests. These values actually tell us about the internal consistency i.e. homogeneity of the test. A drawback of this modality of reliability measurement is the fact that we do not know anything about time stability of the test. In any case, this test can be deemed the instrument of satisfactory reliability.

Sample
Sample is accidental one, consisting of teachers and instructors from 8 elementary schools from the territory of the City of Belgrade, the sample total size being 120. The sample is covering with teachers of both sexes, varied ages and years of service, employed both in private and public schools. Each of the above stated variables (sex, age, years of service, professional qualifications and type of school) is taken into consideration while processing the data, and here follows the sample structure relative to respondents’ classification into the individual categories of the above specified variables.

The sample structure by categories of the above variables is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Sample Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Processing
For data processing in this Survey, there have been used the descriptive statistics procedure, factor analysis and t - independent samples test.

Results and Interpretation
The overall arithmetic mean and the standard deviation
The arithmetic mean for the whole questionnaire amounts to 2.56 (between partially and mostly dissatisfied). The total standard deviation amounts to 0.65.

As the criterion to conclude that job dissatisfaction exists, there has been established the value when the arithmetic means exceeds the values of 1.00.

We can accept the hypothesis that there exists the expressed job dissatisfaction among teachers.

Summary of the results obtained for the extracted factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Summary of the results by factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Having examined the results presented in the above Table, we can conclude, in the first place, that the professional development belongs to the first factor and that, together with school organisation and interpersonal relations at work, it generates a partial dissatisfaction. This is, simultaneously, the factor that causes the lowest intensity dissatisfaction.

The factor that causes the highest intensity dissatisfaction is the factor 3- named the attitude of the Ministry and the social environment towards teachers. This information does not surprise us after we consider the overall situation in the educational sector, including the fact that the school is very often blamed for lack of achievements and inappropriate conduct of pupils.

Likewise, it is obvious that the attitude of the media and the social community towards teachers, as well as the reputation of educationalists differ substantially from those desirable and expected.

The next generator of dissatisfaction among teachers is their salary (the arithmetic mean of the responses ranges around the value indicating that the respondent is mostly dissatisfied). The salary used to be the cause of teachers’ strikes in the past, so that this information is somewhat expected.

Then there follows the factor including the assertions related to parents’ and pupils’ attitude towards the school. One of reasons can be the fact that some teachers think that pupils and parents are too much protected and that the teachers are deprived of any right to sanction the inappropriate conduct.

Finally, workload and work conditions, the factor whose arithmetic mean can be approximated with 2- which denotes a partial dissatisfaction.

If we single out just the assertions regarding the professional development, we can see that the arithmetic mean of the responses ranges around the value 2, denoting a partial dissatisfaction. The statements in this questionnaire refer to the number of obligatory hours of professional development and to the way in which the professional development has been conceived. Other aspects of professional development have not been encompassed by this questionnaire, so that we cannot evaluate them on the basis of the obtained results.

We can conclude that there is dissatisfaction will all the above listed factors. Thus, there is dissatisfaction with professional development, too, but it is of a low intensity.

Demographic Variables and Job Dissatisfaction

Sex and Job Dissatisfaction

We verify the zero hypothesis of inexistence of differences between the respondents of different sexes, regarding their feeling of job dissatisfaction, by means of the following procedure:
There are no differences among persons appertaining to different sexes in their feeling of job dissatisfaction, as a whole. We have also verified the differences in feeling of dissatisfaction with professional development. Despite the findings of previous surveys, indicating that women are, generally, more satisfied with their job than men are, although they often have lower salary and position, we cannot make such a conclusion based on this sample research. In our country, teachers’ salaries are equal regardless of sex and we could generally consider their position equal, so that this fact does not need any further explanation.

Table 4. differences between men and women u regarding their dissatisfaction with professional development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissatisfaction with professional development</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wom</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having examined the results in the above Table, we can see that, taken the sex variable into consideration, there is no difference between the respondents as regards their feeling of dissatisfaction with professional development.

Therefore, between the job dissatisfaction of the respondents of male and female sex, both generally and that with professional development as one of the job aspect, there are no statistically significant differences.

Years of Service and Job Dissatisfaction

The following variable, which we are going to verify as to its connection with the feeling of dissatisfaction, is the number of professional years of service. There have been calculated the differences between 3 categories of respondents, based on the number of their years of service.

Table 5. Differences among the respondents having varied number of years of service for the whole questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of service</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) up to 10</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) 11-20</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) over 20</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,b</td>
<td>-3.91</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b,c</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,c</td>
<td>-3.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (up to 10)= 63, N (11-20)=27, N (over 20)= 28
Therefore, having examined the results for the three categories of respondents, formed based on the number of years of service, we can tell that we perceive the statistically significant difference as to general job dissatisfaction between the respondents with the smallest number of years of service from one side, and both categories of the respondents with larger number of years of service, from the other side. The differences indicate that the dissatisfaction is less expressed in the group of the respondents having the smallest number of years of service - up to 10 years. Having examined the presented results, we could conclude that dissatisfaction with the above said job aspects grows in proportion to the years of professional service.

Having calculated the degree of dissatisfaction with professional development, we obtain the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissatisfaction with professional development</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) up to 10</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) 11-20</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) over 20</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,b</td>
<td>-3.04</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b,c</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,c</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having examined the above Table, we can conclude that there are no statistically significant differences between the respondent having different years of service as regards their dissatisfaction with professional development.

**Thus, there have been perceived some differences among the respondents having different years of services regarding their job dissatisfaction, but there have not been perceived any differences as to the dissatisfaction with professional development, i.e. with a large number of compulsory development.**

**Age and Job Dissatisfaction**

It is additionally needed to establish the data for the variable age – we cannot equal these data with the previous ones regarding the number of years of service, since they often do not match. A high percentage of the respondents who start working in school in their later age, which can be seen upon comparing the years of age and the years of educational service, from the questionnaire responses. Some of them could not find a job, while others (professors) used to work in the industry of their professions, and only later started working in the education sector. I am, therefore, of the opinion that it is needed to calculate separately the differences resulting from the years of service and those resulting from the age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7 – differences between the respondents of varied age for the whole questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N (up to 35) = 47, N (36-50) = 49, N (over 50) = 82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) up to 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) 36-50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If we consider the total dissatisfaction, i.e. differences among the total arithmetical means for all the above listed factor, we can conclude that there are statistically significant differences among the respondents’ responses. The differences tend towards a lower dissatisfaction in the category of the youngest respondents. We could conclude that the dissatisfaction grows with age. This conclusion matches the previous one.

### Table 8: differences among the respondents of varied number of years of service as regards their dissatisfaction with professional development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) up to 10</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) 11-20</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) over 20</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a,b</td>
<td>-2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b,c</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,c</td>
<td>-2.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having examined the results in the above Table, we can see that the arithmetical mean of the responses is the lowest for the category of the youngest respondents, although these differences are not statistically significant.

Thus, on the basis of this Survey, we could conclude that the respondents’ attitudes towards a large number of hours of compulsory development do not differ, although the differences as to the attitude towards all the facts, generally, prove to be statistically significant.

### Type of School and Job Dissatisfaction

This Survey has encompassed the teachers from both public and private schools. While defining the problem, we have presented the significance of polling the persons employed in private schools. This result will, surely, represent a new information.

### Table 9: differences between the respondents from private and public schools, from the whole questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a statistically significant difference between the obtained results. The dissatisfaction is, generally, lower among the teachers in private elementary schools.
One of the important characteristics of the sample from private schools is the respondents’ age. The private schools are relatively recent phenomenon, and their employees are young people – most of them are not older than 35, and such school is the first employment for most of them. Having taken into consideration the results obtained by comparing the respondents of different age categories and different number of years of service, it seems that the picture becomes clearer. Let us go back to the fact that older respondents are equally dissatisfied with their job just like the categories of the respondents with more years of service. When we add to that better work conditions, better school equipment and higher salary, we get more ways to explain the difference obtained as regards the job dissatisfaction.

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<th>Dissatisfaction with professional development</th>
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We can see from the above Table that the attitudes of both groups of respondents are similar, their dissatisfaction with professional development is, therefore, of the same intensity.

Thus, there is a difference between the respondents employed by private and public schools as to the job dissatisfaction in general, showing the tendency of a lesser dissatisfaction among the employees in private schools. As regards the dissatisfaction with professional development, there have not been found the statistically significant differences. Despite the differences in work conditions, the employees’ attitude is equal towards the professional development.

Conclusion

Let us remember, the regulations in Serbia have imposed, since 2002, an obligation to school employees to attend 100 hours of professional development within five years. We are well aware of the multiple importance of the regular attendance of professional development – for the purpose of follow-up of the state-of-art in the profession, acquiring the necessary pedagogic-psychological skills, interpersonal communication and the exchange of experiences among the employees. However, the initial enthusiasm that existed among the employees started to decline after some time and, often, collection of sufficient number of hours becomes the main source of motivation for attendance of seminars, in order not to lose the operation licence (Kovač-Cerović, 2006).

From the point of view of this Survey, the basis of which is the Herzberg’s Theory of Work Motivation, it was important to verify whether the factors that he considered potential causes of job dissatisfaction are really still existing and whether the such a conception of the professional development is another source of job dissatisfaction. Based on the Survey results we have concluded that dissatisfaction with all the job aspects listed in this Survey does exist. As the triggers of job dissatisfaction, we can
deed primarily the policy of the competent Ministry, as well as the attitude of the public towards the teaching profession. In the second place there is the salary, and then there comes the attitude of pupils and their parents towards the members of this profession. The triggers of the lowest-degree job-dissatisfaction are the work conditions, school organisation, interpersonal relations at work and workload. The professional development, which we have singled out as particularly significant factor, causes dissatisfaction, but it is, as compared to dissatisfaction with other factors, of a low intensity – the responses generally range around «partially dissatisfied». Since we have established that all the above said factors cause the dissatisfaction, we could say that the results of this Survey advocate the Herzberg’s Theory, all the listed factors, the context factors are potential sources of job dissatisfaction.

The variables considered potentially correlated with the job dissatisfaction intensity were: sex of the respondents, number of years of their professional service, age and schools the respondents are employed in – in this case, private and public schools. We can interpret the obtained results in the following way: the teachers having up to 35 years of age and up to 10 years of professional service are less dissatisfied than their peers who are older and have had longer professional service. We could say that job dissatisfaction grows in years. However, there is a difference between the category of the youngest respondents and two categories of older ones and between the respondents who started working recently and both categories of those who have worked for many years, out of which we could, roughly, conclude that job dissatisfaction after 20 years of service and 50 years of age remains approximately the same. Such a situation could be attributed to losing of the initial motivation and work enthusiasm, or to higher tolerance and adaptability among young employees and beginners. Likewise, a more intense job dissatisfaction is present among the employees in public schools. It is Well known that the work conditions in private schools are better and this surely can lower the dissatisfaction among the employees. Classes with fewer pupils, better school equipment and higher salary can be the relevant factors. There should be also taken into consideration, of course, the fact that these teachers belong mostly to the category of younger respondents, as well as the fact that these schools are mainly attended by the children who do not belong to the marginalised groups (Roma population, children without parents, refugees or handicapped children). This can surely be another factor that makes teaching in these schools easier.

Job dissatisfaction and stress at work can influence the mood, work motivation and, finally, the person’s mental health. With so many factors they are not satisfied with, and which they cannot influence, the teachers have definitely hard time in fighting with the everyday duties. The teaching job demands the continual interaction with children, so that their feeling of dissatisfaction can effect their work with pupils, too. It is clear that the child’s experience in the beginning of schooling is very important for adaptation to school duties and formation of the system of values that will orientate the child towards further education and self-actualisation. Job dissatisfaction among teachers may lower his/her flexibility, tolerance, work motivation, creativity, patience, make his/her educational role and class management harder. However, all of these are necessary for a correct performance of this very important and responsible work.

Thus, the subject of this Survey was the job dissatisfaction in general and certain aspects of professional development, as potential sources of dissatisfaction – the way it is organised and large number of hours of the obligatory development. Other aspects of the
professional development - e.g. its importance and indispensability, quality of the skills covered, lecturers, its applicability in practice, quality of its performance, etc. were not the subject of this Survey, and, therefore, the results should be interpreted in that light. When considered in that light, it proves to be not significant, but still present factor of dissatisfaction. When we look at the professional development through the variables taken here for sample stratification, the fact that catches our attention is that no one of them showed differences among the respondents regarding their attitude towards these aspects of professional development. Thus, all the teachers, regardless of their sex, age, years of service in education and school they work in, have expressed the same attitude, which indicates a partial dissatisfaction. So that we can consider such attitude widely spread and generally accepted among the population of Belgrade teachers.

Within the framework of the general job dissatisfaction that is present and caused by numerous factors listed in this Survey, we can distinguish, to some extent, the position of teachers in school and in nowadays society. The teachers should be made prepared for some of the identified problems, such as the behaviour or the pupils and their parents, and taught how to overcome at least some of the obstacles they tackle with on daily basis. It should be, and it is the objective of some seminars made available to the teacher. Otherwise, the possibility of application of what is offered within the professional development programme, theoretically and specifically within a short period of time, varies. This is the reason why the educational needs of teachers should be examined not only from the point of view of welfare of the child they work with, but also from the point of view of teachers themselves, because reduction of their dissatisfaction will undoubtedly contribute to higher quality of their performance in school and, hopefully, to a more favorite climate in the class.

The seminars are not obligatory any more, since recently. The data that we have reported, however, can be considered relevant maybe for other countries in which these seminar remain obligatory. For the time being, we cannot know what consequences such change could impose on teachers and their performance. What we can consider beneficent in abolishing the obligatory nature of professional development is the fact that teachers can choose on their own what they deem necessary for them, which will probably make them more motivated for application of new knowledge and skills. Then this factor could pass from the group of hygiene factors into the group of factors leading to the feeling of job satisfaction. However, it also implies, since the number of hours has not been prescribed, that everything is left to teachers’ conscience and that there is possibility that they fail to follow-up the state-of-art, fail to correct and develop their performance. This is what we are going to find out, probably, from the results of future surveys.

References
Adult Educators’ Professional Development and Quality Provision: Reconsidering some Basic Assumptions.

Introduction

Nowadays education and training programmes for adult learners are not only a regular but a constantly increasing section of the whole educational provision in many countries. Europe is undergoing major transformation in which knowledge and innovation are the most important parameters. However in this changing society there seems to be both a need and a challenge for offering everyone the opportunities to acquire the relevant skills, knowledge and competences which will enable him/her to become and stay involved in professional and social life. This very need is emphasized in adult and continuing education from the perspective of the compelling “upskilling demand of Europe’s labour force” (Sava & Lupou, 2007). The foundations are the adult education staff and their professionalization which is given priority in the EU agenda due to the diversity and variety of this professional group.

The Lisbon Assembly Memorandum concerning lifelong education underlines the fact that the educators’ profession undergoes radical changes and that they become «guides, counselors, and intermediaries» (European Commission, 2000). In other words, educators should not only perform the role of distributors of knowledge but they are called to function as coordinators and inspirers of the educational process that encourage the journey to knowledge and to induce the people they teach to reflect on their knowledge and experiences, build upon them, look for new sources of learning and learn via their actions. Therefore lifelong learning means that adults whether they learn either in formal, informal or non-formal settings need to be constantly developed and promoted and well-qualified staff are needed to support adults professionally in their learning.

Consequently the adult learning professionals and the validation of prior learning are regarded as vital issues in various European policy documents and initiatives such as the Commission Communication on Adult Learning “It is never too late to learn” (2006), which urged Member States set up all necessary structures in order to qualify people working in adult education. The professional qualification of adult educators considered to be of paramount importance for the quality of educational provision for adults.

Undoubtedly educators must develop credentials, something which has been remarked by many academics in the field of adult education. For example Jarvis (1998:183) proposed that adult educator’s intellectual equipment should consist of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, thus : “a) Knowledge and understanding of: relevant academic discipline(s), psycho-motor elements, interpersonal relations, moral values b) Skills to perform the psychomotor techniques and interact with members of the role set c) Attitudes that result in: a knowledge and commitment to professionalism, a willingness to play the role in professional manner”.

On the other hand one of the most prominent figures in the education of adults in the USA Malcolm Knowles identified identified three main categories of adult educators “front-liners, program planners and directors, professional leaders in the field of adult education (Knowles, 1970:21-35). The front-liners are those who work directly with adult learners in a one-to-one or group relationship. They are the field workers, or any of a wide range of community development personnel - all operating at the local level, dealing
directly with “the people” rather than indirectly, as managers of other staff. Their responsibilities include: a) identifying the educational needs of particular learners b) encouraging people to participate in programs c) designing educational experiences d) selecting and using appropriate teaching methods and e) evaluating the effects of the learning experiences offered.

The programme planners and directors have a management role. They operate at district, regional or national level, and they are people such as area education officers who co-ordinate programmes, principals of centres or colleges, and officials in ministries. Their responsibilities are: a) diagnosing educational needs of individuals, institutions and communities b) establishing and operating procedures for the promotion and implementation of programmes c) administering budgets and distributing resources d) selecting, training and supervising subordinate staff and e) evaluating the effectiveness of programmes.

The professional leaders in the field of adult education are the teaching staff in the professional training institutions, and other practitioners who are both innovators and disseminators in the field. As teachers, researchers and communicators they have the responsibility of: a) reflecting on the practice of adult education b) conducting experimental work in the field c) training adult educators and d) communicating with the field to encourage innovation.

Within the European perspective Vergidis (2002:5-6) expressing the ideas held by many researchers states that adult educators must be able to: a) Comprehend the needs and expectations of the trainees b) define the aims and context of the teaching material c) combine education with the needs of the social-economic environment d) make use of appropriate educational techniques and teaching resources and e) coordinate and support the trainee group.

On the other hand Paul Demunter (2003: 92) regards the knowledge and capabilities an adult educator needs as four dimensional: a) Understanding of the knowledge of the syllabus b) Pedagogical knowledge and abilities that ensure propagation of knowledge and stimulate interest c) Technical knowledge to use teaching resources, including personal computers d) Social and political awareness, appreciation of the socio-economic mechanisms and ability to relate the education to the ongoing social processes.

However, it is obvious that there isn’t a specific professional development framework in the majority of European countries and trainers or adult educators undertake this responsibility and manage their own professional and personal developments which generally take place in non-formal and informal learning settings. A lot of competences that are job relevant have been developed in informal and non-formal learning contexts. A lot of adult educators interact with adults in learning situations without a qualification or any kind of credentials for their activity. Most of them have acquired their specific psycho-pedagogical competencies via experiencing teaching to adults or dealing with adults on the job, in voluntary activities etc (Sava & Lupou, 2007).

Similarly in Greece, as Kokkos has remarked (2009) the majority of the 14,000 educators teaching in vocational training programs for both unemployed and employed people do not possess the necessary qualifications. In order to resolve this situation, the Ministry of Employment and Social Security has initiated the realization of a, unique to Greece, educational program for these educators.
The purpose of our research was to gain insight and understanding regarding the factors that are considered to be essential for adult educators’ professional development.

Methods

We identified grounded theory as an exceptional strategy because of the study’s special focus on gaining insight about a certain process and the explicit attempt to generate a model. Maxwell (1996) argued that the personal meaning informants attribute on a particular situation, event or action, is generally a strength of qualitative research and also serves the purpose of the study. To understand the participation process this inductive forma of research uses generalized knowledge that is produced by specific observation of phenomena from the field. This can be used to construct theory. It has been argued that grounded theorists aim at getting theoretical categories (conceptualizing procedure) from collected data and then analyze relationships between key categories (Charmaz, 1983).

Actually the main purpose of employing a grounded theory approach is to develop theory via an understanding of concepts which are interrelated. More specifically “by comparing incidents and naming like phenomena with the same term can the theorists accumulate the basic units for theory” (Corbin and Strauss, 1990:7). Using the concepts from grounded theory, this study starts from understanding the process of the participants prior to participating into adult education activities. The data analysis focuses on finding recurrent topics in the data, coding them and finally developing and refining a theory about the phenomenon. This process involves the development of three basic operations: concepts, categories and propositions. It is from the conceptualization of the data and not the data per se that the theory is developed. As Max Weber has argued that the essence of social theory is the creation of clear concepts (quoted in Glaser, 2002). Qualitative research attempts to develop theory that depicts the empirical world with the greatest possible precision. Within this process data are analyzed in order to organize reality with inferences which in turn are systematically validated through inquiry. The outcome of this operations is abstract theory which draws on “minimal conjecture” (Glaser, 2002). These theories describe reality as accurately as possible and are “grounded” in the context per se and not in the researcher’s unsupported hypotheses.

Participants

Eleven interviews were conducted (7 with Institution A and 4 with Institution B). The participants ranged in age from 31 to 52 years, with an average of about 39 years. The ones working with Institution A were full-time educators, whereas the ones working with Institution B were part-timers.

Participants were purposefully selected based on theoretic sampling and availability. We communicated with the directors of both institutions to guide us in selecting participants based on the belief that they would be willing to offer personal perceptions concerning participation process in adult education activities. This method of qualitative data sampling, the intentional choosing of informants based on a belief that the informant is a person capable of supplying important information, is known as purposive sampling. Holstein and Gubrium (1995) argued that selecting participants because they are likely to describe their perceptions and experience underscores the theoretic commitment of purposive-sampling procedures in interpretive research. One type of purposive sampling is theoretic sampling. The target of theoretic sampling is to
enable the researcher to seek out individuals who are able to help answer the research questions and, thus, offer the best chances for creating solid theory (Creswell, 1998; Strauss A and Corbin J. 1998). In order to obtain a better understanding of the whole situation almost half of the participants were in the middle of their course, whereas the other half were towards completing their course.

Institution A was a state Second Chance School with 41 trainees. This type of school is considered to be non-formal Adult education (GREECE, 2003). Second Chance Schools (SDE) are supervised by the IDEKE, the Institute of Continuing Education for Adults which operates under the auspices of Adult Education General Secretariat (GGEE), which, the planning, co-ordination and implementation of lifelong learning. The particularities of each school are based to a large extent on local and national conditions and circumstances. However they are characterized by some distinct aspects like:

1) A committed partnership with local authorities, social services, associations and the private sector, the latter in particular with a view to offering possible training places and jobs to pupils
2) A teaching and counselling approach focused on the needs, wishes and abilities of individual pupils; stimulation of active learning on their part
3) Flexible teaching modules allowing combinations of basic skills development (numeracy, literacy, social skills, etc.) with practical training in and by enterprises
4) A central role for the acquisition of skills in and through ICT and new technologies” (European Commission, 2000:6)

Institution B was local Adult Education Centre which also operates under the auspices of Adult Education General Secretariat and offers various programmes on literacy and basic educational Skills, basic qualifications to achieve an access to the labour market, ITC training etc. They also contribute to the vocational rehabilitation of trainees through various support actions (personal development, awareness of employers etc) and cater for the needs of socially disadvantaged groups. They are regarded as non-formal education and organize training in small classes according to the local needs of each prefecture (GREECE, 2003).

Data Collection and Analysis

Individual interviews were conducted using an semi-structured technique, and all participants were asked a set of core questions. Questions were modified slightly for each of the interviews. For example, we asked the following:

(1) How do they perceive their role as educators of adults
(2) What sort of competences/ skills do they feel that they need and how they can acquire them
(3) How do they perceive quality assurance with respect to their professional development?

The interviews were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim. We conducted the first 4 interviews together with each participant in order to gain familiarity with the question-posing procedures before conducting separate interviews.

In order to do the inductive analysis, we used grounded theory procedures described by Strauss and Corbin (1998). Grounded theory constitutes a systematic approach for the collection and analysis of qualitative data for the purpose of generating
explanations that further the understanding of social and psychological phenomena (Chenitz and Swanson, 1986).

The grounded theory approach entails discovering specific concepts in the transcripts that explained and gave meaning to the social process of participating to adult education activities. The concepts were labeled and then organized into like categories, consistent with open-coding procedures. Open coding of the transcripts was completed separately as the data were collected, but we communicated frequently as we reflected on the data. Consistent with grounded theory methods, data were collected until saturation was achieved. That is, data were collected until we identified redundancy in the data and were not uncovering any new concepts.

In our professional judgment, data saturation was obtained by the 10th interview. We interviewed 1 more educator to ensure that no new data were surfacing. Once the open coding was completed separately, we suspended our independent judgments regarding the categories that were created individually and tried to reorganize our concepts into categories. Repeating the open coding together essentially allowed us to repeat the procedures and articulate our understanding of the data. The newly created categories were labelled and compared with the independently created categories of textual data. We also shared research memoranda and assumptions to explain and negotiate both how and why particular concepts were important. Axial and selective coding was performed after the open coding. When the axial-coding procedures were over, we explored how each of the categories related to one another. This operation allowed us to transform categories into subcategories and identify broader thematic categories based on the data. The selective coding gave us the opportunity to identify conceptual ideas that integrated the existing categories.

Reliability
In order to establish reliability of the data collection and analysis we used peer review, and member check. A colleague with expertise in qualitative methods applied the peer review by examining the interview transcripts, coding sheets (which identified concepts, categories, and properties), and a summary of the findings. The peer review identified the analysis as being performed in a logical and systematic manner, and the findings were reasonable and accurate based on the interview data. Member checks were conducted by consulting 4 of the participants (2 educators from Institute A and 2 from Institute B). Each participant examined the results and agreed the findings were consistent with his or her experiences.

Results
The study brought about three categories, which, along with their sub-categories, constitute components of the adult educators' professional development. These three categories are fully explained in the following paragraphs.

Adult Educator's Role
One of the complexities of the field is the way adult educators perceive their role to be. Our research brought up three sub-categories. Some of the participants themselves as "animateurs" who encourage adult learners with the tasks they have to do. George stated:
“...the main element in what I do is my role as to empower...to make them believe in their abilities, in what they are doing...and that is doable....that learning is doable”. Eleni reflected this same concept when she discussed how she got involved in the education of adults: “...I want them to look into themselves and find the strength to go on despite the difficulties they face in their every day life...most of them come from very different backgrounds....and they work really hard to make ends meet....I urge them by emphasizing their good points and the progress they have done ....till then in order to go further.”.

The second subcategory is that of the “facilitators”. Some participants suggested that what they regard their presence in the classroom as someone who is there to help the adult learners learn what they need rather than someone who would instruct them into doing a specific task or impose anything similar to them. For example Georgia stated that

“...adult educators should be able to facilitate the learners with what they really want to learn...because adults want to feel that they create, it is his/her choice what s/he learns...so the educator has to be rather invisible in the classroom and help the learner stand on his/her own feet”.

Also Irene reflected on the educators role to facilitate learning via triggering learners’ curiosity about the specific subject they want to learn and then help them into discovering it:

“......it is very difficult to teach these people, let alone instruct them...one of the best ways is to trigger their curiosity about an aspect of the subject you think or they think they need to learn and make things a bit easier in order to help them learn it. In doing so I realized that they think that they have learn it by themselves and that makes them feel much more content with themselves and the subject as well”

Some evidence also suggested that educators find it difficult to merely facilitate learners in what they want to learn and let them participate in the curriculum design. It depends on the interaction between the educator and the learners along with the approachability and /or flexibility of the educator. Yannis commented on that:

“...sometimes they insist on learning just a certain part of a subject –usually the most enjoyable or the least frustrating- and they forget that they cannot go beyond or they will not be able to apply it successfully unless they learn about the other constituent parts which demand much more effort of course. I must be very skilled at persuading them to learn it properly and simplify the difficult aspects so that they are not discouraged to proceed with it”.

The third sub-category that emerged was that of the “moderators”. Some educators perceive their role as mediators between learners in order to decide a dispute or settle differences that emerge in various groups of adult learners. In these learning situations it is not unusual for tensions or disputes to crop up and most times is up to the educator to act as a moderator or take control of the situation and avoid any serious disruptions. Eleni commented on valuing this role and described some difficult aspects of the group dynamics:

“...nothing can be taken for granted in Adult Education...one can’t be focusing on the learners’ educational needs only...Apart from interests there are tensions, likes and dislikes....I feel that I have to act as a firewoman or as a kind of pacifier who has to prevent the learners from having a falling out.”
Demos also voiced the importance of moderating tensions and settling disputes quickly during a learning session. He explained that:

"...adults are not like children who forget very quickly and they go on with whatever they were doing..... if there is a problem between them it has to be solved otherwise arguments develop and then it is very difficult to have them cooperate in a team...for example there was a problem with some people being absent three times in a row and the others in the team refused to work with them in order to finish a project they had undertaken.....I understand that each of them has his/her own problems....I had to persuade the rest of the team to let them work with them and in the end they had a long and open discussion in front of everybody...The frustration was decreased but a lot of time was wasted on that."

**Adult Educator's Skills/Competences**

The participants consistently revealed that a competent educator had to have a number of skills which were linked both to their role as educators and to the educational dimension of teaching adults. The Adult Educator's Skills/Competences category contained the following subcategories according to which an adult educator had to be: 1) knowledgeable about his/her subject 2) sensitive to the needs and potentials of adult learners 3) flexible in using various methods of teaching adult learners 4) skillful in assessing /evaluating. Our data suggest that these subcategories are closely related and constitute the essence of a skillful and competent educator.

Being knowledgeable about his/her subject seemed to be a condition sine qua non for all the participants given the fact that all of them regarded teaching adults as much more a demanding task than teaching children or adolescents. Michalis supported this viewpoint when he stated that he makes twice as much preparation when he has to teach adults than when he used to teach at high school:

"...because I feel that I cannot escape if I have any obvious gaps - and they become so to the learners- in my subject...I think that an adult educator should have such a mastery of his subject so that he/she can give the gist of the knowledge these people need".

In the same line Gregory reflected on the necessity of the educator having teaching experience on his/her subject as well as adequate preparation. He believes that:

"...one doesn't only have to know or to have prepared for his/her teaching a lot...It is also essential to have taught the same subject again and again so as to be able to predict all possible questions and be in a position to answer them".

In addition to the subject knowledge, another essential skill is the educator's sensitivity to the needs and the potentials of the learners. For example Mary stated:

"...as an educator you must show that you respect their needs and their time...you must discern exactly what they need to know and give it to them without wasting a lot of time. ...There were people who didn't dare to speak, didn't dare to expose themselves publicly...neither cooperate between them nor write anything...Apart from teaching them the subject per se I had to handle their emotional and social needs as well....I felt that my task was multi-dimensional and sensitive at the same time".

Irene reflected the same concept when she discussed the capabilities of the learners. It is important for them to capable of participating into a learning procedure and that they are entitled into a new form of education:
“...each of them has his/her own problems...they want to show that they have worked, that they are able to do things, worthy of respect, something that you don't experience with young children or adolescents. Despite their limited time and their tiredness they try to prove both to themselves and perhaps to other that their potentials, their abilities have not been exhausted”.

The third important subcategory of skills/competences that adult educators consider as important is the flexibility in using various techniques in teaching adults. All participants reflected on the ability of the qualified educator to transmit the knowledge these people need with the most comprehensive and communicative way so as to trigger their curiosity and start building their education themselves. For example Rita voiced the following:

“... Teaching adults is not that simple...you must find ways and methods to make the complicated subject easy to grasp and hold their attention till the end...it is quite draining and demanding because they get bored very easily and if they don't understand something they express it immediately...so they make you adapt and find a more communicative way to transmit it”.

In the same line of thinking and taking into consideration the character and the mission of adult education Demos argued that:

“...an adult educator has to be open and accept the variety of personalities he /she has to deal with ...he/she should be inventive and prone to experimenting with teaching methods in order to hold his/her learners attention...in a way he/she should be a bit of a performer....in order to create an appropriate learning situation...being innovative is essential when teaching adults because they get bored easily.

Finally the fourth subcategory is that of the skills in assessing and evaluating. Every adult educator should be skillful when it comes to the critical issue of assessing and evaluating adult learning. Manos remarked that adult learners become very sensitive when they are to be evaluated and that a certain attitude on behalf of the educator is needed in order not to feel offended:

“......they [adult learners] become very edgy when their project is to be marked ...if they are not happy with their mark they start asking ...why is that so...etc. they also compare their projects so as to see what went wrong...They feel disappointed sometimes and I think their self esteem is wounded... they like to be praised ...like little kids....Some are more mature, they know their potential and they don't complain if they don't like the evaluation”.

On the other hand it is of considerable importance not to fail them so that they keep trying to improve. Georgia reflected on the necessity of encouraging them and she stated

“...here we have people who have already failed to complete their initial education... I feel that we cannot fail them again....we must evaluate them in the best possible way causing as less stress as possible in order to build a good rapport with them and make them trust and develop confidence about themselves”.

**Quality Assurance**

According to the participants Quality Assurance is considered to be as an indispensable component for the professionalization of the adult educator. This category contained four subcategories via which quality relating to the professional development of the adult educator could be ensured. These subcategories are:
1) Assessment by the Learners,
2) Self-assessment
3) Assessment by Independent Evaluators and
4) Continuous Professional Development.

The first subcategory was considered to be an appropriate way of ensuring quality assurance since the learners are regarded as the most relevant evaluators. George supported this concept when he stated:

“...I do believe that the learners are the best judges for our work....and the most suitable to say whether we have been adequate educators or not. In the end, given the fact that they are evaluated by us, they are entitled into giving us a mark”. Along the same line of argument Eleni states that “...learners are the ones who definitely know if we have worked with them, if we have been good and responsible teachers, and whether the outcome of the educator’s effort has been to their advantage”.

On the other hand Self –assessment, the second subcategory is also regarded as an acceptable method of evaluation, albeit not by itself only but with combination with an another method of evaluation. Gregory said that:

“...self assessment does not put the educator under any stress and frustration and permits him/her to reflect upon what he/she has done with the learners and what he/she should put emphasis or correct in the future.....it could also be paired with another method of evaluation”.

The third subcategory is that of the Assessment by Independent Evaluators on condition that they are involved in the field of adult education and they have been educators themselves. Demos supported this idea when he stated that:

“...the state should create an independent body of evaluators who would be totally impartial and not linked directly or indirectly to any political party or mechanism who would efficiently do their job according to scientific criteria which everybody would have agreed upon”.

However almost all participants posed the issue of the education, the training and the experience of the people who would undertake such a task. The last subcategory is that of the Continuous Professional Development which is regarded also as a prerequisite for maintaining the “identity” of the adult educator. Michalis voiced the importance of that factor by saying that:

“...we need continuous improvement...we are professionals ...we are not priests or monks...Being a teacher or an adult educator is a profession like the rest. This profession in order to produce outcomes needs knowledge, frames of reference, encouragement, assessment, evaluation and continuous professional development of mandatory character”.

Also Yannis reflecting on the concept of development stated:

“...adult education is a rapidly expanding field and we are faced with a lot of challenges which keep changing or transforming according to the needs and the changes of the society. How are we supposed to develop adult learners without developing and improving ourselves on an on-going basis”?

**An Integrated Model**

Completing the axial- and selective-coding procedures on the data allowed us to generate the following propositions. First, the dominant roles that adult educators regard
as essential to employ in order to cope with their duties are those of the heartener’s, the facilitator’s and the moderator’s. Second these roles should alternate and a series of skills /competences should underpin the educator-adult learner interactions. Finally quality assurance procedures increase the quality and forge adult educator’s professional development. The Figure below provides a conceptual model of promoting this development. The model presents a uniform chain of three dimensions one leading to the other, thus forming a close relationship. However, theoretically, relationship like this could emphasize more or less any given dimension.

Conclusions and Suggestions

The professional development and the improvement of the quality of adult educators and trainers have been recognized as a priority at European level. It goes without questioning that it is they who help learners to develop knowledge, skills and attributes. However, not much is known about this particular group of practitioners, therefore further research is recommended regarding their needs and their professional development. (Eurydice, 2007). As it has been suggested by other researchers (Buiskool et al. 2009) within the European horizon there isn’t enough information about their identity, how they are recruited, the roles they perform and what competences and qualifications they are expected or required to possess. Furthermore little is known about their employment status, how their professional development is organized, how they are assessed, and the attraction of their profession (European Commission, 2007). However taking into consideration the limitations of this small case study conducted in the island of Rhodes we would suggest the following: 1) Development of short/long term certified training programmes at higher level 2) Post-graduate programmes in adult education leading to Master’s Degree with emphasis on both Theory and Praxis) 3) the creation of a Unified Registry of Adult Educators

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Evaluating adult educators in the frame of quality provision in vocational educational training centers in Greece.

Introduction

Lifelong learning continuously conquers an equivalent position in relation to initial education and training at all levels and in all forms. This includes continuing education and skills training provision for youth and adults after, alongside and outside primary and secondary schools. Lifelong learning in Greece consists of Initial Vocational Education and Training (IVET) and Continuing Vocational Education and Training (CVET) aiming at the training and retraining of manpower. In particular, Continuing Vocational Training complements updates and upgrades knowledge, skills and competences acquired in formal education and initial training or through employment. The goal is occupational integration and reintegration, career development and personal development. However, despite the disposal of adequate funds on the growth of CVET system in Greece, it has been shown - on economical terms- that the effectiveness on integration of unemployed people in the job market or the maintenance of job positions, are rather limited (Kanellopoulos, 2005).

In recent years, in the process of improving the quality of CVET system in Greece, the matter of the professionalization of adult educators gains significant importance (Kapsalis & Papastamatis, 2006). The training of adult educators is of similar importance to the training of teachers for schools.

As far as the teaching abilities of Greek educators are concerned, a series of studies (Chalas, 2002) have shown lack of important qualifications. The lack can be related to: a) the ability of utilizing modern teaching techniques (such as teamwork, case studies, simulations, role playing, brainstorming, problem solving techniques), b) the ability of managing relationships and difficulties that arise within groups of trainees and c) the ability of designing integrated teaching modules.

Adult educators need up-grading of their skills or re-training from time to time. Improving the quality of instructional practice in the field of adult education through the professionalization of practitioners is seen to be at the core of improving the quality of instruction in adult programs (Kokkos, 2008). There has been an ever-increasing need to involve educators that can fulfill the modern requirements posed by contemporary adult training. The competences that trainers need encompass various facets:

First, trainers need well developed vocational competences that enable them to train work-practice related, basic vocational and technical skills. Second, pedagogical and social competences are needed to facilitate didactic processes and the work with young people and adults, in particular fostering the integration function of training, mentoring, corporate learning and effectively passing on knowledge to others. Didactical skills are required with regards to the combination of work and learning, the identification of learning opportunities in the work context and the ability to motivate and guide the learner towards autonomy and independent learning. Social competences include interpersonal, communication and team working skills and the ability to convey social values and manage training relationships, among others. Third management
competences support training-related processes such as quality monitoring, project management and the cooperation with other institutions or colleagues. Finally, personal development competences refer to the willingness to foster personal and professional growth and the ability to set targets for one’s own professional development (Kokkos, 2008).

In order to upgrade educators’ qualifications, The Ministry of Employment and Social Security of Greece started implementing for the first time in 2006 a national educational accreditation program for the 11,000 educators (enlisted in the Introductory Adult Trainers’ Accreditation Register) via the National Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training (Ethniko Kentro Pistopoisis Synechizomenis Epanelmatikis Katartisis, EKEPIS).

This trainers’ training accreditation system is a complete process which includes all the necessary steps for the accreditation of adult trainers. The aim of the system is the improvement of continuous training Greece, as well as the upgrading of the qualifications of the human resources being employed in this domain. It constitutes part of a broader policy aiming at the upgrading and quality assurance of the vocational training quality.

The adult trainers’ accreditation system operates in two levels:

- Through the creation of the Introductory Adult Trainers’ Accreditation Register, which is a catalogue of trainers who have all the required typical qualifications as well as the required professional and teaching experience and
- Through the creation of the Accredited Adult Trainers’ Register, which is a catalogue of trainers of the Introductory Register who have completed successfully the training and accreditation process.

Concerning the national educational accreditation program for the 11,000 educators, which took place in 2006, trainers who wished to be trained should be included in the Introductory Register of Trainers in Continuing Vocational Training (Eisagogiko Mitroo Ekpaidefton). They had to attend 300-hour training seminars and on completion of the seminars they were assessed. Successful assessment entitled trainers to enroll in the Register of Accredited Trainers in Continuing Vocational Training (Mitroo Pistopoiiimenon Ekpaidefton). The overall result of this significant undertaking was that trainers made a notable effort for the successful implementation of the programme and that the particular programme had a positive impact on individual sectors, such as the training of trainers of the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning.

The focus on competences also leads to increasing emphasis on developing standards for VET. In this framework, qualification registers, mandatory quality assurance plans and provider accreditation are becoming ever more important (Staboulis & Karafoulidou, 2003). Moreover, professionalism is closely linked to efforts to update, upgrade and develop VET teachers’ competences so they can meet the challenges facing their profession and act professionally in their daily work (Xasapis, 2000). Professionalizing VET teachers represents a significant contribution to the quality and effectiveness of VET systems. It promotes mastery of technical and scientific advances, and enables teachers to anticipate and deal with change. In the base of providing total quality in training, lies the evaluation system and specifically the evaluation of trainers. In this way, points of weaknesses can be pointed out and processes of improvement can be activated (Staboulis & Karafoulidou, 2003).
Framework of the case study

The present work will approach the evaluation of a capable sample of adult trainers trained in Vocational Training Center (KEK) of Exporters’ Association of Northern Greece (SEVE) – Federation of Industries of Northern Greece (SBBE) – Thessaloniki International Fair (DETH) located in Thessaloniki during the period 17.07.06 – 14.01.07. The research question was, via an opinion based questionnaire, to obtain and present qualitative information, with regard to the degree of usefulness of the certification process, the practical use of methods and tools and the focus on obstacles encountered during the implementation period. The VTC SEVE – SBBE – DETH implemented two training programs for a total of 35 adult educators during the period 17.07.06 – 14.01.07 in the framework of the national educational accreditation program. The programs ran in parallel and they consisted of 300 hours (75 hours face to face learning and 225 hours long distance learning each). There was one instructor for each programme and the type of training included conventional and electronic learning. In sum, four educational sessions, three projects and one micro-lecture (which was recorded and evaluated by EKEPIS) were conducted. Afterwards, all participants were successfully enlisted in the Adult Trainers’ Register. The collection of data was made through self-administered questionnaires that participants filled in June 2009, one and a half year after the completion of the programme. The questionnaire had two main categories of questions concerning; i) the overall satisfaction from the programme and ii) the effectiveness of the programme in their teaching experience.

Results of the study

As shown in Table 1, the main reason that adult educators participated in the programme is to be enlisted in the Register for Trainers of Adults. The second most widespread reason was the “continuity of being educator in Continuing Vocational Training”. The following table shows the factors and the degree that influenced the adult educators to attend an educating programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Which factor and in what degree has influenced your decision to attend a programme of educating the adult educators?</th>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>A little</th>
<th>By no means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be enlisted in the Register for Trainers of Adults</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal improvement via methods and tools of adult education</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity of being educator in Continuing Vocational Training</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Updating of knowledge as a Trainer of adults</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal interest for training and specifically adult training</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the quality of the educating programme, seventeen (17) out of thirty-five (35) adult educators held the opinion that the programme was good. In addition, fourteen trainees believed that the programme was “very good”. Only two trainees considered of the programme being “very bad” (Figure1).
As far as the number of educational meetings is concerned, sixteen out of thirty-five trainees held the opinion that they were “enough”, whereas twelve people answered that the meetings were as much as they should be.

Specifically, the participants were asked to score a series of parameters that affect the quality of the programme in various ways. Overall, the participants were highly satisfied from the administrative services offered and the distance communication with their instructor. In a nutshell, all four parameters were substantially appreciated by the participants. Figure 2 presents the distribution of answers related to the prementioned question.

Next, the participants were asked to judge their evaluation from their instructors, regarding the micro – instructions that they carried out. An overwhelming number of participants (30 people) viewed the evaluation neither strict nor lenient, whereas four participants believed that the evaluation was rather strict (Figure 3).
How do you judge the evaluation process from the instructors of the programme, regarding the micro-instructions that you carried out?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lenient</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatively lenient</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatively strict</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3

Figure 4 illustrates the overall opinion of the participants that were trained. Almost eighty-six percent had a positive attitude towards this experience. In contrast, almost fourteen percent of the trainees had an indifferent attitude. Nobody experienced the educational programme in a negative way.

How do you consider the experience that you had from the participation in the training programme for adult educators?

- Negative: 14.20%
- Indifferent: 85.71%
- Positive: 0%

Figure 4

Figure 5 depicts how the methods and techniques learned, were applied after the programme. We must point out that more adult educators used the new methods and techniques after the completion of the programme.

Which of the following methods & techniques did you apply before and after the training programme?

Figure 5
A major objective of the educational programme was the incorporation of the methods and tools learned into every day practice. It is notable that the vast majority of participants applied the methods and techniques learned into their educational practice after the completion of the programme. Only two people did not capitalize on the lessons learned (Figure6).

Figure 6

Figure 7 illustrates an interesting finding. When asked “After the completion of the programme, do you consume more time in the participation of educational techniques instead of preparing educational material?”, nineteen out of thirty-three participants answered that they consume the same time.

Figure 7

In the question “Are you satisfied with the programme that you participated in?”, 91.43% answered positively, whereas only 8.57% was not satisfied (Figure8).
With regards to the question “How many years do you estimate that the knowledge acquired will last?”, thirty (30) people answered. The average of values was 4.93 years and the standard deviation was 2.35. The minimum observed value was 2 years and the maximum was 10 years. The value that occurred most frequently in the data set (mode) was 3 years.

Concerning the re-certification of adult educators via the participation in new programs, the vast majority (30 people out of 35) answered that such a system should be applied. In this case, most educators would prefer a combination of e-learning and conventional programme (Figure 9).

Table 2 shows the preference of trainees concerning the type of programme. Most answered that they would prefer a combination of conventional and e-learning programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>If yes, which training method would you prefer?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional programme</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-learning programme</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of the above methods</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concluding remarks

To sum up, the findings of the study shown that the main reasons that adult trainers attended such a programme was that it was compulsory in order to be enlisted in the Register for Trainers of Adults as well as their will to continue their profession as an adult educator. They chose the specific programme not only based on its content and the instructors, but on the convenience that the place of VTC and the period of implementation offered. Overall, the experience gained was very positive and the trainers had a unique opportunity to transfer knowledge with other colleagues.

All of the trainers incorporated the new methods and tools into their everyday practice. Nevertheless, they encounter problems using new educational methods, caused by the way that vocational training structures organize the programs. The new educational methods and techniques are more difficult to be used in classes with trainees over 50 years of age.

Astonishingly, trainers believe that the knowledge gained from the programme will last on average for 4.93 years, which is a long period of time. This can be explained by the fact that the duration of the programme was long. For this reason, we suggest short, periodical and flexible processes of re-training with the use of conventional and e-learning instruction. Especially for trainers in Continuous Vocational Training, there is a need to evaluate their capability of transmitting contemporary professional knowledge and update their educational techniques via short and periodical re-training programs.

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Lifelong Learning in the Knowledge Economy

Europe aspires to be a highly competitive and knowledge-based economy (European Council, 2000). Major scientific and technological developments demand more investment on human capital, so that both economic growth and social cohesion are ensured (World Bank, 2003). The knowledge divide between rich and poor countries and individuals is even more widened due to the digit divide. As a result education systems have to adapt to new challenges, be updated, increase access to education for all and at all levels. Quality of learning becomes the main characteristic of a knowledge based society, where key competences have to be developed, lifelong learning be promoted and more flexible learning pathways adopted suitable to individuals’ needs (European Commission 2001, 2005a).

Adult education is importance for building skills for all individuals, high-, moderately- and low skilled ones, so as to avoid social exclusion and develop competence. Removing barriers to participation and increasing the quality of the sectors are two of the objectives set in the Communication “It is never too late to learn” (European Commission 2006). As stated in the Communication “It is always a good time to learn” (European Commission 2007:5) “good governance by adult learning providers contributes to effective adult learning provision”. Professional staffing, innovative learning approaches, initial and continuing training are recognised as important factors for the quality of provision in the implementation of the Adult Learning Action Plan.

Trainners are key agents in the lifelong learning and special attention should be given to their professional development (Kalantzis, Cope, 2005). Three key competences that trainers should cultivate are: working with a variety of types of knowledge to build learning environments, working with fellow human beings to nurture the potential of learners and working with and in society (European Commission 2005b). The Adult Learning Professions in Europe (ALPINE) study, conducted in 32 countries by the Research Voor Beleid and PLATO University of Leiden (2008), focused on several issues of the non vocational adult learning professions (NVAL). It acknowledges the wide scope of the adult learning staff (trainers, managers, counsellors, technical support staff) and how different their roles and awareness of relevance to adult education are. Each one of the staff categories has to face increasingly complex contexts and, as far as trainers are concerned, their audience, the content and methodology are some of these challenges, making in-service training a necessity for all.

The varying models of professionalisation of vocational education trainers is also mentioned in the Eurotraining report (2008), emphasizing many differences across Europe regarding their training, status and salaries. Also, a study for the job profile of the vocational trainer that was conducted in Greece by EKEPIS (2008) showed that the level of knowledge and the quality of teaching services provided by vocational trainers varied...
while trainers reported that they lacked pedagogical knowledge and, in some cases, concrete subject knowledge.

**Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Policies in Greece**

The Operational Programme for Education and Initial Vocational Training (EPEAEK) carried out a SWOT analysis of the Greek educational system (EPEAEK, 2007). Among the strengths it considers the level of the human resources and the high level of completion of secondary education and the high levels of participation in Higher Education. On the other hand some of the weaknesses are the low level of participation in adult education, the absence of evaluation of the educational activities, the low level of basic skills (as evaluated in PISA), the delayed use of IT in education. In the field of opportunities it counts, among others, the strengthening of adult education and vocational training, upgrading of the educational activities and the strengthening of educational infrastructure. Some of the threats are the limited increase of public funds for education and the limited connection between education and labour market.

More specifically, in 2005 the European average of adults aged 25-64 participating in adult education was 10.8%. In Greece in 2000 the percentage of adult participation was 1.1%, while in 2005 this percentage went to 1.8% and the target for 2013 is 6% (EPEAEK, 2007). Just 0.2% of Greeks with low educational level participated in adult education. Nevertheless, comparing participation of adult who have completed primary education and adult who have completed Higher Education there is a gap of 8.5%, while in E.U. the percentage rises to 15.7% (Eurostat, 2005).

Recently, there have been significant legislative reforms regarding LLL in Greece. There is an ongoing effort to build a framework, which does not only create institutions regarding lifelong learning, but also develops synergies between existing institutions, which are active on the LLL field. This framework is at the process of defining this field, enhancing the "key players", distinguishing their roles and building links and cooperation, so that a national policy regarding LLL can be promoted.

The Educational Act 3369/2005 “For the systematization of lifelong learning” (G.G.G. 2005) is a serious attempt for systemizing the field. This Act attempts to clarify the roles, responsibilities and target groups of existing institutions active in education and training and sets LLL as the umbrella, under which their objectives coincide. According to this Act “lifelong education is an activity across people’s life-span aiming at both the acquisition or the improvement of general and scientific knowledge, skills and competencies as well as personal development and employability and focuses on developing a comprehensive and viable national LLL strategy”. Institutions, which are responsible for providing lifelong learning education services are the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (G.SLLL.) and the Higher Education Insitutes. A new role Higher Education emerges through this Act, as they can establish LLL Institutes and Universities with the responsibility to design and implement these programmes, evaluate the programmes and the trainees, organize transfer credits and finance these Institutes.

On the other hand, lifelong training is considered in a dual basis, the initial and the continuing vocational training. “Initial training provides basic professional knowledge and skills in fields and specialisations, so that human resources enter and reenter the job market, are mobile and develop”. As far as continuing vocational training is concerned “it completes, updates knowledge and skills acquired through other systems of vocational education and training or through professional experience, so that human resources enter
and reenter the job market, secure a job, promotion and personal development”. Initial vocational training is provided through O.E.E.K. of the Hellenic Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, while continuing vocational training through the Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training (EKEPIS) of the Ministry of Employment. Both educational and training services are provided only by two institutions, the National Centre of Public Administration and the workers’ unions.

Another innovation of the Act is the establishment of the National Committee of Lifelong Learning, which aims to ascertain the needs of lifelong education and training, to evaluate the overall quality of delivery, co-ordinate the institutions of lifelong education and training and to link them with the National System of Vocational Training and Employment (ESSEEKA). According to a more recent Act 3699/2008 multiple public agencies participate in the National Committee, which can be characterized as interministerial, with representatives of three ministries.

The Ministry of Education is represented by the Secretary General of the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning, who also presides the Committee, the Secretary Special of the Unified Administrative Sector of Higher Education, the Secretary Special for the Unified Administrative Sector of the European Union Issues and Community Framework, the President of the Organisation for Initial Vocational Training (O.E.E.K.), two representatives of the Higher Education and the Technological Higher Education. The Ministry of Employment is represented by the Secretary General for Community Funds, the Director of the Organisation for Employment of the Working Force (O.A.E.D.), the President of the National Centre for the Accreditation of Vocational Training (E.K.E.PIS.), the President of the ESSEEKA. The Ministry of Internal Affairs is represented by the Secretary General of the National Centre for Public Administration. Very significant is the participation of social partners, representing the Union of the Prefectures and the Union of Municipalities, the Workers’ Union, the Public Servants’ Union, the Confederation of Persons with Disabilities. This Committee includes agencies which are profoundly involved in Lifelong Learning, but there are still many other agencies of the public sector and other ministries, which are not represented in this Committee and which provide lifelong education and training.

A third major feature is the development of a Register for adult education trainers (G.G.G. 2008). It is expected to be a pool of trainers for G.S.L.L. and OEEK, so that the public agencies of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs data for the qualifications of their trainers. The Register of Trainers is consisted of two subregisters and trainers are enlisted according to their qualifications and experience. The register is expected to run in 2010. Until September 2009 about 23,000 trainers have applied to the register of trainers and the crosschecking of 14,000 applications has been so far completed. According to data from these applications 2,118 trainers have participated in further training which has lasted in total less than 100 hours, while 6,670 trainers have had further training, which exceeds 100 hours. Regarding their experience, 8,080 have less than 200 hours teaching experience in adult education and vocational training and 5,070 trainers have teaching experience in adult education and vocational training that exceeds 200 hours.

In addition a Register for Trainers of Trainers is established and, accordingly, prerequisites for the enrollment are set. In this register 1,660 applications have been made until September 2009 and 1,100 applications have been crosschecked. Less than 100 applicants have had less than 100 hours of further training and 650 have had more than
100 hours further training. Teaching experience in adult education and vocational training which was up to 200 hours was stated by 589 applicants, while 438 had teaching experience over 200 hours.

Training Programmes of the G.S.LLL | I.D.EK.E.

The main institution for planning lifelong learning programmes in Greece is the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (G.S.LLL.) of the Hellenic Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. The Institute for Continuing Adult Education (I.D.EK.E.) is supervised by G.S.LLL. and supports technologically and scientifically the programmes of G.S.LLL. as well as it implements the action and strategic plan of lifelong learning. G.S.LLL. aims at promoting illiteracy, continuing education in language and ICT, social education, active citizenship, ICT and distance education Tsamadias et al, 2008). These aims are realized through programmes of the G.S.LLL./I.D.EK.E.: the Adult Education Centres (offering around 100 different courses) Second Chance Schools, Parents’ Schools, Education on New Technologies, Education of Working Immigrants on the Greek Language, Volunteerism-Handling of Crises, Health Education, Regional Adult Education Committees, the Centre of Distance Lifelong Learning, the Centre of Lifelong Learning for Trainers.

Until 2008 each one of the programmes delivered its own seminars for its trainers. The seminars had a dual focus, theory and practice related to the subject of the programme. Workshops are a major area for exchanging experience, giving the opportunity for transfer of knowledge (Vergidis, 2003). A study with 113 trainers in SCS (Metis, Kavadias, 2008) showed that 21% suggested that seminars are more effective when delivered at the beginning of an educational period, while 14% suggested experiential learning as a central part of the seminars and 11% more sessions. When asked if they prefer sessions twice a year or in-service training at schools, 67% answered they prefer in-service training and 87% stated that through proper training an educator can become trainer of trainers. In another study with 200 trainers of Parents’ Schools, 91% of trainers were satisfied with the experiential learning during training seminars (Giotsa, 2008).

Still, an element missing from all these seminars was a concrete training for all trainers in adult education issues. In 2003 EKEPIS started a training programme for the trainers registered in the Ministry of Employment (Kokkos, 2005). The programme focused on adult education theory and practice, innovative teaching methods, design and evaluation of programmes, effective communication. It followed distance learning methodology, lasted 300 hours and was delivered all over Greece. It was attended by 9,050 trainers and 8,000 trainers were certified by December (EKEPIS, 2008). Evaluation of the programme (Intzidis, Karantzola, Vryonidis, 2007) shows that the top three competences built through this programme are teaching competence, competence of organizing a course and competence of autonomy. It also suggests that trainers of trainers were a significant factor of the programme, while they consider that the programme should take more advantage of the distance learning opportunities.

In a similar pattern, in 2007 G.S.LLL./I.D.EK.E. offered a 100 hours course “Training of trainers”. Following the principles of the blended learning approach, 75 hours were delivered via distance learning and 25 hours were meetings among the trainer and the trainees. It introduced the participants to notions of adult education, such as course
design, needs analysis, promotion of group cooperation, educational use of ICT. More specifically, the four modules were:
- Introduction to Adult Education
- Group dynamics – Training for socially vulnerable groups
- Design of a course
- Evaluation in Adult Education

The course was attended by 2,000 trainers and staff all over Greece. Participants had to attend all four modules, even in cases of staff, who did not have an educational experience or background.

Meanwhile, I.D.E.K.E. participated in a “Leonardo da Vinci” pilot project METER, (METER | Monitoring, Evaluating and improving e-Trainees compEtences in a lifelong learning environment) for developing the professional, educational, communicative and technological skills and competences of e-trainers. Through this project a software tool “Gap Analyser” was developed, which analyses the skills of the trainer, developing his/her profile, and thus indicating the modules which the trainer would need to attend.

**An Innovative Distance Learning Programme by G.S.LLL./I.D.EK.E.**

In 2009 G.S.LLL. develops the programme, “Designing and developing distance learning programmes of LLL trainers and administrative staff”. It is based on a cooperation between two institutes of the Hellenic Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, G.S.LLL./I.D.EK.E. and the Organisation of Initial Vocational Training (O.E.E.K.), trying to establish common references in two agencies of the Ministry. This programme offers 13 courses and can be attended by trainers, trainers of trainers and staff, providing them both initial and continuing professional development. The 13 courses can be categorized in three groups:

1. Trainers of trainers (duration 25 hours). They are trained to adult education issues and distance learning methodology and principles, as all training is based on blended learning.
2. This category contains seven courses, oriented at initial and continuing training of trainers:
   - initial training of trainers (duration 25 hours) Having completed this course trainers can be included in the Initial Sub-register of Adult Student Trainers (Level 1) compiled by the Ministry of Education. During the course, trainers are educated on group dynamics, IT and distance communication and, finally, on a variety of topics concerning adults’ cognitive development;
   - training of trainers (duration 100 hours) Having completed this programme trainers can be included in the Main Sub-register of Adult Student Trainers (Level 2) and extend their qualifications through thorough examination of adult education issues;
   - training of trainers for socially vulnerable groups (duration 25 hours), such as repatriates, Roma, Muslim minority and prisoners, and emphasis on inclusion practices and intercultural education;
   - training of trainers in special education (duration 25 hours) regarding issues of special educational needs and individualized teaching techniques;
   - training of Second Chance Schools trainers (duration 25 hours) focused on the main principles of adult education, experiential learning methods, alternative teaching strategies and evaluation;
• training of trainers in crisis management (duration 100 hours) to enable them to address complicated demands in the educational settings and sufficiently cope with crises of various origins;
• continuing professional training (duration 10 hours) to update trainers’ knowledge, so that their competences develop and get adapted to contemporary adult education developments;
• training in ICT developments and their applications (duration 25 hours) Trainers elaborate on technological developments and ways to make the most out of them in their subject;
• training of trainers and staff in European policy about LLL (duration 25 hours). They get familiar with professional accreditation procedures in Europe (EQF, credit transfer, Europass), european initiatives on legislation, accreditation of qualifications, european programmes.

3. Three courses address the needs of staff providing other than training services in the LLL area:
• training of administrative staff (duration 25 hours) for issues regarding legislation relevant to adult education and management of adult education units;
• training of evaluators (duration 25 hours). Focus is on efficient evaluation procedures of the learning process, their own professional performance, the quality of educational material, adult education units;
• training of counsellors (duration 25 hours) providing information about theory and practice of counselling and intervention in adult learners, individual and group counselling, family counselling.

This programme is supported in cooperation with the Centre for Lifelong Learning of the G.S.LLL. It uses a specific platform, in which all trainers participating in the programme will have access. In this platform the educational material will be available and there will be a forum for online communication among all trainers. It adopts the blended learning approach, offering flexibility to the participants, since they can attend it without having to be physically present in a classroom. This becomes even more important considering the geographical limitations (sea, mountain areas) of Greece and the fact that being an adult trainer is often a second job.

Participants of the programme will have the opportunity to meet each other and their programme trainer in face-to-face sessions at the beginning and end of each course, as well as in intermediate sessions, for courses with a longer duration. The Lifelong Learning Spots in every prefecture across the country will host the face-to-face sessions, in which participants will clarify issues, discuss assignments, exchange ideas and experiences. The trainers of the participants are expected to play an active role both in face-to-face meetings, as well as online, in order to support trainers, motivate them to be active participants during the training, stimulate discussions, give feedback, strengthen ties among the participants. Trainers of trainers play a major role for the success of the programme, as they can motivate and help participants organize small learning communities, which will carry on even after the training course ends and where colleagues can rely for mutual help. Therefore through the courses, apart from the cognitive factor, the motivation for self direction, cooperation with colleagues and experiential learning should be promoted and strengthened.

Theory is an important part of the courses, but more emphasis is given on the combination of theory with practice. Along with the educational material, there will be a
script for each course, which will present case studies and scenarios upon which the participants will have to work in teams or on their own, use their experience as a pool of knowledge, transfer knowledge to different settings and act creatively. Besides training, this programme aspires to promote research regarding LLL and training and, also, develops a national library of LLL.

Financing
The budget of this training programme for the period 2009-2011 is estimated at 10.143.300,00 €. According to these estimates, during an academic year 21.300 trainers will attend 852 courses and the annual budget will be 3.147.000€. The cost of the programmes depends on the number of trainees and the number of courses. The highest cost of trainee per hour is 4,80€ for the course of training evaluators, while the lowest cost of trainee per hour is 0,01€ for the Training of Trainers, which has a duration of 100 hours.

Conclusions
Trainers are a major force for adult education and lifelong learning. More emphasis should be given on their professional development, the initial and continuing training. Flexible and reliable training should be developed to keep trainers up to date with developments, so that their competences can be renewed and upgraded. Still, an even bigger challenge lies for the adult education providers to be active learning organizations, which are reference points for trainers and the society. The Hellenic Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs initiates through the G.S.LLL. learning pathways for trainers through distance education. It tries to develop a comprehensive training system, which combines theoretical, practical and experiential learning. Lifelong learning for trainers is a necessity and when fully integrated with national and European lifelong learning strategies can be a significant tool for empowering trainers.

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Educating the adult educators: Involving the concepts of the individual learning style and the self-esteem in redefining quality in adult education.

Introduction

We use our five senses externally to perceive the world and internally to portray our internal images. Although we simultaneously use all of our perceptual modalities externally, we pay more attention to one or two, depending on what we are dealing with. Surprisingly, when we think, we more frequently prefer using one or two of the representational systems, regardless of the object of thought. Up to the age of eleven or twelve we have already established clear preferences, known as one’s Dominant (or Preferred) Representational Type or Perceptual Modality, which affect the way we learn and communicate with other people, thus forming our personal preferred Learning (and thus teaching) Style (Fleming & Mills, 2007).

Under the influence, of the “significant others” (Bandura, 1977) and via the interpersonal communication - where the similarity between the dominant representational type of the participants plays an important role - the self-concept is being formed (Erikson, 1963; Botsaris, 2001; Tsiros, 2006, 9a).

The Self-concept, in the formation of which exist undercurrent expectations and non-logical ideas, affects the state of mental health (Ellis, A., 1973), the burnout of the educators (Maslach, 1986) and the learning process (Mezirow, 1991). One of the various types of the self-concept is the academic self-concept.

The concept of learning which is considered either as a) “a formation of representations of procedures” according to Bandler, 1982 or as b) “change of one’s self due to new knowledge” (Papadatos, 2003) or c) as “a result of the effectiveness of the inter-personal communication between the teacher and his students” (Tsiros, 2006). This concept, along with the evolving difficulties connected with the associated behavioural problems, is relevant to the above mentioned concepts, that is of the dominant representational type and the self esteem. This is, in our view, of particular importance in transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991) as it is applied in adult education.

A cognitive scheme in educating the adult educator (based on the above theoretical aspects and the evaluation which followed a series of in service training seminars, conducted by the same trainer, on the same subject, in 60 groups which they were attended more than 2000 educators) is being presented and discussed in this research report.

This cognitive scheme was evaluated by the adult learners using a questionnaire (presented in workshop 1 in this conference) (Tsiros, 2009f). Quantitative findings which resulted from the statistical analysis of their answers showed a positive attitude among the high majority at all criteria. Intense interest was shown on behalf of the participants for the continuation of their education in the fields of the self-esteem, the learning style and the teacher’s communication skills, on the teaching effectiveness and the confrontation of the teachers’ burn out in the direction of redefining the quality in adult education.
Concept Identification

Dominant (or Preferred) Representational Type

Dominant Representational Type (concept and questionnaire) is an approach to the way each individual perceives the external world using his/her perceptions. This concept represents internally the external data formatting one’s own personal knowledge. The mental map, thus formatted, is not the reality but the reality of the particular individual (Nagel et al, 1985).

According to the concept of the dominant representational type we expect that learners who use in the same degree the three different mentalities may have either significantly high achievement in learning (in the case that the corresponding information presented by the three different modalities are in agreement with each other) or extremely low achievement (if the corresponding modalities transform different messages counteracting each other). That is why we call these learners the high risk group. Research indicates that the relationship between the variables of academic achievement and academic self-concept is stronger in the high-risk group when compared with the rest of the population at primary school level (Tsiros, 2007).

Research also indicates that the more similar is the educator’s dominant representational type and the relevant type of his trainee’s the higher is the trainee’s learning efficiency (Tsiros, 2009a).

For our research we used the Dominant Representational Type Questionnaire developed by Tsiros (2009g). The instrument consists of 48 items related to the learner’s preferred learning style (module). Sixteen items correspond to each of the three dominant representational types. Learners were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with each statement, on a two point scale from agree to disagree. The Cronbach’s a was 0, 97 for the visual, 0,97 for the auditory, and 0,96 for the kinesthetic type.

Self-concept and Academic Self-concept

Global or general self-concept has been under research and clinical work all these years. Bandura (1977) criticised the use of global view of self-concept because it cannot possibly explain the wide variations typically shown in self-reactions. Earlier, Wylie (1961) had already advocated the use of more specific or molecular self–concept factors.

Recognising such a need, Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) proposed a multifaceted model that considers two major areas of self–concept: academic and non-academic. Academic self-concept was divided into subject–matter areas and then into specific areas within subjects. Similarly, no academic self-concept was divided into social and physical self-concepts, and then divided again into more specific facets. Shavelson et al. (1976) argued that the more closely self-concept is linked with specific situations, the closer the relationship between self-concept and behaviour is. Thus, academic and achievement-related self-perceptions are more closely associated with learning activities and outcomes than either social or physical self-perceptions.

Bloom (1976) recognised the importance of specific academic-related self-perceptions, and argued that they have a crucial influence in motivation and perseverance in learning tasks. When learners have confidence in their academic abilities, they tend to invest more effort in completing learning tasks. On the other hand, learners who see
themselves as having inadequate abilities tend to show little patience or perseverance when difficulties are encountered. Achievement outcomes, therefore, are influenced by learner's cognitive abilities, as well as by their perceptions of those abilities.

Within school self-concept there is likely to be a subset of self-perceptions. These perceptions relate to school in general, to satisfaction derived from school, to confidence in schoolwork and to beliefs about ability in specific subject areas. Following the Shavelson et al. (1976) model, it would make sense to explain school achievement self-perceptions in both general and more specific school related areas. Research indicates the contribution of the dominant representational type and the level of the self-esteem to solving teachers' burn out problems and students' learning and behavioural issues (Tsiros, 2008; Tsiros and Papapetrou, 2008; Tsiros, 2009c,e).

Learning Achievement

Several authors (Brookover et al., 1965; Bloom, 1976; Marshall & Weinstein, 1984) assert that the accumulation of success and failure experiences in school contributes to the nature of each individual’s school self-concept. Students whose academic histories generally reflect successful learning experiences tend to develop positive self-perceptions of ability, whereas those who experience considerable failure in learning tend to develop more negative self-perceptions of ability. Research indicates (Tsiros, 2009a) that the same happens with the adult learners.

Discussion

«At the core of Neuro Linguistic Programming is the belief that, when people are engaged in activities, they are also making use of a representational system; that is, they are using some internal representation of the materials they are involved with, such as a conversation, a rifle shot, a spelling task. These representations can be visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or involve the other senses. In addition, a person may be creating a representation or recalling one. For example, a person asked to spell a word may either visualize that word printed on a piece of paper, or listen to it being sounded out, or may construct the spelling from the application of a series of logical rules» (Druckman, 1988). According to NLP, for many practical purposes mental processing of events and memories can be treated as if performed by the five senses. For example, Einstein credited his discovery of special relativity to a mental visualization strategy of «sitting on the end of a ray of light», and many people as part of decision-making talk to themselves in their heads (Mcgurk et al.1976).

The manner in which this is done, and the effectiveness of the mental strategy employed, is stated by NLP to play a critical role in the way mental processing takes place. This observation led to the concept of a preferred representational system, the classification of people into fixed visual, auditory or kinesthetic stereotypes. This idea was later discredited and dropped within NLP by the early 1980s, in favour of the understanding that most people use all of their senses (whether consciously or unconsciously), and that whilst one system may seem to dominate, this is often contextualized - globally there is a balance that dynamically varies according to circumstance and mood. NLP asserts that for most circumstances and most people, three of the five sensory based modes seem to dominate in mental processing:

- Visual thoughts - sight, mental imagery, spatial awareness
Auditory (or linguistic) thoughts - sound, speech, dialog, white noise
- Kinesthetic (or proprioceptive) sense - somatic feelings in the body, temperature, pressure, and also emotion.

The other two senses, gustatory (taste) and olfactory (smell), which are closely associated, often seem to be less significant in general mental processing, and are often considered jointly as one.

NLP’s interest in the senses is not so much in their role as bridges to the outside world, but in their role as internal channels for cognitive processing and interpretation. In an NLP perspective, it is not very important per se whether a person sees or hears some memory. By contrast, NLP views it as potentially of great importance for the same person, to discover that some auditory sounds presented almost out of consciousness along with the memory, may be how the brain presents to consciousness, and how consciousness knows, whether this is a heart-warming pleasant memory, or a fearsome phobias (Tsioros, 2009b).

Representational systems are also relevant since some tasks are more optimally performed by one representational system than another. For example, within education, spelling is better learned by children who have unconsciously used a strategy of visualization, than an unconscious strategy of phonetically «sounding out». When taught to visualize, previously poor spellers can indeed improve their spelling skills. NLP proponents also found that pacing and leading the various cues tended to build rapport, and allowed people to communicate more effectively. Certain studies suggest that using similar representational systems to another person can help build rapport whilst other studies have found that merely mimicking or doing so in isolation is perceived negatively. (Van Nagel et al., 1985)

Conclusion
It was found that there is a relationship between dominant representational type, academic self-esteem and learning achievement. Both the dominant representational type and the self-esteem can be modified through the above mentioned cognitive educational scheme.

Evaluation of the scheme by the adult trainees indicates a positive attitude among the high majority of the participants against all criteria. Intense interest was shown on behalf of the participants for the application of this scheme in their future education. These data indicate the worth of incorporating the scheme in a conversation towards the direction of redefining the quality in adult education.

References
PART 5 | Becoming an adult educator in Europe: Some biographical perspectives

Becoming adult educators in Sweden – A biographical perspective

Introduction
Sweden is a country with a long tradition in adult education. Within non-formal/liberal adult education the first folk high schools were established in the 19th century and the first study associations were organized in the early 20th century. Formal – general and vocational – adult education has developed during the 20th and beginning of the 21st century. However, formal education/training for becoming an adult educator in Sweden is not very extensive. People willing to enter a profession in the field of adult education can enroll in different courses and programs, but the most common pathway is a teacher education with no particular adult education profile, as there are no specific formal requirements on teachers in adult education. Presently, Swedish teacher education is in a phase of transformation. There is an official report (green paper) proposing among other things that the present folk high school teacher programme should be merged into the education for teachers in general subjects on upper secondary level, and defining teachers on upper secondary level as teachers in upper secondary school (with young students, normally 16-19 years) and adult education (SOU 2008:109). A governmental bill (white paper) with the final proposal is expected in January 2010.

This paper is based on investigations in the present situation, before the transformation of Swedish teacher education that is to come. The study starts from the present state of adult education in Sweden, and the role of the adult educator in different types of education. Further, it covers the opportunity structures for prospective adult educators, and analyses the pathways of a sample of adult educators-to-be.

Aim of the paper
This paper aims at investigating the current opportunity structures in the making of ‘adult educators’, and the trajectories of prospective adult educators; hence it addresses central questions of how Swedes could develop professionalism in the field of adult education through engagement in existing education opportunities. By doing so, special attention is paid to processes of professionalization and identify-building among (prospective) teachers of adults. Within this aim, the following questions are dealt with specifically: What are the opportunity structures of prospective adult educators in Sweden? What types of trajectories are followed by prospective adult educators before entering teacher education or other courses within the present opportunity structure?

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How is the identity as an adult educator expressed in terms of conceptions of differences or similarities in teaching adults and younger pupils?

**Methodological approach**

The premise of the methodological approach is that individuals exist in multiple, multi-layered and interacting contexts, each of which is a domain of social relations and physical context (see e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Here the individual creation of meaning is related to life conditions and social identities. An important element in the methodological perspective is to focus on the interaction between (prospective) adult educators and the structural conditions that characterise the wider socio-cultural context in which they act. The approach is based in the idea that individual motivations for working in the field of adult education and the learning process that leads to the formation of competences, qualifications and professional identity in this field can be better understood by applying a biographical perspective (Horsdal, 2002).

The first part of the results, briefly introducing Swedish adult education, and the present opportunity structures for prospective adult educators, draws on policy documents, public information, and available research of relevance for the topic. The analysis presented in the latter part of the paper draws on 14 narrative interviews with people currently or recently undertaking teacher education at the university – a teacher education program for general or vocational education at upper secondary level, with an adult education profile, or a folk high school teacher program, or shorter university courses preparing teachers to become adult educators – or a liberal adult educator course at a folk high school. The sample consists of 5 prospective adult educators from general education, 5 from vocational education, and 4 from liberal education.

The narrative interviews were conducted in a way outlined by Horsdal (2002). The interview started with a more or less extensive narrative of the interviewee’s life from the beginning and up to now. This narrative was followed by a number of follow-up questions, partly optional questions focusing on particular aspects of the narratives, partly pre-defined questions focusing on why the interviewee chose the particular course/programme, on ideas of what is typical for the adult educator and differences between teaching adults and young people, and on the interviewee’s positioning in a vocational context and visions for the future. The present paper focuses on the trajectories into different types of education for adult educators, and on the possible differences between teaching adults and young people.

The interviews were transcribed simultaneously by the interviewer during the interview, and recorded. After the interview, the transcription was modified based on the recording, and the interviewee had the opportunity to comment upon the text. However, it should be noted that this type of transcription means that the text is not a word-by-word transcription, but that the text is somewhat shortened as compared to the actual narrative and conversation. In the analysis of interviews, a central guiding concept was trajectory, and particularly learning trajectory. Other concepts that guided our analysis in this approach were critical incidents, critical persons, and turning points, which helped us identify the structures of the narratives. The ideas concerning differences/similarities between teaching adults and young people were seen as expressions of the possible identities as adult educators.
The adult educator

‘Adult educators’ is a broad category including people involved in different ways in the provision of adult education opportunities. Here, however, some delimitations have been made in this study. Our focus is firstly on those who are or will be working as teachers and trainers, in direct contact with adult learners, bracketing those involved in adult education in other ways. Secondly, we address acting and prospective adult educators who earn or intend to earn their living in the field of adult education. The extensive and important contributions on a voluntary basis, e.g. by many study circle leaders in the Swedish study associations, are beyond the scope of our study. Thirdly, our concern is particularly the initial education and training of adult educators for the fields of general, vocational and liberal adult education, i.e. the fields more or less regulated by the state and receiving public funding. Fourthly, we discuss the ‘prospective’ adult educators who are preparing themselves to enter the field of adult education. However, in practice there is no clear-cut distinction between prospective and acting adult educators. Those participating in initial training often have more or less extensive experiences from the field of adult education.

Adult educator as a profession?

This paper is about adult education, education and training opportunity structures for adult educators, and the possible professionalization of adult educators. What do we then mean if we discuss adult educator/teacher in terms of a profession? There are some central criteria used when defining professions, for example a teacher profession (see e.g. Colnerud & Granström, 2002). There should be a research-based professional education, and a ‘professional language’. Further, there should be a formal licensing or registration of the professional educator/teacher, and the profession should have its ethical guidelines and a system for sanctions if these guidelines are not followed. Finally, there has to be a certain degree of professional autonomy. Today, the adult educator is not a profession in this sense in Sweden. There are efforts made to strengthen the teacher profession, and one of these efforts is to develop a new and more research based teacher education. However, these efforts neither focus on adult educators nor include all types of educators in Swedish adult education.

Research on the adult educator in Sweden

The research on adult education and adult learning in Sweden is relatively extensive, but there is little research focusing on the adult educator, and nothing focusing teacher education for adult educators. The focus is on the adult learner and learning processes, conditions for learning, participation etc., but also on the organisation and policy of adult education in different contexts. It should also be noted that the extensive research mainly concerns general and liberal adult education. Vocational adult education is not very much in focus – in the vocational sector there is rather extensive research on learning in the work life, independent of formal education, an area beyond the scope of our study. There are few studies on vocational learning in the educational context and none focuses on adult learners and learning.

When it comes to the adult educator, we can give a few examples from Swedish research. Abbrandt Dahlgren (2007) has conducted empirical studies of adult education in three contexts, university, folk high school and municipal adult education in order to investigate the characterisation of adult education. Three characteristics of the practice
of teaching adults were identified (‘the Clinique’, ‘the Market’ and ‘the Credit point office’). Features defining these characteristics were found in all three contexts and thus interpreted to be cross-contextual.

Håkansson (2007) has interviewed teachers in formal, general adult education. She shows how the main concerns of these teachers are the high degree of absence and many drop outs among the adult students. This means that the teachers perform a lot of motivational work and try to find a balance between teaching and caring in their professional role. However, the needs of the students result in a situation where the caring dimension prevails. This means that there is a distance between the andragogical principles with its ideal, responsible and motivated adult student, and the practice of adult education, where teachers have to take on both responsibility and motivational work (Håkansson, 2007).

Assarsson and Sips Zackrisson (2005) have conducted ethnographical studies of adult education in the contexts of general and liberal education. In their thesis it is shown how different participants’ identities are staging in adult education. There are differences as well as similarities according to the diverse contexts. Teachers’ expectations on students are related to the andragogical ideals here too, but the participants do not fulfill these ideals in their study strategies. Analyses of teacher trajectories in municipal adult education have been conducted by Henning Loeb (2006). The development and change of general adult education, and the professionalization of adult educators, have been made visible through life histories and narratives of a number of experienced adult educators.

Paldanious (2007) presents a study based on interviews with folk high school teachers. The focus of the study is the folk high school – its ‘spirit’ and what is typical or signifying for this type of school, from the teachers’ perspective. The results among other things show how a number of aspects of the teacher’s work and pedagogy are important to identify the spirit and signifiers of the folk high school. A central aspect is the focus on the individual, but an individual in a collective context. This means a pedagogy where different individuals meet and learn together in groups. The pedagogy is based on a democratic perspective. Further, ‘playing’ is described as important in the pedagogy, but also the connection to everyday life. In research on vocational education, there are a few studies on advanced vocational education, but the fact that the participants are adults is not in focus. The vocational adult educator has not been studied, but there are some studies of vocational teachers in upper secondary school. Göransson (2004) deals with the demands on vocational teachers to take into account that language is learnt in different contexts; Lindberg (2003) studies the pedagogical ideas of vocational teachers, and how these are expressed in teaching; and Lemar (2001) shows the divergent challenges inherent in invisible demands and heterogeneous student groups.

**Opportunity structures: adult education/educators in Sweden**

As an introduction to the results from interviews on becoming an adult educator in Sweden, we give an overview of the opportunity structures of prospective educators in Swedish adult education, including the fields of general, vocational, and liberal adult education. For a more extensive overview, including references to policy document etc., see Andersson and Köpsén (2009a, b).
**General adult education**

General adult education in Sweden has its roots in liberal adult education. The evening schools started in the 1950s and were organised by study associations. However, in the 1960s this education was formalised, and the municipal adult education was founded in 1968. Formal adult education had its own national curriculum from 1982 up to 1994. However, in 1994 new national curricula were introduced for compulsory and formal voluntary education on primary and secondary level, and the curricula became the same, independent of if pupils were young or adults. The specific role of general adult education is the compensatory function for those who failed in or did not have the opportunity to go to upper secondary school.

**The adult educator in general adult education**

The qualifications for adult educators’ in general adult education are the same as those for teachers on the corresponding level, and in corresponding subjects, in primary/secondary school. There are no other specific requirements of education for teaching in general adult education. This means that the requirement is a degree from a relevant teacher education programme. However, if there is a lack of teachers, a person without a teacher degree could be employed as a teacher, normally for a limited period of time.

The teacher education programme is provided in higher education, i.e. universities and university colleges. It comprises 3–5 years full-time studies, depending on level and teaching subjects, and includes both subject studies and the more specific teaching courses. There is also an alternative track of 1,5 years full-time studies, or 3 years part-time, if you already have studied the teaching subjects before entering teacher education.

**Vocational adult education**

A main part of Swedish vocational adult education is the vocational part of the municipal adult education, with the history described above. Vocational adult education in a broader sense comprises a number of different types of education, which include some overlap not only to municipal/general adult education but also to liberal adult education. In vocational adult education the function is not mainly compensation. Rather, vocational education fulfils the needs in the labour market. On the one hand this means a focus on training for vocations with a labour shortage, on the other hand vocational adult education provides new opportunities in the labour market for those unemployed. Advanced vocational education (KY) was initiated in 1997, first introduced on an experimental level, but formally established in the year 2000, and replaced in mid 2009 by ‘higher vocational education’, with a stricter monitoring and control of the programmes by a new Swedish National Agency of Higher Vocational Education. Other types of non-formal vocational education are provided in folk high schools and in labour market education.

**The adult educator in vocational adult education**

The requirements for teachers in vocational municipal adult education are the same as in corresponding courses in upper secondary school, which is vocational competence corresponding to 1,5 years in higher education, and a 1,5 years teacher education at a university or university college. Mentors in the work place are also acting as educators in the work-based parts of vocational education, and for these mentors there are no such formal requirements on educational competence.
Here it should be mentioned that there is a lack of vocational teachers. This means that persons without a teacher degree are employed in vocational education more frequently than in general education, and the expansion of vocational teacher education is a central policy issue in this area.

In advanced vocational education, there have been no certain requirements on teachers. The provider has applied for the right, and money, to arrange a programme for a limited number of years, and the main criteria are the labour market need and the provider’s competence to provide the programme, i.e. their vocational competence. In addition to teachers, the mentors in the work place have a role as educators, as a significant part of the programmes is situated in the work place. The situation will be the same in higher vocational education. When it comes to folk high schools and labour market education, this education is not part of the formal school system. Thus there are no formal requirements on teachers.

**Liberal adult education – ‘folkbildning’**

Liberal adult education or ‘folkbildning’ in Sweden is non-formal and has no formal relation to the state in terms of a governing agency etc. even if the state gives extensive subsidies to liberal adult education. Instead, the Swedish Council for Adult Education since 1991 is commissioned by the state to monitor the folk high schools and study associations, and to decide how the subsidies should be distributed to schools and study associations. Liberal adult education is arranged by folk high schools and study associations, as longer or shorter courses or study circles. ‘Folkbildning’, which could be seen as the Swedish branch of liberal adult education, is defined as non-formal education, which is ‘free and voluntary’. Courses should start from the needs of the individual and of the democratic society, including the ‘third sector’ and its NGOs that own many of the schools and study associations.

**The adult educator in liberal adult education**

There are no formal requirements on folk high school teachers, as the education is non-formal and therefore not regulated in that sense. There is a 1 year full-time (or 2 years part-time) folk high school teacher programme on university level that provides competence as a folk high school teacher, but folk high schools also employ upper secondary school teachers and teachers with specific subject competence but without teacher education. In the latter group it should be noted that ‘subject competence’ includes not only general subjects but also competences in specific vocations, arts, handicraft etc. The folk high school teacher programme is also offered as part-time in-service training for acting folk high school teachers.

Thus, there are no general formal requirements, but what is required on the local school level might vary. Neither are there any formal requirements on the study circle leaders, who work as volunteers or are employed. The folk high school teacher programme at university level also targets educators from study associations. However, in this case the participants in the university programme are not study circle leaders but rather organisers/administrators with an educational responsibility. The study associations arrange their own in-service training for the study circle leaders, and there

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37 An NGO with the two folk high school organisations (one organisation for the NGO-owned schools, and the organisation of Swedish municipalities and county councils representing county council owned schools) and the study association organisation as members.
could be requirements within the organisations.

**Requirements and opportunity structures**

To sum up, the requirements in municipal adult education (general and vocational) are the same as for teachers in corresponding subjects and levels in compulsory and upper secondary school. Here, teachers should have a teacher education from a university or a university college, but these programs normally have no particular adult education profile. In post-secondary ‘advanced/higher vocational education’, there are no formal requirements when it comes to teacher education. Liberal adult education is non-formal; thus there are no formal national regulations concerning teacher qualifications.

However, there is an optional folk high school teacher programme at university level. In addition to this, there are shorter courses in universities and folk high schools in the field of adult education. Thus, the Swedish opportunity structures for prospective adult educators include a variety of courses and programs, which run on a regular or *ad hoc* base. However, these courses and programs are in no way compulsory to become and adult educator. Furthermore, it is not always possible to make a clear distinction between pre-service and in-service opportunities: existing courses and programs, even when primarily targeted to prospective (adult) educators, are also open to practitioners in both youth and adult education.

**Becoming adult educators**

Our interviewees have different backgrounds when it comes to what pathways for becoming an adult educator they have chosen. As mentioned, the results presented below are based on 14 interviews, whereof 5 representing general education, 5 representing vocational education, and 4 representing liberal adult education.

The sample from general education included three students from the teacher programme, two of them had not made any specific choice of course focusing on adult learning but had expressed an interest in teaching adults, while one of them had taken a specialization course in adult learning as part of her teacher education. The other two had taken the same course but as part of a degree in Swedish as a foreign language and as a supplementary course some years after teacher education respectively.

The prospective vocational teachers studied the vocational teacher education, three full-time and two part-time. None of them had made any specific choice of a course in adult learning but had expressed an interest in the area. From liberal education, the sample included two students from the folk high school teacher programme and two from a liberal adult educator course at a folk high school.

**The varying trajectories**

A general pattern among the interviewees is that it has not been a ‘straight way’ to the teacher education, or the other courses for prospective adult educators. The pathways vary when it comes to the background before entering different types of teacher education. These teacher students have been involved in different work activities and have varying interests. They exist in multiple and interacting contexts, which was a premise of our methodological approach.

One type of trajectory is that the person has been working in another area than education before entering teacher education, and the turning point was the choice to
enter this education as a start of a new career as a teacher. Becoming a vocational teacher is for example a new career, but could also be seen as part of a ‘career’ within the vocation. Another type of trajectory is followed by some persons who already have been working as un-qualified teachers, without having the formal competence, i.e. there was an important turning point when starting teaching. Here are persons who have been working for a long time as un-qualified teachers, as well as those who started teaching more recently. Among those starting teaching more recently are for example persons working in a vocation, who have been recruited as vocational teachers in a situation of lack of qualified vocational teachers. It should be noted that this pathway in the vocational area differs from the first type described above, where a person could go directly from the vocation to teacher education, without first being employed as un-qualified teachers. The reasons for entering teacher education even if you are already working as a teacher vary.

In a number of cases, the critical incident is a demand from the employer to take a teacher education to be able to keep the position. However, there are also those who do not stress the formal requirement but rather that he/she likes teaching and giving instruction, which has contributed to a desire to learn more. An important aspect of these trajectories is that the students have a family and work situation that makes them reluctant to study full-time, i.e. the opportunity of taking teacher education as part-time studies is valuable for them.

Further, some interviewees have a background with bad experiences from school and considering oneself not being capable of studying, but some sort of turning point, e.g. participating in adult education, has inspired a new direction in life. The interest in teaching adults could also be part of an evolving engagement in a social movement (in our cases a trade union), where educational responsibilities have become part of the parcel, and a critical incident that inspired to develop competence within the area of liberal adult education.

A third main type of trajectory means that teacher education is a ‘strategy B’, i.e. something that is a second best alternative. This type of trajectory could involve different rationalities for entering teacher education. One alternative is that you have a deep interest in a subject area, and to become a teacher is a way to be able to work with what you are interested in, even if it is ‘only’ as a teacher in the subject. Another alternative is that the person has had other wishes or plans that have not come true, and then becoming a teacher was a reasonable strategy B. A third alternative here is also that the person for some reason has not been able to keep on working in his/her prior vocation, e.g. a critical incident of a developing allergy which made it difficult to work with gardening.

There are also some other interesting themes in the stories, concerning the trajectory up to entering a teacher education with a more or less expressed adult education profile. One type of turning point, where a critical person has been involved, is that the interviewee has been inspired by someone else who has expressed that ‘you should be a teacher!’ The choice to become an (adult) educator could also be based in other personal experiences. Two interviewees describe the interest in interaction with people, one says she has always been a kind of ‘teacher’, the other expresses the need of having an audience while doing her work.
**Teacher identity – teaching youngsters and/or adults**

A central aspect of the development of an identity as an adult educator is the conception of the 'pupil'. This is a matter of the prospective educator’s ideas concerning if there is anything specific in teaching adults. To make these ideas visible, this aspect was discussed in the interviews in terms of if there are any differences between teaching adults and youngsters.

Firstly, we can see that there is a difference in consciousness of the question. Some of the interviewees have not considered this aspect at all. They are not aware of the pupils in such a way. It is the subject that is in focus rather than the pupils. Or it is oneself who is in focus – some of the teacher students have no or limited teaching experiences yet and are more concerned about how they will manage to teach their subject.

Secondly, among those who have considered this aspect, there are differences in points of view. Some have contradictory thoughts, i.e. the possible differences are not seen as clear-cut. Therefore, the different points of view presented do not represent individuals, as one person could have expressed more than one idea, and answers from more than one interviewee could be merged into one category or position.

One position is that teenagers are seen as harder to motivate than adults. They have less other experiences than from school, and thus it is more difficult to relate theory to practice when teaching young people. Another concern is that younger pupils are interested and focused on other things than the studies. As compared to this, adults are seen as more demanding as they are interested and want to know more. As a teacher it is more interesting and easier to teach adults as they are interested and have experience of other things or areas, and they know what they will 'use' the course for.

A different position is that it is easier to challenge teenagers to be interested in things beyond the formal demands – they still have visions. Related to this, adults are experienced by some interviewees as not interested to learn more than is demanded for the vocational position for which they are preparing themselves.

A third position is that the similarities and overlaps are more important than differences. There are two aspects of this. Firstly, young people in upper secondary school are to be prepared for adult life and for the working life and thus should be treated as adults-to-be. Secondly, there could be overlaps in age, the age group is not homogenous. For example, all pupils do not start upper secondary school when they are 16, which means that there could be an age span in upper secondary school from 16 to 22. Another aspect is the relational. The interviewees are adults, and some of them express that it is easier to keep the distance to teenagers than to adult pupils. It is more of a challenge teaching other adults and keeping a convenient balance of privacy and distance in the relation to these pupils.

As we can see, the pupils' motivation and experiences are the main aspects in the ideas of differences or similarities. How these are seen to influence the teaching and what it means to teach teenagers and adults varies among the interviewees. Own experiences from teaching seem to have an impact on the consciousness of this aspect of teaching and learning, although the points of view vary.

**Conclusion**

The trajectory of becoming an adult educator is not a ‘straight way’. Some have come to a turning point and changed track, from something completely different, or from a vocation and into a role as teachers within this vocation. Others have slipped onto the
track and started their teaching career as un-qualified teachers.

Relating trajectories and identities to opportunity structures, our conclusion is that these are intertwined. Students who have a more clearly expressed identity as an adult educator seem to have more experiences from adult education, as students and/or un-qualified teachers. There are few explicit tracks to become an adult educator, except from the folk high school teacher programme, which means that younger teacher students rarely are aware of the opportunity of becoming an adult educator. This also means that the opportunity to enter part-time teacher education is important for becoming an adult educator, as those who are aware of this professional track often are the somewhat older students that are more interested in combining studies with family life and work.

The situation with few opportunities to choose an educational track dedicated to becoming an adult educator is reflected in the developing professional teacher identities, as expressed in the conceptions of adults as pupils as compared to youngsters. Some of the interviewees have not even reflected upon this matter of teaching different age groups, and among the others there are not so many clear conceptions of differences. Rather, the ideas of teaching adults or youngsters could be quite similar, even if there are exceptions among interviewees with more experience from adult education.

Could the adult educator be a possible, specific profession in the Swedish education system, or should it be a profile or specialization within a more general, possibly developing, teacher profession? The present, and particularly the possible future, opportunity structures in teacher education indicate the latter alternative as more likely. The proposal for a new teacher education includes ideas like a more research-based programme, which means striving for a teacher profession. If teachers for upper secondary school, adult education, and folk high schools, will be trained in the same teacher programme, they will be entering the same teacher profession.

But, if adult education and adult educators should be part of this profession, it is crucial that there are explicit opportunities for specialization in the field of adult education. Opportunities for specialization are part of professions, like in medicine where doctors belong to one profession but could be for example radiologists or surgeons. Presently, the adult educator is – with few exceptions – invisible in education policy, teacher education, and research. If there should be opportunities to develop and strengthen an identity as adult educator, in a possible teacher specialization, more focus on adult education in general and on the adult educator in particular, in research as well as in policy and practice, is probably necessary.

References


Becoming adult educators in Estonia – A biographical perspective.

Introduction

The context of adult education becomes more and more complex and complicated, and it constantly poses new challenges to the professionalism of adult educators who have to realise their status, roles and competencies and develop their own personal and professional identity.

An expanding understanding of changes in society, in educational policy and in the need for lifelong learning in Estonia brings with it an essential requirement for the professional development of adult educators. Adult educators therefore need specific knowledge and skills, an awareness of their role and identity, competence and qualification that guarantees professional skills, since they have enormous autonomy and freedom of choice in their professional area.

The term professionalisation indicates a direct attempt to use education and training possibilities to improve the quality of practice, standardise professional responses and enhance cooperation and communication within the professional field.

Professionalism is dynamic in essence and includes a core profession (specific knowledge and skills, roles, tasks, competences, qualifications, personal and professional identity) which is influenced by changes and processes which take place in society, the social context, expectations, norms and the course of an individual’s life.

Professional learning and professionalization takes place in the context of life course and is discussed as personal development process. Human life is connected with time and life is seen as a journey across time, as life-span or as life trajectory that unites different life periods and life events (Habermas & Bluck 2000).

Development and learning occurs throughout life and time is perceived as past, present and future. At each stage of life, there can be something that challenges, supports or impedes us, forcing us to study, learn or develop. Aspects of life-course and career path tasks can be recycled throughout personal and pro Adult educators are in a unique position, as they have acquired a speciality in the course of their studies, but often lack formal preparation and initial training to teach adults.

At each stage of life, there can be something that challenges, supports or impedes us, forcing us to study, learn or develop. Aspects of career path tasks can be recycled throughout our personal and professional life span as changes occur in our career path and other life roles changes occur (McAuliffe 2006).

The premise of our methodological approach is that individuals exist in multiple, multi-layered and interacting contexts, each of which is a domain of social relations and physical context. Here the individual creation of meaning is related to life conditions and social identities.

An important element in our methodological perspective is to focus on the interaction between (prospective) adult educators and the structural conditions that characterise the wider socio-cultural context in which they act.
Individual motivations for working in the field of adult education and the learning process that leads to the formation of competences, qualifications and professional identity in this field can be better understood by applying a biographical perspective.

The analysis presented in this paper draws on fifteen thematic narrative interviews with adult educators who currently studying adult education on Master Studies level and vocational education on Bachelor Studies level at the Tallinn University and undertaking and/or finishing long-term qualification course for adult educators.

The narratives were collected in June – August 2009 seeking to understand **How the formation of professionalization of adult educators to be develops during education and training?** The empirical data was collected by using personal narratives with thematic interview questions, which were asked when tellers finished their stories:

- Can you tell about the path that you have taken in order to work in the field of adult learning?
- Can you tell about what made you choose this course?
- How would you describe a person working in the field of adult learning?
- Do you see any difference between teaching children and teaching adults?
- How do you see yourself in a vocational context?
- What are your visions for the future?

Using narratives in research means that we integrate personal and social experience in the broader social and educational context. We based on holistical – inductive approach by using content and thematic analyses (Horsdal 2002).

The aim of the paper is to construct a possible interpretation of career path in the context of biographies of Estonian adult educators to be.

In this paper we based on desk research (theoretical and empirical data and statistical information were collected during 2008-2009 y) and on the empirical data from 15 empirical examples/narratives which were conducted as part of two international projects: **Becoming Adult Educators in the Baltic-Sea Region (BABAR)**, which was granted financial support by the Nordic Council of Ministries, under the Nordplus Framework Programme, Sub-programme Nordplus Adult and **Becoming Adult educators in the European Area (BAEA)** which was granted by Grundtvig programm (project nr 142405-2008-LLP-DK-GRUNDTVIG-GMP).

**The status of adult educator in Estonia**

During the last 15 years Estonia has experienced political, ideological, economic, cultural and social changes; at the same time, globalisation has been influencing the development of information and communication technology, the global market and labour force mobility.

EU membership from 2004 ensures a more stable social, cultural, political and economic environment in Estonia. Good infrastructure, geographical location and a skilled, adaptable workforce create a good basis for economic, political, cultural and educational development.

Adult education and lifelong learning is one of the priorities for development in Estonia. In 1993, Estonian Parliament accepted the Adult Education Act; the act changed the role of adult education in society significantly (Märja, 2000: 30).
Adult educators are in a unique position, as they have acquired a speciality in the course of their studies, but often lack formal preparation and initial training to teach adults (Jarvis, 2004; Karm, 2007, Jögi, Gross 2009).

The adult educator as a profession has been recognised and regulated by the Professional Qualification Standard in Estonia since 2004. According to the definition, an adult educator is a specialist intermediating skills and/or knowledge to adult people, directing their formation of comprehension and attitudes, and supporting their self-development in adult general education, job-related and/or continuing professional training, popular education courses, study circles and other circumstances related to a purposeful learning situation.

Applying for a qualification standard is voluntary and depends on the applicant’s wish to formalise his/her professional skills. A professional standard as an adult educator or andragogue can be applied for at four levels (levels II, III, IV and V). Since the 2007, the professional standard has been competence based, and this has significantly influenced the preparation of applicants for a qualification standard.

The professional qualification of the adult educator is defined as an additional/partial qualification, the basic qualification being the profession or specialist knowledge acquired either at a university or vocational education institution (in the subject s/he is teaching).

**Becoming adult educator**

The quality of the preparation and professional activity among adult educators can vary. Adult educators can have different perceptions of competencies and their professional identity, personal theories on teaching and their need for personal training and development. While the responsibility for professional growth and development falls on the adult educators themselves, it is important to figure out what perceptions they have about professional identity and professional growth and development.

With regard to professionalism, however, it is also essential to understand how adult educators understand and interpret becoming an adult educator and how their professional identity is constructed.

A career path or phase task makes sense as a requirement at a particular time in life (McAuliffe, 2006:478). At each stage in life, there can be something that challenges, supports or impedes us, forcing us to study, learn or develop. Aspects of career path tasks can be recycled throughout our personal and professional life span as changes occur in our career path and other life role changes occur (McAuliffe, 2006).

Life is seen as a journey across time (Jarvis 1998), as life-span or as life trajectory that unites different life periods and life events (Tulva 1998). Learning takes place in the context of life course and is discussed as personal development process (Jameison, Miller & Stafford 1998). Human life is connected with time. Development and learning occurs throughout life and time is perceived as past, present and future. In different stages of life uniqueness of a person appears (Jarvis 1998). At each stage of life, there can be something that challenges, supports or impedes us, forcing us to study, learn or develop. Aspects of career path tasks can be recycled throughout personal and professional life spans as changes occur in our career path and other life roles (McAuliffe, 2006).
Sample

The interviewed educators received their higher education degree in the 1980s and 1990s and they are all currently involved in different type of studies in adult education.

Several researchers highlight how the generation born in the middle of the 1960s, the “generation of winners”, was in its prime during the regaining of independence, its members were in their best working years, at the beginning of their careers and thus, able to broaden their horizons and use the new opportunities (Titma, 2002).

Sample is 25 - 47 years (3-men and 12 women) – from so called “winners generation” (Titma 2002) from different field of work: non-formal, vocational, formal adult education. Their current main studies: MA level – adult education (8), BA level – vocational education(7).

Kerttu(born in 1971) and Andres(born in 1965) like all others graduated from higher education in the 1990s, during the period of change (illustration 1), and it is possible that education and or its content were no longer relevant, prompting them to start work and continue studies in another field.

They were able to start to use their knowledge and skills to the full and purposefully in independent Estonia, and the profession obtained created wide possibilities for involvement in training. Changes in Estonian civic and economic life and in adult education during the 1990s caused or enabled interviewees to turn to the different field of adult education.

Analysis of the data

During deconstruction and analysis of narratives and interviews, elements of inductive analysis were used (Max van Manen 2005) – in interviews context analysis, persons life and educational situations as well as theoretical apprehensions were taken into account.

The concept of voice can refer to the inner voice or the outer voice(Belenky, Clinchy, Golbberger & Tarule 1986). The inner voice informs us what we know, think and value. We may experience inner voice as “talking with you” or “talking at you”. Inner voice tells about ourselves based on personal experiences and subjective knowledge.
The outer voice is the voice of others that we have internalized and contextualised in our conscience and personal model of reality. Our outer voice repeats back to us the received knowledge that comes to us from others. With outer voice we share our knowledges, ideas, feelings (MacKeracher 2004: 157).

Belenky and her colleagues also described “feeling silenced” as a way of knowing or experiencing. Feeling silenced is the experience of having no voice, of feeling mindless and voiceless. Silence as a way of knowing experienced as a lack of an outer and inner voices (Belenky, Clinchy, Golbberger & Tarule 1986). Almost all tellers in their stories were silent about their understanding of adult educators roles, identity and image, it came out later throw thematic interview questions.

Almost all tellers started they stories be conception of their birthday and birth-time, almost all were chronologically told, besides Andres, Kristiina, Ülle, Kerttu stories. All narratives about growth of their tellers, about being born, childhood, studies/ formal education, friends, family, meeting with partner and about life itself (new situations, life events, partners, new opportunities) and changes in society, adapting to the changes in life and taking risks.

Each person as teller has a unique set of memories and experiences. The different episodes, situations, periods of a life were not equally comprehended. Some of narratives are very reflective and self-focused with strong I-voice (Kerttu, Andres, Ülle). Some events told shortly (Jaana, Kaja), some in great details (Kerttu, Ülle, Kristiina, Jaana, Aivar, Andres).

Narratives and life stories demonstrate directly social-cultural framing of individual life-experience. Social-, work-, education- and a personal life context is very important in all narratives. All tellers said that they learned a lot from life and for life. Narratives as empirical data provide very important and rich background for analysing and understanding how professionalization develops.

**Discussion. The career path of adult educators to be in Estonia**

*Image of profession*

All tellers have different perceptions of their professional identity, personal theories on teaching and needs for personal training and development. The professional choices and the shaping of the professional identity have been influenced by personal and work life, values and by changes in life and in Estonian society.

At some stage of their life, they all undertake adult education studies, which enables them to develop their skills, knowledge and identity through experience and reflection on their practice.

*Image of self as an adult educator*

Image of self as an educator is often critical and not content with one self. It is said that currently they’ve reached a certain level but that is not where they would see themselves.

*I’ve understood that I can’t stay still in one place. As an adult educator I’m developing.*

(Andres)

*I’m not very satisfied with myself as an adult educator. ... I feel that I’m lacking time and thus I’m lately often using PowerPoint presentations to teach because it’s an easy way out.*

(Jaana)
The image of self is linked to practice and prior experience as educators but is felt that something is still missing – knowledge, theory. Some feel that they can't call themselves adult educators yet thus some feel they are adult educators but not fully.

I’m more self-confident, I value interactive learning methods but I also feel insecure in many aspects. (Helle)

Right now I’m a practitioner. (Kaja)

I think I still have a long way to go before I can consider myself as an adult educator. (Kärt)

I’m in developing phase of becoming adult educator. I know what to teach but not how. (Triin)

I’m defiantly adult educator but another story is what kind of skills I have. (Viire)

Self image is linked to what is valued in teaching and learning. Learner-centerness, respecting and valuing learners, openness, group are some of the mentioned values.

As an adult educator I value my own and others time. I see people as special, I respect them and value every moment as it is the first and last that we are together. My values are with me everyday and I express it in my activities, behavior and everyday routine. (Kerttu)

For me as an educator it’s important to create opportunities for freedom in it’s best meaning. (Kerttu)

I’ve noticed that adult learners like it when they’ve given an opportunity to share their opinions and this is considered important by others. Learning environment that is open, learner and learning center is important. (Jaana)

As an adult educator I see myself as someone who notices learner and focuses on emotions. (Maris)

Some adult educators analyzed their competences against adult educators’ qualification standard (Kristiina).

Some tried to list who they are as adult educators: open, independent, smart, critical, responsible, helpful, determined.

Educator has to have a “spark” and “inner burning”. (Kerttu)

Becoming adult educator

Becoming adult educator is seen as inevitable as it's related to job assignments (Andres, Jaana). As well as it's linked to „something” that is inside.

I think it’s something inside me because otherwise I would have not chosen that job. (Andres)

First experiences as adult educators have been accidental or coincident rather than a carefully planned choice (Jaana, Kärt, Triin).

Becoming adult educator is named also as a hobby that begun at work place and learners' positive feedback motivated to continue as an educator (Jaana).

Work place and job assignments that have been linked to teaching or training adults have been main reasons for becoming interested in adult education and further training as an adult educator.
Choosing training course, educational possibilities

There is great hope that studies will support professional development (Kerttu, Kristiina, Ülle) and enable to learn in active dialogue and cooperation within adult educators community.

Changing workplaces or professions seems normal in the context of the free market economy (Ülle), and therefore giving up an existing job and choosing adult training seems natural (Kerttu, ).

There is no general, typical and clear pattern. An educator's initial education, professional experience and career development are unique and atypical.

Becoming an adult educator in Estonia is more a case of using possibilities and suppositions as we come across them than a conscious and planned process.

Why further studies in adult education?

Reasons for beginning studies in adult education is related to current work assignments and need to improve practice of adult training as strong responsibility is felt in teaching at the area of adult education (Andres, Kerttu, Triin, Kaja).

Self-development as adult educator is also seen as a reason for participating in courses (Kärt, Kerttu). Named as a reason as is well need for theoretical knowledge of adult learning and teaching (Maris, Jaana, Triin, Kerttu). Adult learning is seen as complicated but at the same time very interesting field thus studies are seen as a systematic way of analyzing and learning about it.

For Viire significant others were influential when making a choice to study in master level.

Future or ideal image of self as an adult educator

The ideal image of self as an adult educator is linked to making people satisfied and content with their courses but as well as enjoying teaching him/her self.

In ideal I’m content with my work. (Jaana)
My courses are enjoyed by learners. A good adult educator does everything well if s/he enjoys it him/herself. (Kärt)

The ideal is also linked to what one self believes he/she should be as a person. As for Andres he thinks that he should be more self-critical and analytical. Knowledge of adult learning and teaching theory is wished for, as well as knowledge and skills of using interactive methods and working with groups.

I want to become more self-confident and balanced. (Maris)
In ideal I see myself as adult educator who can react quickly in teaching situations. (Triin)

Ideal is also linked to adult educators’ roles as it’s expected to be motivator, supporter, taking responsibility.

In ideal adult educator is like a good friend who motivates and directs learner to “right” path. (Helle)
Adult educator has to be there when learners need him/her. That means that s/he has responsibility towards the taught subject and learners. (Jaana)
The professional choices and the formation of the professional identity of adult educators have been influenced by changes in personal life, in education and in Estonian society, as the nineties saw, political, economic and social changes, the neoliberal economy and very intensive changes in the socio-economic and cultural environment.

According to our analysis, adult educators are in a unique position among professionals as they have acquired a speciality in the course of their studies but often lack formal preparation and initial training for teaching adults. Their former studies and education have not included education for training and teaching adults.

At some stage of their life and career they undertake adult education studies, but the general tendency seems to be that the skills, knowledge and identity of the educator are developed through experience and reflection on their practice.

The quality of preparation and professional activity are very varied. They have different perceptions of their professional identity, personal understanding about being adult educator and teaching adults and their needs for personal development and education.

A career path or phase task makes sense as a requirement at a particular time of life (McAuliffe 2006:478). At each stage of life, there can be something that challenges, supports or impedes, forcing to study, learn or develop (Illustration 2,3): for Kerttu it was living in Sweden and studying at the University Japanese language (1991-1996) and living in Japan (1996-2004) and for Andres it was Estonia independence in 1991 and joining Estonian Defence League in 1999.

Aspects of career path tasks can be recycled throughout personal and professional life span as changes occur in our career path and other life roles changes occur (McAuliffe 2006).

There is no clear pattern in adult educators’ career paths: they appear heterogeneous. An educator’s initial education, professional experience and career development are unique and atypical.

Training adults in the classical sense of career is either a progression or a regression, but in every case a career is sensed as a professional or personal challenge and as an opportunity for self-realisation.

Becoming an adult educator in Estonia in the context of one’s career is more a case of using possibilities and suppositions as we come across them, rather than a conscious and planned process.

The important historical and social context for adult educators’ development is Estonia’s re-gaining of its independence in the 1990s and the changes in socio-political, economic and social life that followed. The re-introduction of the Estonian currency, the establishment of private enterprises, changes in legislation, technical development, and international co-operation created new circumstances that forced people to find new solutions, new options, changes, and turns in their lives.

Changing a workplace or a profession appears normal in the context of the free market economy, and therefore giving up an existing job and choosing training seems natural. Collective activity lost its importance to individual enterprise, so that adjustment to change must faced alone by setting goals, making plans and taking risks. Several researchers highlight how the generation born in the middle of the 1960s, the so-called the “generation of winners”, was in its prime during the regaining of independence, its members in their best working years, at the beginning of their careers, and thus able to broaden their horizons and use the new possibilities (Titma 2002).
Our analysis suggests that the generation born at the beginning of the 1980s has got a good education and has had the opportunity to make choices based on their education and qualifications rather than on the available opportunities and random chance.

Getting involved in training also happened as a result of losing a previous job or following the closure or restructuring of an organisation.

Opportunities to work as an educator were made possible in the new structures and institutions in Estonian Republic (such as the Defence League, public enterprises, training and consulting centres, non-profit organisations) and in popular new fields of training (management, teamwork, sales training, computer training).

The development of the field of adult training was influenced by changes in legislation, which set new demands in terms of qualifications, and thus created a new demand for training.

There are 4 career paths among 15 adult educators to be, and the prerequisites, needs and expectations are individual and depend on several circumstances.

According to our analyses it is possible to distinguish **4 different paths to become an educator of adults.**

**Path I**

**The field of training grows out of professional experience** (Aivar, Jaana, Kaja, Helle, Kristiina, Viire, Andres, Toomas, Kerttu).

The path seems logical and natural: educators learn in a certain field (defence league, Japanese language and culture, English language), gain experience by working in the field and then share it as an educator.

Turning to training might be influenced by supplementary training that was taken during learning in university or qualification courses. This training is often described as enlightening or very significant.

The final paper (thesis) for graduation from higher education may also be significant in becoming an educator. By conducting a piece of research a person develops as a specialist in a narrower field and obtains specific knowledge to share with others.

Training might start as an additional activity alongside the main job and in time grow into the main activity (Kaja, Maris, Kärt Triin).

In time the content of training may change due to work experience or additional training. The smoothness of the path is illusory – there are disjunctions: workplaces or dwelling places change, and different positions are taken inside the profession.

**Path II**

**The field of training grows out of continuing education or interest or voluntary activity** (Maris, Ulle, Kristiina, Kaja).

In the case of the second path a field of training is found through continuing education which is not directly connected with the learned profession, but with hobbies or interests.

During or after the continuing education they find both work and a field of training. Later they may get a degree, but they continue training in the field obtained at continuing education.
Path III.

The field of training appears as if from nowhere: there is no visible connection with the profession, work experience or hobbies, but at the same time there is a connection with everything (Kärt, Triin, Helle)

When looking at the facts from the trainer’s previous life history, these choices are hard to understand: they have a job, and becoming an educator doesn’t initially improve either their financial situation or their position. But their previous education, work and life experience have created a background suitable for training.

Path IV.

The field of training grows out of work experience in the field, but is not learned at university (Ülle, Triin, Kärt).

The fourth path means a profession is learned, but one works in another field and the field of training develops out of practical work experience (sales, work in museum, international relations). They have no theoretical foundation learned in university for the field, but the practical experiential knowledge is passed on.

The professional development of adult educators is difficult due to the fact that educating/training is often a person’s second or even third choice, meaning that people have got to a situation where they have to start their life again because their normal life cycle has been interrupted or they have started to search for new directions in their lives.

Learning, professional identity and professional development generally take place within the own work and life experience, partly by reflecting his/her personal experience and professional practice.

In some moments there might be doubts as to whether an educator’s prior qualification that is based on practical work experience and does not include any knowledge about adult teaching and learning is adequate for working with adults.

Adult educators’ professional learning needs may differ greatly depending on the profession itself, prior experience, knowledge, apprehensions, beliefs and the needs and expectations of the organisation concerned.

Becoming an adult educator is often not a planned choice. Due to individual career paths, adult trainers are in a special position among professionals because in prior studies they gained a profession, but they usually do not have any formal qualification for teaching adults. Previous learning may not include specialist knowledge, specific teaching skills or adult learning specialities.

Learning, professional identity and professional development generally take place within the educator’s own work and life experience, partly by reflecting on his/her personal experience and professional practice. At times there might be doubts as to whether an educator’s prior qualification based on practical work experience without any knowledge of adult teaching and learning is adequate for working with adults. The professional learning needs of adult educators may differ greatly depending on the profession itself, prior experience, knowledge, apprehensions, beliefs and the needs and expectations of the organisation concerned.

Conclusions

Estonia re-gaining its independence in the 1990s and the changes in the socio-political, economic and social life that followed represent an important historical and
social context for adult educator development. The re-introduction of the Estonian currency, the establishment of private enterprises, changes in legislation, technical development and international co-operation created new circumstances that forced people to find new solutions, new options, changes, and turns in their lives. Our analysis suggests that the generation of adult educators born at the beginning of the 1980s has obtained a good education and has had the opportunity to make choices based on their education and qualifications rather than on the available opportunities and random chance.

At some stage in educator’s career they might undertake adult education studies, but the general tendency seems to be that the skills, knowledge and identity of the educator are developed through life, professional experience and reflection on practice.

There is no clear pattern in adult educators’ career paths: they appear to be heterogeneous. Each educator’s initial education, professional experience and career development is unique and atypical.

Becoming an adult educator in Estonia in the context of one’s career is more a case of using opportunities and suppositions as we come across them, rather than a conscious and planned process.

References
Becoming adult educators in Denmark – A biographical perspective.

Introduction

Professionalism in the field of adult education is the object of much interest within and outside Europe (“European Journal of Education”, 2009; Nuisl & Egetenmeyer, exp. 2009). Addressing professionalism in adult education, however, is no easy matter. Several scholars have confronted issues that characterises any attempt to describe adult educators as a socioeconomic category (Merriam & Brockett, 2007; Nuisl & Lattke, 2008). Although we share these concerns, the primary unit of analysis, in our study, is people who earn their living in different organizational contexts by supporting adult learning independently from their specific terms of employment.

Several studies have been devoted to professionalism among adult educators, both national and international (Milana, 2009; Andersson & Köpsén, 2009; Jögi & Gross, 2009; Research von Beleid & PLATO, 2008; Milana, Larson & Lund, 2009). In short, these often have a focal point in the production and acquisition of knowledge of a particular nature by means of specifically identified sources. Similarly, we took as point of departure participation in specialised education and training opportunities aimed at current and prospective adult educators, then move beyond those definitions of adult education as a traditional profession (cf. Merriam & Brockett, 2007).

In accordance with Bron & Jarvis (2008) adult educators should be addressed as ‘role professionals’. Bron & Jarvis argue that adult educators develop multiple identities in their disciplinary field of study, in their current occupation, and in adult education as a common field of practice; and go on to suggest that: «...without changing an identity or acquiring a new one it is impossible to become a professional in a specific profession... As far as changing identity of adult educators is concerned, our hypothesis is that nowadays adult educators belong to different groups wherein they develop their identities.» (Bron & Jarvis, 2008:40)

Milana and Skrypnyk (exp. 2009) recently addressed some problems that this perspective leaves unsolved. Although adult educators develop at least one shared identity, thanks to a common field of practice, the type and degree of knowledge they possess, the service ideal they enact and the degree of autonomy they hold may differ extensively. Consequently, the authors revisit the traditional approach to professions, which considers professional knowledge, service ideal and autonomy as three basic qualities that characterise a profession (Goode, 1969), through the role-professionalism perspective (Bron & Jarvis, 2008). «In particular, we suggest that professionalization in the field of AE should be assessed in light of the knowledge about adult learning theories practitioners possess, the ethical epistemology that guides their behaviour and the degree of

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trust among adult learners, rather then in view of the specific occupation they hold." (Milana and Skrypnyk, exp. 2009)

Against this background, the aim of this paper is to document an investigation of the making of an ‘adult educator’, with special attention to processes of professionalisation and identity-building among current and prospective teachers of adults. Thus, the paper is an attempt to answer the central question of how people develop professionalism in the field of adult education, not least by means of enrolment in existing education and training opportunities. It does so, however, within a country-specific frame of reference: Denmark.

Methodological approach

The premise of our approach is that individuals exist in multiple, multi-layered and interacting contexts, each of which is a domain of social relations and physical context (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 1986). In these domains the individual creation of meaning is related to life conditions and social identities. An important element in our perspective is the focus on the interaction between adult educators and the structural conditions that characterise the wider socio-cultural context in which they act. We believe that individual motivations for working in the field of adult education and the learning processes that lead to the formation of competences, qualifications and professional identities in this field can be better understood by applying a biographical perspective (Bertaux, 1997; Bertaux & Thompson, 1997; Fischer-Rosenthal, 2000). Within this perspective, Horsdal (2002) argues that narrative interviews provide important insights in the learning experiences of people, and constitute the basis for analysing the significance of specific learning arenas for individuals to develop viewpoints, which guide their intentions and actions and shape their identities. People’s narratives convey information about both individuals’ participation in different learning contexts and the impact of such experiences on their course of life. Accordingly, identity is understood by Horsdal as a narrative construction – a narrative about who we are, in relation to the life we have lived and the life we want to live in the future. In line with this argument, processes of identity-construction represent retrospective creation of coherence and meaning in the temporarily separated parts of the lived experience. We position ourselves within this perspective.

The analysis presented in the following sections draws on fifteen narrative interviews with two men and thirteen women aged between 31 and 57, who enrolled in a short course39 (four), a Post-graduate course40 (four), a Diploma program41 (four) or a Master programme42 (three) within the field of adult education. We followed a purposive

39 Basic education in adult education, 120 hours, ends with a course certificate.
40 Course titled ‘Teachers of adults’, min. of one year (full-time) – max. three years (part-time in distance learning modality ), leads to a final degree. The entry criteria include either a certificate from the basic education in adult education or prior teaching experience.
41 Diploma programme in adult learning, one year full-time or up to three years part-time, leads to a final degree (60 ETCS points). The entry criteria include: a relevant professional bachelor, a short-cycle higher education, a medium-cycle higher education or a diploma degree in the AET system, in addition to a minimum of two years of relevant professional experience.
42 Master programme in adult education, one year full-time or up to two years part-time, leads to a final degree (60 ETCS points). The entry criteria include: a relevant bachelor, a long-cycle higher education degree, a professional bachelor or a diploma program, in addition to a minimum of two years of relevant experience.
sampling strategy for the identification of courses and programmes that constitute the backbone of the Danish opportunity structures for adult educators (cf. Milana & Larson, 2009). Informants, however, were primarily selected through a snowball-sampling strategy. They all practice adult education. Although we did not control for sex, age, field of work or terms of employment, we believe that the sample depicts the major distributional trends among the population addressed by our study. Each narrative interview was conducted in Danish in just one session. All sessions followed the same format: First, the informant was invited to tell his/her life story. Second, the researcher was allowed to request clarifications as needed. Third, the researcher asked few pre-defined follow-up questions. We made an independent analysis of each interview, and then discussed the results, to strengthen the reliability of our findings and to overcome the risk of misinterpretations, not least due to our different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Looking across the data, we found similarities as well as variations on common themes within our sample, which we present and discuss in the next sections.

Pathways to adult education

The individual paths that have led our informants to work in the field of adult education are very different, yet it is possible to identify common traits and comparable circumstances. The path to adult education is anything but linear, as all informants have being through several shortcuts before eventually ending up working as adult educators. Becoming an adult educator is apparently never the result of an intentional choice made at the outset of a professional career.

A trigger event in the form of an illness

Karen’s (charge nurse, age: 45) way to adult education was through many years of work as a nurse at a hospital. Based on personal interests and problems in everyday working practices, she initiated various activities, mostly in her free time, in order to improve communication between the staff, the patients and their relatives. As she put it:

«I did it in my free time, had almost no time allocated to it. But I needed to do something – even though I did it for free; if you feel you can do it better than the way it is, then you’d rather do something. Otherwise you just have the knowledge and are dissatisfied; also even though it is stupid to work twenty hours a week for free, but you get something in another way.» (Karen)

The turning point that sent Karen towards adult education was an accident that occurred at work: While lifting a patient, Karen broke her back, went on sick leave, and once back to work, she had no choice than «to go elsewhere». In Karen’s case this exogenous event caused her to change profession, to start «working with education, specialized training, postgraduate».

Hanne (teacher at the Social and Health service school, age: 38) was working in a nursing house when she was diagnosed with a misplaced disc: «I could make short work of it, and so I had to consider what I would spend my life with... Then I found out that I could be a teacher.»

Anne (teacher/supervisor at the local rehabilitation centre, age: 40) experienced something similar, when she was diagnosed osteoarthritis and could no longer work as optic assistant. Through an acquaintance, Anne discovered the possibility inherent in rethinking the professional self in terms of possessed knowledge and competences, which can be transferred from job to job. At this stage, she recalled the excitement in
supervising trainees at the time she was still working as optic assistant; she opted for entering «the transmission way» to change career.

**A rather accidental happening**

Several informants describe their pathway to teaching adults as something «accidental». Helene (web director at the Danish Agency for Libraries, age: 53) «was just thrown into it». Teaching adults was not a choice but something that came along with her work as librarian.

For Lis (teacher at the Regional psychiatric centre, age: 53) it is «a bit odd» that she ended up working in the field of adult education, as it had never occurred to her until it actually happened when she tried to move on in her career by applying as charge nurse. At that time she was offered, instead, a study leave. By the time Lis came back to work, she had developed an interest in teaching adults. Such interest, however, is retrospectively linked to her positive involvement with students from the social and health service school, during their traineeship at the hospital.

Lars (teacher at the Police training school, age: 52) talks about his path to adult education as «mysterious» and traces its roots back to 1993, when he taught some classes as part of his work as policeman. However, Lars identifies his reason for developing an interest in teaching adults in his early career experience in the military force as «one is an instructor as a defence officer»!

**An alternative to an intended career**

The path to adult education can also be the result of limited opportunities, when an individual chooses education and/or enters the labour market. Societal structures, i.e. family and labour market structures, can make a strong impact on career paths.

Grethe (teachers at social and health service schools, age: 31) also called her path to teaching adults as «accidental»; unlike Helene, Lis and Lars, however, she originally pursued a career as upper secondary school teacher, for which she prepared via specialized studies. After graduation, she realized that unemployment was greater than expected; hence the only way to enter the labour market was «to take what one could get» and she ended up teaching at the Social and Health service school.

Astrid (teacher at the Social and Health service school, age: 45) got a low grade on her high school diploma, which precluded her from a Bachelor programme to become a school teacher, «I had an idea that I could be good in entering the relations that are at work, when one teaches». In addition, Astrid also met «direct resistance» from her father in pursuing the desired career; she worked in shipping instead for several years. It was first when she had the «full support from my husband» that Astrid finally graduated, because «he thinks that it is always possible [to change career] and that I should definitely do so». Similar to Grethe, however, Astrid found it difficult to get a job as upper secondary school teacher, and she ended up teaching at the Social and Health service school.

**Perceived images of a (professional) adult educator**

Certain common traits prevail over individual differences in the image that our informants had of an adult educator as a professional. Several informants defined an adult educator as a person who possesses knowledge of human nature and is attentive to the learner, the kind of identification that happen by being empathic and having an
authentic interest for the learners (Rogers, 1962). Core values, such as respect, recognition and appreciation of the learners’ prior experiences, are generally referred to as necessary for an adult educator to perform the profession. Our informants only to a limited extent identify any differences in teaching adults versus children or youngsters. They primarily address the need for an adult educator to enter a dialogical relation for the learner to give expression to prior experiences, which should be integrated in the teaching-learning process. Despite this, teaching methods are considered by our informants easily transferable within different learning contexts, in spite of different characteristics of the learners. Furthermore, in almost all cases, adult learners are held responsible for their own learning processes, unlike children and youngsters.

Processes of identification with concrete or imaginary communities

Affiliation with the professional group an adult educator belongs, i.e. pedagogues, social care workers, teachers, nurses, policy officers, librarian etc. in our sample, was generally considered an important element in identity-building. Our narratives, however, show a high degree of variation, when we investigated people’s affiliation to concrete or imaginary communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Affiliation with the professional group is not necessarily the most important, as we illustrate below.

Karen though of being a nurse as a limitation against further development, due to her official position rather than to the knowledge and competences she possessed. Consequently she did not associate much with nurses, but rather with the community of doctors. Moving towards the field of adult education made her feel she was getting «on the same wavelength» as other valued colleagues at the hospital.

Hanne identified herself with one of her sisters, now dead, who was educated as nurse and was «a permanent student», rather than with nurses as a professional community; therefore it is not a big deal for her to rethink the professional self by re-entering education. At the time of the interview, Hanne felt like a fish in his water, by teaching adults, not least due to the mutual understanding and the strong bond with her students.

Dorthe (freelance teacher at University colleges, age: 49) affiliated and strongly identified with her father, who was originally a math teacher. Dorthe opted for self-employment and worked for several years in the food sector. By the time she was 30, however, she had huge economic problems, so she moved to the field of adult education.

«I have never being much interested in teaching. I grew up in a family, where we talked very much about school and teaching. We discussed a lot. My father has always very open. But I remember that both my father and his good friends have said that I should not become a teacher. It was a joke for sure, but I now think that is grotesque that I ended up becoming a teacher, just through a long way round.» (Dorthe)

Motives for enrolment in current opportunity structures for adult educators

As already mentioned our informants were undertaking education and training activities to gain specialised knowledge in adult education at the time of the interview. Why did they enter such studies?

Rubenson (1987) and Deshler (1998) argue for multiple contextual factors that motivate or discourage adults from engaging in learning activities. Advanced explanatory models take into account the interaction between individuals and societal influences.
Miller (1967), for instance, argues that participation in adult education and training is higher when personal needs and social forces are both strong in the direction of an educational objective and is lower when personal needs and social forces contradict each other. Rubenson (1975) combines the learner’s motivation with the effects of environmental factors in his expectancy-valence model; this describes the anticipation of rewards from learning and the perceived value - at individual level - as the main causal factor. With a point of departure in Miller (1967) and Rubenson (1977), Cross (1981) assumes that drivers for participating in adult education begin with the individual and move to increasingly external conditions; thus life transitions play a major role as one intervening variable. Cross's model, however, still tends to neglect individual biographies, which highlight the importance of life experience for understanding complex dynamics of individual engagement in learning.

Against this background, one of the main reasons for our informants to take advantage of current opportunity structures at a given time in their lives is to have their pedagogical knowledge, gained through several years of working with adults, recognised. «Now I would like to have a recognised proof for what I can within the pedagogical area» (Ellen, teacher at the Clinic and dentist service school, age: 44). «Getting a paper as adult educator is something I could certainly use in the future. That's why I made so that I could get started with this education» (Hans, unemployed, age: 47). Sometimes, the lack of academic titles, at the time our informants entered their current job, was experienced as a limitation to move on in their career, not necessarily as adult educators. As Dorthe put it: without an academic title «many doors were closed to me.»

**Achieving formal qualifications upon at employer’s request**

For the majority of our informants, however, the individual need to attain further formal qualifications was reinforced by an explicit request by the employer. Karen enrolled in a Master programme, because her new position required higher formal qualification than those she possessed. She had always struggled for recognition and acceptance at work; hence the request from the employer actually created a kind of synchronization between personal needs and social forces. It was a different story for Birgitte (senior nurse leader, age: 53), who followed a pretty linear career in which teaching developed into a compulsory task. Acquiring competences in teaching adults was a request by the employer, somewhat contradicting her own aims, as evident from the following quote: «If it had not been an official request from my workplace [to enrol in the course], I do not think I would have gone this way». A short course in adult education was the easiest way to meet formal requirements while «getting a bit better» at teaching adults.

In several cases, broader structural conditions, such as recent reforms of the Danish education and training system, played an important role in re-shaping processes in the formation of competences, qualifications and professional identities among adult educators. Lis entered a Diploma programme when it became a requirement in her field of work. It is worth noticing, however, that by that time, Lis had already tried to enrol, by her own choice, to the same programme, but had not been accepted.

Astrid and Grethe also enrolled in the Diploma programme at the request of the employer. Taking such an education would result, for Astrid, in an increased salary, so the request was perceived as an offer, rather than a demand. Furthermore, it would give her
formal qualifications that could be used, for instance, to go back to her original intended career as upper secondary school teacher.

Structural conditions and individual incentives for further learning represent matching forces that lead to specialised competences and qualifications in teaching adults. In the vast range of available learning opportunities, however, the particular choice of programme «was entirely accidental» from an individual perspective. A rational choice by the employer has an impact on professionalization processes among adult educators who work in the social and health service sector as in other sectors that are influenced by ongoing reforms as well. Lars also enrolled in the Diploma programme because the Police training school is restructuring its educational provision.

**Looking for formal qualifications as a step towards further studies**

At the individual level, several informants also see formal qualification as a step towards further studies, not least in order to improve their social standing among colleagues. This was the case for Karen and Jytte (teacher at a nursing house, age: 57), who considered their studies steps towards a Bachelor (Karen) or other types of formal studies in the future (Jytte).

**Improving own application of knowledge**

The need to obtain formal qualifications, however, is often strongly related to the need to improve one’s own application of knowledge, so to better cope with the challenges posed by teaching adults in everyday professional practices. For Helene, teaching adults was something she first learned by doing; then she realized that transmitting knowledge is rather different than telling people about something one knows. For the latter, the possession of content knowledge may be enough, while for the former some kind of pedagogical knowledge is a necessity. Consequently Helene found that teaching adults «was not the way forward», unless she would qualify for it by entering *ad hoc* studies.

Not dissimilarly, Lone (secretary director and study coordinator, age: 38) perceived the need for a theoretical foundation for her work, as demonstrated in the following quote:

> «Getting some theory was super-exciting. Fundamentally, genuinely exciting, and it confirmed for me that a lot of the things we do [at work] are really good – we do a lot of things that, in theory, are also the way to get adults to learn. But there are also a lot of things where I think we should do things differently. We need to realize this and get the teachers with us.» (Lone)

**Sharing learning experiences with colleagues**

One additional factor that motivates our informants to enrol in existing education and training opportunities is a desire to share new insights about the theoretical foundation of their own work practices and related practical implications. Karina (daily leder at a Free school, age: 45), who experiences a constant struggle between associating with teachers or pedagogues, decided on further studies as the means to achieve higher status as teacher. Studying with a colleague is a strategic way to reinforce one’s affiliation to a professional community.

Astrid had considered taking a Master, but enrolled in a Diploma programme at the request of her employer. A Master would have been accepted as a possible alternative, given its advanced academic level and would have provided her with higher status among
colleagues. Nonetheless, Astrid considered a shared learning process with other colleagues as more rewarding.

Concluding remarks

When we consider processes of identity-building among Danish adult educators from a biographical perspective, we can confirm the hypothesis that «adult educators belong to different groups wherein they develop their identities» (Bron & Jarvis, 2008:40). However, our analysis tends to disconfirm that adult educators develop their identities in connection to a specific field of study, current occupation, and adult education as a common field of practice. Identity-building among Danish adult educators fluctuates between processes of identification with either concrete or imaginary communities to which they relate at home, at work etc., but do not necessarily result from a strong identification with the professional group they belong to. Current participation in education and training opportunities seems to support identity-building processes; not least as it provides participants with an opportunity to move from a peripheral to a more central position in these communities.

Furthermore, it is our hypothesis that the occupations Danish adult educators hold play a central role in shaping the service ideal they enact when the teach adults. However, very little attention seems to be paid from either adult educators or their employers to the level of knowledge about adult learning theories that adult educators possess, until there is a perceived need (generally by the employer) to raise the degree of confidence among adult learners to enrol in current adult education and training provision, not least via structural reforms.

References


PART 6 | Quality under review: Policy development issues

1

Inherent contradictions in managing quality of adult education: A qualitative analysis of reports on policies and systems in European countries.

Introduction

In recent years an intensive interest in quality of adult education has arisen as a key issue in the delivery of lifelong learning, which derives either from the need to increase competitiveness in a global economy or from the need to demonstrate accountability in public services and the ability to achieve results. The relative importance of quality is demonstrated by the place it is given in policy documents of many national agencies and international organizations. At the European level, which is of particular interest in this paper, the Commission’s of the European Communities (2000) “Memorandum on lifelong learning” recommended the development of standards to assure quality of provision throughout Europe. A subsequent report entitled “Quality indicators of lifelong learning” (Commission of the European Communities, 2002), which presents the work of representatives from thirty-five European countries plus OECD and UNESCO, has outlined specific quantitative and qualitative data which might be used as indicators to support and evaluate planning in lifelong learning activities, which are closely related to adult education. This report followed by the “Common principles for quality assurance in higher education and vocational education and training in the context of the European Qualifications Framework” (Commission of the European Communities 2002), which set principles for quality assurance of higher education and vocational education and training institutions and their programmes.

These and many other policy documents indicate that the management of quality in education is a commonly accepted principle in Europe but at the same time a careful reading of these and particularly, of relevant national reports brings to light a lot of disparate arguments which are offered for supporting the development of quality assurance standards, systems and agencies. Thus, even unintentionally, it seems that many aspects of quality management in education are confusing and undermine relevant efforts and policies. In this context this paper presents the main conclusions drawn from a qualitative analysis of documents reporting on policies and quality systems developed and applied in many European countries.

Method of analysis

While a substantial amount has been written about quality in education, there is a comparatively small amount of literature that is specifically focused on adult education and the needs of lifelong learners and as Jarvis (1995, p226) has noted:
‘whilst the language of quality is appearing in adult and continuing education, the definition of the concept is much more problematic.’

On these grounds, documents reporting on policies and quality systems developed and applied in European Union countries were selected. The data search was systematic within the data pool consisting of

- bibliographic databases (e.g. ERIC),
- major adult education journals (e.g. Adult Education Quarterly),
- conference proceedings (The proceeding as well as the national reports prepared for the 6th International Conference on Adult Education (UNESCO, 2009) were specifically analysed),
- published reports and surveys by international organisations (e.g. OECD, CEDEFOP, World Bank), as well as
- Reports issued by transnational projects and networks initiated or supported by European Union programmes.

In the latest case, the national reports for Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden (Faurschau, 2008), the national reports for Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Romania, Sweden and United Kingdom (Qualc, 2008) as well as the national reports for Germany, Belgium, Denmark, France, Latvia, Slovakia and Spain (Managing Quality of Adult Education in Europe, 2006) were studied in depth, since they directly refer to quality of adult education. Closely related reports produced by CEDEFOP surveys (e.g. 2005, 2007) although concerning the quality of vocational education and training sectors were analyzed and their evidence used supplementary to our analysis.

The technique of “go backward” was consistently applied, that is related references found in any document were searched. The outcome of this search was a preliminary pool of documents reporting on policy or systems aimed at controlling and ensuring the quality of adult education structures or activities in European countries, which are EU members. The selection limited to English-language papers appeared from 1985 onwards. In a second step, the most current publications reporting in the most integrated way on the state of the art in each country was selected.

Two deficiencies of this selection procedure may limit the results of this study:

1. The documents selected do not adopt a common perspective in their approach to, and reporting of quality of adult education in each country, and
2. The data collected is dependent on availability of publications.

Both of these factors are, however, inherent in every study adopting a meta-analysis method aimed to synthesize knowledge by integrating qualitative studies (Turner, 1997), as is our study.

A content analysis applied to these texts elucidated, through close examination of their content and language, how quality issues concerning adult education are conceived and approached. The selected documents were repeatedly studied until themes referring to major questions of managing quality emerged. In a second step these questions were thematically classified and after themes were identified, they were examined in the light of the aims of our analysis.

The purpose of the analysis was to single out any similarities and especially differences, characterising the concepts and approaches to quality of adult education in Europe and then to trace the emergence of common policy principles, if any, concerning the control and assurance of that quality.
Main findings

Our analysis yielded many interesting conclusions concerning the management of quality of adult education and several of them are outlined in the following, singled out because, in our view, they reflect inherent contradictions of conceptions and approaches to quality control and assurance of adult education provisions:

(1) A lack of commonly accepted and applied concepts of quality of adult education is a fact, which seems to be the most prevailing factor of discrepancies between countries, organisations and even concerned participants. Quality is indeed a complex and multifaceted concept and its application to adult education is not a simple and easy undertaking. The quality of adult education structures and activities is, as a rule, defined in a context. Therefore, it is being defined in different but concrete ways in each country, according to particular conditions, which determine the social and educational context. In many countries, for instance, the influence of a strong positivist culture is obvious in the conceptions of quality of education, which is managed and thus understood by primarily using quantitative measures and performance indicators, that is, as a measurable variable. In other countries, however, quality of education is approached by a comparison to the intended features of educational structures and processes, that is, as conformance to qualitatively predetermined specifications, usually in the form of aims and objectives. The fact of multiple definitions of quality combined with a variation of objectives and approaches in quality assurance appearing within and between European countries, leads to a great number of different methods, tools and instruments used for the evaluation and control of quality in adult education and training. Conversely, it seems quite clear that a considerable degree of convergence and a number of overlaps in approaching quality management of adult education have emerged among European countries, primarily as an impact of common projects financed by EC programmes.

It must be underlined that several terms are used interchangeably to refer to ‘quality’ mainly in related policy documents. The term ‘assessment’ is rather the most commonly used term and is referred to educational programmes, institutions or policies. Terms such as ‘evaluation’ and ‘review’ have also been used in a similar generic way. At the same time, the term ‘quality’ when used in adult education is often vague and even inconsistent

(2) An inconsistency characterises the policies, which promote the establishment of structures for managing quality of adult education. On the one way they are promoted quality standards and systems on a legal and administrative basis, usually at national or regional level and on the other hand, internal mechanisms for adult education providers ensure the quality of their activities on a market-oriented basis, mainly on an organisational level. Thus while quality is seen as an important issue, the relevant policies seems not to be unanimously applied. The main reason stated being the failure of legal and administrative structures to take account of the competing needs and desires of different stakeholders in the development of approaches to measuring quality.

(3) An impossibility of establishing universal quality standards and uniformly applicable quality assurance procedures, which are functional and effective in any type and form of adult education and training, as well as in each individual structure and activity, seems to be implicitly accepted.

Two prominent and internationally recognised standards seems to prevail today, ISO (International Organization for Standards) and EFQM (European Foundation for Quality Management). Both are well established and applied also in the educational sector. ISO defines quality explicitly, as the “totality of characteristics of an entity that bears on its
ability to satisfy stated and implied needs” and EFQM employs a similar concept of quality. It seems, however, that the implementation of these two quality standards is not easy for adult education organisations, especially when they are small. Some see obstacles in translating the special language of ISO into their daily work. Some see difficulties in managing their evaluation with EFQM because of the complexity of the process. For these reasons the adult education sector has started to develop their own models which fulfil their needs in a better way. For example, in Germany a mushrooming of models may be noted over the last years, as are the models “Learner oriented quality development for further education – LQW”, “Qualitatsentwicklungssystem – QES plus” and “Development of quality in a compound system of adult education organizations – QVIB”, in Denmark the model “Quality tool for developing innovation and competencies - KVIK” and in Belgium the model “European Standard for Training Quality Management – ESTQM” have been developed based on EFQM, in Slovenia the model “Offering quality education to adults” based on the philosophy of Total Quality Management has been developed, in Switzerland the model of “Swiss Certificate of Continuing Education Institutions - EduQua” and in other European countries there are a lot of consistent systems or self-evaluation approaches employed.

(4) A scarcity of generally accepted, integrated, applicable and effective quality evaluation and assurance models is a fact with negative impacts on the development of systems for management of aspects of quality in adult education. The emphasis on quality has led to the development of many different approaches to its assessment and a number of models have emerged. However an effort towards the harmonisation of different approaches, models and procedures for the management of quality of adult education on a European level has been developed in recent years. For example, the “EQUIPE - Equal Project” (2000), an EU funded Socrates project, has tried to bring together information about various models and approaches and the “Managing quality of adult education in Europe” (2006), also an EU funded Leonardo da Vinci’s project attempted to develop a European framework for quality management systems for small size adult education providers.

A trend towards development of stakeholders’ models is rather obvious in many national efforts. One example of a quality model in adult education, which involves stakeholders in quality management, can be found in the adult basic education sector. The model was first developed and piloted as a result of a European Socrates project involving partners from Belgium, England, the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland during 1998-2000. Since then it has been adopted by the National Adult Literacy Agency and embedded in practice throughout Ireland (Mark & Donaghey, 2003)

Although it is not claimed that the documents analysed are absolutely representative of the total literature in the subject matter the conclusions reported in this paper may be considered indicative of the research needed and the debates required for promoting quality in adult education provisions. As put in a report produced by EAEA (2006):

“Europe has the most varied quality assurance practices by country, adult learning sector and provider. However, diversity is not always an advantage.” (p. 59).

Concluding comments

Quality of any type and form of education is an elusive concept, which in fact, is difficult to define. It requires different meanings in various contexts and the word itself
implies different things to different people. It may be claimed, however, that the different meanings and references of quality that are traced in the relevant documents analyzed stem from two perspectives towards education. The first one views education in a context of welfare service thus educational organizations as public structures and the second approaches education in a market context, thus educational organizations as business. In accordance to these approaches, they are differentiated not only the concepts but mainly the systems and models for the management of quality in education. Approaching educational offers as public services, the quality of the offers and their providers is seen as “excellence”, that is as the optimum attainment in a scale of aimed objectives specified on the basis of various criteria. With such viewpoint in mind, quality is a rather absolute concept attributed to educational activities (Sallis 1993). However two issues seem to arise, directly or indirectly, in the documents analysed. The first issue concerns the references of the quality concept and according to the evidence a priority is given to the students and to the results of their participation in educational activities. The quality criteria employed are primarily related either to content, methods, media and conditions of educational activities as well as to the efficiency of teachers or to the effectiveness of educational provisions offered to particular adult populations or social groups. The second issue questions the agents authorized to define establish and control the quality of education standards and procedures and it seems that the prevailing practice throughout Europe is to assign this task to regional, or national, usually state controlled authorities.

On the other hand, in a market context there are the multiple stakeholders of particular educational activities (students, employers, funding institutions, local, regional and national authorities, providers) that are given priority in defining and ensuring quality of education. Since, however, stakeholders’ interests, aims and demands from educational programmes vary and in many cases are contradictory, the quality is conceived and applied rather relatively and often on a basis of meeting the needs of those who are considered as customers. It is, as put by Sallis (1993), a “quality of perception” that can be said to lie “in the eyes of the beholders”. The above-mentioned multitude of models and systems for managing the quality of adult education has grown incited and supported by this perspective of education.

Our analysis of documents reporting on quality of adult education revealed efforts, and therefore needs, to develop and apply quality management systems at three different levels, individually or jointly.

First at an organisational level, where quality management models have been introduced into adult education organisations in most countries, many of them adopted from the business sector, such as ISO and EFQM, identically or modified according to the educational organization structure and activities. Second, at the level of the learning individual, where quality standards and procedures which have been applied are mainly concerned to assess and document learning outcomes or meeting student’s needs and to make them visible to learners and other stakeholders.

The third level of quality management may be seen at the national system of adult education, which exists in some countries supporting and monitoring dedicated institutes of adult education and learning. Such a system is either government-controlled, as in Finland (Finnish Adult Education Council) or Greece (General Secretariat for Adult Education), or it has the status of non-governmental organization, as in England and
Wales (National Institute of Adult Continuing Education) or in Germany (German Institute for Adult Education) and its quality management is subject to legislation.

In conclusion, managing quality of adult education is important, as is throughout the educational spectrum and this is taking place in every European country although applying various standards, procedures, systems or models. It seems, however, that due to the distinct, varied, and fragmented nature of adult education provisions, especially in informal and non-formal learning, it is difficult to carry out fundamental quality assurance tasks. Therefore, the question of quality will be inherent in any discussion concerning the main aspects of adult education.

References


**Munchhausen revisited: Quality assurance for learning outcomes of providers of learning outcomes in frameworks for lifelong learning.**

What has Munchhausen to do with quality assurance?

The dominant version for quality assurance framework for lifelong learning in the EU-Europe states that quality is about:

- context, input, process and output dimensions, while giving emphasis on outputs and learning outcomes
- clear and measurable objectives and standards; guidelines for implementation, including stakeholder involvement; appropriate resources; consistent evaluation methods, associating self-assessment and external review; feedback mechanisms and procedures for improvement; widely accessible evaluation results
- initiatives at international, national and regional level coordinated in order to ensure overview, coherence, synergy and system-wide analysis
- co-operative process across education and training levels and systems, involving all relevant stakeholders, with Member States and across the Community. (EQF 2008)

Why has the concern about quality of education and training become so acute in EU-Europe? Who are concerned and for what?

"Munchhausen syndrome is a condition, in which a person intentionally fakes, simulates, worsens, or self-induces an injury or illness for the main purpose of being treated like a medical patient. Munchhausen syndrome is named after a German military man, Baron von Munchausen, who traveled around telling fantastic tales about his imaginary exploits. In 1951, Richard Asher applied the term to people traveling from hospital to hospital, fabricating various illnesses. The term Munchausen syndrome is often used interchangeably with factitious disorder. Factitious disorder refers to any illness that is intentionally produced for the main purpose of assuming the sick role, although that purpose is unknown to the "sick" person. Munchausen syndrome most appropriately describes persons who have a chronic variant of a factitious disorder with mostly physical signs and symptoms, although there are reports in literature regarding psychological Munchausen syndrome, meaning that the simulated symptoms are psychiatric in nature." (http://www.enedicinhealth.com/)

All over the world, like in the EU-Europe, education has increasingly transformed into one sector of industry on the global markets. Policy makers have been busy to transform the “rigid” and “bureaucratic” governance of education into decentralized, regionalized and performance-based management of service suppliers. (Thrupp et al 2003, Heikkinen 2004) The pedagogical shift from education and educators to learning and learners – individuals, regions, organizations, economies – legitimizes the transfer of power to define aims, contents and methods of education to “customers”. It is assumed that they are able to articulate the needs, outcomes and relevance of their learning. If previously education as a public good was defined through procedures of representational democracy, implemented by publicly organized and responsible educators and inspected by public authorities, rights to learn should now be met through market procedures.
While self-regulation of markets has shown questionable even in other areas, how to make it function in educational reality, whose historical and cultural practices and understandings are – despite aggressive ideological manipulation – difficult to change? The monster of Frankenstein has been under making for long, but how to anticipate and control the consequences: this is the dilemma of the contemporary busnocracy in the EU-Europe and globally.

The arguments of this paper are that:

- the challenges and problems of the “quality” of adult education may in fact be consequences from choices made by different actors themselves, and from their attempt to avoid self-critical reasons for their choices
- there is an on-going struggle about the values, meanings and contents of adult education between different cultural actors and groups
- language is a central policy forum for legitimizing hegemonic interpretations, definitions and conceptualizations of adult education
- the political struggles about adult education crystallize in the language about the trans-national qualification frameworks for lifelong learning; which only work through trans-national quality-assurance
- mobilization and identity of adult educators is crucial in the trans-nationalizing struggle on language and politics of adult education: researchers cannot remain outsiders

From the perspective of (potential) occupationalization or professionalization of adult educators, it is crucial, whether they can participate in the definition of adult education as a cultural, political and social practice. Who are to be recognized as members – core or peripheral – of the profession? What the positions of policy-makers, administrators, researchers and academics (as producers and legitimizers of professional expertise) in relation to practitioners in the professional field? How do the professionals communicate with civil society and adults themselves?

Anglophonic world may have been exemplary for trans-national policies and discourses on welfare and public services, but the EU-European recommendations are still translated into nation-state-societal contexts. The Finnish policy-makers are most compliant to the EU-Europe, and most proactive in implementing the policies under making. Therefore Finland makes a good case for discussing implementation of trans-national qualification and quality assurance frameworks. EU-European and Finnish documents, reports and research will be used to highlight the challenges for professionalization and agency in adult education.

**Who are adult educators**

*Making maps*

The national and trans-national policies and programmes for assuring quality of adult educator qualifications remain futile, if and when they are not able to clarify, who are and what makes adult educators. Several projects have been carried out through years in order to map education, especially vocational, and training practitioners in Europe. (e.g. ALPINE 2009, Competence Framework 2009) When it comes to conclusions, the reports commonly end into lists of typical activities and tasks, or imperatives on competences “needed in the future” in the global markets and trans-national sector industries.
The ALPINE – Adult Learning Professionals in Europe – project was directly commissioned from the EU to explore the field and make recommendations about professionalization. Competence framework for VET professionals was contracted by Cedefop and carried out by the TTNet – Training of Trainers Network -, which it has been sponsoring since 1998. Though ALPINE and TTNet projects seem very similar in their design and methods, there are some important differences. Both were a combination of “desk research” on available, mainly national and EU administrative documents, and of expert interviews. ALPINE was moderated by selected adult education researchers in collection of data and in very selective policy maker and education provider interviews. TTNet team was built up of administrators and VET teacher trainer institutes, but the interviews were more randomly targeted to different VET professional groups themselves. Interestingly, while being EU projects, neither of them referred to numerous researches carried out on adult education or VET professionals in the EU context, unless they directly related to the research teams and projects. This is obvious, since funding of projects are expected to provide “new” knowledge and recommendations. Still, already previous EU projects, and the wider research field and existing different professional groups and associations, could have provided useful empirical and experiential knowledge about the work, action fields and actors in adult education and VET. Although the management by projects policy seems thus rather wasteful for accumulation of knowledge and experience, both projects do provide important and interesting data, but especially make more explicit the political and educational implications of contemporary adult and vocational education policies in the EU and member states.

The ALPINE project structures (non-vocational) adult education as a market. It consists of suppliers and offers, which are encountered by clients with their needs and expectations. Both are characterized by the content and methods, which are offered or sought. Adult educators step into the market as experts working for the supplier, adults as consumers of the provided format. The project team made a distinction between “formal” (publicly regulated and supported, providing qualifications and certificates) and “non-formal” “sector” of adult education market or industry. In order to allow stakeholders to identify relevant sets of skills and competences for adult education, it was differentiated into domains of vocational education, corporate and functional education, social and moral education, and arts education. The adult educators’ work was classified on the basis of different audiences, contents and methods. A further distinction was position in the supplier organization: teaching, management, counseling and guidance, media, programme planning, and support (technical, ICT etc). Existence of possible hidden groups like administrative staff is mentioned.

The TTNet project traced six main occupational profiles in initial and continuing vocational education and training: teachers, trainers, training managers, principals, e-learning tutors, training consultants. These were merged into three generic profiles of teachers, in-company trainers and leaders. The profiles were distinguished according to activities which the project identifies with competences, i.e. “proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and/or personal development.” Interestingly, they stress character traits - flexibility, changeability, sociability - and collectivity - collaboration, teams, operating environment - more than ALPINE. This suggests a more organizational (provider-based?) nature of professionalism in VET. The TTNet structured activities/competences according to operational dimensions - administration and training
– and strategic dimensions - development and quality assurance and networking – of the VET providing organization and/or system. Based on these, lists of imperative competences were targeted to teachers, trainers and leaders. The empirical data from the practitioners, however, seems contradictory with the project approach. Practitioners report about educational concerns and frustration about imposed internal and external competition between individuals and organizations and resistance towards increasing networking and internationalization.

ALPINE tried to set objectives for professional development of adult education staff. Accordingly they made distinction between tasks, activities and competences in different positions. Although these were supposed to respond to adults’ learning needs, the informants report rather about the organizational interests of the suppliers. They complained about too much variance of tasks between positions from too diverse to too narrow. Similar to TTNet, the project found out that managerial, technical and support tasks have “uncontrollably increased the burden of teachers and trainers”. ALPINE emphasizes the labour market and contractual status of adult educators as an important factor for professionalization, while TTNet pays no attention to the collective organization of VET workers. However, workers in both in VET and adult education differ greatly in how far they are able and willing to identify with some “education provider”, industrial sector, organization or professional group.

What qualifies adult educators

In line with many other projects ALPINE reports about the diversity in becoming and being recruited as adult educator. In many countries, the lack of consequent adult education policies has created an uncontrolled market of private training of adult educators. Most practitioners entry to job either from education sector, business or private management and HRM agencies. It has been typical both for adult and vocational education staff to enter the field later in their professional lives, to come and go, and to work as part-timers and on short-term contracts. (cf. Brown 1997; Heikkinen et al. 1998.) While there are few distinct initial training programmes for adult educators, ALPINE pays little attention to the variety of BA and MA programmes for HRD or continuing education, for adult and vocational education. Also the claim about a big gap between initial training and the moment of starting the job is not convincing. Typical students in those programmes already have experience from, work in or are determined to enter the field. However, it is true, that connections between initial and continuing training of adult educators are lacking in most countries in Europe.

If professionalization of adult education should be promoted, deeper understanding of the underlying principles behind the pathways of becoming an adult educator is needed. Firstly, one might expect that the pathways of becoming an adult educator would match the patterns and paradigms of adult education itself. While classifications of (Western/European) vocational education have been developed, there are hardly any comparisons on traditions in adult education. Therefore, the characterizations of ALPINE on systems of adult education in Europe could be used to trigger deeper analyses. Institutional solutions, juridical and financial control of qualifications are typical criteria for classifications of vocational education, like “market-model” (British), “dual model” (German), “shool-based” (French) and “mixed model” (e.g. Greinert 2004). The criteria for ALPINE, instead, seem to be the main purposes of adult education activities and institutions. Accordingly, they distinguish systems aiming at
social dimension and social cohesion, process of personal development and growth (Nordic), at re-integration into work and employment (central European), at individual trajectories, portfolios, prior learning and experience (Anglo-Saxon), or at teaching and training courses and examinations (Roman model). The central European and Roman systems appear rather similar in both classifications, but reducing them to German and French would be unwarranted. Furthermore, the recognition of distinctive Nordic system for adult education and quite different formulations of Anglo-Saxon/British vocational and adult education also indicate that there is a substantial need for historicizing and culturally contextualizing research on adult education. Otherwise mappings of adult educators and qualification patterns of adult educators remain superficial and may lead to unwarranted interpretations, conclusions and especially policy recommendations.

While Finland is used here as an exemplary case to discuss the challenges of trans-nationalization of qualification and quality assurance frameworks in adult education, I comment briefly the formation of adult education and educatorship before current reforms. My assumption is that the period of building a global system of nation-state-societies still conditions or influences the national translations and meanings of trans-nationalization policies and programmes. Since the late 19th century – after the separation from Sweden-Finland and the period of autonomy as a Grand Duchy of Russian Empire - Finnish adult education has broadly become institutionalized into fields of

- Popular/liberal adult education, education for citizenship
- Academic/encyclopaedic education, education for bodies of knowledge
- Vocational education, education for occupational growth
- Human resource/organisational development, education for being an employee.

Institutionalization was closely connected to building a population (people/Folk), industry, intelligentsia and civil servants in and for a nation-state society. (e.g. Heikkinen et al 1999, Heikkinen 2004; Kettunen 2001.) It was mediated by branch ministries and boards, where proponents of different projects of Finland represented themselves and promoted their agenda. Although there were communalities and overlaps in the actual pedagogical principles in different fields, adult education and the ways of qualifying as an adult educator developed separately until the 1970s. Since then, the social-democratic, technocratic and comprehensive welfare-state policy, and the neo-liberalist de-regulation and marketization policy have promoted collection of all forms and stages of education into an all-inclusive service industry for other national and increasingly global industries. Structurally and administrationally this has led to gradual centralization and politicization of governance of all education.

Secondly, besides historicizing reflections on adult educatorship in relation to development of the field, cross-cultural and relational analyses on actors, networks and agendas promoting its professionalization, would be necessary for understanding the current situation. Many studies show, that neither professions nor occupational competences develop objectively according to tasks and activities in industrial or work domains. (e.g. Konttinen 1993; Glucksmann 1995; Ellström 1997; Henriksson 1998.) Even increasing technologisation and automatisation do not determine, how work is being organised, divided and integrated among workers. Therefore, the potential of shaping contents and forms adult education by the workers themselves should be taken into account in considerations about qualification and quality of adult education. The cultural
and national struggles about ownership of adult educatorship condition also implementation of trans-national or EU-European professionalization recommendations and programmes.

In order to illustrate, how different ways of preparing and becoming adult educators are related to structuration of the field of adult education and occupational categorization, I discuss some examples from the case of Finland.

Making academic adult educators

Adult education - initially called free folk enlightenment - has been taught in Finnish universities since 1929, first in the People’s University/School for Social Sciences. Since the 1950s distinctive doctorate was offered in adult education, and in 1960 the institute changed into University of Tampere. Teaching was for long run by a close personal network comprising inspectors of adult education in the National Board of Education, principals of Helsinki Workers’ Institute and professors from the School/University. Adult education was minor subject in most social science degree programmes until the end of 1970s. Currently one can major in adult education in seven Finnish universities. It has also been very popular subject in open universities, organised by university departments in collaboration with popular adult education institutes, especially until qualification of their teachers and principals required basic studies in adult education. Before the expansion of VET teacher education and diverse market-based provision, studies also attracted staff developers, planners and vocational teachers. However, expansion has taken place at the cost of fainting disciplinary and professionalizing profile. Most MA and doctoral programmes are organised as an elective part of unspecified education degrees.

While the politics of lifelong learning was officially adopted in Finland in 1996, specialisation to adult education became hard to legitimise any more. More important, however, was the political decision in 1970s to raise the quality of Finnish education by moving primary school teacher training to universities into new faculties of education. The department of adult education in the faculty of social sciences in University of Tampere, likewise departments of education in faculties of humanities or philosophy, were moved into new faculties of education, which were dominated by teacher training. Consequently, since the 1980s all adult education programmes and chairs were established inside departments of education.

Until 1990s, degree programmes of adult education still recruited students, who were working in or were aiming at work in the field. The expansion of vocational education and HRD put pressure on widening the concept and aims of adult education. As a consequence of disciplinary struggles, specialization for vocational education was established in education – not adult education – in the University of Tampere in mid 1980s. This was connected to wider opposition between proponents of popular/liberal and vocational adult education. New networks of policy-makers/administrators, adult education providers, societal and economical interest groups and staffs in universities replaced the old personal union. Consequently, study programmes and research in adult education started increasingly focus on HRD and vocational education during the 1990s. In the turn of 2000, the implementation of EHEA and Bologna process, accompanied by retirement of senior staff with more distinctive adult education background, has increased pressure to unify structures and contents in MA and Dr Degrees.
Training generally qualified pedagogues

Before the 1990s, there were different legislation and traditions in training staff to general (primary schools and gymnasium), to different branches of VET, and to different fields of popular/liberal education (and also management of liberal adult education). Since 1998, the qualifications of teachers have become moderated by unified legislation. Accordingly, the general pedagogical qualification is defined in all fields and stages of education from Kindergarten to adult education. (Decree 1998) Whereas primary school teachers study education as their major subject, all other teachers should have either MA or the highest professional (i.e. polytechnic or BA) degree in their teaching subjects and one year or 60 ECTS of general pedagogical studies.

Programmes for general pedagogical qualifications are offered in faculties of education for “subject teachers”, also for those who have general/adult education as their major. In this case the 60 ECTS programme consists of basic studies in education, 25 ECTS, e.g. intro to philosophy and history of education, intro to learning and development, intro to education in society, intro to educational research. The amount of pedagogical studies is 35 ECTS, e.g. introduction to teacher’s work and profession, subject didactics, practicum, and elective course. The focus of studies is, on the one hand, in developing a self-reflective teacher identity, and on the other hand, in research-based understanding of education and its role in society. For example the study plan for general pedagogical studies for adult educators for academic year 2009–2010 in University of Jyväskylä (APO-ops) describes their principles as individualization, reflexity and dialogue. Personal study plan integrates theoretical and conceptual knowledge to student’s personal knowledge and own work. Student’s individual conceptions and her/his own experiences on teaching constitute the basis for theorizing teacherhood. The individual study plan is oriented towards growth as an adult pedagogue, structured through themes like “reflection on her/his work and life situation”, “pedagogical development needs”, “adjustment of pedagogical development needs and the curriculum”. However, political, economical, societal and practical aspects of adult education gain marginal attention.

In some faculties of education provide specialization for counsellors and special educators, which is becoming more common also among adult educators. Although MA and post-graduate degree programmes is an important qualification pathway for practicing staff in vocational and adult education, in HRD and in educational administration, increasingly students come directly from the gymnasium. While the function of adult education degrees as components in qualifying staff for adult education centres and folk high schools, and to managerial, planning and expert positions eroded during 1990s, a number of practitioners also attend university programmes in institutional management, targeted to principals in comprehensive schools and gymnasium.

Preparing Vocational Teachers

Until the 1990s, regulations on vocational adult education allowed – or even promoted – direct recruitment of teachers from occupational practice. Increasingly, alongside with the politics of lifelong learning, vocational adult educators have become equalized with the rest of VET teachers. Before the 1990s, vocational teacher education was organized as part of the sector-specific VET. The traditions go back to end of 19th century, and almost 20 special VET teacher institutes and colleges were established, covering about 13 different occupational sectors. Although they applied – to varying
degree – pedagogical theories and models developed in general education, distinctive conceptions of vocational pedagogy were developed, but hardly recognized in university research and degree programmes. The closing down of most VET teacher institutes and development of “general” VET teacher qualification was a very rapid and demoralizing process for much of the staff in the field. (Heikkinen et al. 1997, 1999; Kuusisto 2004; Tiilikala 2004) During last ten years, the qualifying programmes in the vocational teacher colleges have been exemplary also for programmes for teachers in liberal/popular adult education and in HE. The applicants must have a Master’s degree or the highest professional degree in the field plus three years of relevant work experience.

The general objective of vocational teacher education is to provide students with the knowledge and skills needed in the guidance of learning of diverse students

• the competences needed in developing the educational sector, considering the development of working life and professions

Vocational teacher education consists of 60 ECTS credits (one year of fulltime study) includes

• basic studies in educational sciences, 10 ECTS
• vocational pedagogy studies, 25 ECTS
• teaching practice, 15 ECTS
• other /elective studies, 10 ECTS

The debate on whether vocational adult education should be considered as part of the vocational or the adult education sector continues. Currently the national association of vocational adult education providers has, however, started negotiations about joining the association of vocational education providers.

Specializations for staff in popular/liberal adult education

Before 1998, education of teachers and principals in popular/liberal adult education consisted basic studies in adult education and specialization to the field. This was organized in collaboration between the National Board of Education and adult education institutes and their staff. It was mainly based on practical engagement in the activities of adult education institutes, but also on familiarization in the political organization of the field. Most civil society organizations and unions have qualified their study coordinators and leaders by themselves. Thousands of activists have been enrolling these programmes annually. Since 1990s, one of the main providers of qualifications to staff in popular/liberal adult education is VSY (FAEA - consortium of popular/liberal adult education associations in Finland). For many years it has run a programme VSOP – Promoting competence and qualification in popular/liberal adult education -, funded by the ministry of education. It also offers grants and organizes (together with Finnish Adult Education Research Association) seminars to practitioners studying for doctoral degrees. Below there are two examples of courses. (see www.vsy.fi)

Training liberal/popular education teaching staff (10 ECTS)

The first module introduces into designing of education and learning processes, and into selection of correct methods. An overview into variety of teaching methods will be given through experiments and observations, and participants’ experiences from using different methods will be collected. The other module will continue reflections on participants’ own work and conceptualize the pedagogy of adult education. The course is organized by the Centre for Extension Studies of University of Helsinki.
VSOP PD – *professional development programme for liberal adult education practitioners and leaders* (appr. 25 ECTS)

1. Initial module: Working environment of popular/liberal adult education and starting points for developing its activities
2. Module: Leadership in the field of liberal/popular adult education
3. Module: Change management and building a brand
4. Module: Interaction in development work
5. Module: Resources and organizational culture
6. Module: Developing activity/practice and competence

The programme is organized in collaboration with Centre for Extension Studies of University of Turku and Department of Education in University of Tampere.

**Mushrooming**

In building of Finnish industries, pathways into staff and organizational development have gained marginal public interest until recently. (Heikkinen et al 1997, Fellman 2000.) The gap between small farmers and entrepreneurs and big export industry has been politically, economically and culturally too wide to enable any concerted activities. Ways of becoming adult educator in staff or in-company training have differed widely according to sector, size and geographical location. While this is the most neglected area in the history of adult education, consistent development of training advisors and supervisors can mainly be traced as a part or extension of vocational education in rural industries, co-operative industries and nursing. Industry-internal methods and institutes for training staff developers in manufacture, retail and later for public administration were developed since 1940s more inconsistently. The sectoral provision, financed partly by state, companies and participants, increased until dramatic decrease during economical depression in the turn of 1990s.

The provision from private – increasingly also from multinational – training companies on short courses on HRD and adult training has increased since the late 1990s. The centres for extension studies in universities and polytechnics offer especially PD programmes for staff working in vocational and adult education. Vocational adult education centres and institutes organize short courses, especially commissioned by National Board of Education to qualify work-place trainees responsible for on-the-job learning both in basic vocational education and in apprenticeship and competences-based qualifications. National associations of vocational and adult education providers organize also a variety of short courses to their members, as do unions and occupational or professional associations. An example of the dominant management by projects policy for developing “innovations” especially in vocational and adult education is a nation-wide ESF-project OpinOvi (Door of Learning). Typically for such projects, it is funded by the EU, National Board of Education and provincial governments. The objective of qualifications is that “the participant acknowledges the pedagogical starting points of adult training and acquires competences to evaluate and up-to-date her/his teaching and guidance methods. The participant will gain competence both for individual and group guidance.” (www.opinovi.fi)
There are varieties of traditions in qualifying adult education workers, which have stressed the ownership of occupation, although quantitatively they may have been not very extensive or recognized, nor documented as well as qualifying other education workers. In Finland, distinctive pathways and institutionalized programmes have developed for educators in fields of popular/liberal, academic, vocational and staff development field. From the professionalization perspective, it is important to recognize the role of adult educators and their disciplinary or experiential knowledge in this process. Development of the field and education of educators took place in occupational networks of civil servants, educators and professionals from different sectors and associations of civil society and industry. Adult education is rapidly expanding, but the general pedagogization and the erosion of context and subject-related expertise of qualifications, are a challenge for the potential adult education profession. Options for qualifying as adult educator have dramatically expanded, increasingly especially through separate degrees, courses and modules and in-service training. While education of adult educators increasingly develops into service industry on the market, it tends to become a separate activity governed either by “distance” or by organizational and corporate interests. Paradoxically, professionalization of adult educators seems to proceed through weakening of their distinctive disciplinary and pedagogical basis. (cf. Heikkinen et al. 1999, 2001.)

Who and how assures the quality of qualifications

Adults as Knowledge, Skills and Competences

Adults in Europe or on the globe do not have a representative body to express their “voice” about adulthood and adult education. Adult education is fundamentally based on anthropological assumptions and ideals about adulthood as an individual and collective category. Therefore an interpretation on consequences from adoption and application of trans-national qualification and quality assurance frameworks is crucial for the potential future professionalization of adult education.

The European Qualification Framework for Lifelong Learning, which should be implemented in all member countries in 2010, defines the criteria of adulthood as a hierarchy of qualification levels. Although they are defined as outcomes of (potentially lifelong) learning process, they are determined formally by “a competent body” and on “given standards” of what the knowledge, skills and competences are at each of the proposed eight levels.

- “Knowledge” means the outcome of the assimilation of information through learning; Knowledge is the body of facts, principles and practices that is related to a field of work or study. In the context of the EQF, knowledge is described as theoretical and/or factual.
- “Skills” means the ability to apply knowledge and to use know-how to complete tasks and solve problems. In the context of the EQF, skills are described as cognitive (involving the use of logical, creative and intuitional thinking) and practical (involving of manual dexterity and the use of methods, materials, tools and instruments).
- “Competence” means the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities in work and study situations, and in personal and professional development. In the context of the EQF, competence is described in terms of responsibility and autonomy.
At all the eight levels, the standard is based on “ability to work or study”. Social, societal or personal areas of life - like “love”, still essential in psychological characterizations of coherent adult life or even in socialist educational ideals – become marginalized. The higher one goes in the hierarchy, the more one has autonomy, power and moral rights. The levels constitute either a progressive career for the lifelong learner-adult, or a basis for classifying her/him in work and study hierarchy. The criteria for becoming a target or object of “adult education” measures are the individual’s “qualifications”, which indicate the content and level of her/his knowledge, skills and competences. These should go beyond the content and level of those on the completion of compulsory schooling. This means that the minimum criterion for being “adult” is to have “completed compulsory school”.

As carriers of their learning and employment capacity adults are considered to need - latest after compulsory schooling - permanent awareness about and motivation to their learning process and outcomes. In qualification discourse adulthood is reduced into ability to promote the competitiveness of industries located in the EU-Europe or member state and the social peace and coherence it requires. Consequently, educators are increasingly forced to perceive adults from deficiency and deviancy perspective, and have less and less professional autonomy to set goals for individual or collective growth of adults.

**Adult educators as operational units**

In the context of EQF, adult educators require knowledge, skills and competences to “guide”, “counsel”, “assess”, “validate” and “supervise” “learning processes and outcomes” in the qualification provider-industry. The quality of qualifications should be defined through negotiations between key “stakeholders” in the sector. On the other hand, they are evaluated and supervised by a “competent body” (i.e. ministry/board of education), which is responsible for a “transparent and accredited quality assurance procedure”. Although quality assurance systems and standards have been developed for all education for years, the adoption of EQF requires a qualitatively new instrument, European Quality Assurance Framework for Lifelong Learning. Finland is among the first member states to implement it almost literally for vocational education in 2008. Despite its focus, it is exemplary for comprehensive quality assurance during national implementation of the EQF for Lifelong Learning, visible also in reform of popular/liberal adult education (KEHO 2009) and in curriculum development of Finnish HE, based on trans-national standardization of learning outcomes (cf. AHELO 2009).

**The Quality assurance of the Finnish VET 2008**

(cf. EU commission 2006, see also appendix)

The quality of vocational education and training is assured and improved in many different ways. In Finland, the national quality management system in vocational education and training comprises quality management of VET providers, national steering of VET and external evaluation of VET. International policies and mechanisms relating to quality assurance, such as the European Union’s Common Quality Assurance Framework (CQAF) in vocational education and training, play an increasingly significant role in development of quality management at both national and provider levels.
From the perspective of professionalization of adult education, the transnationalization of qualification and quality assurance frameworks indicates a dramatic shift of focus from educators to provider-organizations in education service-market. (cf. Heikkinen 2004, 2009.) The activities and processes of education are reduced into anonymous managerial procedures, where the “provider” should decide on best methodology of planning, implementation, evaluation and assessment and feedback, according to its corporate vision. The vocabulary – operations, goals, objectives, allocation of resources, monitoring, human resources, customers and stakeholders – are straightforward from manufacturing or financial industries (ISO 9000: 2005), with no mark of outdated words like education, teaching teachers or students. While the provision of services is described as “operations”, educators are defined as components of “operational units”, which are responsible for achieving the goals set by the “provider” and requirements of the “customers” and “stakeholders”.

Among other staff of the “provider”, educators are human resources, whose number, structure and competences, as well as their maintenance and development is part of “provider’s” development strategy, which should be monitored by measurable indicators through self- and external evaluation. “Providers are assumed to be able to anticipate and determine the needs of customers and competences of their staff, to draw an “operational plan”, which covers performance targets, procedures and their timing and resources. Performance is carried out by the “operational units” and “process owners” in operational chain, and its quality is assessed according to effectiveness, efficiency and economy in achieving the strategic objectives and satisfying customer needs. The values and vision in educational operation are based on what is important for and desired by the “provider”.

Concerning professionalization of adult education, it is crucial that adult educators should materialize and embody the anthropological ideals of the EQF. They are assessed according to the level of their knowledge, skills and competences to diagnose, guide and assess the level of adults’ learnability and employability. In the policy documents, the quality criteria for adult education qualification are a set of activities requiring certain competences, based on external demand. Adult educators are defined as operational units in service production, providing customers education, training and learning, which they find useful and for which they are ready to pay. In marketised, decentralized and
performance-based management, adult education providers have become the translators and implementers of trans-national and national policy. They are expected to be competent actors in adult education market, identifying the operational environment with its education and training or learning needs, and managing optimally their human resources in order to compete successfully.

The data from both ALPINE and TTNet project confirm the findings from several earlier studies related to consequences from the marketisation and performance and quality assurance-based management in vocational and adult education. The TTNet report is full of accounts from practitioners, who are not confident or motivated in being involved. Instead of organizational commitment, they complain about less time and space for developing their teaching. For this collegial collaboration inside their professional network is most important. The reporters’ conclusions about practitioners’ lacking social and communication competences – as “quality assurance competences” - seem deliberately misleading. What is at stake is deepening professional frustration and alienation in front of contemporary managerial and organizational logics and unfeasible expectations. Competition erodes solidarity between different staff groups; business economical managerialism undermines trust to local, regional, national and trans-national administrators and policy-makers. (Thrupp&Willmott 2003; Heikkinen 1999, 2001; Tiilikka 2004).

According to ALPINE and TTNet projects, decentralization, networking, marketization and performance-based management, even through intensive use of ICT, have not decreased adult educators’ administrative and bureaucratic tasks. On the contrary, even the leaders and managers at institute and national level complain about being overburdened and disinterested in the quality assurance ideologies and methods. Therefore: who and with which competences and qualities are the education “providers” to run their businesses and according to whose interests?

**Adult Education as a Praxis and a Field of Practice**

Professionalization projects and policies deal both with occupational distinctions and identities, and with definition and identification of the work itself. Interestingly, ALPINE and TTNet position their professionalization and thus quality assurance projects differently. The first – in line with the responding organizations or education providers – stresses differences and transformations in the clientele of adult education work. The second – in line with its responding occupational groups - stresses comparisons with other professional or occupational groups, especially teachers in general/academic education or other experts and workers in organizational context. ALPINE finds the “prevailing distinction between labour market relevant training, vocational training, and enterprise training on the one hand and non-formal education, non-vocational education on the other appears to be artificial.” (ALPINE, 145) While there is a market, adult education could be professionalized in domains of vocational education, corporate and functional education, social and moral education, and cultural and arts education. TTNet does see the blurring of activities between teachers, trainers and leaders, but stresses their institutionalization as distinctive VET work, especially in relation to general/academic education, and completely ignoring educators in the civic, liberal or other adult education areas. The aim of developing qualification and quality frameworks is both for ALPINE and TTNet to support national, regional, sectoral and institute staff policies.
Alternative approaches could be developed to discuss qualifications and quality of adult education work, building on previous research and studies. Firstly, from professional perspective, education can be conceived primarily as praxis, which is practiced through distinctive activities. The hegemonic adoption of the concept of learning – often used to replace growth – environment has widened understanding about the holistic and complex nature of those processes. Standing alone, it may be conceived as a passive, objective and static space, evaporating intentionality, agency and interactivity. Activities or operations make only sense in the contexts of different action fields of practices of education and training.

The striking message from both ALPINE and TTNet project was that the practitioners were increasingly burdened by managerial and marketing tasks. Is the correct conclusion from the problems caused by decentralization, performance-based management and marketization that adult educators are lacking competences for these activities? Generations of studies and experiments have shown the crucial meaning of agency of workers and ownership of occupation for socially and ethically sustainable development of work and work organizations. (Brookfield 1995; Heikkinen 1997, 1998, 1999, 2002a, 2002b; Brown 1997; Lassnigg 2002) They also demonstrate the constitution of competences in the interaction between individuals, collectives and (technical, social and moral) structures. Furthermore, they show the dynamic and processual nature of competences in the context of critically reflective professional growth process. The alternative approach reminds that the functions and activities of adult education could be defined as much by the profession under making itself, as by the needs of the clients or by the standards set by “education and training providers” or political or economical agencies.

Secondly, adult education and training work happens in a complex and multilevel field with multiplicity of actors. They are targeted by expectations and imperatives of diverse political and economical agencies with their different interests and professional paradigms, representing different logics at local, national and trans-national level. Their action is not just cooperation and networking with different actors in the adults’ surroundings, but requires judgments about ethical consequences of their pedagogical interventions. In order to claim her/his activities adult educational, the professional must have knowledge and understanding about human growth and development processes and about their cultural and natural embeddedness. This means being aware of not only of contemporary structure and functioning of adult education, its tensions and tendencies, its actors and institutions, but also about their historical development and contingency. Adult educators practice their profession with other actors and agencies, which also intervene in the growth and learning processes and conditions of adult education.

Thirdly, adult education as occupation materializes the changing division of the totality of societally recognized work. (Glucksmann 1995, Narotzky 1997, Heikkinen&Henriksson 2002). The competences of adult educators cannot be separated from the negotiations and struggles of individual and collective occupational projects and identities. The previous studies demonstrate the – culturally varying - diversities, but also communalities in the functions of adult and vocational education work. (Brown 1997; Heikkinen 1997, 2002; Hytönen 2002; Tiilikala 2004) In the complex and multi-level world of work, these may support of personal and collective growth process, development of skills and practical knowledge, shaping of organizations and
development of metacollective (regional, national, trans-national) economical and societal systems. Still, like among medical doctors, there is no logical hindrance that different functions with different scope become integrated into a core of the potential adult education profession.

Fourthly, even if adult educators tried their best to fulfill the requirements of qualification and quality assurance framework, it is questionable how far they can shape the realities, where adults live and grow. There is plenty of evidence that the more closely adult educators are confronted by those realities, the less they can remain in the virtual worlds prescribed by the policy imperatives. They need to develop different kinds of double-moralities, but they also become demoralized, cynical and exhausted. (Heikkinen et al 2001; Heikkinen, Henriksson 2002) If adult-proof qualifications of adult educators are impossible to develop in practice, democratic negotiation and decision-making processes, which enable the diverse groups of adults to articulate their realities, are needed to influence the formation of adult educators.

While (business) organizations have become basic references for “professional” identification and more widely even becoming socially accepted and included, also adult educators are expected become operational units of an education and training provider – or of a sectoral body in administration or industry. The professionalization of adult educators could lead into constitution of collective actors, who do not remain flexible skills resources to be exploited by their education supplier/provider organizations. It is obvious that the praxis- and shaping- approach to adult education, to professional qualifications and quality of adult education work, leaves the floor open to continuous uncertainty and struggle about the content and division of adult education work.

The much criticized technocratic governance, which supported the development of welfare-states, at least in Northern Europe, was golden age for increasing occupationalization and professionalization of all kinds, but especially of welfare or care work, like education. The implementation of societal reforms was carried out by professionals, who shaped the content, aims and targets of their work through and during education. Although detachment from immediate requirements and definitions of work may have led to mismatches between supply and demand of “competences”, the crucial meaning of education in questioning and renovate also education work itself should not be ignored and devalued. While professionalization processes increasingly are based on “scientification” of professional practice, the organization of research and education of adult educators is critical for developing and mobilizing adult education profession.

**Learning from Münchhausen**

Baron Munchhausen became famous, because he claimed to be able to rescue himself from any external danger just by using his internal resources, like drawing himself up from mud through his own hand. The quality assurance frameworks attempt to control the consequences and implications of the qualification frameworks through procedures, which are creations of those frameworks. There is no apolitical and objective way to define adult education, even as an intentional activity and professional praxis. The questionable narratives about participation, democracy and citizenship in the EU-Europe may be apparent to most, but this may not be the case on - possibly also unintended and unexpected - transformations in policy-making process. Whatever the consequences and conclusions, it may be important to make explicit the emerging power
hierarchies and groupings, which operate also in the seemingly neutral discussion about qualifications and quality in adult education.

Also ALPINE and TTNet projects remind - policy makers or practitioners - about the need to recognize vocational and adult education workers as societal actors. Their work relates to same individuals and groups and/or same life-conditions. ALPINE suggest coordination in legislation and qualification of vocational and adult education work. TTNet rather advocates teachers’, trainers’ and leaders’ important role as developers and initiators of change and innovation, and of improving their training and resources. ALPINE raises the issue of mobilization of adult education workers, need of developing professional associations. They also stress the role of such bodies in developing quality assurance framework. From researcher point of view, the comment on strengthening the links of such bodies with the “scientific community” seems of course attractive.

The policy discourses on EQF and EQAF for Lifelong Learning speak about “competent bodies”, “sectors” and “stakeholders” in a non-transparent and confusing manner. (Finnish EQF 2009, Heikkinen 2009) Who are they in the planning, decision making and implementation processes? In the Finnish context they are in the first place leading civil servants in the ministry of education, accompanied by civil servants from relevant sectoral ministries like employment and industry, internal affairs, social and health etc., who adjust adult education policies with the ruling government’s economical and employment policies. Stakeholders include representatives from the biggest national labour market bodies, associations of education providers, of municipalities, of polytechnic (and in future university) principals. Suggestions are prepared by civil servants in the National Board of Education or Ministry of Education, who represent Finland in the respective EU organs and work groups. At EU level, representatives from member states are involved e.g. as members of the parliament or of the EU-level stakeholder associations, but they hardly have any educational competence to intervene into policy-making procedures.

The formation of the EU-Europe since late 1950s has provided a ground for the emergence of new kinds of civil service and governance. Distinctive occupational practices, principles and mindsets have been developing in the intersection of national and trans-national space. Evaluation, planning, consultancies, implementation the EQF and EQAF is in the hands of EU commission officials and EU-oriented member state civil servants. European educational agencies and professionals are the validators, evaluators and assessors of learning. (EU commission 2002) As eurobusnocracy, they frame the development of quality assurance framework of qualifications of educators in the qualification framework for lifelong learning. (Marshall 1997; Heikkinen 1999, 2004) Constellations of power have changed, but it is unclear what and who do the EU officials and stakeholder lobbyists represent. From the policy discourse it seems as if they were situated in a virtual world of the EU-Europe under making. Although they continue acting in the EU-nation-state framework, they have turned their backs to citizens and searching legitimacy of their practice in the acceptance of global industries. The criteria of both EQF for Lifelong Learning, adult educators being its components as operational units, and EQAF for its quality are set by the eurobusnocracy, trying to prescribe a utopian future Europe with its most competitive economy, industries and skills resources on the globe. If the realities in educational practice do not correspond to the picture, should the realities be abolished? Where do adult educators stand in this process? Vocational and adult education workers seem strikingly unsympathetic towards “internationalization” under
the current premises of trans-national qualification and quality assurance frameworks. It is unlikely that these would mobilize them voluntarily behind a professionalization project. Could there be place for researchers as self-critical, culturally sensitive explorers and deconstructionists of the diversity adulthood, adult growth, adult education, professionalism and governance, as part of the adult education profession under making? This way or that way, the dilemma of Baron Munchhausen remains.

References


Studies for Vocational Teachers in Tampere Vocational Adult Education Institute, http://www.takk.fi/.


APPENDIX
Extracts from Recommendations to Quality Assurance Framework for Vocational Education. 2008.

Planning refers to setting up clear, appropriate and measurable goals and objectives in terms of policies, procedures, tasks and human resources. In addition, the phase involves defining indicators to facilitate monitoring achievement of these goals and objectives.

The essential aspect of implementation is to establish procedures to ensure achievement of goals and objectives. Procedures may vary considerably at a provider level, such as in terms of development of the operational system and the organisational structure, resource allocation, involvement of stakeholders, or development of partnerships.

Evaluation and assessment cover evaluation of VET provision and assessment of the achievement of outcomes at system and individual levels. In general, the evaluation and assessment phase consists of two parts, i.e. collection and processing of data and discussions, evaluation and assessment based on this data. Evaluation requires designing the evaluation mechanism and defining its scope as well as providing information on the results of evaluation.

Feedback and procedures for change form part of a systematic and goal-oriented process used to change plans and develop operations in order to achieve the targeted outcomes and for setting new objectives. The aim is to learn from information acquired in different ways, such as results, by discussing and analysing these together with key stakeholders. It is also possible to learn from good practices by benchmarking the user’s own operations with these.

Methodologies may differ. The key is for VET providers to decide what type of methodology will best serve their needs. Quality assurance and management emphasise self-evaluation combined with external evaluation. Other key aspects include how and in what roles customers and stakeholders (such as enterprises, workplaces, students, other authorities) participate in evaluation and how they are being motivated to take responsibility for evaluation. It is also important to determine the methods used to collect and analyse data and draw conclusions.

![Chart 1. Structure of the Quality Management Recommendation](chart.png)

The recommendations are primarily designed to support the operations and development work of VET providers and their units, but they often pose challenges for other parties.
6 People as resources

Teaching and other staff play a key role in terms of how VET providers can meet the changing skills and development needs of students and the world of work. Providers need to make sure that they have staff who can, in terms of their number, structure and competence areas, support implementation of their basic mission in the best possible way. Staff must also be capable of meeting future challenges. Providers also satisfy staff demand by acquiring the necessary competencies from the world of work or from other education and training providers.

Providers are aware of the current and future skills needs of their teaching and other staff and ensure continuous maintenance, development and acquisition of their staff’s competence in line with their strategic objectives. In addition, providers encourage staff to develop and make extensive use of their own competence and create frameworks for transfer of knowledge and competence and for staff involvement and well-being.

Planning

VET providers plan and develop their human resources based on changes occurring in the operating environment as part of their strategic development.

VET providers:
- draw up a human resources strategy or an equivalent plan, where they determine those objectives and measures targeting their teaching and other staff that aim to support achievement of objectives set for operations (such as the number, recruitment, quality and structure of staff, development of their competence, staff involvement and well-being at work, and human resources management);
- make sure that staff are consulted and that they can participate in drawing up the human resources strategy;
- ensure that the objectives related to human resources strategy are tangible and measurable.

VET providers chart their staff’s current competence level and future skills needs on a regular basis and, based on these, draw up staff development plan.

VET providers:
- anticipate and chart the skills needs (core competence) of their teaching and other staff as part of their strategy process;
- chart their teaching and other staff’s current competence level in relation to skills needs (competence mapping);
- draw up annual development plan covering the entire staff, according to which teaching and other staff’s competence will be developed in line with strategic objectives.

This appendix includes key quality management concepts used in this document. Some definitions are based on terms listed in the SFS-EN ISO 9000:2005 standard (Quality management systems. Fundamentals and vocabulary.), published by the Finnish Standards Association SFS. Definitions based on the ISO standard are marked with an asterisk (*).

Customer

is an organisation or a person that receives a product.* In vocational education and training, customers are considered as being active participants, rather than just recipients of services. Key customers of an education and training organisation include users of education and training services (students and working life organisations) and bodies purchasing and paying for education and training.
Operating environment
refers to everything that may influence an organisation’s operations. Analysis of the operating environment is a point of departure for developing organisational operations. The operating environment covers both the external and internal operating environment of the organisation. A vocational institution’s operating environment includes areas such as education, training and social policies, the world of work and its developments, as well as internal factors.

Operational plan
is a document drawn up for the purposes of implementing the organisational strategy and improving its quality, which covers specified performance targets, procedures, their timing and resources.

Operational unit
is an education and training provider's unit responsible for organising education and training, such as a vocational institution or its individual branch.

Performance assessment of education and training
means interpretive analysis of the degree to which the objectives of education and training have been achieved. Performance can be assessed from the perspectives of efficiency, effectiveness and economy.

Process description
is a graphical or verbal representation that covers the different phases of operations as a chronologically progressing chain of operations. The description indicates responsibilities relating to working phases, inputs and resulting outputs.

Process owner
is a person assigned with overall responsibility for process development. A process owner is often supported by a team that shares his or her responsibility for the task assigned to the team.

Product
means the result of a process. An example of a vocational institution’s product is an education and training service made available to a student.

Quality
refers to the degree to which a set of inherent characteristics fulfils requirements. The quality of education and training means the ability of education and training to meet specified objectives and customer needs.

Quality criterion
is a criterion on the basis of which quality is judged. Examples of quality criteria in vocational education and training include student employment, for example.

Values
express what is important in an organisation’s operations and what the operations are based on. The values of vocational education and training may be relevance to the world of work and a student-centred approach, for example.

Vision
is a perception of an organisation’s desired future state that is justified in terms of the organisation’s raison d’être and values.
Reform of the German ordinance on trainer aptitude (Ausbilder-Eignungsverordnung, AEVO): Assuring the quality of initial vocational training.

Quality assurance in vocational education and training

In the discussion on quality in vocational education and training, a consensus has now emerged on the need to distinguish between input (preconditions), process (delivery) and output quality (outcomes) (cf. Ebbinghaus 2006).

In the sphere of in-company initial vocational training, input quality factors are understood to mean the general corporate framework conditions for initial vocational training. These include the company's facilities, looking for example at its premises and technical equipment, the specialist and vocational teaching qualifications of training staff, and the training plans and resources utilised. In Germany, input quality requirements are stipulated by the Vocational Training Act (Berufsbildungsgesetz, BBiG), by ordinances and specifications. For example, the Vocational Training Act stipulates that in-company training may only be delivered by staff who have the necessary personal and technical qualifications (§§ 28 – 30 BBiG). First and foremost, professional aptitude comprises the skills, knowledge and abilities necessary to practise the occupation in question. Furthermore, it includes the skills, knowledge and abilities in the fields of vocational and industrial education, which must normally be demonstrated by means of an examination under the Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude (AEVO). The Vocational Training Act stipulates that the training premises must be suitable for initial vocational training in terms of their nature and equipment (§ 27 BBiG).

According to the Act, the competent bodies (normally the chambers of crafts and trades) are responsible for ensuring that instructors have the necessary personal and technical qualifications and that training premises are suitable. If these conditions are not satisfied, the competent bodies must intervene. They are required to take steps to remedy shortcomings in initial vocational training, to the extent of prohibiting companies from employing trainees or engaging in training, if need be (§§ 32, 33 BBiG). The indicators associated with process quality are those which are directly operative during the course of training. Among others, these include the content taught and the training methods used.

Output quality is understood as what is achieved at the end of initial vocational training, for which the main indicators are passes and grades in the final examination. In the course of the European education debate, in recent years the discussion on the quality of education has increasingly turned to output quality, i.e. the measurement of outcomes. In Germany, moreover, against the backdrop of the crisis in the apprenticeship-places market at the beginning of the decade, growing criticism was

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43 The German Vocational Training Act (BBiG, Section 29) stipulates: Persons shall in particular be deemed to not have the necessary personal qualifications if they are not allowed to employ children and young persons or have been guilty of repeated or serious contraventions of this Act or of the provisions and regulations issued on the basis of this Act.
directed at the management of training quality by means of input factors. The objection was that framework specifications under vocational training legislation represented bureaucratic barriers, which made it more difficult for companies to embark on initial vocational training. The focal point of this criticism on excessive state regulation was the AEVO, in which the state stipulates the specific vocational and industrial education competencies that instructors registered with the competent bodies (chambers) should possess in addition to their competencies in their specialist domains.44

The 2003 Training Offensive and suspension of the AEVO

In view of the crisis on the apprenticeship-places market in the years 2000 to 2002 (newly concluded training contracts fell -6.8% from 2001 to 2002), the Federal government in conjunction with industry associations and the trade unions decided to mount a national training offensive in spring 2003. It aimed to generate more apprenticeship places and recruit additional training companies by launching a series of measures. These included training campaigns and national training conferences, measures to modernise and improve the flexibility of initial vocational training in the German dual system, activities to support the (socially, educationally and economically) disadvantaged, the reorientation of support programmes and the reduction of bureaucratic barriers (Training Offensive of the Federal Government: “Train Now - Success Needs Everyone”45).

One of the measures in this last group included the temporary suspension of the AEVO which some sections of industry viewed as a regulation that inhibited training. The obligation to demonstrate an aptitude for vocational and industrial education by taking a chamber examination (preceded in most cases by a training course) was perceived as a burden by small companies in particular. The suspension of the AEVO was agreed on May 3, 2003 for an initial five-year period; in spring 2008 this was extended by one year up to 31.7.2009. Under the revised regulation, instructors for apprenticeships which commenced during the period of suspension were no longer required to take an examination. Nevertheless, the provisions of the Vocational Training Act, according to which instructors must be technically and personally qualified, remained in force unaltered. Likewise, the duty of the chambers to oversee the quality of training was unaffected by the change in the law.

Evaluation of the suspension of the AEVO

In the year 2007, the suspension of the AEVO was evaluated by the German Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training (BIBB). The central questions to be addressed were the following:

44 This refers to persons appointed as instructors and notified as such to the competent bodies, pursuant to Section 28 (2) in conjunction with Section 34 (2) no. 8 of the Vocational Training Act (BBiG). In addition to these persons’ expressly assigned responsibility for initial vocational training, companies also have skilled workers who are entrusted with elements of initial vocational training - for a limited time - in addition to their occupational duties. They are generally designated as “skilled worker-instructors” and require no certification under the AEVO for the instructor duties they perform. Nevertheless, many of them have chosen to take and pass the examination to advance their personal qualifications. An interesting fact in this connection is that even in the absence of formal compulsion during the period for which the AEVO was suspended, over 40,000 people still took the Trainer Aptitude examination every year.

To what extent has it been possible to generate additional training capacity by suspending obligatory certification?
What were the impacts of waiving formal certification of aptitude for vocational and industrial education on the quality of company-based initial vocational training?

Data basis
The basis for the evaluation consisted of a representative nationwide survey of companies and a survey of the chambers of crafts and trades and chambers of industry and commerce. It is the task of the chambers to provide advisory support and to oversee initial vocational training in companies.

A total of 15,000 training and non-training companies were questioned as part of the company survey. The survey method was a combination of written questionnaires sent by postal mail, telephone and online surveys. The survey resulted in a net sample of 2,599 cases (approx. 24%).

For the chamber questionnaire, the training consultants of all 54 chambers of crafts and trades and 81 chambers of industry and commerce were questioned. The online survey achieved a response rate of 76%.46

Quantitative impacts
Though scarcely possible to quantify precisely, the results of the company survey indicate that only on a limited scale were new companies recruited for initial vocational training, and additional apprenticeship places created.

In order to determine the quantitative effect, the companies were initially questioned to establish their awareness of the AEVO and its suspension. According to the results, more than two-thirds (70%) of all respondents were aware of the existence of the AEVO. Only one-fifth of all companies, however, had realised that the AEVO had been temporarily suspended (20%).

A further prerequisite for analysing quantitative effects were the responses to the question about the consequences of the revised regulation for those companies which were aware of the suspension of the AEVO. According to the findings, the legislative amendment had no direct consequences for the vast majority of companies. Only 18% stated that the revised regulation had made it easier for them to embark on initial vocational training, and 11% stated that they had been able to employ more trainees as a result.

These two groups of companies form the basis for the calculation of the quantitative effect. Accordingly, the number of companies that were helped to embark on initial vocational training or enabled to expand their provision of training is between 7,000 and 10,000 companies per year. Here the discrepancy of 3,000 companies results from the fact that following analysis of the data collected, over half of the new training companies counted already have staff that fulfil the formal requirements of the AEVO. These companies would probably have been authorised to provide initial vocational training even if the AEVO had remained in force. With regard to the suspension of the AEVO making it easier to offer additional apprenticeship places, the discrepancy is

46 Full details in Ulmer/Jablonka 2008
considerably greater: according to the companies’ responses, the figure is somewhere between 10,000 and 25,000 per year.\(^6^7\)

All the stated figures are no more than estimates, however, since the responses given by companies must not be interpreted as if the suspension of a regulation was the sole reason for their decision to engage in initial vocational training. For there is sufficient evidence that a company’s most important motives for training lie in the fact that skilled workers trained in-house can be deployed more flexibly, that companies bear a social responsibility, and that carrying out their own initial vocational training reduces the risk of employing the wrong people in the wrong jobs. The results of the company survey showed, however, that the revised regulation did help to generate additional apprenticeship places.

**Qualitative impacts**

Alongside this positive quantitative effect of the revised regulation, however, there are also clear signs of adverse impacts. For example, 47% of the chambers’ training consultants believe that suspension of the AEVO has been detrimental to the image of vocational education and training. However, a roughly equal proportion - 48% - does not agree. In response to the concrete question as to how far the quality of initial vocational training in companies with AEVO-qualified training staff differs from those without such staff, 32% of consultants thought that training quality in these companies was generally poorer, 37% said that there were more frequent conflicts between instructors and trainees, and 28% stated that the number of arbitration cases was higher (28%).

A further clear indication that the suspension of the AEVO negatively impacted the quality of initial vocational training is the rate of contract terminations, which was calculated for the period 2003 to 2006 based on the companies’ responses. According to the results of the company survey, this averaged 15% for all companies. For companies with AEVO-qualified training staff, the rate of contract terminations is somewhat lower (13%). For companies without such qualified training staff, however it is considerably higher (21%), equalling the rate in companies with qualified staff which took up initial vocational training for the first time after 2002, and which had stated that suspension of the AEVO had made it easier for them to embark on initial vocational training. Where companies within this sub-group have no instructors qualified according to the AEVO, the contract termination rate rises to 29%. These firms also complained more frequently that their apprentices had difficulties and achieved poorer grades in their examinations.

However, it would certainly be wrong to ascribe the noted adverse impacts solely to the presence or absence of AEVO-qualified training staff. Firstly, it should be borne in mind that many companies embarking on initial vocational training for the first time will have teething troubles due to inexperience, which will only be overcome in the course of time. Secondly, it is important to consider that all kinds of factors can influence the success or failure of initial vocational training. Nevertheless, it remains clear that the suspension of the AEVO had an adverse impact on the quality of in-company initial vocational training – regardless of company size and economic sector.

\(^{67}\) On the calculation method and the distribution of the additional companies recruited, in terms of size and sector, see Ulmer/Jablonka 2008, 17ff.
The Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude from the viewpoint of companies

The evaluation made it clear that training staff with educational qualifications are of considerable importance for the quality of in-company initial vocational training. This is also reflected in the companies’ assessments of the AEVO. Asked about the advantages and disadvantages of state-defined requirements upon the staff responsible for in-company training, the companies gave the following positive assessments in response:

- 59% believe such a regulation to be necessary in order to ensure that training staff in all companies are equipped with at least a minimum level of qualifications.
- 58% of companies see this as helping to assure the quality of initial vocational training.
- 44% of companies take the view that such a regulation is an important means of ensuring that companies have sufficiently qualified training staff at their disposal, including in the longer term.
- 44% state that this gives helpful pointers on the necessity for qualified training staff.
- 43% say that such a regulation provides training staff with guidelines for standardised core contents of training courses.

In contrast the following negative assessments were expressed:

- Companies incur costs as a result of a regulation like the AEVO, which many might find unaffordable. Over half of the respondents agree with this point of view (53%).
- 44% see the AEVO as a bureaucratic barrier.
- 39% consider a state regulation to be superfluous, because every company is responsible for the qualifications of its own training staff.
- 29% criticise the undue time commitment associated with acquisition of the required qualifications.

The results show that companies’ attitudes to the AEVO are mixed. The group that views the regulation as a bureaucratic barrier is as large as ever (around 40%), while about one company in two criticises the associated financial expenditure. On the other hand, barely 60% of (both training and non-training) companies consider the AEVO to be necessary in order to ensure that training staff are qualified at least to a minimum acceptable standard, and almost exactly as many take the view that such a state stipulation helps to assure the quality of in-company initial vocational training.

Reinstatement of the Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude

In reaction to the evaluation, the Federal government in consensus with the employers’ and employees’ associations and organisations decided to bring the AEVO back into force as of August 1, 2009. A circular from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) on the reintroduction of obligatory certification read as follows: “In view of the additional requirements in terms of content and the growing educational challenges - particularly with regard to the diverse problems faced by some trainees - a minimum level of qualification in vocational and industrial education is indispensable. Many practitioners and experts have emphasised the importance of qualifications in vocational and industrial education to the quality of initial vocational
education and training. This is also an important contribution to ensuring the next
generation of qualified skilled workers.\textsuperscript{48}

At the same time, BIBB was commissioned to collaborate with the experts from
the social partner organisations on a draft reform of the AEVO. Work on the new draft
ordinance was concluded at the end of 2008; on January 21, 2009 the revised AEVO was

**The reformed Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude**

The new version of the AEVO describes the requirements regarding trainer
aptitude for vocational and industrial education in terms of four fields of activity which
are aligned to the process of in-company initial vocational training.
1. Check the prerequisites for and plan initial vocational training
2. Prepare initial vocational training and assist with trainee recruitment
3. Deliver initial vocational training, and
4. Bring the apprenticeship to a conclusion.

For every activity area, in turn, competencies are articulated which describe what
instructors should be capable of (also see Appendix).

In comparison with the previous AEVO,\textsuperscript{49} there are several innovations to the content of
the new version. The most important of these, in terms of vocational pedagogy, concern
the stronger orientation of initial vocational training towards work and business
processes and the emphasis on the instructor's role as a learning-process facilitator.

The orientation towards work and business processes - shortened to process-
orientation - which was called for by both vocational education and training researchers
(Pätzold 2008, 323f.; Bahl et al. 2004, 1of.) and practitioners (Ulmer/Jabolnka 2008, 32),
should make the in-company work process a more integral aspect of initial vocational
training. In this way, trainees in commercial occupations, for example, are far quicker to
familiarise themselves with the full range of business processes from a business
administration perspective - from initiation of the order to customer care after the order
has been fulfilled. However, the new setting for initial vocational training is a less
educationally sheltered environment (than, for instance, a teaching and learning
workshop), and instructors must now give due regard to this in their practice. In the new
AEVO this is considered primarily in the third field of activity, “Deliver initial vocational
training”, the most important field of activity of the AEVO,\textsuperscript{50} which is aimed at better
preparation of instructors for their role as learning-process facilitators. Another ability
that will assume greater importance is being able to engage with trainees on an
increasingly individualised level, since they are more heterogeneous than in the past in
terms of their educational prerequisites, cultural backgrounds and ages. The more
prominent role of the learning-process facilitator can be firmly attached to the following
requirements within the third field of activity:

Instructors should be capable of:

\textsuperscript{48} Cf. [www.bmbf.de/de/1652.php](http://www.bmbf.de/de/1652.php)
(available in German; viewed 17th September 2009)

\textsuperscript{49} After its enactment in 1972, the AEVO was reformed for the first time in 1999.

\textsuperscript{50} In the recommendation from the Board of BIBB of 25 June 2009, which was drafted by experts from the
social partners on the technical advisory committee with regard to the different requirements, the
recommended allocation of time to course elements is as follows: 1st field of activity 20%, 2nd field of
(available in German).
• creating a motivating culture of learning (Item 1),
• giving and receiving feedback (Item 1),
• selecting training methods and media tailored to the interests of the target group (Item 4), and
• supporting trainees with learning difficulties by means of individually structured training and learning advice (Item 5) (cf. Appendix).

Concluding remarks
1. Instructors play a key role in company-based initial vocational education and training. The evaluation of the suspension of the AEVO provides evidence that the latter plays a decisive role in the success of initial vocational training. Even bearing in mind that many companies embarking on initial vocational training for the first time will have teething troubles due to inexperience, the study has made it clear that the quality of training is jeopardised in companies without AEVO-qualified staff.
2. The evaluation has corroborated the importance of the framework conditions within the company for the quality of learning processes. Even if the impact of individual factors on the quality of training processes cannot be determined unequivocally, the study has nevertheless clearly shown that qualified training staff make a decisive contribution to assuring the quality of initial vocational training. The relevance of the input criterion of “Aptitude of training staff”, which has been demonstrated here, also underlines that the quality debate in initial and continuing vocational education and training must avoid focusing solely on output factors and disregarding input factors.
3. Although only a minority of the companies surveyed (20%) were informed about the suspension of the AEVO, it must be emphasised that the vast majority (70%) are aware that the requirements upon staff with responsibilities for in-company training are a matter covered by statutory regulations. Furthermore, it became clear that the AEVO largely meets with acceptance in practice, and is linked with a series of advantages by those questioned - from the incentive for training staff to undertake continuing education, to the contribution to assuring the quality of initial vocational training. Therefore the AEVO cannot be considered solely as a “negative barrier”: it also represents a “positive barrier” by signalling to companies that the entitlement to initial vocational training is attached to qualitative preconditions. Extending the suspension of the AEVO or even abolishing the regulation for the sake of deregulation and reducing bureaucracy would have done great harm to vocational education and training in the long run, for such a measure would have weakened this “awareness” of the high value of a “positive barrier” in practice.
4. The consensus achieved between the social partners and the state, based on the findings of the evaluation, that the AEVO should be reinstated and collectively reformed, provides a good example of the cooperation between the relevant groups within German vocational education and training. This common approach, which is a constitutive element in the development of vocational education in Germany, has contributed substantially towards assuring the high quality of initial vocational education and training.

References

**Appendix**
The new profile of requirements for instructors (§§ 2, 3 AEVO)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>§ 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator comprises the competence to independently plan, deliver and review initial vocational education and training in the fields of activity of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. checking the prerequisites for and planning initial vocational training,</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. preparing initial vocational training and assisting with trainee recruitment,</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. delivering initial vocational training, and</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. ensuring completion of the apprenticeship.</td>
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<th>§ 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fields of activity</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>(1) The field of activity under § 2 no. 1 covers the aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator for checking the prerequisites for and planning initial vocational education and training. In this area, instructors are capable of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. explaining and substantiating the advantages and benefits of in-company initial vocational education and training,</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. contributing to planning and decision-making on the company’s need to train apprentices on the basis of legal, collective-bargaining and company-specific framework conditions,</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. explaining the structures of the vocational education and training system and its interfaces,</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. selecting training occupations for the company and justifying this choice,</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. checking the suitability of the company to provide initial vocational education and training in the desired training occupation, and reviewing whether and to what extent training content can be taught through off-site training measures, particularly via initial vocational training within a provider network, or via inter-company and extra-company training,</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. assessing the possibilities for making use of measures to prepare for initial vocational training, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. coordinating the tasks of all those involved in initial vocational education and training within the company, taking account of their functions and qualifications.</td>
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</table>

(2) The field of activity under § 2 no. 2 covers the aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator to prepare the initial vocational education and training, with due regard for organisational and legal aspects. In this area, instructors are capable of:
| 1. working on the basis of a training regulation to produce a company initial vocational training plan that is oriented particularly towards work and business processes typically encountered in the given occupation, |
| 2. considering the possibilities for involvement and codetermination in vocational education and training by the company’s employee representation bodies, |
3. ascertaining the need for cooperation, and coordinating with cooperation partners, particularly the part-time vocational school, on matters of content and organisation,
4. applying criteria and procedures for the selection of trainees, taking account of their diversity,
5. preparing the initial vocational training contract and ensuring that it is registered with the competent body, and
6. examining the possibilities for undertaking parts of the course of initial vocational education and training abroad.

(3) The field of activity under § 2 no. 3 covers the aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator to promote independent learning in work and business processes typically encountered in the given occupation, in an action-oriented manner. In this area, instructors are capable of
1. creating conditions conducive to learning and a motivating culture of learning, giving and receiving feedback,
2. organising, structuring and evaluating the trial period,
3. working on the basis of the company’s initial vocational training plan and the work and business processes typically encountered in an occupation to develop and structure company-based learning and work assignments,
4. selecting training methods and media tailored to the interests of the target group and deploying them appropriately in the specific situation,
5. supporting trainees with learning difficulties by means of individually structured training and learning advice, deploying aids to support initial vocational education and training where necessary, and reviewing the possibility of lengthening the duration of the apprenticeship.
6. offering trainees additional training opportunities, particularly in the form of additional qualifications, and reviewing the possibility of shortening the duration of the apprenticeship period or early admission to the final examination,
7. promoting the social and personal development of trainees, identifying problems and conflicts in a timely manner and helping to bring about a solution,
8. recording and assessing achievements, evaluating third-party performance assessments and examination results, carrying out assessment interviews, drawing conclusions for the subsequent course of initial vocational education and training, and
9. promoting intercultural competence.

(4) The field of activity under § 2 no. 4 covers the aptitude as a vocational and industrial educator to ensure that the apprenticeship is completed successfully, and to draw the trainee’s attention to perspectives for continuing development in the given occupation. In this area, instructors are capable of
1. preparing trainees for the final or journeyman’s examination, taking account of examination dates, and ensuring that the apprenticeship is completed successfully,
2. ensuring that trainees’ examination entry details are registered with the competent body, and making it aware of any unusual details of administrative relevance,
3. assisting in producing a written report on the basis of performance assessments, and
4. informing and advising trainees on progression routes within the company and continuing vocational education opportunities.
Contradictions in adult education policy – Findings and reflections from Austria.

Introduction

The purpose of this contribution is to understand the situation and the policies concerning teachers and trainers in adult education in Austria within the wider framework of adult education and related policies. Austria is in a situation where a “Lifelong Learning (LLL) Strategy”-paper at the policy level has recently undergone a broad consultation process, and an operative LLL-strategy paper should be soon presented as a commissioned expert proposal. It is remarkable, how issues of professionalisation of the teaching and training personnel are situated in this strategy. We can see a deep gap: since many years researchers have pointed to a lack of professionalisation in this field, however, the documents published during the consultation process do not highlight this issue as a major point where action should be envisaged. Some proposals for action represented by indicators and benchmarks have been included in some other action lines:

- professionalization is strongly highlighted in a guidance action line, where the persons responsible should undergo training;
- a number of 1000 persons is specified that should be qualified by a specific cooperative programme for training and competence recognition of adult ET professionals (Weiterbildungsakademie – WBA: www.wba.or.at) during some three years;
- the qualification of personnel should be used as an item in quality assurance and quality development models.

How can we explain this “strategy” towards professionalization? We will try to find an explanation in the structures of Austrian adult ET and the related traditions and practices of employment in this sector.

Basic traits and contradictions of adult education in Austria

Driven rather by European recommendations and demands than by native impulses adult education has been put on the policy agenda as an important part of lifelong learning (LLL) with the start of the European Employment Strategy (EES) one decade ago in 1997. The EES has proposed the development of a comprehensive and coherent strategy for LLL in the member states of the EU. Austria has included a sub-programme for LLL in the policy supported by the European Social Fund (ESF), has participated in the OECD study about adult education, and has also organised a broad consultation process about the LLL-memorandum in 2000.

However, up to now an operative LLL strategy has not resulted out of these activities, and the knowledge base about the structures of ET in general and adult ET in particular is still quite weak (as in many other countries also; see ALPINE 2008). Clearly, the set up of a comprehensive and coherent LLL strategy needs an understanding of the structures and practices in the different areas and sectors of education and training (ET). Adult ET must be perceived as a part of the overall ET “system”. In order to develop a feasible and reasonable policy strategy, demands and goals must be defined, from which certain action lines can be derived. For that some “visions” are necessary about what
should be achieved on the one hand, and an empirically based definition of the situation as the point of departure is needed on the other hand.

In this section we will put forward a set of phenomena and contradictions that are making both, visions and understanding, difficult to achieve.

**Collective providers and market rhetoric**

The Austrian system of adult education can be termed as driven mainly by “collective provision” through institutions run by several interest groups (social partners, churches, political parties, etc.). There are some traditionally established providers that reap a big part or the majority of the market share. Their status is mostly “non-profit” (gemeinnützig), and their financing is mixed and varies from institution to institution, including some support by the owning institutions, some public support, some commission by public institutions (mainly the Public Employment Service; see below 1.2.) and contributions by participants. More recently many new private providers have developed also, who earn their money completely on the market. They are mainly very small (often one person enterprises).

In the policy and practice discourse, however, this system of collective provision is termed “market-led“. Here we can see that it is sometimes not so easy to classify in empirical terms on which kind of coordination mechanisms a system is based. At first sight a large proportion of participation is accessed by individual customers in a market-like way, you see catalogues, which offer courses and programmes, and “customers” who pay fees for participation. On more close inspection, however, there are complex support mechanisms that make the assessment more difficult. Some empirical accounts from different sources can illustrate this. First we can break down the information about participation to different kinds of providers (figure 1). This shows that “normal” market-led providers (private for-profit institutions) only reap a small share of participation in the market.

**Figure 1**

*Form of provision in Austrian adult ET measured by distribution of participants and hours of participation*

Source: Statistics Austria, Microcensus 2003, estimation Lassnigg/Vogtenhuber/Steiner 2007
Second, from surveys of participation in adult ET, we can see that only a minority of participants has to bear the costs of participation. The main payers are firms, supported by some kinds of public assistance. However, the support by firms is frequently not directly related to a specific training interest, very often they support participation that is based on interests and decisions of the employees, asking for support. Overall, in the survey 2003 about 70% of adult ET participants did not pay any private contribution for their participation. The Austrian Adult Education Survey (AES) 2007 has confirmed this long standing result, as more than 80% of employed persons did not bear any private costs for participation non formal ET. These observations are in line with much research from economics that has consistently shown that firms pay for general training (not only for specific training, which is directly of use for work and immediate productivity; O’Connell 2007; Bassanini et al. 2005).

In sum, we can see here a first contradiction between “market rhetoric“ and in fact publicly supported collective provision. We can also see on a more general level that it might be sometimes difficult to judge, on which coordination mechanisms a system is resting. It is questionable, whether a system that at first sight includes market-like transactions, whose main sources of funding, however, are indirectly reaped in the background of the transacting agents, should be termed “market-led“. This question relates directly to policy proposals and mechanisms of support. Many proposals for policy that should support individual demand are based on ideas of the market mechanism, and on the idea to provide incentives to the agents involved in the transactions. Vouchers or entitlements for individual learners are a classical example for this. However, if participation and transactions are guided primarily by “third“ actors in the background (public support, firms, labour market policy institutions), the feasibility of these kinds of policy instruments can be questioned. We might see the system be driven by a two (or more) step coordination mechanism, where the different kinds of collective actors are responsible for the overall shape of provision (first step), and the individuals can only take their decisions within this opportunity structure (second step). In this case the current practice and the shape of the system depend on the first step. If the main proportion of funding flows at this first step, it is questionable whether policies of (selective) individual support based on market-led incentives can effectively change behaviour.

The public employment service (PES) as a quasi-monopolist player

If we look at the sources of funding in the Austrian system, we can take the argument a step further. Here we can see that one single player carries about one fourth to one third of the funding. This player is the PES (figure 2). This means that the PES also controls and shapes a big part of the system of provision via different channels.

This organisation puts about three times the money into the system as compared to the provision by the public households at federal, regional, and local levels, and thus has a quite monopolistic position both as a buyer of services vis-à-vis the providers, and as a provider of services vis-à-vis the clients, mainly the unemployed persons. To some extent the PES is also trying to influence the practices of employers by support schemes for training of employed persons under certain conditions. The main mechanism through which the PES acts vis-à-vis the providers is by market-like contracts that set certain conditions for being selected for the provision of training to the unemployed clients. These conditions are highly formalised, include conditions for the facilities and the trainers, and are also based on quite severe price-competition. Quality
includes also short-term placement of clients in the labour market that set strong constraints on the providers.

![Diagram of expenditure distribution]

**Figure 2**

*Estimated distribution of expenditure for adult ET in Austria*

Source: Statistics Austria, Microcensus 2003, estimation Lasnigg/Vogtenhuber/Steiner 2007

Here a second contradiction arises, as a non-educational mission explicitly drives the main player in the adult ET system. First, the mission of the PES is rightly driven by goals and objectives of labour market policy, the main objective being to support access to employment, and to provide training assistance with respect to this objective. Second, the quantity of funds is driven by the development of the labour market and by labour market policy (LMP) goals. From this a cyclical development of resources follows. From the logic of the PES and of LMP this has not to be considered a problem, however, a problem arises, when this part of adult ET takes such a big proportion, as it exerts emergent influence on the overall practices in the system. We can illustrate this by some indications.

First, we have to take into account the well-known “Mathew effect” of the unequal distribution of access to adult ET, and the unequal distribution of the educational attainment of unemployed persons. From this follows that labour market training provides access to persons that are unfamiliar with ET and many of them would otherwise not have the opportunity of access to training. However, the experience of these participants is driven mainly by instrumental practices, and the quality of provision is driven by the high price competition and lowest costs possible. Second, this constellation has consequences on the supply side of provision, as providers have to accept the conditions of the PES, and also a high proportion of teachers and trainers have to work under these constraint conditions (see Zilian et al. 1999, Mosberger et al. 2007, MAGAZIN erwachsenenbildung.at 4/2008). Thus, the PES shapes practice in adult ET to a considerable degree, without having educational objectives on its own, and at the same
time being heavily constraint by its own efficiency goals and objectives that are different from those in ET. Third, the players in adult ET are weak and fragmented, and to some extent driven by the market-rhetoric and also by competition among each other. Apart from the weakness of public responsibility, there are several gaps and cleavages among the providers that might be to some part attributed to the market rhetoric and to the existing lines of competition (see 1.3).

**Lack of clear public responsibility: many players in competition without coordination**

The political responsibility for governing the system is distributed in a very complex way; therefore there is a lack of coordination and shared overarching purposes from the public side. The responsibility is distributed among the regions (Austria as a small country has nine Länder with considerable government responsibilities) and the federal ministries of education (for general ET) and labour (for labour market training), accompanied by other responsibilities (e.g. the ministry for agriculture is running a project for developing “learning regions”). Issues of support of enterprises and of innovation, which are also related to ET, are situated in still other ministries (economic affairs, innovation, science and research), regional development and innovation is situated in separate administrative and policy domains at the Länder level as well at the federal level; Lassnigg 2006). Therefore a strengthening of the agenda of adult ET would require a big amount of policy coordination among different sections and layers of government as a classical governance problem lying outside of the official structures of politics, which is very difficult to achieve in the complex structures of the Austrian political system (where, e.g. the competition between political parties is traditionally influencing competing policies between the regional and the federal level, and among the different regions themselves).

There are also strong divisions within the ET community and among the various providers. An important division line is drawn between general, vocational and professional providers who are differently approached by policy, and competing for resources – providers of general ET are stronger represented in KEBÖ, so recently some main vocational and professional providers have organised themselves in a separate network ([www.pbeb.at](http://www.pbeb.at)), thus to some extent aggravating the division lines within adult ET. This division is related to the policy structure, as vocational continuing ET is organised to a considerable degree by the institutions of the social partners, whereas general adult ET is traditionally related to the communities (VHS-Volkshochschule), with a strong involvement of the employee organisations too. The ET institutions of the social partners are separated to those of the employers and those of the employees, the former being the biggest provider in continuing ET related to the enterprises and the latter being strongly involved in labour market training. Due to the complex distribution of political responsibilities, the provider organisations, of social partners as well as the VHS) are also mainly organised at the regional level with an activity core situated in regional sub-institutions, and having only weak federal structures. As concerns the federal level, there is a different relationship of general and vocational ET to different federal ministries, with general adult ET being related to the education ministry and vocational continuing via the PES being related to the labour ministry and partly to economic affairs; as higher education institutions increasingly provide professional continuing ET, the ministry of science and research also is involved to some degree.
The support structures are influenced to some part by organisation and networking that creates insiders and outsiders, as some main traditional providers are organised in a network of providers (KEBÖ- Conference of adult education in Austria), who have privileged access to public resources, whereas others are not. A feasibility study supported by the city of Vienna about potentials for development of a more coherent and cooperative structure inspired by ideas of the “learning city” has shown that from the side of the providers competition rather has outweighed a drive towards cooperation (Steiner et al. 2002). More recently a network of the networks of the regional players for developing adult ET in Austria (Ländernetzwerk Weiter.Bildung: http://www.pfiffikus.at/lnw/) has been set up, however, it has to overcome the existing cleavages and its voice has still to be established as one to be heard.

These structures create an overall situation where the fragmented policy responsibilities combined with the market rhetoric are weakening the overall position of adult ET by creating many divisions and cleavages based on differing and conflicting interests and traditions of the various actors. In general terms a third contradiction can be identified between the public responsibilities on the one hand, and the more short-term interests of the providers based on the market rhetoric. Thus the collective semi-public non-profit providers are inclined to maximise their position on the market, and thus to follow their public objectives only indirectly via short-term imperatives. In parallel a structure is missing that could lead to the formulation of clear public goals and objectives.

**Market vs. institutional coordination**

At the policy level in the discourse about the development of a LLL-strategy another contradiction comes to the fore. On the one hand the various players are stating that a successfully working and increasing adult ET market would be effectively in place (thus presenting and selling their capacities) – on the other hand the same players call for a framework of increased political and institutional co-ordination that means primarily public funding and support. This is a fourth contradiction, as – at least within the market rhetoric – a functioning market does not need political co-ordination. This contradiction might be interpreted as a reflection of the prevailing structures that are in a complex way intermingling public and private objectives and a broad range of different players without providing sufficient mechanisms for the development of clear goals and objectives based on the demand of the society for adult ET.

**Initiatives towards coordination reflect rather than resolve these contradictions**

During recent years we can identify some lines of development towards a more comprehensive agenda of adult ET. These are more or less strongly related to the strengthening of LLL.

**Inclusion of an LLL action line in the programme of the European Social Funds**

A first step was taken by including a specific action line to support LLL in the Austrian programme document of the European Social Funds (ESF) in the period 2000-2006. At the policy level this step brought together the education ministry and the labour ministry that is administering the ESF-programme. However, new potential division was brought onto the agenda, as the focus of the LLL-activities has been laid on initial ET, whereas the ESF had been traditionally related to issues of adult ET. Many debates have arisen around this development. On the one hand, LLL clearly should span overall ET including initial ET – on the other hand, some severe questions have been raised.
concerning the public support of adult ET. First, the expenditure for initial ET has been among the highest in the OECD, whereas public expenditure for adult ET – in particular if we exclude the not primarily educational driven expenditure of the PES – is low. So, the available budget of the ESF in relation to the resources in initial vs. adult ET would have provided very much more potential impact in adult ET as compared to initial ET. Second, a debate about the sources and mechanisms of funding has come up among the players in adult education objecting the specific goal- and project-oriented structure of ESF-funding. Not so much the potential additional funding by European support has been emphasised, but – among others – the procedures have been fundamentally criticized by bringing up the issues of (1) diverting resources towards employability (including effects on national resources) based on the basic goals of the ESF; (2) reducing discretion about the use of support money on the side of providers by the predefined objectives of the ESF-programme (in relation to the same amount of additional money outside the ESF); (3) increased effort for getting support because of the newly demanded practices of developing proposals and monitoring due to the ESF procedures. Thus, some basic issues have been brought on the agenda by the inclusion of the LLL action line in the ESF-programme; however, no quick and strong improvement of adult ET has been brought about. In the following period (2007-2013) adult ET has been strengthened, and the project-oriented procedures of support have been mainstreamed within the education ministry by changing the support procedures for adult ET towards performance contracts.

A proposal for a comprehensive LLL strategy by the social partners (“Chance Bildung“)

The Austrian social partners in 2007 have deliberately taken up the demands at the European level since the launch of the European Employment Strategy in 1998 to develop a strategy for LLL. The latter have provided a proposal for an Austrian LLL strategy that in its political essence has stated 8 benchmarks and 8 action lines to develop LLL in Austria (see figure 3).

We can see that – against the big involvement of social partners in the governing of parts of adult ET – most of the proposals are concerning initial ET, including the opportunity of second-chance completion of initial programmes at basic and advanced levels for adults. Among the benchmarks only an overall increase of participation in continuing ET is included, among the action lines rather framework conditions and policies are mentioned that indirectly include adult ET as part of LLL – the only action line directly addressing adult ET is the proposal of a common learning account (LA; currently there are various models operating at regional level, see Wagner/Lassnigg 2006, Bauer 2009).

It is not so easy to interpret this relation in emphasis on initial vs. continuing ET by the social partners. Does it reflect a more severe problem perception and therefore priorities in initial VET? Does it reflect fewer consensuses about goals to be reached and measures to be taken in adult ET? Or is the ability to reach the 20% participation goal being taken for granted based on the responsibilities of social partners and of the common provision of the national learning account?
Building of networks of providers and regions for adult education

More recently the regional players have built a network for policy coordination (Ländernetzwerk: www.pfiffikus.at/lnw/), on the one hand in order to exchange experience and to develop common views among them, and on the other to formulate their needs towards the federal government. This initiative has been a reaction to the abandonment of a structure of coordinating bodies for adult ET financed by the federal government in the regions some years ago, which had been some source of political tension and has posed challenges towards the federal level. The network is in fact a platform of nine regional networks that combine providers and other regional administrative, political and corporatist bodies. Key charges of the network have been first to support professionalisation in the sector, and second to top up federal investment in adult ET.

As the main organisation of non-profit adult ET providers does not include the commercial and private providers in the market, a separate platform has been built by organisations in the vocational and professional fields around the employers’ association and a higher education continuing ET unit (Plattform für berufsbezogene Erwachsenenbildung: www.pbeb.at/). A main initiative of this organisation is the strengthening of the market by the development and public support of more streamlined instruments for demand-side financing (e.g. vouchers, tax incentives), and the sheltering of the self-employed status of teachers and trainers as a secondary occupation in adult ET who should be “experts” in their regular occupation. This policy is conflicting with the initiatives to create full-time professional adult ET occupations.

About 25 providers, among them the employees’ organisation and the Volkshochschulen as members of KEBÖ have formed a consortium to conclude a collective agreement with the trade union for the employees in the adult ET sector in 2005. However, the activity is still strongly opposed by the employers association, therefore the attempt of an extension of the agreement to the whole sector beyond the

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**Table 1. Benchmarks and action lines proposed by the Austrian social partners**

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<th>8 Benchmarks</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>To reach 2010</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>MathScienceTechnology-graduates +50% as compared to 2001; Supply of primary schools for the whole day, including support and free time 2010/2012: 50%/100% of teachers get continuing training for individualised teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To reach 2012</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Increase of participation in continuing ET from currently 13% to 20% (EU-indicator) Increase of part-time studies combined to employment in higher education Reduction of PISA-Level&lt;1 from 20% to 10% of students Reduction of youth without VET completion from 17% to 8.5% 2012/2015 matriculation examination for apprentices*2,5 (5%); *5 (10%)</td>
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<th>8 action lines</th>
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<td>(1) increase of females in science and technology learning/studies; (2) development of a LLL-strategy; (3) establishment of a LLL-council for guiding the strategy (4) reform of school governance (5) free provision of credentials of ET at lower and upper secondary level; (6) establishment of a national qualification framework (NQF); (7) compulsory subject for vocational orientation and guidance in compulsory schools, (8) establishment of a common learning account covering Austria.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: compiled by the author from CHANCE BILDUNG 2007
concluding parties has not been possible. As collective agreements are only applicable to regularly employed workers, this move has created also some tensions. At first sight, the hourly wage is lower compared to the other forms of atypical employment because of several social security items included in the collective agreement that have to be financed individually from the gross income in atypical employment.\(^5\) In parallel to this agreement the social security agency and the PES have set requirements for the transformation of atypical employment into regular employment for teachers and trainers in ET financed by the PES.

**Coordinating initiatives at federal level**

At federal level, the support of adult ET has been strengthened considerably in the new period of ESF programme planning 2007-2013,\(^5\) and a new strategy of financing adult ET has been taken by the conclusion of performance contracts between the state and the provider organisations instead of mere subsidies. The regions, however, seem to have been put aside to some extent in these procedures.

Another initiative at the federal level has set up a task force to streamline the regional policies in specific fields of adult ET: support of second chance ET for the acquisition of the compulsory school certificate for lower secondary school by drop outs and for the acquisition of the maturity certificate of upper secondary school for apprentices or completers of lower level upper secondary VET schools; provision of basic ET for illiterate persons, and recognition of competences plus additional ET for persons with migrant background. A joint programme is currently under development that tries to set quantitative goals and qualitative requirements for co-financing these kinds of activities commonly by the national government and the regions. Requirements for the quality of the teaching and training personnel are one item of quality assurance.

**Development of a LLL-Strategy**

The development of an Austrian LLL strategy can be traced back to the first national action plan (NAP), where some basic goals (e.g. to increase participation of persons with lower ET attainment in continuing ET) have already been stated, however, without translating them into objectives and actions. The responsibility of the social partners has been also strongly emphasised in these first steps. However, it took time until a next step has been taken by setting up an expert group that should develop a first proposal for a national LLL strategy. The proposal provided (1) a basic structure for the strategy strongly related to the EU-memorandum, based on five guidelines (life cycle orientation, learner orientation, guidance support, competence orientation, participation support), (2) a very basic framework for funding allocating the responsibilities of the different players, and (3) an organisational structure based on the ideas of buffer organisations (an adult ET council should provide a framework for the provision of adult ET and a LLL council should be established to oversee the overall system structure and policy development). These proposals were partly taken up some years later in a

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\(^5\) Schmidt (2008) has shown that a similar net income per year that is comparable in terms of social security and in-work benefits has to start with very different gross hourly wages: based on the Austrian social security system a net income of EUR 18,200 per year results from a gross hourly wage of EUR 13 in regular employment based on the collective agreement, vs. EUR 33 in an atypical contract (“Freier Dienstvertrag”), or EUR 57 in a performance contract (“Werkvertrag”).

\(^5\) The proportion of support for adult ET in the LLL action line has been increased from one fourth (Mio. EUR 28,4) to about half (Mio. EUR 49,9) – however, still the publicly funded initial ET receives half of the supporting means, despite many evaluations have shown that initial ET is already comparatively “rich” in Austria with only average achievement in the large-scale assessments (PISA, TIMSS, PIRLS).
consultation document that provided a basis for a consultation process that ended in 2008. Based on the results of the consultation process a national LLL strategy should be set up currently. In the meantime, a consultation about the NQF has been concluded in parallel, thus two national policy processes concerning LLL and adult ET are currently under way in Austria.

The consultation document has set up a very broad array of actions and benchmark proposals based on the five guidelines mentioned above. However, a structure for coordination is missing in the document, except that the many actors established in the field should operate the strategy cooperatively. Interestingly, the issue of coordination has not been raised during the consultation process. As a result, the overall shape of the proposed “strategy” means putting together in a very incremental way what the actors already are doing, without changing current practices. In terms of strategic thinking we can interpret the consultation process as a kind of stocktaking of current practice that has lead in fact to the implicit conclusion that the development of a strategy in the sense of taking new paths of development towards goals based on a new vision were not necessary.

Summary

When we compare the Austrian situation with common structures at international or EU level, we can see some basic similarities (Nuissl/Lattke 2008, ALPINE 2008), but also some specificity. The market rhetoric, the diverse system with little coherence and scattered responsibilities, and the lack of information about adult ET are quite common characteristics. However, the high proportion of labour market training, the strong divisions between general and vocational adult ET related to different governance systems, and the complex public responsibilities seem to be more marked than elsewhere.

If we combine the basic structure with the identified contradictions in policy terms, we reach a situation where change is particularly difficult to achieve because of so many stabilising factors and mechanisms:
- the collective providers are by the market rhetoric inclined to follow their own interests each, to present their performance as being very successful, and to forget about their public responsibilities;
- the existing division between the PES as the biggest buyer/provider that strongly structures the market on the one hand, and the remaining players on the other hand, is beyond the reach of sector policy action because of the different logics and action spaces in the different policy fields;
- the scattered responsibilities and the complex governance structures, in combination with adult ET being a minor issue for each of the players except the providers, is hindering steps towards oversight and coordination;
- the lack of basic information and knowledge, in combination with the diverse and conflicting interests of the diverse players at the provision and the policy level, hinders even a common discourse about operative priorities to be set and a common vision of the development of adult ET in the public interest to be set;

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53 This document also puts more emphasis on initial ET as part of LLL than on adult ET: out of the 34 indicators and benchmarks, one third (11) concerns adult ET, and 3 concern guidance and counselling. Moreover, many benchmarks concerning adult ET are much less specified that those in initial ET.
- not even a small core interest group does exist that would work in the common public interest of the overall sector, rather there are many sets of different interest groups that have conflicting interests to each of the others and are trying to maximise their own interests each (e.g. general ET vs. VET; regional vs. federal; employers vs. employees; employment vs. leisure; employed vs. unemployed; etc.), and the various experts also are more or less attached to some of the various groups, providers as well as policy camps.

To set up viable structures for a common discourse has been proposed already some years ago, however, because of the many players this seems to be quite demanding enterprise. Some steps in this direction have been taken during the last decade, with some success: one is the development of a research network in adult education (Forschungsnetzwerk Erwachsenenbildung; http://www.adulteducation.at/de/forschungsnetzwerk/); another is the set up of an online journal (Magazin Erwachsenenbildung; http://erwachsenenbildung); however, some common operative structures would also be necessary, that could provide a base for a more long term strategic policy development. Some first steps have been set through the initial moves towards the development of a LLL strategy, however, subsequently these seem to be driven much too strongly by – seemingly “pragmatic” – short-term political interests. After the development of the strategy has been postponed from year to year, the recent initiative for the operative set up of the strategy coincides perfectly with the economic and financial crisis. Therefore public spending will be very constrained for years, and in combination with the incremental approach not much additional impact on adult ET can be expected.

The teaching and training profession within the framework of Austrian ET policy

Basic structures

So far, we have looked at the shape of adult ET. To understand the position of teachers and trainers in adult ET, we must also take into account the structures of the overall ET system. Two aspects must be mentioned, first the bureaucratic and politicised structure of the school system, and second the strong role of VET in initial ET.

Bureaucracy and politicisation have main structural consequences for the professionalisation of teachers in two respects, first they operate within tight structures with high freedom for their individual teaching in the classroom without much outside influence and control, second their work is aggressively sheltered by their trade union that does not follow professional but interest policies. The recruitment of teachers is still politically controlled at the regional level, and the trade unions that are related to the political parties in tight and complex ways are exerting very strong influence in all issues at all levels of the system. A genuine professional organisation does not exist. Teacher education is split to different institutions with different interests and strong status competition.

The strong role of VET in initial ET is divided between enterprise based apprenticeship and full-time schools, thus creating a variety of teachers and trainers in this sector. Enterprise training is mainly provided by employees beneath their normal work, and the teachers of occupational subjects are recruited from practice and are frequently working part-time outside school also. The training personnel in apprenticeship that is a group of about similar size as compulsory school teachers is in fact not visible, and because the preparation is part of the examinations to run an
enterprise the primary interest organisation are the employers organisations (chambers of trade and commerce).

Therefore there is a mix of interests in this important area of VET that has lead to a low and even decreasing emphasis on training issues for years. Pedagogy is a rather subsidiary issue in this system, and teacher-trainer ET is not very established in VET except in the business and administration subjects where separate university programmes (Wirtschaftspädagogik) have been established. The strong initial VET system is also related to a comparatively medium level adult ET participation, in particular enterprises engaged in apprenticeship rather seem to provide below average incentives for continuing ET participation (Lassnigg et al. 2007). In the policy discourse the high adult ET participation in some countries is frequently presented as a compensation of weak initial VET.

Concerning the whole teaching and training personnel in Austria, we can observe a kind of segmented labour market, with the teachers in school education working in a strongly sheltered internal market, with high security and payment and much discretion about their working time on the one hand, and the personnel in adult education working in a classical secondary labour market, with low wages and high insecurity on average, and several different segments with very different conditions among them (ranging between corporate or business related trainers on the one extreme and trainers in social services working with disadvantaged groups working in precarious conditions on the other; the range of hourly remuneration is reported between EUR 10 at the minimum and EUR 80 to 100 at the maximum, with the median EUR 24).

Even if we know the basic structures, we do not know much about the more specific empirical distributions and conditions within this structure. There are quite vague estimates about the overall numbers of persons working in the field of adult ET, and their job profiles and working conditions.

A study some years ago (Zilian et al. 1999) has shown, that many trainers in the field of labour market training often have not known for the next month (sometimes even the next week), whether they will train the unemployed or be unemployed by themselves – so they often have switched between the two positions. If we look at the position of teachers and trainers in this system, we can observe that they do not exist as a separate interest group, and they even do not exist in terms of visibility. There are no valid and comprehensive figures available about how many teachers and trainers are working in Austrian adult education. If we try to put together the sparse and scattered data and information, we get – besides many open questions in the data – a picture of two main groups: a first group of persons who get some additional income from secondary employment in this field, but are working in other areas (e.g. schools, enterprises), and a second group that earns the living in this area and works under more or less severe precarious conditions. Of course both forms of employment pose a weak position for professionalisation: The first group does not have sparse time and is thus not interested in this, the second group does not have the incentives, time and resources to invest in professionalisation. And the contradictory environment does not give room for a policy development towards professionalisation – thus a main factor of a good adult education system does not really get support in the system.

A new initiative has been built during recent years by group of providers at a federal competence centre in adult education, called “Weiterbildungsakademie”. This academy provides qualifications for teachers and trainers in adult education, based on a
mixture of accreditation of prior learning and provision of the missing competences. This approach seems a rather individualised one, as the employees in adult ET have to apply and to pay for recognition and qualification themselves (maybe supported by their employers).

If we take into account the specific structure of employment that is matched to the WBA, some major impediments must be mentioned. First, only a minority of the personnel in adult ET are employed as a regular occupation, most of the employees (in particular the teachers-trainers) perform their activities as a secondary occupation beside another regular occupation. Due to an available (incomplete) providers’ statistic of a main sector of adult ET about 5.000 persons out of about 90.000 are employed as their regular occupation in this area, the others are working in their secondary occupation beneath another main job (about 60.000) or on a voluntary, unsalaried basis (about 25.000); the about 55.000 teachers and trainers are mainly working in a secondary occupation. However, working in a secondary occupation from the point of view of the providers’ statistic might mean that the ”secondary occupation” is in fact with another provider (so there are many people working in different forms of flexible – and sometimes precarious – employment for different providers; unfortunately we do not know anything about the exact numbers). The people working in their regular occupation in adult ET are mainly managers, programme developers, etc. The WBA is providing qualification in four areas: teachers/trainer; managers; counsellors, librarians – following from the structure of employment we can expect that the providers will rather support their regular employees than the trainers in a secondary employment, who are supposed to present their qualifications in the often fierce competition for training posts. The costs for the full diploma are about EUR 1.100-1.350 only for the certification process; if additional courses are necessary the additional costs have to be paid for (the proposal of 1000 certifications in the LLL-strategy means a flow of about EUR 1.2 Mio. for the WBA). If we reasonably expect that rather people who already can demonstrate their competencies, the impact for competence development will be not very strong – on the other hand, if the providers set the WBA-qualifications as standards for recruitment, they can force the flexible and precarious applicants to take the qualifications on their own costs. We have to mention, that the WBA is seen as the European pioneering model of professionalization of adult ET.

Despite the problems related to it, the WBA clearly seems to be a step forward to provide some competence standards for professionalisation in adult ET. There are also objections from other players against giving this institution a kind of monopoly position for professionalisation in adult ET. And the question remains whether professionalisation will be possible without an improvement of the working conditions in the field, and the development of a more sustainable infrastructure in adult education that might be a basis for the working of the market.

*How are the basic traits and contradictions in Austrian ET related to professionalisation?*

Main aspects of professionalisation are first how the criteria and standards for work content and assessment are established and second how the status and organisation of the occupation is constructed. There is a long and contradictory debate about professions and professionalisation in the social sciences that shall not be discussed or reproduced here. Only two main points related to the two aspects mentioned shall be
raised. The first concerns the issues of ethics and self-organisation, the second status and pay.

The recently upcoming discussions of evidence-based policy (EBPP) and can be seen implicitly as a new form of how professionalisation has come to the fore. EBPP is relating research and development (R&D), policy, and practice in a systematic way to each other that might be stylised by figure 4. The triangle shows three relations, R&D and policy, R&D and practice, and policy and practice. We see that evidence-based policy is not the same as evidence-based practice. Policy provides a framework for practice, and tries to influence practice, and thus posed different questions and problems than ET practice at the level of direct provision of services and teaching-learning processes. The third relation between policy and practice can be seen as the key one, as its shape is influencing the other two. Its shape is given by the governance system, of which different forms have been distinguished (Glatter 2002): the bureaucracy and the market as main alternative forms, and institutional and local forms of autonomy.

If we relate the governance forms to the structure of EBPP, we can expect certain patterns:
- in the bureaucracy policy controls the flow of evidence, and evidence-based practice is materialised in the rules and structures of the system;
- in the market, the providers are free to act within the framework, and incremental adaptation to the signals of the market will rule practice rather than evidence (that has been bought by the actors);
- in the types of autonomous systems policy has delegated discretion to the practice level and there is room open for evidence-based practice.

The latter form of governance thus gives room for the content aspect of professionalisation (we can see it as a necessary, but not sufficient condition).

The second aspect of professionalisation, the positive relation to status and pay, raises questions of affordability. These are reflected in adult ET by the huge differences in pay between more professionalized sectors and the precarious sectors, with people trying to move from the latter to the former. The fact that the classic profession still have a rather privileged position in Austria does not support the raise of a new profession from the perspective of customers. Here the objections of some part of the employer related providers and interest organisations might be situated.

Now, if we return to the basic traits of the Austrian system, we can see a weak basis for professionalisation in the bureaucratic initial ET system. More difficult is the assessment of adult ET, where the governance system is a mixture of the market and uncoordinated institutional autonomy. The scope for professionalisation is structurally present, however, here the mentioned contradictions come into play:
- the market rhetoric diverts the institutions from professionalisation
- the non-educational mission of the PES turns professionalisation down
- the lack of coordination does not provide framework conditions for professionalisation
- the same is with the policy emphasis on the market.

Overall, the structural conditions do not support professional development in Austrian initial or adult ET. Incremental steps have been taken with the establishment of the WBA, however, whether this approach alone can give a strong impetus towards professional development can be questioned. Key issues and questions in this development are:
- When the criteria and conditions posed by the Public Employment Service are structuring the market to a high degree – are they reasonable? So far they are strongly based on formal ET, and experience is rated low. A link to the standards of the WBA could improve this.
- How can the wages and working conditions be improved in the system, so that the players can afford this? Here two issues seem most important: the first is the relation between the tradition of working in adult ET as a secondary employment, leading to lower pay and a lack of institutional base; the second is how the increasing proportion of working in adult ET as a regular full-time employment can be organised as a basis of professionalisation. If the latter takes place mainly in the area of LMP, working te a high degree with disadvantaged persons, this works against professionalisation. The recent steps taken towards minimum wages and social security by collective agreements are basic steps towards improvement, however, the strategy based on a market solution alone does not work towards professionalisation.
- How can the building of a stronger infrastructure be reasonably financed? An important question concerns assessment of the potentials and efficiency of the existing providers in relation to a demand side oriented policy. If – what we do not know for sure – the majority of existing providers is weak and under sourced, a move towards demand side financing cannot be reasonably expected to bring about improvement; this would rather support
the big (collective) providers. The existing figures and statistics are very inconclusive on these issues, and there seem to be big gaps between the recent EU surveys and other statistical source (e.g. from the PES).54

- How can the dangers of inertia and inflexibility be avoided in a more strongly institutionalised system? A big issue working against institutionalisation of adult ET in the policy community is the expensive, bureaucratic and reform-resistant structure of initial schooling with the strongly institutionalised teachers’ union as a main obstacle to change – there is the fear that stronger institutionalisation of adult ET would lead to similar structures and attitudes.

Summary and conclusion

The paper has related issues of professionalisation in Austrian adult ET to some overall characteristics of the ET system and adult ET policy. The more general question that is raised concerns whether professionalisation does rather reflect the overall structures and practices than being a instrument for reform. In line with Lassnigg (2002), the answer tends to the first alternative. It is shown that, according to the heavily bureaucratic and politicised initial ET system professionalisation is weak or non-existent in this sector whereas trade-unionist interest politics is very strong.

Work in adult ET is traditionally done primarily in forms of secondary employment, with an increasing number of full-time workers arising more recently, and concentrated to some extent in certain sectors, e.g. labour market training. At the policy level a market rhetoric is dominant that cannot be expected to contribute to increased professionalisation.

References


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54 The AES has found about 70,000 unemployed persons in non-formal adult ET with 120 hours in the programme, however, the PES reports between 120.000 and more than 200.000 persons in training measures, the average duration in commissioned courses has been 75 days (if we adjust this to 60, and assume 5 hours per day the average duration would be 300 hours).


5

Agency theory for European Qualifications Framework (EQF).

Introduction

With the recent trends in the global economic recession, the qualities and competence of education are more highly prized than at any other time. In Europe, since the Lisbon Summit in 2000, the European Union (EU) state members have been charged with the task to regain the condition of full employment and to strengthen social cohesion by 2010. Therefore, EU has produced the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) comprising of eight cycles covering all education areas from compulsory school to the tertiary level.

In practice, EQF will contribute to creating a truly European workforce that is mobile, flexible and functioning as a translation device making qualifications more readable for both learners and workers. As we all know, however, most countries have their own National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and EU member states are obliged to embrace and apply different countries’ systems and frameworks together around a common European reference. Likewise, the National Adult Education and Training (NAET) systems are also caught in a crosscurrent between the imperative of international competition and the necessity for cross-border cooperation.

Under the circumstances that countries in Europe have been trying to re-devise and to establish their NQF within the context of EQF, it is doubtful if the EQF can provide the overall framework within which the standards are developed and adopted at the level of NAET systems.

In this respect, EQF and NQF show the disparities among trans-national, national, local and institutional systems while conjuring up the boundary or confrontation between individuality and collectiveness, convergence and divergence, centralization and subsidiarity, and inclusion and exclusion within the new context of the globalization and internationalization.

The hypothesis is that, despite the fact that the subsidiarization of social policies is a converging reality in the European context, which wants to transcend the boundaries and imbalances of the educations systems, the impact of the process varies according to the specificities of the respective regulatory frames at the trans-national, national, and local and institutional levels. Hence, the effect is that policy ideas are diffused while different actors from different levels try to affect policy and in this process the problem of denationalization and regionalization will be strengthened but this will reduce national identities.

This paper focuses on the “agency theory” of EQF and tries to identify network concepts, which highlight the complexity of the policy process by focusing on the relationships of exchange among multi-leveled actors. With a view to understanding different politics of knowledge, the power relations within and around social partnerships among multi-leveled actors should also be scrutinized and analyzed so as to arrive at a social and political cohesion under the influence of neo-liberal governance.

Furthermore, whether the EQF, which puts the emphasis on centralization, convergence, and learning outcomes as a key under different cultures, will produce quality outcomes or not remains a plausible question. My argument will be that the EQF risks highly weakening the diversity and autonomy of educational providers at the
institutional level even though it offers opportunity to reform their quality assurance system during the implementation process. This paper will help state policy makers and educational administrators in making more informed decisions when designing and implementing their NQF.

New Modes of Politics under the European Qualifications Framework

The EQF is based on the process of regulatory modes of policy-making. In this respect, it is important to decipher how different policies found in EU state members are formulated and implemented at the EU level, and then to investigate how NAET systems in each country respond to the exogenous pressure between international democracy and power sharing and coordinate their relationships among multi-leveled actors.

Contextualizing the Policy Process of European Qualifications Framework

In this sub-section, the policy formulation and implementation process with respect to the EQF will be briefly discussed in order to derive the “network concept.” In general, the EU policies are processed by the main actors, the European Commission (EC), the European Parliament (EP), and the Council of EU through the main decision making procedures: co-decision, consultation, conciliation and assent.

In the field of life long learning, the EC organized a public consultation on a draft proposal for EQF in 2005 and its proposal was adopted by the recommendation of the EP and the Council on 23 April 2008 (EU, 2008). The effect is that the EU state members are
invited to refer their national qualifications levels to the EQF by 2010 and to introduce references to EQF in certificates and diplomas by 2012.

However, the EU policy with respect to EQF is not such an easy concept to consolidate when linking it to national and sectoral qualifications frameworks and to related social and cultural conventions. The policy process has put the EQF on top on the European Adult Education and Training development agenda and marginalized former priorities supporting the renewal of NAET concepts with the help of transnational cooperation and mutual learning (Kämäräinen, 2006). The following figure represents problems clearly raised by the policy process through a series of agenda setting, decision-making, implementation and evaluation (Enders et al. 2003, p. 15).

![Figure 2: The Policy Process](image)

The important thing when establishing the EU policy is to choose an issue, which can induce public interest, and to initiate and to draft a legislative proposal as a formal agenda from the EC. The EU policy is not selected as an agenda without being first issued publicly. If the agenda setting as a second step does not proceed in a rational way, it might distort all decision-making process in the Council of EU. In order to make a correct decision-making, it is desirable for the all related actors to be involved. However, this rarely happens in the EU decision-making process with respect to the EQF.

Likewise, a number of problems can present themselves with given educational policy. However, all problems at every stage are not considered in a same way. Even if the issues are selected during an agenda-setting phase, we can expect that there will be problems involved. Firstly, even if the policy is proposed, it might never become a legitimate discussion issue. Secondly, even if the policy is approved, it may not be
implemented properly. During the implementation phase, the problem may be terminated or the original intention may be lost. Plus, even if the policy implemented properly, the intended outcome may not be produced. Even if the intended outcome is produced, it can become useless in solving the problem. And lastly two other problems: if the policy is wrong, it will be recycled and if it is successful, it might be terminated.

The Vertical Dimension: Top-Down or Bottom-Up

The framework the top-down and bottom-up approach developed by Cerych and Sabatier can be explained well when analyzing the complex world of policy setting with respect to EQF. In principle, top-down approach is most appropriate where marginal change is required and the consensus goal is high. The top-down approach aims to steer the system by the public authorities and the bottom-up approach wants to promote self-organized dynamics. Top-downers prescribe a policy theory and fixers to push the policy through (Gornitzka et al. 2005, pp. 19-24).

There are a number of negative points about the top-down approach. One can consider some here. The top-down approach, as we shall see in the following quote, is an inappropriate way of implementing real life policy changes.

“First of all, top-downers tend to focus on central objectives and their tendency is to neglect initiatives coming from local implementing officials, i.e. those from other policy sub-systems and also those from the private sector. This makes a top-down approach risky at best. Secondly, the top-down model is difficult to use in situations where there is no dominant policy or agency and where there is a multitude of governmental directives and actors. Thirdly, top-down model is likely to underestimate the strategies used by street-level bureaucrats and target groups to divert central policy to their own purpose (Gornitzka et al. 2005, p. 43).”

This is the why the bottom-up model is used to countercurrent the fundamental flaws in the top-down model. In contrast to the top-down approach, bottom-uppers start by mapping the network of actors at the bottom of implementation chain, asking them how actors go about solving societal problems in different areas and what role government measures play in the process (Gornitzka et al. 2005, p. 44). In other words, they use local knowledge and they measure outcomes against local objectives. We can draw a useful parallel to the discussion on legitimacy in EQF relationship with the international government and other stakeholders with the ‘Balanced Advocacy Approach’.

The Alternative Model of Balanced Advocacy Approach

The ‘Balanced Advocacy Approach (BAA)’ is to seek a balance of power among differentials by strengthening weaker actors in the interest of social cohesion and system integration. Therefore, the ‘Advocacy of Coalition Framework (ACF)’ is designed to deal with the EQF policy issues such as conflicts produced by a large number of actors from multiple levels of inter-governments.

Actors can be aggregated into a number of advocacy coalitions – each composed of politicians, agency officials, interest group leaders and intellectuals who set normative and causal beliefs on core policy issues. Each coalition adopts a strategy envisaging one or more changes in governmental institutions. Conflicting strategies from different coalitions should be mediated by third group of actors, called “buffer organization,” whose principle concern is to find some reasonable compromise, which will reduce intense conflict (Gornitzka et al. 2005, p. 28). The BAA can be a desirable framework to
the democratic and stable countries that are able to focus on belief, resources and interdependencies.

The Horizontal Dimension Network Approach

The top-down and bottom-up perspectives are rooted in the hierarchical model limiting the dynamics of policy making and policy shaping. Therefore, horizontal dynamics and policy networks are added to the vertical ones, which traditionally emphasize the discourse of academics (Enders et al. 2003, p. 13). What is special about the network concept is that it highlights the complexity of the policy process by focusing on the relationships of exchange between multiple actors. In such networks, EU, work organizations, professionals and other actors interactively create and implement policy around a particular issue.

Top-down Approach

Network Approach

Bottom-up Approach

Figure 3
The Vertical & Horizontal Dimension versus the Network Approach

The figure above, from the glo-na-local agency heuristic, incorporated with three constituent terms of global, national, and local actors, we have in it the possibility of seeing the globalization not as a linear flow from the global to the local, but to see to what extent a spiral flow of intersecting, interacting, and mutual determining forces affect all three different levels and organizational agencies and the agency of collectiveness domains (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002, p.289).

But the stages and levels of policy-making can be blurred. This allows for different constellations of interests and convictions to organize around different rules (Kogan, 2000, p. 63). One danger however: in the networks it can limit the participation in the
policy process under a pretext of bringing stability by establishing ‘the rules of the game’ (Enders et al. 2003, p. 13; Gornitzka et al. 2005, pp. 57-64).

**Reconfiguring the Governing & Governance Models of European Qualifications Framework**

In this section, the different roles of the inter-government agencies, the government, the market, the labor market organizations, and the academic providers will be discussed in order to find out how the EQF weakens the diversity and autonomy of educational providers at the institutional level.

**The New Mode of Governance in the Context of European Qualifications Framework**

The emergence of EQF under the context of globalization and internationalization gives rise to the reconfiguration of the governing and governance models of AET. Furthermore, the economic crisis in recent years has forced the governments to adapt their governance and to put economic considerations at the forefront. The following figure proposes a simple but very influential model of coordinating the AET. The basic concept is taken and adjusted from the model of Burton. R Clark and Joseph C. Burke (Clark, 1983, p. 143; Burke, 2005, p 23). It represents different forces operating in AET: the state, the work organization, the market and the AET institution; and, in particular, the growth of influence from the global market with an initiative of Transnational Qualifications Framework (TQF) and EQF.

![Figure 4](image-url)

At the same time, the changing relationship between “governing and governance” is to be understood within the regulation framework of the global, national, local, and
institutional levels under the influence of neo-liberalism. As earlier mentioned, despite the fact that the subsidiarization of social policies is a converging reality in the European context, which wants to transcend the boundaries and imbalances of the educations systems; the impact of the process varies according to the specificities of the respective regulatory frames at the trans-national, national, and local and institutional levels. Like the concept of network, the policy ideas are diffused while different actors from different levels try to affect policy, and in this process the problem of denationalization and regionalization is strengthened but this reduces national identities. In this respect, the 'new governance paradigm' can be summarized as the following five concepts: (1) from agency program to governance tool, focusing on governance techniques rather than on programs; (2) from hierarchies to networks, as actors play their roles in interdependent positions; (3) from public versus private to public and private, as what is meant by 'public' currently changing; (4) from command and control to negotiation and persuasion; and lastly (5) from management skills to enablement skills (Magalhães, M. and Amaral, A.2008, p. 10).

In particular, the accountability of quality assurance with respect to EQF moves up to EU levels, other accountability regarding funding moves down to the institutional level, and the accountability of evaluation and accreditation moves out to external agencies or private bodies. Hence, we can conclude that a hierarchy is replaced by a heterarchy consisting of interacting and overlapping layers of governance by the state, the market, other external agencies and stakeholders, and supranational actors (Kehm et al. 2008; Ball 2009). This affects the autonomy of AET providers. In this circumstance, each actor from different levels tries to pursue and maximize its individual utility and it is very important to define their role in order to develop their partnership. This will be discussed later in the sub-section 3.3.

**The Competence of Adult Education & Training Institutions**

As the conflicts among multi-leveled actors under the context of EQF and NQF grow in the reform process, no issues are more critical than social partnerships between AET providers and their stakeholders. Though it is acknowledged that both autonomy and accountability of AET providers are desirable on the basis of the outcomes of relationship between AET providers and their stakeholders, it is important to discern what level of accountability and autonomy of AET providers is not only desirable, but attainable to the effect that positive outcomes of relationship between AET providers and their stakeholders can be maximized and negative outcomes kept to a minimum.

The following figure depicts the relationship between autonomy and accountability of AET providers along a trade-off line stretching from a combination of a high level of AET providers’ autonomy and a low level of AET providers’ accountability to a combination of a low level of AET providers’ autonomy and a high level of AET providers’ accountability.
In general, the EQF is implemented in the AET sectors with a belief that they can promote the competence of AET systems. However, AET providers might lose their ability to be flexible and responsive to their environmental societies and their diversities might be weakened. In the above figure 5, the EQF locates on a position somewhere close to point A on the trade-off line, while the AET providers are inclined to move more on the direction of point B. In this case, the tension can be resolved in a sort of compromise between the stakeholders and the AET providers for less accountability and less autonomy. The resulting trade-off is that both sides move toward point C. However, the neither is satisfied with the option of political and social compromise. A central challenge present in the governance on the AET system comes down to finding a fourth alternative to this dilemma that allows AET providers to simultaneously maximize both autonomy and accountability dimensions. Point D is the combining point which maximizes the balance between control and autonomy while at the same time maintaining a high level of accountability, ensuring the learning outcome, especially in contributing to the EQF objectives. In order to reach point D, the national government uses the external quality assurance agencies or buffer bodies while meeting the different demands and training provisions of other countries.

This framework with regards to the relationship of autonomy and accountability of AET providers is comparable to the positive concept of agency theory for developing the social partnerships to discuss for the next sub-section.

**Developing Social Partnerships**

As we discussed earlier, the implementation of the EQF is based on the principle of voluntary adoption by the member states and sectors, but it could be seen as a Janus figure that is looking as if it is independent and it is related all at once. The national government has the freedom to refuse to involve a structured form of EQF, but any individual, educational institution or national education system cannot operate as if it is isolated from the outside world.
Hence, in order to increase the social partnerships under the context of EQF, it is expected to develop at first methodological tools and rules which can be applied to national, regional, institutional, and to a extend to disciplinary levels. This is related to setting concrete policies to the development of the NQF in each country and then the use of the EQF at the national level.

Within this conflicting context, the best practical guidelines on quality assurance and enhancement should be shared, discussed and disseminated through a dialogue between sectors and stakeholders. This will bring a harmonious environment that will be beneficial to AET institutions and learners with the development of EQF and NQF. The following figure is taken from the implementation project form the “National Agency for Qualifications in Higher Education and Partnership with the Economic and Social Environment (ACPART)” in Romania and explains the actors’ role when defining qualifications.

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6**

*Actors’ role in defining qualifications*

**Conclusions**

In this paper the EQF is characterized as a process of centralization under the different cultures within the context of globalization, and there still remains different demands and training provisions among multi-leveled actors such as AET providers, labor market, the international, national and regional government, and local communities. Hence, in the process of developing social partnerships, the multi-level governance provides a stronger horizontal dimension to the increasingly established vertical interactions.*
The greater the disparities between the EQF and the NQF, the greater the degree of adaptational pressure in the NQF, the greater the likelihood of domestic reform. In this reform process, the national government finds new tools and instruments to ensure that it remains more than 'first among equals.' In these circumstances, the sub-national actors become increasingly involved in the reform process of NQF and the buffer organization responsible for the national quality assurance and assessment system try to coordinate the increased number of different actors.

It is evident that the multi-level governance in the context of EQF implies accountability with respect to the quality assurance by transferring to both the EU (upward), AET providers (downward) and external quality assurance agencies (outward). In this dimension, the world of AET policies and changes in strategy is becoming more global and more local at the same time and the national government might be undermined by coordinated action from above and below. From all the considerations, it can be concluded that the converging of policies are mainly defined at the supranational and national levels, while diverging and active policies are defined increasingly at the local level.

References


Recognition, validation and certification of non-formal learning – New roles and skills for the Adult Educators.

Introduction

The research behind this paper is part of a Doctorate project in Education Sciences – Adult Education, the goal of which is to understand the ideas behind the training available for adults who have a low level of schooling and what the adults think of these training opportunities. This text is restricted solely to the field of the aforementioned study, the process of recognition, validation and certification of competences and is based on a set of empirical data collected in three Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres (RVCCC), which began operating in Portugal in 2001. The empirical data consisted of semi-directive interviews given to the teams of the three Centres (a total of eight interviews with RVC professionals, seven interviews with RVC trainers and three interviews with coordinators) and some certified adults (fourteen interviews to adults).

Through recognition of competences these Centres allow academic certification to be awarded to individuals over 18 years old who did not complete the 9th year of schooling. The certificates awarded are entitled B1 (4th school year), B2 (6th school year) and B3 (9th school year), and B4 (12th school year). The decision regarding which school level to award depends essentially on two factors: the level of schooling that the adult possesses when starting at the Centre, and the competences he/she manages to show during the various phases of the process. The Centres aim to recognise, validate and certify the competences of adults who have a low level of schooling, which they have acquired throughout their lives in different contexts (family, social life, work and school/work training).

The forming of the problem and the reflection carried out in the paper are guided by the following issues: What professional activities arise out of the work carried out in the process of recognition, validation and certification of competences? What professional activities are radically changed in the context of the process of recognition, validation and certification of competences? What impact does the process of recognition and validation of competences of adults with a low level of schooling have on the functions and attitudes of the adult educators?

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1 The RVCC of ESDIME, in Ferreira do Alentejo; the RVCCC of the Fundação Alentejo, in Évora and the RVCCC of the Portalegre Professional Training Centre, in Portalegre.

56 The certificate attributed to the adults is issued by the Ministry of Education and for all due purposes is equivalent to that obtained in the normal educational system.
Assumptions inherent to the process of recognition and validation of competences

The process of recognition, validation and certification of competences is based on the assumption that there is continuity between learning and experience, and that learning processes are independent from the accumulation of experiences, therefore making it pertinent to recognise and validate the learning acquired by adults with a low level of schooling throughout their lives, giving this knowledge visibility through certification. It is acknowledged that learning results from the need to respond to the challenges and unforeseen events that life throws up, as “a non-transferable right that each person has to survive” (Gronemeyer, 1989, p. 81), and as such learning takes place throughout life and in several contexts, in informal, non-formal and formal ways.

The adults that subject themselves to recognition, validation and certification of competences are viewed as individuals who have a unique life experience, which is their main resource in undertaking the process. A “positive reading” is taken, whereby the intention is to identify and value what the person has learned throughout life. In this process education is understood as a continuous process in time and space and a “production of the self, by the self”, in which the individual “uses him/herself as a resource” (Charlot, 1997, cit. in Canário, 2000, p. 133).

In these Centers, the teams recognise the centrality of the subject in the learning process, and carry out their task from the “perspective of production of knowledge that is situated at the diamic opposite of the cumulative, molecular and transmissive conception of traditional schooling” Canário (2000, p. 133). These assumptions have profound implications on the organisation of the device, methodologies, tools and functions and the attitude of the actors involved.

The process of recognition, validation and certification of competences is an extremely delicate field and requires permanent vigilance by the Centre’s teams. Taking into account the complexity of the process of recognition, it is essential that suitable methodologies and tools are used, such as support and monitoring of the adult by professionals fully aware of these challenges. The work carried out in the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres has given rise to a new professional activity – the RVC professional – and the trainers’ activity has changed profoundly, both in terms of functions carried out and with regard to attitude. Reflection on the functions and competences of the teams in charge of this process is very important to strengthen the functioning philosophy of the Centre and to avoid the perversion of its specificities.

The emergence of a new professional activity – The RVC professional

The RVC professional is a new professional activity, which has emerged as a result of the work carried out in the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres. These professionals have an extremely important role in all the phases of the process and perform a wide-ranging set of functions, as can be gleaned from the above information. Nevertheless, one can consider their main function as the recognition of competences of adults with a low level of schooling. In carrying out their work, the RVC professionals’ chief goals are to delve into the life paths of each adult to gather data that will allow them to ascertain to what extent the adult possesses the benchmark competences, and to motivate and involve the adult in the process of reflection, self-analysis, self-recognition and self-assessment. In addition to the recognition, these
professionals also validate some competences and design the mediation and registration forms. The mediation forms are essential tools to guarantee an effective process of recognition and to guarantee the motivation and commitment of the adults. Hence reworking and designing new forms is an extremely important task.

Validation of competences is also one of the functions that the RVC professional carries out, emitting an opinion on the competences that the adult showed during the process to the RVC trainer. Welcoming and registering the adult into the process and publicising the Centre are other functions also carried out by the RVC professionals. In one of the Centre the welcoming and registration of the adults is a job exclusively carried out by the RVC professional. At the Centre in question, this is a moment of collection of information about the adults, which allows them to be channelled to other training opportunities when it is judged that the adult’s profile is not suitable for the recognition, validation and certification of competences process.

The RVC professional establishes a very close relation with the adults during the process, because on the one hand the filling in of the mediation forms occupies most of the sessions of the recognition, validation and certification of competences process, and on the other hand the topic tackled in the recognition sessions is essentially the life experience of the adults. The RVC professionals stimulate the remembrance of life experiences and dialogue, explain the activities of each function/task, in writing, and encourage debate, cooperation and the interpersonal relations among the group members. When carrying out their work the RVC professionals perform several roles, such as animator, educator, and monitor, depending on the situations and what is requested by the adult. They adopt the role of an animator when they supervise the recognition sessions which are carried out in small groups in a dynamic manner, encouraging discussion and joint reflection and reinforcing situations of mutual help that arise naturally among the adults. They adopt the role of an educator when explaining the process, giving information about the organisation of the dossier and filling in the mediation forms and when clarifying the adults’ doubts during the process. They adopt the role of the monitor when during the recognition they listen to the narration of the adult’s life path, and motivate the adult to reflect on the past, present and future outlook and help him/her to become aware of the competences he/she possesses or can learn. This final role is the most important of the RVC professional’s activity, and is the role that best fits into the presuppositions of the process itself. In accepting the role of a monitor, the RVC professional becomes “a facilitator, an aid ... an emancipator” (Lhotellier, 2003, p. 196).

The RVC professional guarantees personalised monitoring and becomes an ally of the adult. The main topic of conversation, reflection and debate is the life path, interests and motivations of the adult. Monitoring by the professional is essential in the entire recognition phase. It is this personalised supportive relationship that allows the adult to be guided in the right direction, as well as to motivate him, increase his commitment, encourage self-recognition and self-esteem. In the opinion of Guy Le Bouëdec (2001a, p. 24) “monitoring is journeying with somebody, alongside him/her, journeying in company”. The RVC professional travels a road with the adult while the adult speaks and writes about his/her life; during this journey to organise the personal dossier, the adult is the “main actor”, the RVC professional supports and helps but does not put himself in the place of the adult or at the centre of the action, “not directing the events” (Le Bouëdec, 2001a, p. 24).

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During the monitoring in the recognition, validation and certification of competences process the professional takes on different stances, as referred to by the examples presented by Robert Stahl (2001, p. 104). Most of the time he/she is a listener, helping the adults to build the narration of their life path, asking questions, and guiding their reflection; sometimes the professional adopts a register of analysis, which is especially noticeable when he/she diagnoses the adults’ competences based on the narration and the benchmarks; and also a register of influence may be adopted, when the adults are shown the analysis that the professional carried out, which is essential to make the adults aware of the competences they possess or can learn. The RVC professionals, when exercising influence, usually do so as a strategy to enrich the adults to transmit confidence in their abilities and to encourage the adults’ self-recognition, which is very important for adults who undertake the recognition, validation and certification of competences process. These adults in most cases feel stigmatised by their low level of schooling, ignoring and devaluing their experience, knowledge and competences. When adults recognise their own abilities, they understand that they have resources to influence their present and future.

The adoption of the different registers during the monitoring depends on the adult in question, the dynamics that were generated during the sessions and the professional’s competences. In any event, the RVC professional should be careful to make sure the correct attitude is permanently adopted both by himself/herself and the teams, because “the monitoring is not neutral” (Le Bouédec, p. 104). The RVC professional, when adopting a monitoring stance, should show an enriching, positive and pleasant attitude towards the adults. As mentioned by Hennezel and Montigny (cit. in Le Bouédec, 2001b, p. 49) “among the basic qualities of good monitoring, I insist on humility, authenticity, spontaneity, generosity, an open spirit, respect for difference, pleasantness and capacity to bear silences.”

The relationship in a monitoring situation is unknown for the adults and built by the professional based on his/her work experience. In the discourse of the RVC professionals it is obvious that they learn “through the practice, by making constant adjustments” (Le Bouédec, pp. 16), but they also extol the value of ongoing training, considering it essential for their professional evolution. The RVC professionals can be considered “facilitators” in the sense attributed by Christine Josso (2005, p. 119) because they are concerned about knowing where the person wants to go and try to understand the kind of help that can be provided during a short period on this journey. It is important to clarify and define the functions and activities of this new type adult educator, the competences required to exercise the activity and the ethical and deontological rules that should serve as guidelines.

The change of professional activities – The RVC trainer

The trainers integrated into the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres teams carry out a set of functions that give rise to a change in the functional content of the trainer’s activity. As can be gleaned from reading the Table above, the RVC trainers carry out a wide set of different functions. To ensure a suitable performance they have to implement specific competences, which are different from those required when they exercised their functions as teachers or trainers, as learned in their professional training. Taking into account the specificities of the functional content of each Centre, one can outline the main functions of the trainers, in accordance with the
time expended on each function, as follows: validation of the competences of the adult undergoing the recognition, validation and certification of competences process; holding complementary training; interpretation, decoding and suggesting changes to the key benchmark competences; and reworking/redesign of the problem-situations.

In other words, the trainers in the recognition, validation and certification of competences process essentially carry out functions linked to the assessment of competences, distancing themselves from the function traditionally associated with trainers – the imparting of knowledge. This change of the main function usually attributed to the trainers results from the purpose of the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres and contributes towards increasing the already diverse and changeable professional profiles of the trainers as identified by several authors, and which is highlighted in the statement by Véronique Leclercq (2005, p. 110): “the missions of training are constantly redefined, and the boundary lines of the profession are vague and have a variable geometry”.

The main goal of the RVC trainers is to assess the adults’ competences, and to identify and explore as exhaustively as possible the competences gained by the adults throughout their life, comparing them to the benchmark competences. The complementary training comprises very few hours, usually varying between 4 and 12 hours for each key area, and the adults only attend them when some competences are not detected in the recognition phase. The complementary training focuses on the domain of know-how and is geared towards the identification and development of competences. The adult is given problem-situations in which they have to use a range of “resources” to overcome the challenge. The trainer guides the resolution and simultaneously explains some details of an essentially theoretical nature to complete the task. The knowledge imparted is only that which is considered essential for the adult to be able to develop a given competence. In other words, they are understood as tools “to think and act” as stated by Philippe Perrenoud (2000, p. 21) and not as an end in themselves. It is what the aforementioned author labels “living knowledge”. The training is an essential aspect for the development of competences, and given the short period of the training one may ask the question: Is it possible to develop competences through the complementary training given in the RVCC process?

The new functions of the RVC trainers demand the development of other professional knowledge and other competences. Most of the trainers of the RVCC under analysis had training experience in a school context which forced them to rethink and reformulate their methods of intervention. This was obvious in the following statement from one the interviewees: “I had to forget a little what I had learned at school [when I was teaching]”. This ability to “forget” and “unlearn” as mentioned by Christine Josso (2005, p. 124) is vital to carry out processes of change. Nevertheless, knowing “how to forget” implies complex processes at the cognitive and emotional level, which only occur when the actors are committed and motivated to face up to the new challenges. Changes have taken place in the activity of the RVC trainer in terms of the functions and also the attitudes.

One of the presuppositions inherent to the work of the RVC trainers is inspired on the humanist theory advocated by Rogers, who believes that “all men have the resources to develop; the role of the educator is to listen in a pleasant manner, help to clarify through reformulation, and do this in a climate of unconditional acceptance” (cit. in Le Bouëdec, p. 14). This presupposition is crucial in the process of recognition and validation of
competences, because the trainer does not have the main goal of transmitting content to adults, but rather to identify and extol the competences that they show, helping them to progress based on their experience and resources. As can be seen, the presupposition mentioned above has implications on the role of the trainer who “becomes the facilitator, aiding the learning, organising complex situations, inventing problems and challenges, proposing enigmas or projects” (Perrenoud, p. 37). In carrying out their work, the RVC trainers value the experience of the adults; view theory/practice in a dialectic relation; encourage dialogue, reflection and debate of subjects related to the adults’ lives and motivate them to intervene; and establish a learning relationship with the adults, where both parties teach and learn, which also fits into the perspective of problematized education advocated by Paulo Freire (1972).

The trainers face certain challenges caused by the complexity of their main function, which is to assess competences based on the life path of the adults. Therefore, it is essential to undertake permanent reflection, both individually and in a team, with regard to the techniques and tools used to ascertain and assess competences and on the pertinence and suitability of the key benchmark competences. The assessment tools must make sense for the adults, encourage their commitment and self-assessment and allow the gauging and assessment of competences.

The benchmark competences are the main working tool of the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres teams, and both the trainers and the RVC professionals believe that some of the competences listed are based on disciplinary knowledge which are not recognised for social use. Reflection on the fragilities of the benchmark competences and identification of proposals to improve this working tool, presented to the authorities, is vital to improve the RVCC process. The trainer’s attitude is another aspect that should be the object of constant analysis and reflection, given that his/her main function – assessment – raises ethical and deontological questions, which is even more pressing in the case of Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres, where the assessment is grounded on the life experiences of each adult and intends to be formative and encouraging.

Conclusion

The assumptions that act as guidelines for the work carried out in the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres are based on valuing the experience and abilities of the individual, considering him/her the main actor in the formative process. The assumptions and nature of the facets inherent to the recognition, validation and certification of competences process entail a set of implications affecting the model of organisation and functioning of the Centres under study; as well as on the functions and attitudes of the professionals that work in them. The teams that work in the Centres have an essential role to play in managing the complexity, challenges and tensions that arise during the process of recognition and validation of competences.

Taking into account the character and dynamics of recognition, validation and certification of competences brought into play by the actors on the ground, one can view the Centres as small structures that work as a project team, with a mission to fulfil, and where all the professionals involved have a contribution to make to increase the quality and efficacy of the device. The validation of competences, the reworking of the RVCC device, the designing of forms and the disclosure of the service are functional areas carried out by teams in the three Centres under analysis. The teamwork leads to similarity
among the functions carried out by the RVC professionals and trainers, and there is close articulation and intertwining of the various team members, where information is shared in an atmosphere of constant mutual support. The actors recognise the importance of teamwork and consider it indispensable taking into account the mission of the Centres, which is to recognise and validate competences through an approach focused on experience.

These adult educators (RVC trainers and RVC professionals) showed a good degree of consistent reflection concerning the work they carry out, which enables them to acquire a critical understanding of the way they exercise their profession. This is extremely positive for the Centres and for their professional evolution. The ability of the team members of the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres to undertake critical reflection is extremely important for several reasons: the Centres are a very recent initiative and need to consolidate their methodologies and working tools; they function based on a perspective of valuing the competences of individuals that are diametrically opposite to competences acquired in the school model, and therefore a critical attitude is important to avoid the perversion of the perspective implemented in this process. In addition to the knowledge they should possess, the attitude adopted is an extremely important aspect in performing the professional activities, both for the RVC professionals and trainers. In carrying out their functions these actors face a set of issues linked to ethics and professional deontology and which should be the object of individual and collective discussion and reflection. The Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences Centres under analysis are undergoing a phase where they need their organisational culture to be consolidated, confirming the usefulness and validity of their action, so as to achieve visibility, enrichment and social recognition.

References


Self-directed learning as a learning strategy for adult educators.

Introduction

Self-directed learning constitutes a natural part of life and is life-long, given that people continue to learn throughout their life. Self-directed learning is one of the major topics of study and research in the field of adult education over the past three decades. Self-Directed Learning is defined by most scholars as the process by which individuals gain control of their own learning, by setting their own learning goals, locating sources for learning, selecting the educational methods and techniques that suit them best, and finally, evaluating their personal learning achievements and overall progress (Knowles, 1975, Tough, 1979, and others). Adopting these steps when organising learning activities identifies this sequence as a learning strategy for learners and adult educators.

Self-directed learning is now considered to be one of the most appropriate learning strategies within the framework of Lifelong Learning, as it implies that individuals gain the mindset of learning constantly, their goal being their own personal progress, but also the advancement of the society in which they live and work. For adult educators, who play such an important role in adult education, self-directed learning is a particularly valuable skill, which contributes to the quality of adult education in general. Within this framework, the purpose of this presentation is to highlight the use of self-directed learning as one of the most important learning strategies for adult educators, especially when it occurs in self-directed learning groups, where genuine discussion takes place and methods of critical reflection are utilised.

The role of an adult educator and self-directed learning.

Nowadays it is generally accepted that an adult educator does not function as an authority, a solitary source of knowledge in a class or group, transmitting knowledge to passive students, but instead is the individual who seeks out ways of learning, who indicates the methods by which individuals become able to learn by self and from his experiences. The goal is to form individuals who are free and able to adapt to the unforeseen developments that life throws their way.

Contemporary approaches see the adult educator as a supporter, coordinator, counsellor, facilitator and mediator between knowledge and the learner. The educator is a counsellor who counsels learners individually on what learning strategies and methods suit them best. As a facilitator, the teacher assists the learner in learning, acting as learning centre for each group, a source of knowledge rather than an educator in the sense of a teacher (Rogers, 1999). The educator is a peer of the learners, whom he or she recognises as a source of knowledge in the group, promoting the development of initiatives, collaborative work, understanding, awareness and mutual respect (Brookfield, 2006). Any attempt by the educator to respond to what is essentially a complex role in a constantly-changing society, requires ongoing efforts in instruction, self-education and self-knowledge. A European Commission document mentions that “The teaching profession will undergo fundamental changes during the next few decades: teachers will become guides, counsellors, mediators. Their role, which is extremely important, is to assist
and strengthen learners, who, to the extent that they are able, are responsible for their own learning. The ability and courage to develop and implement open and broad-participation methods of teaching and learning will have to become basic professional skills for educators” (European Commission, 2000 quoted in Kokkos 2005: 121).

To this end, i.e. the goal of autonomy for learners in their learning, which requires the autonomy of the educators, we consider that adopting a strategy of self-directed learning is a major step. If we accept Brookfield’s view that the process of becoming a skilful teacher is a process that never takes on a final form, nor does it end, but is, in fact, a true example of lifelong learning (Brookfield, 1995), then gaining the ability to lead and organise one’s learning activities is a very significant step in the present age.

Tough, who is the first contemporary researcher to have carried out various studies in Canada on adult self-directed learning, proved that 70% of the learning plans for adults were designed by themselves. The typical person conducts about eight learning projects in one year. (Tough, 1979:17). Tough formulated a very analytical learning model, that individuals must follow in order to become self-directed their learning. The model includes 13 steps, which represent key decision-making points concerning the choice of what, where and how we learn: These are:

- Deciding what detailed knowledge and skill to learn.
- Deciding the specific activities, methods and sources or equipment for learning.
- Decide where to learn.
- Setting specific deadlines or intermediate targets.
- Deciding when to begin a learning episode.
- Deciding the pace at which to proceed during a learning episode.
- Estimating the current level of his knowledge and skill, or his progress in gaining the desired knowledge and skill.
- Detecting any factor that has been blocking or hindering his learning or discovering inefficient aspects of the current procedures.
- Obtaining the desired resources or equipment, or reaching the desired place or resource.
- Preparing or adapting a room ...for learning, or arranging certain other physical conditions in preparation learning.
- Saving or obtaining the money necessary for the use of specific human or other resources.
- Finding time for learning.

Taking certain steps to increase the motivation for certain learning episodes (Tough, 1979:94-96). Tough’s (19793) research formed the basis for a multitude of studies and research projects concerning the manner in which self-directed learning can be carried out by adults, mainly in a wide range of professionals including pharmacists, nurses, clerics, doctors, students of all levels etc.

Subsequently Knowles, who conceptualised the theory of andragogy, which dominated adult education for decades, formulated a similar model in order to respond to the question of “what kind of skills are required for self-directed learning?” that constituted his proposal for a learning contract, which concerned self-directed learning (Knowles, 1975). The model put forward by Knowles consists of six basic stages:

- Organising the learning climate.
- Diagnosing learning needs.
- Formulating learning goals.
Choosing human and material learning resources.
Selecting and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and
Evaluating learning results (Knowles, 1975).

Knowles placed a lot of emphasis on self-directed learning, and considered that as adults mature they become ever-more self-directed in their learning. *Self-directed learners are better learners: people who take initiate in learning. Learn more things and learn better than do people sit at the feet of teachers passively waiting to be taught* (Knowles, 1975:14). These models offer learners, as well as adult educators, the capacity to study, as well as to adopt self-directed learning as a strategy in their learning. According to this approach, the purpose of adult education is an individual’s personal development, by strengthening adults’ ability to direct their own learning and learning how to learn (Maslow, 1970 and Rogers 1969, 1983). However, the question remains for adult educators, if beyond it being an individual learning strategy, can they teach self-directed learning? Many scholars claim that this can be taught and that good teaching can lead the learners to self-directed learning whose goal is lifelong learning (Grow, 1991).

«Teaching” self-directed learning

For certain educators, encouraging learners to take control of their learning is important and has become a major goal of their teaching. Achieving this goal requires adult educators to adopt the role of facilitator, guide and mentor (Slusarski, 1994). Many models exist which could be utilised for teaching self-directed learning. Some of the best known are: The Personal Responsibility Orientation model by Brocket and Hiemstra (1991). The self-monitoring / motivation model by Garrison (1997). The emancipatory learning model by Hammond and Collins (1991) and others. Due to the restrictions on the size of this paper, we shall limit ourselves to presenting Grow’s model (1991), which is perhaps the best known utilised teaching model. Grow claimed that the purpose of teaching is to create self-directing students, who will continue to learn throughout their lives. In his Model of Staged Self-directed Learning, Grow writes that self-directed learning can be taught and analyses how teachers can assist learners to be self-directed in their learning. In Grow’s model we can distinguish four levels of learners and their educators (Grow, 1991:129). These are:

**Teaching Stage 1 Learners: Coaching:** Learners with a low level of self-direction, who require a teacher to guide them into undertaking responsibility for their learning. At this level, the teacher must be ready to overcome difficulties, as well as possible resistance from learners (Grow, 1991:130).

**Learners of moderate self-direction,** who require motivation, persuasion and enthusiasm from the teacher to gain self-direction. The teacher on this level acts as a motivator and guide, persuading learners to find their own style of learning, inspiring them with the value of self-directed learning, educating them in appropriate skills (Grow, 1991:131-133).

**Learners of Intermediate Self-direction** have both the skill and the basic knowledge for self-directed learning and consider themselves ready and able to participate equally in a seminar, to research a subject etc. The role of the teacher, here, is as a facilitator (Grow, 1991:133-134).

**Learners of High Self-direction,** who are capable of designing and evaluating their own learning (individual research, dissertations etc.). The role of the teacher is advisory. The teacher encourages learners to “learn how to learn”, to evaluate their learning and...
develops a collegial relationship with them, a relationship that is pleasing to both parties. The teacher at this level may even be completely absent (Grow, 1991:134-136).

Grow’s model received a lot of criticism, concerning the role of the teacher in self-directed learning. Most scholars consider it a given that an adult educator who is up-to-date with the principles of the field of adult education, would support his or her learners’ capabilities for self-direction in learning. Within this framework Grow answered his critics by stating that good adult educators individualise their teaching strategies, adapting to the level of self-direction indicated by learners, and supporting them constantly in their effort to be more self-directed (Grow, 1994 in Merriam & Caffarella, 1999:302-305).

The fact, however, that most researchers (Tough, 1967, 1979, Knowles, 1975, et al) who studied self-directed learning saw it as a choice for the learner which occurs without the presence of the educator / teacher, with the result that self-directed learning was insufficiently linked with the role of an adult educator and, in fact, as we shall see herein below, there was a certain reluctance by adult educators to introduce it into their work.

**The resistance by adult educators to use self-directed learning**

There is substantial amount of research which ascertained that many adult educators “resist” introducing the concept of self-directed learning into their work, and even resist any research taking place in their classrooms, whose purpose is to study to what degree their pupils are self-directed in their learning. As Houle wrote in his book *The Inquiring Mind*, 1961, *when some people began to think it might be interesting or significant to deal directly with the learning desires or processes of the individual, the idea was greeted with apathy or scorn, particularly so far as self-directed learning was concerned* (Houle, in Merriam & Caffarella, 1999:288-289). This can be interpreted to mean that only the learning that takes place within official establishments is of importance to adult educators. It is obvious that adult educators are afraid of weakening the work they undertake as educators, if they admit that many adults can learn very effectively without their help (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

Jane Pilling-Cormick mentions a series of reasons for which adult educators are resistant to adopting self-directed learning as a learning strategy, for themselves, as well as a method to be utilised when they teach. Certain of these are misconceptions about the term; but there are also discrepancies between what we believe in theory and what we do in real life. She also mentions a series of myths concerning self-directed learning, which include the one about adult educators being resistant because they feel that the implied change threatens the familiar status-quo and their traditional role is under threat etc. (Pilling – Cormick, 1994: 63-69).

Resistance in adult educators was also connected to the research tools that existed to date, which are considered to be too technocratic when it comes to measuring self-directed learning. One very well-known tool is Guglielmino’s (1997) Self-directed learning Perception /Readiness Scale which, although utilised in a host of studies, was seriously disputed as several scholars claimed that a strictly standardised formalised research tool was utilised to measure aspects of the personality, including stances, values, emotions etc. for which the quality research tools are appropriate (Caffarella, & Caffarella, 1986, et al).
Overcoming resistance to self-directed learning

The fear of adult educators appears to focus on losing their relationship with learners and this is why they are resistant to self-directed learning. However, it is not necessary that self-directed learning take place in isolation. In most instances it takes place within a group framework, with an adult educator or mentor, with others of a similar age or friends and, according to other researchers, this form, of a collaborative group is also the most effective. Nor does the fact that learners are implementing self-directed learning projects mean that they do not need support from their teachers. Brookfield undertook a study and showed that participating adults underlined that they wanted more rather than less support from their teacher in their learning activities. Brookfield himself worked as an innovative adult educator at Malvern College (West Midlands) from 1974 to 1980 and the aim of his work was to attract to various forms of self-directed learning individuals who had distanced themselves from education for a variety of reasons. Within this framework, Brookfield proposed the establishment of a community centre for self-directed learning, which was funded by the local council. The Centre operated two independent services. One was Diagnostic unit (that carried out a diagnostic interview with beginner learners) and one Service that organised and supervised study at home. Over the timeframe of his study his learners took on a host of personal projects with a variety of topics, including e.g. juvenile delinquency, children and divorce, how we watch television etc (Brookfield, 1985b: 75-85). Brookfield claimed that adult educators needed to leave margins for self-direction in groups. And second, it is important that a non-standard adult educator support self-directed learning groups. This helps adult learners make their lives more personally meaningful tell a tale of pleasure and satisfaction. The expressions of genuine appreciation offered by adults for whom my efforts produced some kind of joy in learning more than compensated for the institutional neglect (Brookfield, 1985b:84).

Other investigators also proposed measures to overcome the resistance of adult educators, as well as the obstacles in the way of self-directed learning. Resistance to self-directed learning is oftentimes very real and permeates the experiences of learners, teachers and institutions, according to Hiemstra & Brockett, who also proposed a series of measures to overcome such resistance. Such measures include: Recognising the value of / resources for self-directed learning; instructions for organising and carrying out self-directed learning projects; providing help to learners in developing their skills in the use of new technology; providing assistance to learners who are looking for opportunities and resources / sources for learning; developing study plans etc... in order to create and effectively supervise the learning environment and to teach learners how to be think for themselves (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994). That last sentence is the core of the discussion concerning the essence of self-directed learning within the framework of a line of inquiry claiming that self-directed learning cannot function solely as a learning technique. It can be meaningful only within the framework of critical reflection, where individuals seek to gain independent thought, understanding the capabilities and limitations that the environment places on their learning and attempting to give overall meaning to their life (Brookfield, 1985, 1993, Mezirow, 1985, 1990).

Self-directed learning within the framework of critical reflection

The ultimate goal, the purpose of adult education is to help adults become aware of their capabilities to become more emancipated, socially responsible and independent
learners within their given social framework. Many scholars support the idea that self-directed learning must be fully in line with the tradition of individual emancipation in adult education. Within this framework it is considered that all adult education is self-directed (Granton, 2006), as it is connected with each individual’s independence (Hammond & Collins, 1991 et al).

Critical reflection is the key to emancipation and creating new meaning for adults and finally to self-direction in learning (Brookfield, 1985, 1993; Mezirow, 1985). Although Brookfield never cast doubt on the value of self-directed learning, he considered that the fact that individuals design their own learning activities does not automatically mean they are autonomous or emancipated. Because in the broader social and cultural context, individuals are formed by the values, needs and convictions of the society in which they live. They are affected by the dominant institutions, such as family and school in manners that limit their capacity for self-directed learning. Within the general educational environment curricula are also set, as are teaching methods and evaluation techniques. All these factors naturally limit autonomy in learning. Brookfield set out an example in his critique, the probable instance of a critically reflective adult educator, who would like to carry out a study on: How unknowing practices can be repressive and culturally biased. This is why a more extensive bibliography should be used. However, quite possibly, a lot of the materials required would be too expensive both for the individual to purchase and for the local lending library, where they are sought. This single example shows the limitations of self-directed learning, limitations of access to available information (Brookfield, 1993).

His critique also focused on the fact that in contemporary society self-directed learning concerns mainly individuals from socially advantaged groups, as they have the greater capability to access a variety of learning sources: libraries, the internet, purchasing books etc. Brookfield pointed out that it is not a matter of chance that in the USA, where most studies on self-directed learning were carried out, study samples comprise middle-class individuals, and not people from less valued forms of employment or immigrants etc. On the contrary many studies were carried out and extensive efforts were made to utilise this idea by large corporations and organisations, whose goals also include reducing costs for education of their employees (Brookfield, 1985 & 1993).

Brookfield considers that in today’s society absolute self-direction is impossible. As a concept it contains intensely political elements, which can be utilised by dominant interests in order to maintain their power and privileges. However, Brookfield also considers that it would be a strategic error, in the fight for a critical adult education, to reject self-directed learning as a proposal that can only function to the benefit of the establishment. Brookfield’s view is that when self-directed learning is equivalent to the expression of a critical line of inquiry by adults then it is both useful and effective. To this point he points out that when self-directed learning techniques are allied with the adult’s quest for critical reflection and the creation of personal meaning after of a full range of alternative value frameworks and action possibilities, then the most complete form of self-directed learning is exemplified (Brookfield, 1985a:15).

Along the same line, Mezirow considers that the definition for self directed learning provided by Knowles (1975), specifically that: as a process in which individuals take the initiate without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, identifying human and materials resources, and evaluating learning outcomes.....does not contain the critical dimension to learning. In his view, the purpose of learning is to enable us to understand the meaning of our experiences and to realize values in our lives (Mezirow,
In Mezirow's opinion self-directed learning is a collective process rather than an individual one. The transformation can take place as part of a dialogue, in which individuals participate in absolute freedom, testing their perspectives and interests with the views and interests of others and correspondingly being led to a transformation, while simultaneously shifting their learning goals. To participate as a self-directed learner in the process of dialogue requires full knowledge about alternatives as well as freedom from self-deception and coercion. This freedom requires an understanding of the historical, cultural and biographical reasons for one's needs, wants, and interests, especially when they are derived ideological or neurotic distortions. Such self-knowledge is a prerequisite for autonomy in self-directed learning (Mezirow, 1985:27).

Mezirow does not place as much importance in the politics of self-directed learning as Brookfield, but neither does he ignore them entirely. He places greater importance in how self-directed learning, within the framework of critical reflection can contribute to recognising traumatic learning experiences that occurred in an individual's childhood and appear in adult life as dysfunctions. Traumatic experiences will never be dealt with, if the individual does not become aware of them and does not express them through speech, emotions and so forth. Within this framework, Mezirow recognizes the major role of psychoanalysis in self-reflective learning, considering that adult educators need to be able to facilitate this important learning functions and increase their sophistication in the dynamics of educational practice, particularly as it pertains to the existential dilemmas generated such common life transitions as the death of a mate or child, divorce, change in job status of being passed over for promotion, mid career burnout, retirement, and others (Mezirow, 1985:21).

According to Mezirow, the goal of self-directed learning should be to empower individuals to gain awareness that they should be the creators of their thoughts and emotions, to assist them in comprehending their experiences and perceiving the meaning of their life (Mezirow, 1985).

On the basis of this line of enquiry, that places self-directed learning within the framework of critical reflection, we consider that it is not sufficient to follow mechanically the steps proposed by models such as those by Tough or Knowles, instead this is better achieved within a group, with collaboration and an emphasis on effective discussion. In order for adult educators to gain self-direction in learning, they must first dare to reflect critically on their own teaching and things they take for granted and to put their personal convictions through a trial by discussion. It is in fact very significant that certain efforts at self-directed learning attempted in our country are attempted by discussions in a group, within the framework of critical reflection and transformative learning (Kokkos, 2009, Lintzeris, 2009).

**Self-directed learning in Greece**

The concept of self-directed learning has a different definition in each country and that definition relates to the culture of that country (Hiemstra, 1996: 429). In Greece the term self-directed learning is not utilised. The corresponding term is automorphosis. Automorphosis means to educate yourself all on your own, with no teachers. Although the concept of automorphosis as defined in a dictionary is not identical etymologically with the concept of self-directed learning, this is better suited than any other definition (self-education, autoagoge: self-rearing, autodidaskalia: self-teaching, automathese: self-learning etc.) because automorphosis has been interpreted as a turn to the internal world,
with the aim of “forming” the individual, a genuine cultivation of the self, where an individual’s education, culture and individual liberty constitute the first priorities (Pyrgiotakis, 2007). The concept of self-education was known from the time of antiquity in Greece. Socrates is described as an independent citizen, who took every opportunity to learn from those around him. Plato considered that the ultimate goal of education for the young was to develop their ability to function as self-sufficient learners in their adult lives. Aristotle underlined the significance of self-awareness in learning, of developing a potential for wisdom, with or without the guidance of a teacher. With the passage of time many important individuals, including Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Erasmus, Descartes and others were recorded as examples of individuals who undertook “self-directed lifelong learning” (Hiemstra, 1996: 428).

Even though the concept was known from antiquity, we have not encountered any relevant researches on automorphosis. The interpretation we can offer is that the Greek educational system is formalistic, and consequently a lot of value is placed in gaining a degree, but individual efforts whose aim is knowledge for the sake of knowledge and the development of critical thought are not favoured (Vergidis, 1983). Formal education is the dominant force in Greece. In Greece, for historical and political reasons, there was a demand for formal education rather than an investment in knowledge (Tsoukalas, 1977). The educational system is also centralized and teacher-centric (Kokkos, 2008) and perhaps educators themselves do not favour methods that promote learner autonomy.

However, as is natural, individual, as well as organised attempts at self-directed learning are implemented, but have not been recorded systematically. For example, Athanassopoulos and Patronis mention a series of activities of self-education carried out by the Hellenic Mathematical Society from 1980 forward. They point out that the start of the 1980s can be considered as the start of a more general trend towards self-education for Greek educators, who comprehended how irrelevant their university studies were and sought ways to deal with it, both on an individual and a group level... Such groups functioned at the Hellenic Mathematical Society during that period, which, in a manner of speaking continued in a tradition of educational activities by the Hellenic Mathematical society during the return to democratic governance that followed the fall of the junta (1976-81). The “Association for the History of Mathematics” was established in Thessaloniki in November 1985 and moved independently in the same direction (Athanassopoulos & Patronis, 2009).

During the same period, in the field of Adult Education the Centre for Studies and Automorphosis operated in Athens from 1982 to 1987. The Centre for Studies and Automorphosis was the first agency offering self-education in Greece, whose goal was to study and promulgate the theoretical takes and practices of Adult Education and particularly under the direction of critical thinking. It organised many seminars and issued six issues of the periodical Automorphosi (Self-education). These included many articles and letters concerning the nature of self-education in adult education.

Several years later, in 2003, the Hellenic Adult Education Association (HAEA) was established, a non-profit association, whose goal was to develop the scientific and professional field of adult education in Greece, to improve educational skills of its members, who were mostly adult educators. The Association supports communication and solidarity amongst its members, which it brings into contact and discussion between them. This process creates a plethora of collaborations, networks and joint action plans between educators and the organisations that implement programmes. Amongst the participants there are several who were active in the Laiki Epimorphosi (Popular Training) 1981-1985, and
who now, are reconsidering and participating in new actions, which shows that adult education in the country did not stop to evolve in a dialectic fashion, despite the difficulties it has encountered (Kokkos, 2008: 10).

Several self-education groups are organised under the aegis of the Hellenic Adult Education Association that have all the features of self-directed learning. These groups are comprised mainly of adult educators, who have chosen to participate voluntarily in a group, dedicating time to their self-education; they have chosen their sources and the methods of their learning; and, most significantly, they work systematically with critical reflection and transformational learning as their goal. The concept of self-directed learning and the motivation for participation in such a group were the topics of discussion in one of the meetings of the group that functioned within the framework of the Association in 2008-2009. A fertile line of enquiry was developed touching on many aspects of the phenomenon: On the meaning of the concept, the significance of adult educators adopting this strategy, its relationship with critical reflection and the motives for participating in this process. The group came to the conclusion that directing oneself in learning was ineradicably linked with critical reflection – and only then did it hold true meaning – in other words in the effort to respond to the question: Who am I, not only as an adult educator, but also as a person with specific learning needs? and how covering these needs will assist us in transforming – to the extent possible our dysfunctional views both on learning and on our role as educators (Kalogridi, 2009).

Of course, such a turnaround on the role of adult education for the purpose of critical reflection is difficult to achieve in a country where state policies and the general culture have imposed a high level of control over the learning process. Many efforts must be made and many initiatives taken along the lines mentioned by Brookfield within a framework of extensive control (referring to university education, to corporate environments and so forth), educators may choose to work collectively in order to change the political culture of an institution (Brookfield, 1993). Collaboration between adult educators and educators in general is what may lead to changes in Greece, so an educator may choose to be an intermediary and a facilitator and to share power with the learners in a group. In conclusion, self-directed learning is an important learning strategy for adult educators, particularly where the goal is to gain autonomy of thought (O’Donnel, 1999, Mezirow, 2000). The best way to achieve this is for adult educators to participate in self-directed learning groups, where genuine discussion takes place and methods of critical reflection are utilised, through which they can examine their teaching critically, in relation to the learners themselves and the overall social framework in which they live and work.

References


Current issues of accreditation and employability assurance of VET trainers in Greece.

EU approaches to VET and its trainers

In 2000, the Lisbon European Council argued for Europe to 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” by 2010. Improvement of all citizens’ qualifications was perceived as a prerequisite for the achievement of the given goal. The road to individual development and fulfilment was closely linked to education and training, while lifelong learning was singled out as a vital tool for the renewal, enrichment and use of knowledge in both social and working life.

The importance of VET [broadly defined as “all more or less organised or structured activities that aim to provide people with the knowledge, skills and competences necessary to perform a job or a set of jobs, whether or not they lead to a formal qualification” (Tessaring & Descy, 2004, p. 13)] to the Lisbon goal was recognised by the Commission in the Copenhagen Declaration of 2002 which encouraged enhanced European cooperation in VET and gave priority to quality assurance (too). It became evident that the quality of VET depends on the quality of its teachers and trainers. Therefore, the Maastricht Communiqué of 2004 put emphasis on making their profession more attractive, while the Helsinki Communiqué of 2006 stressed the need for continuing professional development. In 2008, the Bordeaux Communiqué proposed strengthening the links between VET and the labour market through the implementation of common tools referred therein, including the EQF, for transparency and recognition of knowledge, skills and competences.

Aiming to establish a common perception of qualifications in Europe, in 2005, the Commission produced a blueprint by means of which all the 32 countries involved (EU Member States; Croatia and Turkey; Iceland, Lichtenstein and Norway), including the social partners, were invited to engage in consultations regarding the proposed single European qualifications framework, national and sectoral frameworks and possible ways of referencing one framework to the other (see European Commission, 2005). Following final amendments to the proposal by the Commission, the EQF was adopted by the European Parliament and Council in February 2008. Two months later, their Recommendation was entered into force with the expectation that by 2010, each country would have developed a comprehensive national qualifications framework which could be linked to the EQF (see European Communities, 2008).

What is the EQF? In brief, the EQF embraces all kinds of qualifications to be acquired in general, vocational and academic education and training. It consists of eight levels which describe the content of knowledge, skills and competences relevant to each level, regardless of “when”, “where” and “how” these have been acquired. The approach to learning is being shifted towards the results of learning. Recognising the wide variety of education and training systems in Europe, the EQF puts emphasis on the learning outcomes [which include theoretical knowledge, practical and technical skills and social competences] “to make comparison and cooperation between countries and institutions possible”. In this context, validation of non-formal (“structured” and “intentional”
learning typically not leading to certification] and informal learning [“unstructured” and usually “non-intentional” learning typically not leading to certification either (CEDEFOP, 2007, p. 15)] can be facilitated and thus “duplication” of learning can be avoided. Hence, it is envisaged that by linking the national systems to the EQF, national qualifications can become more transparent, compatible and comparable and mutual trust between all the stakeholders can be developed.

The shift towards learning outcomes has triggered discussions about VET (teachers and) trainers. It is acknowledged that changes in social and labour needs have led to changes in the roles, tasks and responsibilities of trainers (CEDEFOP, 2007, p. 1). Thus, both vocational trainers-to-be and practising trainers need to undertake initial and continuing training to be able to:

- “Upgrade” and “update” their knowledge and skills throughout their working life (Nijssen, 2008, p. 41) and thus
- Fulfil their roles extending from simple instruction to “learning facilitators and innovators” (Tessaring & Wannan, 2004, p. 51) and from transferring knowledge to “promoting change” (CEDEFOP, 2007, p. 5).

With the extension of roles, trainers are to carry out a wide range of tasks from “skills training” to “consultancy to help improve (...) organisations” (Nijssen, 2008, p. 41). Evidently, trainers are considered as a key element in “the quality and effectiveness of the workforces they service”; paradoxically, their status is not high (Tessaring & Wannan, 2004, p. 51).

What was the response to the aforementioned EU goals from Greece? To begin with, the proposed EQF of 2005 was welcomed with certain reservations. Though its utility in the labour market was broadly recognised, the social partners questioned its contribution to active citizenship and social cohesion at the national and European level. Furthermore, they were in doubt as to whether a compatible national qualifications framework could be developed in time and adopted by all the stakeholders. Their doubts stemmed from the fact that to date the formal education system puts emphasis on the acquisition of general knowledge, whereas qualifications are approached as being the result of structured learning (Dede, 2005, pp. 12, 14). In this light, it is possible to see why vocational education and vocational training in Greece “are recently developed concepts” whose importance has been slowly recognised by the state and individuals (Zarifis, 2003, pp. 153, 156).

In the course of consultations, the key role of vocational trainers in quality assurance of VET provision emerged. It was acknowledged that trainers need to receive suitable training to be effective at work. Experts had noticed that, although trainers had a sound knowledge of their specialisation, many lacked pedagogical skills including active learning techniques as well as relationship management (Kokkos, 2007, p. 5). To the end of quality assurance, in 2001, the first steps towards implementing actions to recognise and validate qualifications held by the continuing vocational training (CVT) trainers were taken leading to the establishment of a comprehensive accreditation system by 2007. A similar system for accrediting trainers in initial vocational training (IVT) [as well as trainers in non-vocational adult education] is to be fully developed in 2010.

In this context, issues of accreditation and employability assurance of VET trainers in Greece shall be addressed on the basis of three aspects. These aspects provide the actual framework for commentary and consist of the following: legal and administration
framework; main characteristics of VET providers; professional/occupational profile of VET trainers. As a result, the following questions shall be briefly considered:

- Which bodies promote and maintain the quality of VET and its trainers in Greece?
- Which training institutions provide employment?
- How are the qualifications held by vocational trainers approached?
- Is non-formal and informal learning recognised by the existing accreditation systems of vocational trainers, as proposed by the EQF?
- Which are the roles and tasks of vocational trainers?

**VET and its trainers in Greece [based on an ongoing study on Education]**

**Legal and administration framework**

Four laws comprise the pillars of VET in Greece (Table 1). It all began in 1992, when the National System of VET was formally adopted (Law 2009/1992), acknowledging the importance of monitoring the changing conditions of the local and national labour market as well as promoting active participation of the social partners in VET. Provisions are made therein for the equipment of manpower with suitable qualifications for entering the labour market. Under this law, the Organisation for VET (Organismos Epaggelmatikis Ekpaideusis kai Katartisis – OEEK) was set up [under the supervision of the Ministry of Education] with the aim to provide IVET; the development of a state network of IVT institutions (Institouta Epaggelmatikis Katartisis – IEKs) was then launched. IEKs are classified under post-secondary education.

Five years later, under Law 2469/1997, the National Accreditation Centre for CVT (Ethniko KEntro PISistopoiysis gia ti synehizomeni epaggelmatiki katartisi – EKEPIS) was set up [under the supervision of the Ministry of Employment] with the aim to ensure and promote the quality of CVT offered in vocational training centres (Kentra Epaggelmatikis Katartisis – KEKs).

In 2003, the National System for Linking VET to Employment was established serving as a bridge between all existing VET systems: initial and vocational; school- and work-based. In this perspective, the given law aims to bring together all the stakeholders under a single coordinating authority, governed by the principles of “objectivity”, “transparency” and “equal opportunities”. It came into effect two years later.

That year, Law 3369/2005 set the legal framework for the Systematisation of Lifelong Learning (education and training). The given law serves as a supplement to the Law of 2003 and describes the regulating mechanisms for lifelong learning provision and its component parts.

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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<td>2005</td>
<td>Systematisation of Lifelong Learning</td>
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<td>2003</td>
<td>National System for Linking VET to Employment</td>
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<td>1997</td>
<td>Setting up EKEPIS</td>
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<td>1992</td>
<td>National System of VET/ Setting up OEEK</td>
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**Figure 1**

Legal steps towards establishing and promoting VET in the context of lifelong learning

*Which are the competent bodies for developing VET policy?* The Ministry of Education is responsible for making, promoting and implementing policy on formal IVET, whereas the Ministry of Employment is responsible for CVT policy. Both Ministries
monitor the functions of the VET systems in question via mechanisms of their supervised bodies. The Ministry of Education has recently developed a system for accrediting IVT trainers via the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (Geniki Grammateia Dia Viou Mathisis).

Which bodies are responsible for quality assurance of VET provision? OEEK is responsible for the following:

- Organising and operating public IEKs falling under the competence of the Ministry of Education.
- Monitoring and controlling private IEKs.
- Setting standards and accrediting training programmes (courses) offered in (a comparatively small number of) IEKs of other Ministries: Employment; Tourism; Health and Social Solidarity.
- Holding examinations at national and regional level to accredit IVT. Examinations are common for public and private IEKs of all bodies.
- Recognising professional qualifications and respective professional rights related to all levels of formal IVT.

OEEK draws on the social partners to strengthen links between IVT provision and local and regional labour market; develop training programmes; organise certification examinations.

EKEPIS is responsible for developing and implementing systems for:

- Accreditation (licensing), ongoing monitoring and evaluation of KEKs on the basis of set criteria. Accredited KEKs are entitled to secure financing from national and community funds.
- Accreditation of CVT trainers [as well as staff providing support services]. Accredited trainers are entitled to work at licensed KEKs.
- Accreditation of occupational profiles according to occupational standards set with social partners (since 2008).
- Accreditation of CVT programmes which result in the acquisition of accredited knowledge, skills and competences corresponding to certain occupational profiles. Implementation is pending as EKEPIS is currently looking into possible ways of accrediting qualifications regardless of how these have been acquired.

EKEPIS has set up registers of accredited KEKs, CVT trainers and occupational profiles. Implementation of the systems in question is based on Ministerial decrees.

Main characteristics of VET providers

What types of VET providers exist? IVT is provided by IEKs, state-run or privately owned. Regarding IEKs of OEEK, there are currently 114 public institutes operating around the country. The total number of trainees reaches 20,000 per year (EURIDICE/European Commission, 2007, p. 85). CVT is provided by accredited KEKs. In 2008, there were 554 accredited KEKs operating around the country. The total number of training positions offered amounted to nearly 45,000 (Glavopoulos, 2008, p. 14). CVT provision can be offered by private organisations (forming the majority of CVT providers); public organisations; local and regional authorities; the social partners.

How are trainees selected? IEKs address adults (post 18) with completed lower or upper secondary (general or vocational) education. Admission requirements include any relevant work experience and certain social criteria. KEKs organise training activities for
the following groups (Katartizein, 22, p. 11): salaried employees in the public and private sector; self-employed individuals; unemployed individuals registered with local employment offices; adults (post 16) most at risk of social exclusion, such as immigrants. Each provider can set its own admission requirements as long as participation for the most vulnerable is being promoted.

How is training organised (broadly)? IEKs provide structured training programmes in 14 fields which correspond to trades and are divided into individual specialisations. Depending on its capacity, the number of specialisations operating in each IEK may range from one to 16. In general, programmes last up to two years and each year comprises two semesters. At the beginning of each semester, trainees pay low enrolment fees. KEKs develop structured training, too, in all thematic fields accredited by EKEPIS. There seems to be no restriction on the number of fields operating in each KEK. The duration and content of the programmes correspond to the occupational training needs of the aforementioned target groups. Unemployed trainees receive special financial support. Programme-wise, it is claimed that the specialisations and thematic fields offered are being adapted to current demands and needs of the local and regional labour market. To this end, the majority of the programmes provided fall under Computing and Management, while Culture and Sports are rarely opted for.

How is training approached? IVT programmes are organised by specialisations and divided into subjects: theoretical, workshop and mixed courses. Attendance is compulsory. Depending on the subject, the main training/teaching methods are the same as in traditional schooling: lectures [theory] and demonstrations [workshop]. As a result, assessment of trainees is an integral part of the learning process, usually based on compulsory written examinations [theory] and creative projects [workshop]. A scholarship system has been developed for trainees who excel academically or meet certain social criteria. Trainees who successfully complete a programme are entitled to sit certification examinations held by OEEK and obtain formal qualification. The content of the CVT programmes is organised on the basis of educational units which include theoretical and practical components (subjects). The mode of delivery can be traditional (compulsory regular attendance); distance learning; mixed (face-to-face and distance mode). Trainees can be assessed by means of written examinations [theory] and work assignments [practice]. Provisions made for accrediting learning outcomes are expected to be amended in the direction of recognising all learning pathways and implemented by 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical courses</th>
<th>Workshop/</th>
<th>Mixed courses:</th>
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Figure 2
Main structure of training programmes offered in IEKs and KEKs

Delivery-wise, theoretical courses offered in both IEKs and KEKs are usually supported by educational material, print and/or electronic. Participative techniques, such as case study and role play, are expected to be applied in the learning process.
Professional/occupational profile of VET trainers

Aiming to improve their quality, a comprehensive system for accrediting trainers in CVT has been developed and implemented by EKEPIS. Therefore, trainers willing to accredit their qualifications and ensure employability should follow certain steps such as:

- Entering the initial register.
- Attending a short training programme.
- Entering the main register.

Apart from the general sub-register, both registers (initial and main) comprise sub-registers of trainers involved in the following fields: basic information technology skills; agriculture; banking; training the trainers.

Which are the main criteria for entering the initial (general) register?

- Formal educational qualification (basic).
- Professional experience relevant to the area of specialisation, provided that it has been obtained following completion of studies.

The higher the level of education attained, the fewer the years of work experience required. In general, teaching experience is not a prerequisite for entering the EKEPIS register. Educators in formal and non-formal education and training have their teaching experience recognised as professional experience. Additional requirements refer to the following: completed postgraduate studies; pedagogical training certified; work experience with the most vulnerable certified, too.

Trainers in the initial register are entitled to attend a training programme on the basic principles of adult learning and thus be able to respond to the following: “what”, “why”, “how” and “when” to teach. The total duration of the programme is 300 hours, 225 of which take place through distance learning and 75 in classrooms. A trainer-consultant is assigned to a group of trainers in training to provide scientific guidance and support throughout the programme. Evidently, trainers should be computer literate to attend the programme and carry out written assignments successfully. Those who hold a university degree in the field of Adult Learning are to be exempted from attending the programme. Accreditation is based on a mock teaching session of 20 minutes which is videotaped and assessed by an expert committee. Only accredited trainers enter the EKEPIS main register.

 Governed by the same principles of transparency and objectivity, a similar system for promoting the quality of IVT trainers is about to be implemented by the Ministry of Education (see Ministerial decree 4444/2008). Trainers willing to (continue to) work at IEKs are expected to follow the aforementioned steps. For the time being, the initial register is open to those interested. A qualifications “point system” has been developed and the following criteria have been set accordingly:

- Formal education including postgraduate studies.
- Work experience, teaching and professional, relevant to the area of specialisation.
- Conference presentations/publications.
- Lifelong learning including training programmes on adult education, accredited foreign language proficiency as well as computer skills.

Regarding work experience, it is the total number of hours, days or months employed in educational institutions or the labour market that counts. As for presentations, publications and training programmes, the total number of certificates
provided is taken into consideration. The same applies to foreign language proficiency and computer skills, provided that the relevant certificates are awarded by respective bodies recognised by the Ministry of Education or OEEK.

It remains to be seen how the training programmes and the accreditation procedure shall be organised and who shall be exempted.

![Figure 3](image)

*Figure 3*  
*Accreditation and employability assurance of VET trainers*

*Which is the background of VET trainers?* In general, trainers come from the labour market (public or private sector) or education and training, formal (mainly secondary) or non-formal (such as language training centres). They may be university graduates, post-secondary (IEKs) or secondary education graduates.

*How are trainers employed by VET providers?* Both IVT and CVT trainers work on a part-time basis and are paid by the hour. IVT trainers are employed for a period of a semester following an announcement (print and electronic) by each IEK of the specialisations provided and the qualifications required per semester. As of 2010, priority is to be given to the registered trainers and the selection procedure is to be standardised according to the aforementioned system. As of 2008, CVT trainers needed by KEKs must be pulled from the EKEPIS main register. Should there be any teaching positions vacant, KEKs can pull trainers from the initial register. In any case, they are employed for the training programme provided.

VET trainers teach subjects relevant to their area of specialisation. Their tasks involve developing educational material and techniques according to objectives determined per theoretical subject as well as assessing progress of trainees. So far, a system of work-based training, initial and/or continuing, has not been implemented.

**Commentary**

The data provided herein reveal certain aspects of the current condition in terms of accreditation and employability assurance of vocational trainers in Greece; the emphasis is on quality issues. For the commentary on these data the work of Nijssen (2008) is used as a launch pad.

To begin with, legislation and policy on VET reflect relevant EU guidelines. The proposed measures aim to strengthen employability, combat social exclusion and make VET a transparent, attractive and accessible system. In fact, these measures may be amended, supplemented or repealed to be in line with the current national and EU policies on employment and human resources development. In certain cases, measures have not been fully implemented or implementation is currently pending.

The provision, recognition and accreditation of VET are under the competence of public authorities. In the context of lifelong learning, there are two distinct reference points for VET, OEEK and EKEPIS, which develop their own mechanisms and procedures
in promoting and maintaining the quality of IVET and CVT respectively. These mechanisms include selection, assessment, evaluation and monitoring. Drawing on the social partners, OEEK and EKEPIS develop standards and criteria for quality assurance of all component parts of VET provision: institutions, training programmes, occupational profiles and qualifications, trainers and trainees.

The social dimension of VET may be discerned in the organisation and development of a sustainable state network of IEKs. Apart from providing classrooms and trainers to trainees, scholarships of different types are employed with the aim to enable all IVT trainees to complete their training. To this end, unemployed CVT trainees are financially supported, too.

IEKs relate more closely to the formal education system and thus the Ministry of Education. They broadly display a “knowledge-oriented” structure which may result in IVT trainers being restricted to transferring knowledge to their trainees. KEKs are more closely related to the labour market and thus the Ministry of Employment. They address the training needs of both the unemployed and the employed putting emphasis on the needs of the most vulnerable. They aim to support the concept of lifelong learning and strengthen social inclusion. However, the role of CVT trainers could hardly extend to empowering trainees as it focuses on transferring knowledge, too.

Involvement of VET trainees in the learning process is mainly achieved through attendance and assessment. Although they are given freedom in their choice of specialisation (or thematic field), it appears that trainees could hardly choose individual subjects, time and mode of training; in other words, “what”, “when” and “how” to learn. Active participation may refer to the development of learning techniques with their trainers. As for flexible learning opportunities, these may be guaranteed in the case of CVT programmes organised on-line. Hence, it may be difficult for all trainees to organise their own learning and for their trainers to facilitate learning.

The question that arises herein concerns the mechanisms employed for promoting the quality of vocational trainers. Accrediting trainers on the basis of transparent criteria may result in quality assurance. In this context, it could be argued that the main criteria for entering the EKEPIS initial register are associated with both formal and non-formal learning. The system in question appears to combine formal education attainment and knowledge, skills and competences (expected to be) acquired in the work place. In fact, formal and non-formal learning seem to ‘complement’ one another since there is an inverse relationship between educational and occupational qualifications. However, the “when” (following completion of studies) and “how” (in accordance with the field of expertise) of the professional experience obtained is taken into consideration. Pedagogical skills are implicitly requested but not absolutely required. The same applies to certain social skills, such as self-awareness and promoting human rights (working with the most vulnerable). As for the training programme leading to accreditation, higher education graduates qualified in the area of Adult Education are not obliged to duplicate learning. However, they have to repeat assessment. In this light, linking higher education to vocational training, as proposed by the EQF, may be a demanding task.

In the case of accrediting trainers in IVT, it could be argued that the results of both formal and non-formal learning are recognised and validated, even though the emphasis is placed on formal qualifications. Validation of specialist academic skills (postgraduate studies) may be perceived as a means to encourage engagement in formal lifelong learning. Recognition of work experience is based on the “how” it was obtained,
regardless of when. Certain social skills, such as communication (conference presentations), are implicitly required. Presentations and publications may also be considered as the outcome of self-study resulting in the production and dissemination of knowledge. Validation of non-formal learning is also applied in the case of accredited foreign language proficiency and computer skills. Accreditation refers to sitting certification examinations which focus on the learning outcomes, regardless of the learning pathways followed. Certificates are to be taken into consideration only when awarded by bodies recognised by public authorities.

Which roles do vocational trainers in IEKs and KEKs play? It appears that the predominant role of trainers is that of transmitting knowledge (teaching/instructing). Promoting change may refer to providing VET trainees with knowledge adequate to facilitate entering or re-entering after unemployment the labour market and thus change their daily life. Innovation may refer to applying learning techniques suitable for encouraging trainees’ involvement in the learning process. In any case, it becomes evident that vocational trainers need to (be willing to) be updated on changes in the labour market and engage in further learning and development. The existing systems for accrediting trainers may provide the regulatory framework necessary to raise their status. However, the mode of employment applied could hardly support such a goal.

In this context, one cannot but wonder whether the development and implementation of two parallel systems for accrediting vocational trainers may (also) result in the following:

- The content of the training programme for IVT trainers being differentiated from the respective programme for CVT trainers.
- Mutual trust between the competent bodies being developed, as proposed by the EQF, and thus repetition of learning and assessment being avoided.
- Validation of all modes of learning being equally applied in both systems.
- The professional status of vocational trainers being fully regulated and thus a more secure and stable work environment being provided.
- Work-based initial and continuing training being organised and developed. Evidently, time will tell.

References


Oscillating between authority and emancipation: a biographical study on the professional development of adult educators.

Introduction

Within the last decade significant developments have occurred in the field of adult education in Greece (Kokkos, 2008a). As a consequence, the profession of the adult educator has started to gain more social recognition and acceptance as a possible and viable professional career path.

The need for professionalisation in the field of adult education in Greece is emerging more manifestly than ever before (Koulaouzides, et al 2009). In 2003, a national programme for the training of adult educators in the field of continuing vocational training was launched, while in 2007, a similar programme was also implemented for the educators in the area of liberal adult education (Karalis & Kokkos, 2008, Koulaouzides, Giannakopoulou & Chassapis, 2009). In both of these programmes the aim was to introduce adult education methods and techniques to people who had the aspiration to be officially accredited as adult educators (Kokkos, 2008b). In other words, the overall aim of both the aforesaid programmes was to create professional adult educators and therefore their main concentration was in transferring the essential knowledge about adult learning and developing the corresponding teaching skills. The same aims may be found in almost all the postgraduate programmes for adult education in Greek universities (Sipitanou & Papakonstantinou, 2004).

However, despite the common knowledge and skills which are disseminated through the adult educators’ training programmes, a significant differentiation in practice is observed regarding the level and the quality of learner support. This observation is evident even in educational situations where the framework that regulates the function of the adult educator is more inflexible, like the postgraduate educational programmes in a university environment. These remarks derive from our experience and involvement as tutors-counsellors in both the abovementioned training programmes and the postgraduate programme in adult education at the Hellenic Open University.

Based on all of the above we sought to investigate the factors that were influencing adult educators in adopting a more supportive or a less supportive attitude towards their trainees. Our general research question is situated in the way an adult educator develops his or her understanding about his or her professional role. More specifically the main question of our research was whether the understood and practiced role of an adult educator is influenced by factors situated in their individual biography.

Literature review

One approach in defining the professional role and the practical function of the practitioners in the field of adult education is to assign - and in some cases to propose - specific practices. These practices are usually based on particular philosophical beliefs that concern the overall role of adult education. For example, Cunningham (1996) who supports a radical approach for adult education suggests initiating activities that will
reinforce learners in issues like social democracy and active citizenship. Other scholars who have been involved in the description of the role of the adult educator use specific terms to define the function of the practitioners. Johnston (1998) for example recommends a broad range of terms that correspond to liberal, instrumental and radical philosophies. Her work presents terms like network agent, information resource, guide and teacher. On the other hand, the most popular terms which relate to the learning process in adult education and are used to define the role of the adult educator are: teacher, facilitator, mentor and animator (Brookfield, 1986, p. 123; Jarvis, 2004, p. 295; Knowles, 1989; Kokkos, 1999, p. 85). These terms are frequently used by adult educators themselves when they are required or asked to describe their function.

On the other hand, when looking at the literature in the field of adult education, there has been only a few studies published that explore how adult educators have come to assume a specific attitude towards their trainees. Some studies do investigate the implication of adult educators’ beliefs about teaching adults and their specific impact on practice (i.e. Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992; Taylor, Dirkx, & Pratt, 2003; Taylor, 2002). Nevertheless, these studies do not explore further the factors which contribute in the shaping of these beliefs or in other words in the development of the corresponding frame of reference (as understood by Mezirow, 2007), which results in adopting a specific professional and functional role.

A partial study of these factors has been done by Taylor (2003) who based his research on the theory of transformative learning (Mezirow, 2007) and the well-known sociological study presented by Lortie (1975) for the educators of primary and secondary education. In this study, Taylor explored the relationship between the prior school lives of adult educators and their beliefs about teaching adults. Implementing a qualitative study which included in-depth, semi-structured interviews from a purposeful sample of 16 practitioners, it was revealed that the positive past teaching experiences of adult educators are contributing considerably to the development of the self-concept and the expectations that adult educators have for their practice. Beyond prior school experiences, the importance of early life experiences in general and their impact on the professional role choices of educators has been examined by Larsen (1999, 2004a, 2004b). Larsen used biographical interviews and life history documents with a group of six adult educators who were mainly involved in counselling. According to Larsen (1999) early childhood experiences may indicate significantly the future professional career and role choices of a person.

In another study Rose, Jeris & Smith (2005) used semi-structured interviews with a group of nine adult educators from the field of continuing vocational training. The outcome of that research revealed that the development of the understanding about the role of the adult educator is notably influenced by the values that exist in the workplace environment. Moreover, the question of other factors beyond the workplace values is also posed. Finally, in a similar research effort Lichtner & Milana (2000) studied biographically a group of women adult educators. Their research showed that there is in general a strong relation between prior learning experiences and professional practice. The researchers suggest the use of biographical interviews for the further investigation and identification of the factors that lead to the adoption of a role or a professional identity by adult educators.

From the above literature review it is apparent that the recognition of the factors that influence the stance of an adult educator against his or her function has been only
partially explored. Our research aimed to explore further these factors and therefore shed some additional light to the issue of the “becoming” of an adult educator.

**Methodology**

The methodological design of our study involved an interpretive qualitative orientation where the researchers explored the relationship between biographical factors in the lives of adult educators and their present understanding about the role of the adult educator. For the scope of our research a purposeful sample of 15 adult educators was selected from a total of 19 members of the teaching staff who were functioning as tutors-counsellors in the postgraduate program in adult education of the Hellenic Open University during the implementation of our research (2007), based on the following criteria: (a) each participant was teaching adults not only within the framework of the University but also in other fields of adult education practice, (b) each participant had to have at least five years of professional experience as an adult educator beyond the academia, (c) since the implementation of a biographical interview requires a certain level of familiarity and mutual confidence between the researcher and the interviewees (Atkinson, 1998), we met with people with whom we felt greater trust and emotional understanding.

The principal method of collection was through a biographical interview of an average of 50-60 minutes in length with each one of the 15 adult educators. The opening question which was asked to all of the participants was:

“We would like you to tell us your personal history, your biography as you recall it until today. We are interested in the whole course of your life. Whatever you would like to tell us from the very first years of your life. We would appreciate it if you could include educational and other learning experiences. At this phase we will not ask you anything else. We will keep notes however, in case we would like to ask you something later”.

After the first interview, a second interview was also initiated in cases where we felt that more clarifications were needed. Each interview was transcribed and returned to the corresponding interviewee in order to ensure internal consistency and subjective corroboration (Atkinson, 1998 p. 61). Following that procedure, the transcripts were analysed using the holistic content narrative analysis approach as it is described by Lieblich, Mashiach, and Zilber (1998, pp 13-15 & 62-87). This type of analysis takes into consideration the entire narration and focuses on its content.

We interpreted each part of the story considering the content that emerges from the narration as a whole. In other words, after reading each interview several times, we decided about the special focus of content that evolved in each story from beginning to end. We distinguished the special focus by the space devoted to the theme in the text, its repetitive nature and the number of details which were provided by the interviewee (Lieblich, Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, pp. 62-63). After analysing each interview we developed a synthesis and then we moved in recording the second biography and so on. Finally, we read all the analysed interviewees and we searched for parallel biographical trajectories which could be considered as signifiers for the understanding that each interviewee had developed regarding his/her understanding about the role of the adult educator.

At this point it is important to note that our effort to interpret and present the biographies was a process with a lot of challenges that may be seen as limitations. The
main challenge was our own awareness that a research based on narrations is not able to reveal a definitive truth that can be generalized and therefore refer to all the individual cases of adult educators. However, we are also aware that biography as a narration is of great importance since its many-sided reference is providing to the researcher the opportunity to enter into the subjective reality of a person in ways that it is not possible with other research tools (Pantazis, 2004, pp. 70). The biographical narrations transcend the boundaries of a qualitative methodology since their study is offering the possibility to understand the fragmented collective through an idiomorphic dialogue among different personal trajectories (Kridel, 1998, pp. 10-12). Moreover, according to Dominice (1990) the biographical approach in educational research challenges the normal and organized world of education and leads to a dialogue between the real world and the subjectivity of human experience.

We believe that our research, beyond its methodological challenges, offers to the field “fresh” material which could be further explored and contribute significantly to the professional individual and collective development of the adult educators in Greece and elsewhere.

Findings

Many biographical themes emerged from our research and many assumptions may be drawn from these themes. However, for the purpose of this paper we will present three important statements that recognize a significant relation between the educational and learning biographical experiences of the participants and their present understanding about the role of the adult educator.

1. The emphasis of the biography on prior formal or informal educators is related to teacher-centred approaches regarding the role of the adult educator.

This statement expresses our finding that experiences with prior significant teachers in the biography of the participants are playing a significant role in their current understanding about their role as adult educators. During their narration, some adult educators dedicated a noteworthy part of their biography around educators whom they recall as significant. One example is Panagiotis, an educator with a long experience in union education. Panagiotis who is also teaching labour relations in a Greek university said:

“It was quite ready in me…I had some good teachers and especially one university professor during my first year at the university made quite an impression to me…his ability to transfer knowledge. I still admire him. He had a magnificent charisma…he made me love the profession of the teacher. I mean…I thought that it would be nice if I could also do the same in the future…to speak and have an audience stare at me, with a feeling of awe…”

Similar narrations were identified in the biographies of three more adult educators. Another example comes from Evangelia, a female adult educator specialized in counselling and Greek language:

“These years we had a teacher, a young man who was teaching literature…he was very important for me especially now that I am an educator…I remember that he was telling us that when you enter a classroom you have to be very strict, not to give space and then little by little to become acquainted with students and then to allow yourself to say a joke maybe. I still remember this comment when I meet a group of students”
At another point of their narration the educators of that group revealed their understanding about the role of the adult educator. Beyond the politically correct terms that are used it is noticeable that all of them assign the central role of the learning process to the educator. Panagiotis for example said:

“I favour a role which is of a consulting nature, but also academic, I mean I would like to have a consulting role but not without the academic dimension, after all I am teaching at a graduate level and this has demands. I would like more to teach people who are conscious about what they are doing; I mean to make an agreement of honour with them, a contract. They came to me for a reason and that is to study.”

Evangelia, on the other hand stated:

“When you work with adults you are in a continuous movement you feel a continuous change in motivation. It needs a lot of attention to exploit that motivation and not to be disoriented away from the learning procedure and your role. You have to be in a constant awareness, to use your skills and interchange your role: from authority to consultant and back again, from a guide of the learning course to animator and so on...”

From the above extracts it is apparent that the biographies of the members of this group of adult educators include important experiences with prior significant teachers. It seems that the existence of these teacher models has an impact on their understanding about the role of the adult educator. The same more or less assumption may also be found in Taylor’s (2003) research where he affirmed the important relation between the positive teacher models of the past and the practice of the adult educators. We progress this assumption a little further by arguing that the specific biographical factor seems to be related to a teacher-centred understanding for the role of the adult educator.

2. The emphasis of the biography on disorienting experiences is related to a facilitative approach regarding the role of the adult educator.

In three biographies, the participants gave emphasis on specific life events, which on the one hand may be characterised as disorienting experiences and on the other hand they are recognised as significant learning experiences. In the case of Stamatis, a male psychologist such an experience occurred during his early high school years:

“At that period high school teachers were marking with low grades in order to blackmail for private tutoring. This was the start of a countdown for my performance. While in elementary school I was an excellent student, I had low grades in the first trimester report at high school. I was wondering why...and then I found the secret. My parents tried hard to persuade me to start private tutorials with my math teacher. It was not right and I refused and as a result I kept on getting low grades”

In the biography of Josephine, a female adult educator specialised in the educational use of art, it emerged with emphasis a series of “routines” in her family life. One of these routines had to do with her grandmothers’ embroidery:

“My grandmother was awesome in embroidery. I am not sure if you are aware but usually when you do this kind of work you have a template, a pattern to follow...Well my grandmother was escaping the pattern. She was changing colours, motifs and so on. She was discussing with my mother the changes she had thought and how and why, and why she liked what she was about to do...I lived this routine for years. And it has influenced my thinking...”
With the term disorienting experience we mean life events in which we are called to confront a situation (individual or social) which in a given timeframe it is not in harmony with our understanding of our self and the world (Mezirow, 1991, 2007). These biographical hubs either contain an ethical dilemma or a new insight of reality and they can become the triggering mechanism for a process of reflection which eventually could lead to the transformation of the individual frame of reference (Mezirow, 1991, 2007, Jarvis, 1995).

For Stamatis, the “not right” (or morally wrong) experience from his high school years influenced his practice as an educator to the extend that, as he stated, in every meeting with future adult educators he tries to “alert” them to respect the learner. In general, he describes his practice as facilitation:

“I started a marathon of meetings as facilitator of groups to facilitate the personal development of people and not only this has happened but I feel as a better person myself. I have left behind me the arrogance which I confess I had as a psychology graduate. And this is good. In this I am especially helped by my facilitation trajectory. I am not an animator neither a leader… a facilitator.”

Finally the experience of Josephine regarding the routine of her grandmother seems also to be important as far as her understanding about the role of the adult educator and her practice, are concerned. She is also looking for alternative ways of expression for both herself and her trainees:

“The field of adult education offers me the same things. I mean inquiry, novelty, and experimentation… I see it as a challenge. I do not act as a teacher. With adults, I like to leave them to create thoughts, images, to reflect on them and to construct according to their experience… I facilitate them to develop their personality”.

The experience per se and the consequent decisions which originate from a disorienting experience are important elements which contribute to the development of our personal frame of reference which then determines the way that we interpret reality and act within it (Kennedy, 1990). In the case of the adult educators who call themselves “facilitators” in our research, the importance of these disorienting experiences which appeared in their biography seems to play a notable role in their understanding of the role of the adult educator. All three of them seem to be committed towards an educational practice that has as an aim the personal development of their trainees.

3. The emphasis of the biography on participation in social movements is related to an emancipatory approach regarding the role of the adult educator.

In our research a third group of seven adult educators shared by some means a common understanding about the role of the adult educator. In that group of our research we gave the name “emancipatory educators”. With this term we define an adult educator who is willing to enter a mutual relation with the learner with an overall plan to achieve individual and collective (or social) change. One example is Demetra, a female educator with a specialty in educational administration who describes her understanding about the role of the adult educators, as follows:

“The role of the adult educator is sufficient if she can lead the learners to question and dispute the validity [of their reality]... if we can together wonder about what is missing, what has to change. This is the only way to cultivate the need for knowledge.”
Two more similar examples come from Kostas and Haris. Kostas an educator with long experience in continuing vocational training, said:

“Our role with adults is allocentric. I mean when we do our job we have to see the other as the centre of the world. And to do that you have to be a good person, to have similar experiences, to have you batteries full, to know the value to work for the other, for a common scope for the common good.”

On the other hand, Haris, an educator specialised in intercultural education stated:

“As an adult educator I try to inspire the learners. To inspire them, I mean to motivate them to study not because they have to, but because it is worth doing it. I try to motivate them to find again enthusiasm for study, inquiry, conversation, reflection and all these which are lost as time passes. To achieve that I have to create a relation, a personal relation with each learner and a collective relation with the group. I value team work, exchange of experiences, dialogue and knowing each other.”

One emblematical common biographical factor which emerged in the narrations of all the educators of that group was their participation in different kinds of social movements. The movements which may be found in their biographies are mainly political movements connected in general with a progressive ideology. Demetra for example described with emphasis her experience:

“In my time I mean the beginning of the eighties the trend was not to attend university classes but “heavy politics” and no classes. We were going from assembly to stay-in strikes...The participation in the politics of that age was beneficial. We were gathering twice a week maybe more frequent in small groups and we were reflecting on things we had read. We used to criticize by reading and reviewing facts, books, news, etc.”

A similar experience was shared from Kostas:

“An element which was significant for me, it was common back then, not anymore, was the involvement with politics. I was not a member of a party but I participated in several groups and I was benefited from that participation, with its disappointments and its expectations... I learned how to work for a common goal, to work for the other.”

Haris also dedicated a significant part of his narration to his experience in social and political movements. An extract from his narration follows:

“I entered the Polytechnic University in 1978. We were the second generation after the fall of the junta. Intense politics was the fashion. I was involved with political parties and I believe that there I managed to settle down regarding my personal choices... One good moment of these years was when I worked as a volunteer in group for supporting refugees from Turkey. It was during the dictatorship in Turkey. We made a team and we taught them Greek, we were a team behind the whole effort who shared a common goal”.

We note that it is quite significant that the participants decided to refer to these social movement experiences within the framework of their biography. This is an indication that the participation in this movement is considered as a formative experience. For our participants it is apparent that the participation in social movements was a situated learning experience (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that contributed in the development of a common view about the role of the adult educator. There is a sense that the specific group considers that the function of the adult educator transcends the issue of transferring knowledge and skills and is connected with the initiation of personal
and social change. This belief is leading them to start a co-development relation with their learners.

Epilogue: some implications

The analysis of the biographies gave us the opportunity to identify elements which create a new perspective for the under-development profession of the adult educator in Greece. From the narrations of the participants in our research it is apparent that the understanding which every adult educator develops for his or her role is not so much related with specializations or knowledge on adult education and learning issues but it is more influenced by certain elements of the individual biography.

More specifically an overall interpretation of the biographies revealed the importance of elements like former teacher models, disorienting educational or learning experiences and participation in social movements. These factors seem to work as signifiers to the continuum of the role of the adult educator that oscillates between authority and emancipation.

We are aware that a biographical research does not allow generalisations. However, based on our findings we would like to state some proposals that were generated from our experience within our research project. Firstly, we would like to support the further use of biography as a resource for reflection and self-reflection which could eventually lead to a broader awareness of the educational needs of adult educators. Second, from the biographies but also from the discussion with our participants it seems that social experiences have a significant formative worth for the adult educators especially when a humanistic approach of adult education is valued or in other words an education where the primary goal is to achieve individual emancipation and social change. This finding leads to the proposal for the redesign of the training programmes for the adult educators with an orientation that will have an emphasis to the relational dimension of the learning process. We propose training of trainers programmes which aim in the development of the relational skills of the adult educators (i.e. awareness, acceptance, emotional understanding) in order for them to develop with their future learners a mutual relation which will serve the aims of emancipatory education. Our proposals are especially important for the teaching staff of the Hellenic Open University. In their case the implementation of training programs that will enhance their relational skills is even more necessary since the methodology of distance education is widening the lack of direct, frequent, interpersonal and team relations with the learners and this in many cases contributes to the weakening of the moral commitment of the adult educator towards the aim of the emancipation of the learners (Jarvis, 1997).

References


The art of being present in a changing context - qualification needs for adult educators meeting new challenges.

Background
Considerations, experiences and recommendations presented in this paper are the results of a Nordic developmental project initiated and accomplished by NVL- Nordic Network for Adult Learning a program under The Nordic Council of ministers – a governmental Nordic cooperation. NVL was established in order to strengthen the Nordic cooperation in the field of adult learning, and started its work at the beginning of 2005. NVL is a network with national coordinators in all the Nordic Countries, working cross-national and cross-sectorial with politically prioritised themes in various Nordic network groups. NVL aims at being a Nordic meeting place for actors involved in adult learning, and a facilitator of developing new knowledge on adult learning and teaching. The results of NVL work are disseminated through working seminars, conferences and reports. An important aim is to formulate new policy suggestions in adult learning based on experience and tested in praxis through diverse networks and cooperation projects.

Competence development, quality issues and the dialogue between adult learning and the life of work have for several years been a priority area for The Nordic Council of Ministers. The strategy plan 2008-2010 emphasises the importance of raising the quality of teacher training and strives for better cooperation among the sectors of education, research and economy. NVL considers adult educator professionalization as a crucial issue within the given priorities; and during the past two years has been working intensively with discussing the new roles of adult educators and the challenge this poses to further education programs. A central point expressed during an initial seminar was that the education of teachers and adult educators is not keeping up sufficiently with the current requirements and changes in the labour market and society. The possibilities for adult teacher education and in-service training at different levels, differs within the Nordic countries. Still it seems to be a common issue for the Nordic countries that the arena for adult teacher training has similar problematic characteristics, such as e.g. indistinct described professional qualification demands especially regarding the pedagogical and didactic competence, a tendency to more academic education with focus on theory and reflection and less possibilities for training e.g. different teaching methods, how to be present in different learning environments, in groups with a high level of diversity often demanding tailor made teaching resources.

As in many other areas of education and competence development the central question raised could be formulated as: “How to move from knowledge to competence in teacher training and education?“

On this background NVL initiated a Nordic task force in 2006 with the aim of mapping new competence demands for adult teachers and suggest possible appropriate educational and training initiative for adult educators.

The project has an empirical approach which during the process was supplemented and had inspiration from qualified research based theoretical inputs. The methods and designs used for collection of data were composed in cooperation with a
researcher. The researcher did the evaluation design and supervised during the process of interpreting the data.

The NVL project on adult education, “Voks пед.”

The task

The main task for the NVL taskforce was to
- map “best practice” and experiences within creative and innovative continuing education for adult educators in the Nordic region, and
- investigate competence requirements facing adult educators in innovative practice
- prepare, carry out and evaluate a developmental project including pilot courses with an innovative content for Nordic adult educators
- recommend and formulate suggestions for in service training courses for adult educators
- disseminate the results to institutions and others who would be interested in carrying on the activities

The mapping of innovative practice and teacher requirements

The task force members represented all the Nordic countries and both formal, non-formal and in-formal education and one represented a company. Together with the NVL national coordinators it was a strong basis for searching innovative best practice within the educational area. Study visits to educational institutions at all levels and companies with in-service training made different aspects of innovative practice visible. Totally 10 study visits were carried out. A few examples from the project can illustrate some aspects.

Learning environments turned out to be an important issue. Some characteristics for innovative environments were among other things that the décor of the rooms were flexible with flexible and movable furniture and “walls”. There were no traditional school class arrangements, and the rooms and buildings combined the feeling of factory, office and education, and at the same time efficiency and creativity. A combination of minimalism, functionalism, retro and modern signals in flexible and movable rooms left the impression of very spacious arenas for sharing knowledge, ideas and inspirations strongly supported by advanced technology. This kind of learning environments existed both at a non formal and a university educational level.

Quitecrete the arrangements of rooms are very important for how bodies are moving e.g directions, levels, paces and in consequence of this how people relate to each other and to the subject. The possibility for matching the demands of the subject to the constellation of relations, materials, speed, expressions and not least the student activity and self-determination in the work were strong arguments for these arrangements of the learning environments given by the teachers, lecturers and leaders of the schools.

Another characteristic issue was that the institutions and organisations visited, all in their structure in one way or another emphasised cooperation and correlations between different sectors, areas or levels of organising learning processes, e.g. correlation between profession, work, education and teaching methods, or cooperation between Ministry, wage earners and employers organisations.
Besides strong emphasise on student activity, -participation, self- determination and own responsibility also working with “real products” as a part of the content was emphasised in different ways. It could be in form of being responsible for reel companies or projects including the economical risks and possibilities or being responsible for a theatre performance for an external public. The central point was that the product was real including the risk for real gain or loss, success or failure.

To be a teacher in educational environments like this requires beside a strong professional knowledge a personal integrity and an ability to remain present in changeable contexts, new roles and ways of working with knowledge and competence development. The subject has to be communicated adapted to the concrete context and the demands of both the students, the subject and the formalized external goals. The interviewed persons in the study visits defined requirements for teacher competences such as the ability to be present as a professional and as fellow human being, to be flexible, communicative and innovative, to have well developed communication skills, dialogical and analytic competences, be able to handle and facilitate cultural meetings, leading processes be self reflective and innovative. Teachers should be able to work spontaneously, simultaneously and at the same time have the courage to move and be moveable both concrete in rooms, related to the teaching subject, teaching methods and at the same time keep a distance so that reflection “in” and “on” practice is realized continuously.

The teacher’s strong professional knowledge on the subject was regarded as a prerequisite and was hardly mentioned. Instead it was underlined that the professional knowledge had to be supplemented with the ability outwardly to be present and in direct contact with students in varying situations, and at the same time keep an internally awareness on own reactions and sense of perspective. This kind of knowledge “to do the right thing, in the right manner, at the right moment” is a contextual, experience based knowledge that can be acquired only by experience and training in practical and concrete situations. Theoretical and technical professional knowledge is an important basis for being adaptable present as a teacher in educational situations. What was made visible in the mapping and discussions was that in innovative practice the teacher theoretical and technical competences should be supplemented with another kind of competence that maybe could be described with the Aristotelian concept of phronesis. Developing this kind of knowledge demands learning environments with possibilities for experiencing and training, how to e.g. act with flexibility, handle disturbances, resistence and quick changes in moveable conditions.

The pilot courses

The NVL taskforce disseminated and discussed the results from the mapping on a working seminar with competent researchers and practicians. At the working seminar the central focus points were defined and described into three themes for pilot projects. Through the themes the participants at the working seminar tried to catch and cover the demands for teacher competences other than knowledge of the subject and more traditional pedagogical and didactic knowledge and competences. The purpose of the first theme, “The teacher as a Coach”, was to challenge and convey the change of the teacher’s role in a very different and innovative learning environment at Team Academy, Jyväskylä, Finland. The purpose of the second theme “The teacher on stage” was to catch and work with the ability to stay present –professional and personal in changeable
contexts (disturbance competence). The course was held in Denmark partly at “Performers House”, an international highschool for theatre, dance and music in Silkeborg, and partly at competence center, Odense. The purpose of the third theme “Needsassessment the teacher as a course designer” was to train the ability to identify company needs and develop taylormade educational activities. The third course was carried out in Reykjavik, Iceland arranged by the University of Iceland.

Each pilot course was evaluated through respectively individual and anonymous questionnaires which all participants answered and qualitative interviews with representative chosen participants. Central points for evaluation of the courses were related to the task given by the Nordic Council of ministers and focused on among other things The Nordic perspective, the experienced innovative and different perspective the, applicability to own practice and the experienced level of value. The participant perspective was emphasized in the evaluation.

**Key points from the evaluation**

The adult educators participating in the courses were experienced adult educators with 3-30 years of experience. Most of me were women and nearly all described themselves as being professionally “in transit” from one job to another or moving from one kind of tasks to new ones. They all regularly participated in in-service training and most of them had currently experienced new demands to their competences due to changing conditions in the area of education. All together 31 persons participated, several in more than one course.

Generally, the participants were very positive in their assessment of the two pilot projects, all would participate in another similar initiative. They described different aspects of innovative experiences during the courses, but some emerge as more important and common than others.

Particularly the encounter with differences and similarities between various Nordic perspectives was seen as a very positive element that encourages constructive, innovative thinking. The Nordic countries share to a great extend fundamental values, but at the same time differs quite a lot as regards expressions, behaviour, ways of acting, theoretical and didactic approaches. The differences and new things were experienced in a situation of a recognizable basis, which might be a good take-off for trying out new acting, reacting and behaviour. To change deeper habits and positions often induce unease and uncertainty in the changing period and the process might be encouraged if the participants feel comfortable about the situation and safe with their fellow students. The cross-sectoral aspect, too, was a source of inspiration and provided new perspectives. To have an encounter between sectors and work areas with the related habitus can open for similar type of insights as the Nordic cultural encounter.

What the participants experienced as the most “innovative” and valuable element was that instruction took place in authentic, innovative and different learning environments and that the approach was experience-oriented as opposed to “lectures” and teachersteered tasks. “Feeling” the possibilities and limitations of this approach personally gave the participants insight and inspired them to use similar methods in their own work.

Many participants expressed a need for more didactic theory, a common didactic framework, as well as critical and nuanced reflection. The results could be improved by an appropriate dosage of “something different”, while the main focus should still be on
experience-oriented activities and exercises, with space for experiences complete with emotional reactions, as well as reflection and relating the experience to one’s own work.

As the participants put it, this way of teaching calls for experienced educators, who can see both the possibilities and limitations of their own approach. It is obvious in the evaluation that a more training end experienced based education with advantage could be integrated in more traditional theoretical education, so that the teacher training in practice vary between experience, reflections, testing and allows both intellectual and emotional approaches. The NVL taskgroup also evaluation the process and the product and to a large extent the results coincided the students assessments.

**Recommendations**

On this background the NVL task group gave following main recommendations for continuing work and development of in-service teacher training courses.

- It is recommended to invest resources in the development of Nordic continuing education and training for adult teachers. Other than the reasons already mentioned, cross-national Nordic courses could strengthen the teachers courage to engage in international co-operations and collaborations, and it could strengthen the Nordic profile on adult education.

- It is important to organise the courses in different Nordic locations, so that the innovative learning environments are understood in its cultural and sectoral context, and that the cross-cultural element are actively included in the course content.

- It is crucial to organise the courses in authentic, innovative educational environments, and secure that the experiences are set in a wider perspective through critical didactic reflection and related to own practice. It is not sufficient and will not produce the requested competence development if you approach innovative practice only theoretically. The work process should allow participants to test and practice innovative methods.

- It is important to ensure that target groups are Nordic and multi-sectoral and that content is relevant to the field of adult pedagogy and usable in the participants’ daily work tasks.

**The continuing work**

The work of the NVL s taskforce - mapping, testing and giving recommendations related to adult teacher training is completed with the reports. But NVL still considers adult educator professionalization as a crucial issue in the broader discussion of competence development and quality. Therefore NVL has invited selected Nordic educational institutions to a working seminar in January 2010. The purpose of the seminar is to initiate and support a new Nordic group of qualified professional actors, who can continue the work creating a Nordic in-service training for adult educators. The suggestion from NVL is that the courses are organized as separate moduls provided as not compulsory parts of existing educations. It’s very important that the courses are not competing to existing adult educations but supplements with aspects not offered in traditional environments.

Further NVL in cooperation with two Nordplus projects, BABER and Needsassessment, are planning a Nordic conference on “Professionalization of the Adult Teacher”, 1-2 March 2010.
References

**Nordic organisations involved in the project**
NVL – Nordic Network for adult learning [www.nordvux.net](http://www.nordvux.net)

**Reports and publication with English summaries**

Appendices

**Appendix 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Members of the taskforce</th>
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<tr>
<td>Different participants have been in the task force related to different periods and tasks. A core group has followed the whole process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The core group</td>
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<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sturla Bjerkaker</td>
<td>Generalsekretær for VOFO i Oslo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisbeth Junker Mathiassen</td>
<td>Projektleder, konsulent, Tietgen kompetencecenter, Odense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Liselott Assarsson</td>
<td>tidigare Institutionen för beente devetenskap och lärande, Linköpings universitet, numera universitetslektor i pedagogik, Växjö universitet</td>
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<tr>
<td>Island</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sigrun Jóhannesdóttir</td>
<td>Fræislumíðstöð Atvinnuláfsins, Arbetslivets Opplæringscenter, Reykjavik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVL</td>
<td>Dansk koordinator Maria Marquard</td>
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| The evaluation group |  |
| Denmark |  |
| Lisbeth Junker Mathiassen | Projektleder, konsulent, Tietgen kompetencecenter, Odense |
| Sweden |  |
| Liselott Assarsson | tidigare Institutionen för beente devetenskap och lärande, Linköpings universitet, numera universitetslektor i pedagogik, Växjö universitet |
| Reykjavik |  |
| Sigrun Jóhannesdóttir | Fræislumíðstöð Atvinnuláfsins, Arbetslivets Opplæringscenter, |
| NVL | Dansk landekoordinator Maria Marquard |

**Appendix 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants related to the study visits, pilot courses or planning meetings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaana Hiltunen Coach</td>
<td>udvikler og konsulent Team Academy, Jyväskylä</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuija Österman</td>
<td>Vuxenpedagog, Svenska yrkesinstitutet i Vasa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mats Österman</td>
<td>Konsulent og udvikler Vacon Plc, Vasa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVL Finland</td>
<td>Carola Lindholm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hilde Björkedal</td>
<td>Folkeuniversitetet, Oslo, Norwegian dept./norsk afd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Island</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hróbjartur Árnason</td>
<td>Lektor Island pedagogiska Universitet, Reykjavik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britta Hilding Jeppesen</td>
<td>Leder af efter- og videreuddannelsesafdeling, Performers House</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lars Ilum</td>
<td>Forstader, Performers House</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stig Skovbo</td>
<td>Silkeborg uddannelsescenter, nu privat konsulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maria Ryberg Nielsen</td>
<td>Underviser, konsulent indenfor IT, Tietgen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supporting the Nordplusfunding</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benedikta Harris</td>
<td>Nordplus, Cirius</td>
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</table>
Adult Trainer's Psycho-pedagogical Expertise – a Necessity.

General Context of Problem Approach

Various studies have been produced in the second part of the 20th century in an attempt to identify the competencies needed by educators of adults. Most of the studies seek to identify the competencies of adults’ education teachers and administrators (Grabowski, 1976; Knox, 1979) although one study addressed the skills and knowledge needed by adults' educators in future (Rossman and Bunning, 1978). The Models for Excellence study (American Society for Training and Development, 1983) produced a list of thirty-one competencies and identified fifteen roles performed by training and development professionals who work mostly with the business and industry sector. The majority of such studies are concerned with the identification of specific roles or settings in adults’ education.

Grabowski (1976) suggested that the competent adult and continuing education practitioner should have the following abilities: understand and take into account the motivation and participation patterns of adult learners, understand and provide for the needs of adult learners, be knowledgeable in the theory and practice of adult learners, know the community and its needs, know how to use various methods and techniques of instruction, possess communication and listening skills, know how to locate and use education materials, have an open mind and allow adults to pursue their own interests, be able to evaluate and appraise a program.

Knox (1979) investigated proficiencies of educators of adults and proposed three core proficiencies needed by practitioners, regardless of institutional and role specifications. He suggested that all adults’ educators need to possess an understanding of the adults’ education field, of various aspects qualities such as commitment to lifelong learning, the effectiveness of interpersonal relations, and the desire for the improvement of practice through innovative strategies.

Ever since 1986, Griffith signaled that those who have been trained in adults’ education provide better services to participants than those who have not.

The basic idea of the works written by the quoted actors is that the adults’ trainer who benefited from psycho-pedagogic training shall successfully assume, in the training process, each role, shall give intensity and force to the learning activities. The psycho-pedagogical competences of the adults’ trainer shall help such trainer to begin the traineeship starting from the trainee’s need to learn. (E.C. Lindeman, M. Knowles). In the attempt to explain it, the adults’ trainer shall sensitize the trainee on the personal gain to be acquired by learning, which gain materializes in the personal and professional development, in the increase of his/her life quality.

Also, the psycho-pedagogical competences of the adults’ trainer allow such trainer to also exercise his/her role as facilitator of an exchange of experiences. Such role is in close connection to a basic principle of the adults’ education: the exchange of experience among learning participants constitutes an excellent source of learning. In this regard,
R. Mucchielli underlined that the adults need to learn practical behaviors in new professional situations, and less academic theories.

Therefore, psycho-pedagogical competences are the result of the training process of the adults’ trainer but also of the gaining of a certain practical experience in the training field. This practical experience conditions the success in the training activity and is important for developing the pedagogical skills of the adults’ trainer.

**Romanian Context of Problem Approach**

The problem related to the identification and definition of psycho-pedagogical competences of the teacher/trainer can also be found in the Romanian experts’ concerns. In this regard, Romanian psychologist N. Mitrofan (1988) associates pedagogical skill to 3 types of competences acting in an integrated manner: the scientific competence, the psycho-pedagogical competence and the psychosocial competence. In N. Mitrofan’s opinion, **the scientific competence** targets the good specialized training, the expertise in the scientific field it represents. In a generic approach, **psycho-pedagogical competences** target the knowledge of the manifestation and learning peculiarities of educable persons of different age categories, the determination of the learning contents difficulty degree, but also their accessibility by resorting to specific didactic methodologies and strategies.

The educator/trainer manifests the desire of understanding the educable person, of penetrating his/her inner world and especially of anticipating his/her learning difficulties. For this reason, the educator/trainer continuously rewords the learning contents and creates new models to pedagogically influence the educable person’s personality. In the opinion of the same author, **psychosocial competence** regards both the takeover by the trainer of different roles according to learning contexts and the establishment of harmonious relationships with the others, the efficient communication with the educable persons, their positive influence and, last but not least, the exercise of authority and the practicing of different styles for managing the group of trainees/educable persons.

On the other hand, Romanian pedagogue I. Jinga (1998) considers that the set of psycho-pedagogical competences necessary to the educator/trainer results from a complex of capacities which support teaching-learning/training activities. The first one is the capacity of knowing educable persons with their age and psycho-individual peculiarities. On this basis, the capacity of designing and developing training/learning sessions according to the psychological peculiarities of educable persons is developed.

The capacity of easily communicating to educable persons facilitates the passing to the capacity of motivating educable persons to learn. Also in this case, a pedagogical competence is based on a psychosocial competence. In its argumentation, professor Jinga underlines that such pedagogical competences mainly consist in the ability to pedagogically design the entire training program (or certain learning sequences), in the setting of realistic objectives, in selecting training contents and strategies, in creating adequate learning situations, in establishing evaluation methods and instruments, etc. Only the educator/trainer having a set of psycho-pedagogical competences – says the mentioned author – has the capacity to prepare educable persons in view of permanent self-education and education.
Crossroads in Romanian Adult Education

Approach of Psycho-Pedagogical Competences in Adults’ Education in Romania before 1989

Before 1989, the initial and continuous training of didactic personnel was the only modality which provided psycho-pedagogical competences to the teaching staff. From among all activity fields, the educational one was the most advantaged in terms of the attention paid to the continuous training during the communist regime period. Even if over the initial training period the training as a teacher was insufficient and rather had a formal nature, after entering the education system, the teaching staff had the obligation to participate in continuous training programs which also necessarily included psycho-pedagogical training. However, teachers’ psycho-pedagogical training was also quite limited because it did not also target the adults’ psycho-pedagogy field. As regards the improvement of the teaching staff there was a correct vision on teachers’ continuous training, even if there were constraining regulations in this regard.

During the same period, the continuous training of adults reduced, in principle, to improvement at the work place through different qualification and re-qualification forms. However, such programs did not target the gaining of psycho-pedagogical competences but were focused on the development of certain professional abilities.

Adults’ Education in Romania after 1989

The adults’ education field knew a special development after 1989. Given the full change of the context for approaching the problems related to the professional qualification/re-qualification, the continuous training, the lifetime learning, a special interest in the trainer’s psycho-pedagogical training also begins to manifest. In this regard, continuous training institutions multiply, the quality of training suppliers improves, and the quality of trainers’ training is reconsidered through regulations stipulating the necessity that the trainers acquire, until 2010, psycho-pedagogical competences. (Romanian Government Ordinance no. 129/2000).

In the higher education system an increased interest in an advanced qualification in trainers’ training is established. In big Romanian university centers (Bucharest, Timișoara, Iași, Brașov) in-depth studies of master course in trainers’ training type are organized. In Iași, a European master course in the Management of Adults’ Education was recently launched in the “A.I.Cuza” University.

The adults’ professional training and lifetime learning constitute priority objectives for the reformation of the Romanian labor market. As regards professional training services, today there is a competitive market in Romania. A lot of accredited (public/private) professional training suppliers provide a wide range of training courses. The New Labor Code (Law no. 53/2003) pays a special attention to the professional training within enterprises and provides for the obligation of all employers to ensure the periodical access of employees to professional training. For this reason, at the level of certain ministries, economic units, enterprises, autonomous administrations or companies, there is a series of intra-organizational professional improvement offers.

The adults’ professional training is focused, in the first stage, on initiation or qualification in a certain profession so that, subsequently, it targets complex activities related to the specialization, improvement or re-qualification at the workplace. The adults’ continuous professional training designates the “technical” component of adults’ education and involves mechanisms and structures resorting to important material
resources (the state is one of the most important partners in the financing) and to human resources especially qualified for this field. From this point of view, the adults’ continuous professional training is the obligation of the Ministry of Labor, Social Solidarity and Family and is monitored through its subordinated institutions:
- The National Employment Agency (established in 1998), a governmental organization (with county units), coordinates at a central level the active measures for stimulating labor force occupancy;
- The regional centers for adults’ professional training (established in 2000)
- The National Council for the Adults’ Professional Training, an institution with a significant role having a tripartite structure (representatives of the Ministry of Education, of the Ministry of Labor, of employers’ associations and trade unions).

Romanian professional training suppliers focused on trainers’ training observe, by law, the occupational trainer standard. This occupational standard drafted in 2001 was reviewed in 2007. In this last version, the concern for psycho-pedagogical competences is much more highlighted.

The current occupational profile describes the trainer as the “person showing a special psychological inclination to the things outside his/her own person, with an attention oriented to the physical and social ambience, easiness of communication and sociability...” and provides that the necessary basic knowledge and habits for the exercise of this profession also target those in the “Education and training” and “Psychology” fields. Paradoxically, although the importance that the trainer holds psychological competences was underlined in the occupational profile of the trainer, however, in the occupational trainer standard it is established that such competences are actually inexisten.

Despite the numerous elements for improving the normative framework targeting the psycho-pedagogical training of adults’ trainers, there still is a real discrepancy between the teacher’s psycho-pedagogical competence profile and the psycho-pedagogical competence profile of the adults’ trainer, as it can also be seen from the synthetic table below:

Table 1. Comparative table: psycho-pedagogical profile of the trainer- psycho-pedagogical profile of the teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training of adults’ trainers (competence categories)</th>
<th>Teachers’ training (competence categories)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPETENCES</td>
<td>PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. to the 2007 Trainer occupational standard, code 241 205</td>
<td>According to the Romanian teacher’s competences model</td>
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<tr>
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<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Competences specific to the occupation Professional training of the personnel:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- preparation of the training;</td>
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<tr>
<td>- achievement of training activities;</td>
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<tr>
<td>- evaluation of training participants;</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- application of training methods and techniques.</td>
<td>1. Psychosocial competences (related to the building of relationships or communication)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Optional competences Management of training programs:</td>
<td>2. Self-evaluation competences</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Technological competences</td>
<td>2. Technological competences</td>
</tr>
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</table>
- training marketing;
- designing of training programs;
- organization of training programs and traineeships;
- evaluation, review and assurance of the training programs and traineeships quality.

3. Pupils’ evaluation competences

4. Career management competences

The comparative analysis reveals that, as regards the training of adults’ trainers there is still a great need of a complete legislative framework in terms of the clear definition of the set of psycho-pedagogical competences.

As regards teachers’ psycho-pedagogical profile, it is well stated in the legislative documents regarding the initial and continuous training of the didactic personnel. Recently, the initial psycho-pedagogical training of future teachers was reviewed (Order of the Ministry of Education no. 4316/ 2008) so that it also offers competences in the adults’ education field, which aspect was neglected in the previous periods.

According to education law, the continuous training of teachers is mainly ensured through didactic degrees and continuous training programs provided by specialized departments established for this purpose (with a psycho-pedagogical mission) within universities, but also through methodic activities (at the level of school institutions), cyclic improvement activities (once every 5 years, through the mentioned departments, teaching staff resource centers, training sessions offered by the Ministry of Education, Romanian improvement centers at a university level).

In addition to the need of psycho-pedagogical expertise of the adult trainer, a series of difficulties are established at the level of the adults’ education field organization and systematization manner:

- Absence of a national coherent lifetime learning strategy;
- The maintenance of a conceptual confusion regarding the theoretical framework of adults’ education;
- The failure to correlate the initial training to the continuous training offered to adults;
- Synchronization difficulties among the Romanian ministries with adults’ education duties (the Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation, the Ministry of Labor, Social Solidarity and Family, the Ministry of Culture and Cults)
- The absence of instruments for monitoring professional progress, evaluating and inserting graduates on the labor market;
- The sporadic nature of second chance programs;
- Insufficient funds for the trainers’ training and the absence of clear stipulations about the status of trainers in the adults’ education;
- The small number of publications referring to the adults’ education.

**Questioning the Beneficiaries**
Since the study of educational policy documents and the historical analysis of the manner in which the Romanian adults’ education evolved seem insufficient to us to highlight the necessity to focus adults’ trainers training programs on the development/optimization of psycho-pedagogical competences, we consider it is useful to also highlight the opinions of adults’ trainers on this problem. In this regard, we shall present below a diagnosis study (made by the authors of this material) which had two objectives:

- the knowledge of the importance given to psycho-pedagogical competences by the suppliers of adults’ trainers training programs;
- the knowledge of perceptions of graduates of certain adults’ training programs on the manner in which they perceive the psycho-pedagogical competences of the trainers they worked with.

**Duration of the investigation:** March 2 – May 2, 2009

**Stages in study performance:**

1. analysis of the web sites of 14 suppliers of adults’ trainers training through improvement programs (40-120 hours) and of 4 suppliers, highly specialized in the training of adults’ trainers (universities – suppliers of master programs)
2. interviewing of adults’ trainers on their psycho-pedagogical competences (through e-mail);
3. questioning of graduates of adults’ training programs on the psycho-pedagogical competences of the trainers they worked with

**Analysis of the investigation results**

**Analysis of the web sites of adults’ training suppliers**

The following resulted further to the synthetization of the information collected from the studied web sites:

- 89% of the adults’ training suppliers launch their training offer as training for the companies;
- in defining the competences targeted through the attendance of the training program, 97.4% of the adults’ training suppliers strictly relate to the competence units in the trainer occupational standard (page 5), the titles of competence units also being found in training programs as distinct stages /courses: “the preparation of training, the performance of training activities, the evaluation of training participants, the application of special training methods and techniques, the training marketing, the designing of training programs, the organization of training programs and of traineeships, the evaluation, review and assurance of the training programs and traineeships quality”
- the training program /curriculum is designed either on a modular basis (13%), or as distinct disciplines to which a certain number of hours (min.40 hours/5 days-max.120 hours/60 days) is associated;
- 83% of the targeted competences are pedagogical, focused on the "development of the capacity to plan a training course for adults, the development of the capacity to promote the training program, the adaptation of the training intervention to organizational peculiarities, the selection of the relevant information for training objectives, the development of the capacity related to the evaluation and self-evaluation of the impact obtained further to the training program";
- psychological competences are only 17% gained, especially those focused on "the development of the capacity to communicate with adults’ groups, the development of the
capacity to apply the trainer role and responsibilities within the training group, the knowledge of the social groups dynamics and of the group psychology peculiarities”;
- master study programs destined to the training of adults’ trainers (supplied by several Romanian university centers: Timișoara, Bucharest, Iași, Brașov) are 88% focused on the accumulation of theoretical and functional knowledge in the training engineering and pedagogical engineering fields and only 12% of them refer to psychological competences (for instance “the capacity to argument a certain educational demarche with the adult starting from adults’ psychological bases”)

**Interviewing of certain adults’ trainers on their psycho-pedagogical competences**
Further to the e-mail interview of the 14 respondents (adults’ trainers), a series of paradoxical findings resulted:
- 19% of the trainers within the programs for adults’ trainers training have no training in the adults’ psycho-pedagogy field;
- certain adults’ trainers received a certain general pedagogical training, but:
  - 43% attended no training program in the field related to the application of teaching-learning interactive modern methods in the last 15-20 years;
  - 63% attended no training program in the field related to the application of modern methods for the evaluation of evaluative alternative techniques,
  - 59% attended no training program in the field related to the use of efficient communication techniques;
  - 34% of the adults’ trainers are not aware of all their training needs, especially of the psychological ones.

**Studying of the graduating trainees’ perceptions on the psycho-pedagogical competences of the trainers they worked with**
**Target group:** 36 graduates of 5 adults’ training programs provided by 5 private bodies specialized in the education of adults in three different areas of Romania
**Procedure:**
- application of the questionnaire for identifying the perceptions of graduates of adults’ training programs on the psycho-pedagogical competences of the trainers they worked with,
- application of the chi-square test, a non-parametric statistic test to provide information on the significance of the discrepancy between the noticed results and waited results, after the application of the mentioned questionnaire.
**Representativeness of the target group:** the questioned subjects graduated continuous training programs organized by suppliers coming from different geographic areas of Romania, i.e.:
Table 2. Suppliers of adults’ training programs whose graduates were questioned

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supplier</th>
<th>Denomination of the training program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DKM TRAINING SRL Timișoara</td>
<td>Trainers’ Training Program (TTP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOREGROUND SRL Cluj Napoca</td>
<td>3T Program (Train The Trainer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRECSON Institute, Bucharest</td>
<td>Trainers’ Training Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CISA Association, Bacău</td>
<td>Course for trainers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OREMA MANAGEMENT SRL Hunedoara</td>
<td>Professional training course for trainers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis and interpretation of the obtained data

A detailed analysis of the respondents’ opinion shaping manner per categories of competences is highlighted in the tables below:

Table 3: Shaping respondents’ opinion on the categories of acquired gains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>new knowledge</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abilities and habits</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical abilities</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obtained data reveal that the most important gains obtained at the end of a training program destined to adults are “new knowledge” (the value is 13.0). We also note that Chi-Square (2) is 21.167, and p=0.000, which means that there is a shaped opinion in our sample as regards the weight of the “new knowledge” gains acquired at the end of the training program.

The shaping of the respondents’ opinion on the didactic methods used by the trainers is highlighted in the table below:

Table 4: Shaping of the respondents’ opinion regarding the didactical methods used by the trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative methods</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive methods</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical methods</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective methods</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>-5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case studies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>-4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The synthetized data reveal that the logical methods dominated in the training process (the value is 13.8).

The shaping of respondents’ opinion on the strategic elements of which the trainees were informed by the trainers from the very beginning of the training program is highlighted in the table below:
Table 5: Shaping of respondents’ opinion on the strategic elements of which they were informed by the trainers from the very beginning of the training program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. To what extent did the trainers inform you from the beginning of the program of the strategy elements?</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- the competences you shall gain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the evaluation manner at the end of each program sequence</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the manner of adapting learning to learning needs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The residues in table 6 indicate (through their value: 15) the fact that trainers informed trainees from the beginning of the program especially of the evaluation manner applied at the end of each sequence of the program.

The shaping of respondents’ opinion on the didactic material used by trainers in the training process is highlighted in the table below:

Table 6: Shaping respondents’ opinion on the didactic material used by trainers in the training process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. How do you consider that the didactical material was used by the trainers?</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>well selected</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>necessary</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sufficient</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 reveals that most of the respondents (22) consider that the didactic material used by the trainers in the training process was the “necessary” one (the residual value is 10) and only 9 respondents state that the didactic material was well selected.

The shaping of respondents’ opinion on the evaluation tests used by the trainers at the end of the training program is evidenced in the table below:

Table 7: Shaping of respondents’ opinion on the evaluation tests used by the trainers at the end of the training program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. What evaluation tests were used by trainers at the end of the training program?</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- written tests</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- oral tests</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- practical tests</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>-9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspecting the residues in table 7, the highest value is 14, which leads to the opinion that the most used evaluation tests applied by trainers at the end of the training program are written tests.

To highlight the manner in which respondents’ opinion shaped on all the acquired psycho-pedagogical competences, we present below the final results of the application of the non-parametric chi-square test (goodness of fit).
The study helped to the highlighting of especially significant aspects regarding the psycho-pedagogical competences of the trainers involved in the programs subject to analysis. In this regard, the following findings were made:

- trainers are concerned especially with the presentation of the “new knowledge” and much less with the shaping of abilities and habits or the development of practical abilities;
- trainers preponderantly apply logical methods in facilitating adults’ learning, which indicates that trainers are more focused on cognitive gains and less on the exercise of relevant behaviors for settling problematic situations required by learning contexts;
- trainers use a small extent case studies, interactive, demonstrative and reflective work methods involving trainees in the settlement of problems, in debates and allowing them the immediately apply what they learnt;
- trainers are little concerned to state from the beginning of the program the competences to be gained by the trainees through the attendance of the training program;
- trainers consult to a small extent their trainees from the very start of the program on their learning needs in order to adapt their didactic itinerary according to such needs;
- trainers use the support materials they deem it necessary but which do not fully satisfy trainees, since they consider them well selected and sufficient to a small extent;
- trainers use to a small extent the evaluation methods through oral and practical tests, preferring written evaluation forms, of a reconstructive type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Chi-Squarea</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Which are the most important gains you acquired through the program you just graduated?</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>21.167</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Which of the didactic methods used by the trainers significantly contributed to the development of your pedagogical abilities?</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>34.278</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To what extent did trainers informed you from the beginning of the program of the strategy elements?</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>28.500</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How do you consider that the didactic material was used by the trainers?</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>13.167</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What evaluation tests were used by trainers at the end of the training program?</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>25.167</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all cases, a. o cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 12.0.
Conclusions

Of course, Romania – like other states recently released from the communist regime, faces a series of problems which contribute to the postponement of the decision to intervene so as to optimize the psycho-pedagogical profile of the adults’ trainer. These difficulties are generated by a series of aspects of the social life:
- through the considerable mobility of the economic field they determine the reduction of the durations for which the cumulated abilities and knowledge maintain their vulnerability;
- the lack of skill in accessing European funds;
- the keeping of a certain gap between theoretical and practical training;
- the inertia of the population of a certain age as regards lifetime learning;
- the lack of trust in training suppliers;
- the inexistence of national mechanisms for the monitoring, coordination, harmonization of domain systematization efforts;
- the entrustment of adults’ continuous training, to a large extent, to the Ministry of Labor, Social Solidarity and Family.

Of course, these difficulties could be overcome in time, by the efforts for becoming aware of the importance of psycho-pedagogical expertise of the trainers within authorized institutions and of the decision-making factors within the ministry with duties regarding the permanent education (i.e. the Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation)

We conclude by underlining the importance that the adults’ trainer has knowledge in the psychology field for:
- the increase of the degree in becoming aware of his/her personality characteristics;
- the conscious development of his/her own personality characteristics – which are definitive for the professional style of the adults’ trainer;
- the conscious gain of competences/abilities which may increase the impact force of the trainer’s educative interventions on the adults he/she works/interacts with;
- making more efficient the teaching-learning processes he/she performs/challenges;
- making more efficient the communication relationships with the adults or with other actors or institutions involved in such activity and with whom/he/she interacts.

Also, the knowledge in the pedagogy field is necessary for adults’ trainer for:
- designing and developing a learning program destined to adults;
- designing and developing the didactic itinerary according to the individual needs of adult trainees;
- applying interactive, stimulating teaching-learning methodologies, specific to adults’ learning;
- evaluating the training results by using a large, flexible methodology, adapted to adult ages;
- reviewing and improving the traineeship.

We conclude by recommending the conference audience to reflect on certain aspects related to the subjects of this article:
- What is the significance of psycho-pedagogical competences in the entire competence profile of the adults’ trainer?
- Do psycho-pedagogical competences of the adults’ trainer only have an individual relevance?
-Considering that their effect reflects on the manner in which graduates use the gains after having attended training programs, we wonder if they also have an economic significance (contributing to the confirmation of the investment efficiency)?
-Which are the most adequate evaluation modalities which can reveal the efficiency of the investment in the human resource?
In our opinion, such questions open new ways for investigating the competence profile of the adults' trainer.

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Different Roles of Adult Educator: Students' Preferences.

Introduction

In the context of contemporary changes in education, there is an intensive demand for changing the role of adult educator within the educational setting. Opposite to passive adoption of knowledge, the active approach is emphasized, which brings out the need for a different position of adult educator in the learning process. Such shift in focus from ‘teaching to learning’ assumes substantial new learning on teachers’ part; it requires changes not only in what is taught, but also in how is it taught (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1993, p.2, from: Holtz, Dorph and Goldring, 1997).

In order to stimulate and affirm active approach to learning, adult educator is no more seen as a didactical instructor, but someone to be permanent guide throughout life. Adult educator of today is less source of information and more mediator between learners and diverse knowledge coming from different sources (Đorđević and Đorđević, 1992). Such teacher is at the same time the source of knowledge and information, successful manager of educational work, guide through learning, a person who creatively develops different educational curriculum, balances group dynamics and stirs initiatives and independence. Thus, s/he is expected to help adult learners to become imaginative, creative, flexible, adaptive and independent personalities, which are enabled to express their full potential (Kulić and Despotović, 2005).

To satisfy such requirements and meet these expectations, the adult educator needs to establish different nature of relation with her/his students in the classroom or any other educational setting. In this context it is spoken of partnership in education. Namely, programs directed towards developing the full potential of adult learner, are also directed towards establishing partnership in relations of all participants, meaning interaction teacher – adult learner and interaction between learners themselves. All of the above applies to the University teacher.

Partnership in the educational setting is not only a guideline to follow in order to establish efficient educational process, but the prerogative without which the educational process today cannot be conceived. Educational process is a process realized through interaction. Therefore, the nature of establishing and developing relations in educational process is one of the key dimensions of every educational curriculum (Pavlović Brenselović and Pavlovski, 2000). However, to realization of educational curriculum is often approached from the point of conceptualization of educational content, whilst the issue of interaction is left to a personal style of a adult educator. If we wish an educational curriculum to be “...representative to its conception at the level of its realization” (Pavlović Brenselović and Pavlovski, 2000, p. 15), to be efficient and lead to results that it aims to, then the question of the nature of interaction must be developed dimension of educational curriculum in contrast to an adult educator or existing organizational atmosphere of a single institution.

In attempt to define partnership in education the authors take an assumption of its wider notion in contrast to the usual idea of democratic relations in educational settings (Pešić, 1987; Pavlović Brenselović and Pavlovski, 2000). From the point of view of Pavlović
Breneselović and Pavlović (2000), understanding partnership in educational setting shifts the focus:

- from the question of relation that teacher establishes with the participants, to a question of characteristics of mutual relations between teacher and participants, and
- from individual curriculum design of teacher to overall curriculum design and establishing partnership on every level, dimensions and areas of the curriculum.

Thus, the establishment of partnership means complex and complete approach that encompasses every level of educational curriculum (Pešić, 1987; Pešić, 1998; Pavlović Breneselović and Pavlović, 2000):

- At the level of curriculum as a model (the issue of curriculum context, its conception and structure)
- At the level of organizational climate (the issue of compatibility of organizational structure and main characteristics of partnership)
- At the level of planning the realization of the curriculum, in a whole and the specific aspects
- At the level of concrete realization of educational curriculum (partnership is established through specific communication skills and teaching methods)
- At the group level (partnership is established at the level of developing cooperation, communication skills, tolerance, positive emotional expression and conflict resolution skills)
- At the level of direct realization of professional role of teacher (partnership emerges through professional advanced training of teacher, which enables her/him to become more critical towards personal teaching praxis, and through her/his position in programme and organizational structure which enables her/him to be independent, initiative and creative in her/his line of work.

Observed in the broadest sense of meaning, partnership in educational setting represents relation between two or more persons brought about by mutual interests and leading to mutual objectives. Such relationship is based on exchange and positive interdependence manifested by equality, complementarity, competency, authenticity and democratic approach (Pavlović Breneselović and Pavlović, 2000). Equality assumes that partners are equal in terms of their rights and obligations, as to the level of power distribution and diversity at the level of individual expression: everyone has a right in terms of choice, decision, suggestion, personal opinion and everyone is responsible for her/his actions and behavior. Complementarity is about differences between partners in term of diversity in development, experiences, knowledge, abilities and preferences, but not the inequality. Positive interdependence of partners originates from these differences leading to a mutual benefit in which everyone receives as s/he gives. Competency means that the relation of mutual respect originates from authority based on abilities, traits and knowledge and not the distribution of power, so that in partnership based on competences everyone is able to express her/himself and develop furthermore. Authenticity refers to the fact that every member is a personality with her/his needs, traits, interests, preferences and immediate state, so that bringing together and interdependence of partners refers to aims and interests, not their subordination. Finally, equality, authenticity and mutual respect are being accomplished by taking into consideration democratic procedures and principles: accepting the opinion of majority, respecting the right to choice and decision, taking responsibility, being tolerant and open to compromise and accepting the norms and rules of behavior.
The contemporary demand of partnership in educational setting has considerable consequences to teaching and confronts University teachers to taking into a consideration different innovative approach to their teaching practice for creating more complex opportunities for learners. Their decisions are not only influenced by their perspectives on teaching and learning, but also by their readiness and openness to a accepting and practicing different roles. In the learning society, roles of University teacher are becoming more numerous and with an intensive responsibility. It became quite obvious that University teachers cannot successfully engage themselves in learning process with adult students without attending to their own mental models—the assumptions, beliefs, commitments, and roles that a given teacher brings to teaching and learning (Marienau and Reed, 2008). Thus, approach to different roles is not only matter of competencies but individual responsibility in regard to teacher’s profession. “For example, one teacher believes that ‘if the student has not learned, I have not taught’; another believes that ‘teach it, and the student is responsible for learning it’. Both are committed to teaching, but they see their roles with regard to learning quite differently” (Marienau and Reed, 2008, p.62). The responsibility is not only reflected in an effort to lead students to a certain degree or certificate, but to develop positive attitude towards learning, to develop curiosity, strengthen individuality and provide an environment for successful learning. Only by taking into consideration all above mentioned, University teachers can foster learning and enable learners to make use of possibility for lifelong learning and become successful lifelong learners (Kulić and Despotović, 2005).

Authors propose different roles and in the literature can be found different classifications. For example, Kulić and Despotović (2005) believe three following roles to be of the most importance: transmission of knowledge (providing information, interpreting, classifying, concluding, summarizing, etc.), guidance (preparing and introducing to learning situation, making connections between other disciplines and relevance to praxis, etc.) and class management (focusing the problem, planning the equipment, teaching methods, educational content, time management, etc.). Brookfield (1986) also emphasized three main roles: (1) educator as an artist, with characteristics like creativeness, innovativeness, improvising ability and sensibility; (2) educator as facilitator, being more a guide than an instructor, one who is open to learners’ experience and suggestions; and (3) educator as critical analyst, who provides help for learners to achieve self actualization and find alternatives to their present mental models and their lives in general.

Ivić et al (1997) suggested an overall classification of teachers’ roles in educational setting. The authors developed the classification in attempt to classify demands and expectations put before teachers in a variety of theoretical approaches in literature and the educational practice as well. The classification represents systematical review of possible teacher’s roles in teaching process that would allow teachers thinking over and evaluating their own teaching practice. According to the authors, the insight in the classification of different roles enables teachers to acknowledge which of the roles they recognize in their practice, to which extent they fulfill them, create their own evaluation of their work and accordingly include relevant changes in their future engagement. The authors identified six types of teacher’s roles, and some of them are divided further on into more specific roles:

1. Teaching role:
   - teacher as a lecturer
   - teacher as a class manager
teacher as partner in communication
2. Motivating role:
   - motivating for learning and developing interests
   - teacher as a model for professional identification
3. Evaluating role:
   - estimating and grading knowledge
   - estimating behavior and personality
4. Cognitive-diagnostic role
5. Regulator of social relations
6. Partner in affective interaction.

Since in this research we focus at University teachers’ roles, we adopted this classification, but we created the classification of nine types of roles as we believe to appear of most significance to their line of educational work. We agree that higher education system differs in various demands, organization and educational practice, which affects teaching and has implications to teachers’ roles. “The complexity of competencies of University teachers arises from different types, roles and works that university teaching includes: dealing with scientific work that contributes to scientific knowledge in particular field; defining relationship between science, subject and teaching and choosing relevant contents their innovating; defining learning aims and outcomes; planning and programming available time; choosing the ways of knowledge transmission, forms and methods of work; writing books and relevant literature; choosing, preparing and creating teaching materials; defining methodology and instruments for assessment of teachers and students achievements; creating ways of mentoring, tutoring, consulting and leading the students” (Medić and Milošević, 2005; p. 263). Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, for the purpose of this research, we adopted the following roles:

1. University teacher as a lecturer (provides information, presents educational content...)
2. University teacher as an organizer (presents the aims and objectives, plans educational materials, content, equipment, teaching and learning methods, time...)
3. University teacher as a communicator (asks questions, presents demands, gives opinions, advice, feedback, moderates discussion, stimulates academic interaction...)
4. University teacher as an expert (follows development of the discipline, presents innovations, acts as a source of information in her/his field...)
5. University teacher as a motivator (motivates learning, develops and keeps interests, acts as a model for professional identification...)
6. University teacher as an evaluator (evaluates knowledge, behavior...)
7. University teacher as a cognitive diagnostician (estimates individual abilities, preferences, talents, recognizes individual differences...)
8. University teacher as a regulator of social relations (moderates social interaction, regulates group dynamics, resolves conflicts...)
9. University teacher as a partner in affective interaction (recognizes emotional states and affective needs, shows openness to individual problems, provides help and counseling...).
This paper aims to present the research results of teachers’ roles considering students’ preferences. In order to explore which roles they find to be most desirable and most important for their education, we conducted research at Faculty of Philosophy in Belgrade, in July and August, 2009. The study involved students (N = 128) of all study years and all departments. The description of survey sample is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Description of survey sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey sample</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>64,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>35,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>33,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>47,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 6,9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 7,9</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>45,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 - 8,9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>33,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andragogy, Pedagogy, Psychology (first group)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>42,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology, Philosophy, Ethnology and Anthropology, history of Art, Archeology, History, Classical sciences (second group)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>57,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale for assessment of preferred teachers’ roles includes nine statements that refer to the description of nine teachers’ roles in educational process. Next to each statement we offered three-degree Likert’s scale (1 – the most important teachers’ role, 2 – role can be important, and 3 – the role is not important at all). We will present basic findings about desired teachers’ roles in educational process that we got from our sample in the following table (Table 2).

Table 2. Students’ preferences of University teacher’s roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University teacher’s Roles</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizer</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>.750</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicator</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>.750</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluator</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Diagnosticist</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulator of Social Relations</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner in Affective Interaction</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results presented in Table 2 show that students from the Faculty of Philosophy prefer the role of a University teacher as the lecturer in educational process. Although different theoretical models help us understand the importance and necessity of other teachers’ roles in educational process, it is obvious that traditional lecturer role is preferred among our students. Since survey refers to University teachers, highly preferred lecturer role can be interpreted as mostly common understanding of University teachers’ role: S/HE IS GOOD LECTURER. That is something that describes her/him, identifies
her/him and it is something that society expects from her/him – that s/he presents well to others the content that s/he knows, content that is her/his specialization.

Highly ranked roles among preferred University teachers’ roles are: organizer and partner in communication. Bit less preferred teacher’s roles among students are: expert in her/his field, motivator and evaluator. Least preferred teacher’s roles are: cognitive diagnostician role, regulator of social relations, and partner in affective communication.

We assumed that preferences of certain teachers’ roles among students can depend from: students’ gender, year at the faculty, average grade and department. There were no statistically important differences in teachers’ roles preferences according to gender and department.

Using One-Way ANOVA we examined the differences in preferences of certain teachers’ roles among students in regard to year of study. Statistically important difference appeared only about preferences for motivator teachers’ role (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University teachers’ role</th>
<th>Year of study</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>F-test (df)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivator</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>2.916 (3, 124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As additional analysis during One-Way ANOVA, Post hoc analysis was done (LSD). Values in Post hoc analysis show that students from second year prefer more motivator role of teachers comparing to the students from third and fourth year. This result can be interpreted by the fact that senior students have developed inner motivation for learning and that teacher is not important in that aspect.

By using One-Way ANOVA and Post hoc analysis (LSD) we determined that there are statistically important differences in evaluator role of University teachers according to the average grade of our students (Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University teachers’ role</th>
<th>Average grade</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>F-test (df)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluator</td>
<td>6 – 6,9</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>4.764 (3, 124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 – 7,9</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 – 8,9</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students with lowest and highest average grade emphasize less the importance of evaluator role than others. There is statistically important difference between the students with highest average grade and students with average grade between 7 and 9. Students with average grade between 7 and 9 emphasize more the importance of evaluator role than students with highest average grade. For students with highest and lowest average grade this is less important role. It seems like that for students with highest average grade grades are not the measure for knowledge that they possess. It is possible that they have developed mechanisms for self-evaluation as they developed inner motivation.
Our next research task refers to research of preferences of teachers’ roles through certain indicators for each role separately. By analyzing status and meaning of certain indicators we made table of indicators independently from the teachers’ role, but according to the rank of certain contents on overall indicators’ list of different teachers’ roles (Table 5).

| Table 5. Indicators of University teacher’s roles – students’ preferences (by rank) |
|-----------------------------------------------|------|------|-----|
| Indicators of University teacher’s Role | M    | Sd   | N   |
| I think a good teacher should always connect the knowledge that is adopted with knowledge from other areas and shows their practical application. **LECTURER** | 2.54 | .698 | 128 |
| I most appreciate teacher that promotes and maintains the attention of students during the lesson. **MOTIVATOR** | 2.38 | .710 | 128 |
| I believe the most important for a teacher is to contribute to comprehension and understanding the exposed. **MOTIVATOR** | 2.37 | .774 | 128 |
| I believe it is the most important that the teacher is fair in grading. **EVALUATOR** | 2.36 | .711 | 128 |
| The most important thing is that a teacher well presents material. **LECTURER** | 2.33 | .711 | 128 |
| Most importantly, the teacher should encourage existing and develop new interests of students. **MOTIVATOR** | 2.27 | .695 | 128 |
| The most important thing to me is that the teacher follows the development of her/his discipline and brings innovations to the subject. **EXPERT** | 2.27 | .818 | 128 |
| The most important thing is that the teacher is always well prepared to come to class. **ORGANIZER** | 2.20 | .787 | 128 |
| I appreciate the most the teachers who provide support for students when it is needed. **PARTNER IN AFFECTIVE INTERACTION** | 2.18 | .747 | 128 |
| Teacher should enjoy the respect on the basis of her/his knowledge. **EXPERT** | 2.14 | .811 | 128 |
| The most important thing is that the teacher gives feedback on students work and their success. **EVALUATOR** | 2.12 | .813 | 128 |
| The most important thing to me is that the teacher repeats and emphasizes what is important during the class. **LECTURER** | 2.11 | .806 | 128 |
| I think a good teacher is the one who monitors and evaluates the work of students throughout the year. **EVALUATOR** | 2.08 | .800 | 128 |
| I most appreciate teachers that value the opinion of students about what is done in class. **COMMUNICATOR** | 2.07 | .775 | 128 |
| I most appreciate teachers who encourage students to post questions and patiently answer them. **COMMUNICATOR** | 2.05 | .767 | 128 |
| The most important for the teacher is to set an objective of the lesson. **ORGANIZER** | 2.05 | .787 | 128 |
| The most important thing is that the teacher encourages students to the discussion. **COMMUNICATOR** | 2.02 | .827 | 128 |
| I believe it is important that the teacher plans the content, methods, activities and time for the realization of hours. **ORGANIZER** | 2.00 | .784 | 128 |
| Most importantly, the teacher should contribute to the positive atmosphere in class. **REGULATOR OF SOCIAL RELATIONS** | 1.96 | .767 | 128 |
| I believe that the most important is for the teacher to have good relationship with her/his students. **REGULATOR OF SOCIAL RELATIONS** | 1.90 | .751 | 128 |
| I believe it is important that the teacher recognizes and respects the different ways in which students learn, their academic and intellectual competencies. **COGNITIVE DIAGNOSTICIAN** | 1.84 | .781 | 128 |
| I most appreciate the teachers who know the answers to various student questions. **EXPERT** | 1.82 | .798 | 128 |
| The most important for a teacher is to emphasize merit, encourage students. **PARTNER IN AFFECTIVE INTERACTION** | 1.79 | .717 | 128 |
| Most importantly, the teacher should recognize individual differences in abilities of students, their preferences and potentials. **COGNITIVE DIAGNOSTICIAN** | 1.73 | .748 | 128 |
| The most important thing is that teacher formulates her/his demands in accordance with the perceived capabilities of students. **COGNITIVE DIAGNOSTICIAN** | 1.72 | .763 | 128 |
| I believe it is the most important that the teacher encourages collaboration between students and contributes to the development of good relations between | 1.67 | .754 | 128 |
The most important thing is that the teacher appreciates the emotional states and needs of students. **PARTNER IN AFFECTIVE INTERACTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator of Role</th>
<th>Year of Study</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>F-test (df)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most important thing is that the teacher gives feedback on students work and their success. <strong>EVALUATOR</strong></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.483</td>
<td>6.298 (3, 124)</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.812</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most importantly, the teacher should recognize individual differences in abilities of students, their preferences and potentials. <strong>COGNITIVE DIAGNOSTICIAN</strong></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>3.228 (3, 124)</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.688</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important for a teacher is to emphasize merit, encourage students.<strong>PARTNER IN AFFECTIVE INTERACTION</strong></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.483</td>
<td>2.863 (3, 124)</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.646</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results in Table 5 show that some of the teachers’ roles changed their place in the rank. Motivation role of a teacher is at the first place, and the role of a lecturer is right behind. It is obvious that the role of a teacher as motivator is more preferred among our students than one could conclude from the results from our first scale, where motivator role is at the fifth place on the rang list of preferred teachers’ roles. This result can be interpreted in different ways. One of it is that maybe the content of motivator role of a teacher was not clear in the previous scale. We prefer to interpret this result such as impossibility to observe lecturer and motivator role separately: if a teacher is good lecturer s/he is also good motivator – s/he stimulates and keeps attention among students during the class, develops the will to understand and learn the content, and in that way stimulates present and develops new interests among students.

Surprisingly, this time too, roles of regulator of social relations, partner in affective interaction, cognitive diagnostician were at the bottom of the list. It looks like it is more expected from University teacher to be scientist, expert in her/his field and that s/he motivates people that learn from her/him and that are studying for their future profession by her/his authority based on that.

We assumed that preferences of certain indicators of teachers’ roles could depend from: students’ gender, year at the faculty, average grade and department. Among measured variables, three of them show certain correlation with examined phenomena: year of study, average grade and department.

By using One-Way ANOVA and Post hoc analysis (LSD) we determined that there are statistically important differences according to the year of study in preferences for following University teachers’ roles: evaluator, cognitive diagnostician and partner in affective interaction (Table 6).

Senior students prefer more those aspects of teachers’ roles that emphasize recognition and respect of individual differences, giving feedback and in that sense
emphasizing merits, encouraging and stimulating students for further work. Senior students are more experienced students that have consciousness about importance of constructive feedback and stimulation from teacher for their success in studying. By using One-Way ANOVA and Post hoc analysis (LSD) we determined that there are statistically important differences in preferences of indicators of University teachers’ roles as evaluator according to the average grade of our students (Table 7). Students with highest average grade prefer less the dimension of this role that refers to the fact that teacher should know the answers on different students’ questions than other groups of students. This finding can be understood that students with best grades do not expect given solutions from teachers, but only ways and directions towards them.

Table 7. Preference of indicators of University teacher’s roles in regard to average grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator of Role</th>
<th>Average grade</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>F-test (df)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I most appreciate the teachers who know the answers to various student questions. EXPERT</td>
<td>6 - 6.9</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td>3.211 (3, 124)</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 - 7.9</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 - 8.9</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.590</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analyze of t-test for independent samples showed that there is statistically important difference between students in preferences of indicators of University teachers’ roles according to the department (study group) (Table 8). Students were divided in two groups, by separating students of Andragogy, Pedagogy and Psychology, because we assume that their pre-knowledge can affect differences in preferred teacher’s roles.

Table 8. Preference of indicators of University teacher’s roles in regard to different study group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator of Role</th>
<th>Study group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>t-test (df)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most important thing to me is that the teacher repeats and emphasizes what is important during the class. LECTURER</td>
<td>First group</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.773</td>
<td>2.235 (126)</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second group</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important thing is that a teacher presents material well. LECTURER</td>
<td>First group</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>2.228 (126)</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second group</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>.685</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher should enjoy the respect on the basis of her/his knowledge. EXPERT</td>
<td>First group</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.797</td>
<td>2.618 (126)</td>
<td>p=.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second group</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.789</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important thing is that the teacher appreciates the emotional states and needs of students. PARTNER IN AFFECTIVE INTERACTION</td>
<td>First group</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.685</td>
<td>2.517 (126)</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second group</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students from the second group (Sociology, Philosophy, Ethnology and Anthropology, History of Art, Archeology, History, and Classic sciences) more than the students from the first group (Andragogy, Pedagogy, Psychology) prefer the role of the
teacher as a lecturer and expert. On the other hand, students from the first group prefer more the role of a teacher that is at the last place in both ranks – role of a partner in affective communication. The question raised here is: do these differences in preferences for teachers' roles appear as a result of knowledge about them? Precisely: are three teachers' roles ranks at the bottom of the list less preferred than others because of the lack of knowledge about their meaning and importance?

**Instead of conclusion**

Students' preferences may present good base for defining one of the possible profiles of a successful University teacher. According to the results of our survey s/he is: expert in her/his field, that permanently develops and introduces novelities in her/his subject. S/he gains knowledge with knowledge from other fields and points out its practical use. By successfully presented content, s/he stimulates and keeps attention of students during the class. S/he stimulates students to understand and to learn the content, and at the same time, stimulates existing and developing new interests among them. S/he comes to the class well prepared and s/he is fair in assessment of students' achievements. When student need help s/he gives it. How much effort is needed to achieve this?

**References**


Marienau, C. and Reed, S. C. (2008) *Teacher as Designer: Balancing Multiple Teaching Perspectives in the Design of Community Based Learning for Adults. New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 118 (pp. 61-74).


Needs Assessment of the adult educators teaching in Adults’ Education Centers (A.E.C.).

Introduction

A required condition for the development of the adult educators training is their needs assessment. The question is how we determine the satisfactory knowledge, skills / competences and attitudes an educator should possess.

We will try to assess the needs of the educators teaching in A.E.C. having as a starting point not their role in general and the determination of a satisfactory level of gained knowledge, skills, competences and attitudes, but (a) the activities included in the educators’ role in this particular institutional framework before, during and after the course and (b) the educators point of view about the level of importance of the required activities. A remarkable reference about the point of view is made by Mezirow (2000). He mentions that the point of view reflect the habits of mind and talking about the educators we can assume that they express their own epistemological habits of mind, in other words their assumptions concerning the learning process.

Training needs in general are defined, on the one hand, by the structure and the operation of the institution that the individuals are engaged in and, on the other, by the points of view, the choices and interventions of the actors. Based upon this assumption, the training needs of the educators have a subjective dimension as a result of their points of view and their availability, and an objective dimension as a result of the educators’ role in the particular educational institution.

This study was designed to enable educators to rank the important competences and the important activities of their role before, during and after the course.

Theoretical Framework

Although the concept of adult education needs assessment seems critical, it tends to be vague because many writings on this topic reflect varied meanings. The awareness of a needs assessment process is very useful for those who are engaged in constant interaction with adult education components (individuals and institutions) in terms of teaching, planning or evaluating and strongly related to decision-making process. Many theorists met critiques due to the complexity of the assessment’s mission, strategy and the epistemological definition of «needs» (Altschuld & Kumar, 2005).

According to Hunt (1986) «the most common way of defining needs in adult education and training is to start out by describing the expert's job or task and then analysing each of its components into sub-tasks. This is what has often been described as a «task analysis»». This approach focuses on the growth of the learning products and the improvement of performance problems. Analysing a job in tasks and subtasks unfortunately will not provide an exhaustive list of the job’s elements and such attainment seems to draw away from defining a list of the adequate competences of an expert.
Furthermore, Hunt (1986) mentions that «unlike a task analysis, a needs assessment is concerned with determining goals and identifying discrepancies between goals and the status quo. It is the process of determining the gap in results between «what is» and «what should be»». At this point, we clarify the distinction between the gaps in results (competences) and the gaps in resources and structures (Hunt, 1986). The «should be» situation comes pretty close to goal setting in social sciences and it depends on the level of accuracy the assessment has been set.

According to Scriven and Roth (1978), “…a need is the gap between actual and satisfactory». These authors also clarify that «satisfactory» is not identical with the ideal state or with the desirable or with the wants of the target-group. Due to confusion surrounding the terms “needs” and “wants”, they point out that «need stops and wants begin just at the level of adequacy».

It is important to clarify the process of the needs assessment. Many approaches of the process have been developed relying on numerous criteria such as the purpose and the goal of the assessment, the target group, the framework, etc. According to Brackhaus (1984), «the needs assessment process is composed of identification and analysis of needs, it requires appropriate diagnostic procedures. During needs analysis the identified needs are evaluated according to established criteria. This process is analogous to screening needs through various filters (Knowles 1970). Priorities are then set based on needs».

Furthermore, we consider needs assessment process as related to the time and the context being conducted. The implication of this consideration is that the needs assessment procedure should be an ongoing activity related to the particular economic, social and political situation in terms of defining the institutional context and its impact to the target group. «Need is thus largely a context-dependent word» (Scriven & Roth, 1978 p.10)

Thereby, training needs have in general an objective dimension as context-dependent and a subjective dimension in terms of the goals the individuals set, the considerations of their situation and their priority setting (Vergidis, 2007).

Adult educators in general are distinguished in full-timers and part-timers. Jarvis (1995, p. 163-164) mentions that there are three main categories of adult educators: the full-timer, the part-timer and the spare-timer, but he clarifies “that the majority of people who appear to be classified as adult educators, understates the role on a part-time basis only.”

In Greece the majority of adult educators are part-timers and a great number of them teaches in formal education (Vergidis, 2002). Furthermore, in Greece generally, a formal-oriented teaching model prevails as well as a formalistic conception about education (Kokkoç, 2008, p.44). As Jarvis (1995, p. 171 and 172) points out, special preparation and training are required for part-timers, mainly for those who gained their experience only in formal education, in order to be able to correspond to the role of adult educator. We emphasize that, as Goffman (1961) points out, normally a person commits himself/herself seriously only in one role that interprets regularly, often. Consequently, the training of part-timers educators is particularly difficult and demanding.

According to Berger (1983, p. 115-116) generally the role consists in typical behaviors in typical situations, but is not simply a regulating model for our observable activities. The role includes so much the particular activities as well as the feelings and the attitudes that correspond to these actions. Goffman (1961) proposes the term of “role
embracement”, when the acting subject (the actor) shows high attachment to the role, qualifications and abilities, and spontaneous involvement in the activities of the role. Consequently, the role of the adult educator constitutes a general frame under which we must determine his activities and the level of embracement.

For the description of the role of adult educator various typologies are proposed (eg. Rogers 1999 p. 219-233) and include the individual roles, the activities and the characteristics.

Jarvis (1995, p. 182) quotes 24 competences of adult educators proposed by Mocker and Noble:

1. Communicate effectively with learners
2. Develop effective working relationships with learners
3. Re-inforce positive attitudes towards learners
4. Develop a climate that will encourage learners to participate
5. Establish a basis with mutual respects with learners
6. Adjust rate of instruction to the learners’ rate of progress
7. Adjust teaching to accommodate individual and group characteristics
8. Differentiate between teaching children and teaching adults
9. Devise instructional categories that will develop the learners confidence
10. Maintain the learners’ interests in classroom activities
11. Adjust a program to respond to the changing needs of learners
12. Use classrooms and other settings to provide a comfortable learning environment
13. Recognize learners’ potentiality for growth
14. Summarize and review the main points of a lesson or demonstration
15. Place learners at their instructional level
16. Participate in a self evaluation of teaching effectiveness
17. Provide a continuous feedback to the learners on their educational progress
18. Select those components of a subject area that are essential to learners
19. Coordinate and supervise classroom activities
20. Determine those principles of learning that apply to adults
21. Demonstrate belief in innovation and experimentation by willingness to try new approaches in the classroom
22. Plan independent study with learners
23. Apply knowledge of material and procedures gained from the other teachers
24. Relate classroom activities to the experience of learners

In our opinion, these competences constitute only one part of the role of adult educator, which includes specific knowledge and attitudes, feelings and activities.

In a posterior paper Jarvis (2006) proposes seventeen sub-roles of the educator. The following eight sub-roles refer to the role of the adult educator and the rest to educational executives, connected with the planning and organization of courses in adult education:

1. Educator/ facilitator
2. Helper
3. Supervisor
4. Educator / trainer
5. Instructor
6. Counselor
7. Administrator
8. Regulator
According to Kokkos (2005, p.122-123), the adult educator should have the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to:

- Care and accept the learners
- Communicate substantially
- Coordinate and organise the group
- Determine properly the content of instructional units and the educational material
- Apply flexibly a wide range of educational techniques
- Connect the content of education with the conditions of the local and the wider labor market as well as with the conditions of the local society
- Have self-awareness
- Evaluate and develop himself/herself

In this paper we will focus on the activities addressed to adult educators working in Adult Education Centers in the framework of their roles.

The context of the study
The General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (GSLL) under the Ministry of National Education (ex General Secretariat for Adult Education) is the national lead institution responsible for institutionalization, coordination and support of programmes and actions in the sector of lifelong learning.

Adult Education Centers (A.E.C.) were founded in 2002. The operation of A.E.C. is supported and promoted by the Institute of Continuing Adult Education (IDEKE) which is Legal Person of Private Right under the umbrella of the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning.

The educational programmes of A.E.C. are addressed to adult individuals in all regions of the country. Their fundamental objective is the development of new basic skills and the upgrade of the already existing.

At this point, it is important to clarify that A.E.C. actually provide general adult education while continuing vocational training is provided by Centers of Vocational Training (CVT) supported by the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection.

The role of the educator in A.E.C. as described in the official site of A.E.C. (http://kee.ideke.edu.gr), is to:

- inform and guide the adult learners about the educational process of the program they participate in
- answer in questions, solve queries and clarify terms of the subject
- encourage adults to work according to their interests and their goals
- give opportunities for discussion and reflection
- enhance discussion, coordinate and stimulate adults
- encourage the development of confidence and collaboration relationships between the adult learners
- evaluate and give feedback to learners
- comment on the quality of educational material and submit enrichment proposals by planning modules
- be engaged to the aims, objectives, content and time schedule of the course as it is formed by A.E.C.

The majority of the educators working in A.E.C. are part-timers and their remuneration compared to educators working in CVT is relatively low. Furthermore, the infrastructure
in A.E.C. is quite inadequate in general. As a result, educators in A.E.C. have to teach under difficult conditions and their training is really a difficult and demanding task.

**Purpose of the study**

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the training needs of the adult educators working in A.E.C.. Specific objectives of this study were to: 1) identify and analyze the educators needs given a set of competences and activities of their role, 2) evaluate their needs according to their characteristics, their points of view and the context of their work and 3) set the priorities based upon their needs for training purposes.

**Methodology**

The identification and analysis of training needs is based on demographic, educational and professional data of the responded educators and their points of view about their educational work. Their views about the competences and the activities of the adult’s educator are inquired and ranked on the basis of the emphasis they lay on each competence and activity.

The sample was composed of the 53 educators who worked in the “A.E.C.” during the data collection of the research. For the data collection was used a questionnaire consisted of three sections and was developed based on bibliography review, feedback from relevant researches and empirical studies.

The first section of the given questionnaires included demographic, educational and professional questions. The data of this section were gathered in the context of the external evaluation57 of the program “A.E.C.” during spring 2004. We note that “A.E.C.” was implemented during the period 2003-2004, in ten of the 54 counties of the country as a pilot project.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of questions created in a Likert based scale graded from 1 to 7 with “1” being “less important” and “7” being “extremely important”. This type of questions produces an advantage over the simple yes-or-no questions because it does not force the participant to take a stand on the issue. These questions covered some of the main components of the educators’ role and measured the level of importance of the educators domains of competences. We note that these domains of competences were set during an international research (SAEDA, 2000). The third section of the questionnaire consisted of questions based on a Likert –type scale graded from 1 to 5 with 1 being “not at all” and 5 being “very much». The data indicated the points of view for the importance of the activities included in the educator’s role before, during and after the course.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics consisting of means, standard deviations and percentages were used to describe the sample. Finally, the priorities set based on educators’ needs are discussed.

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Findings – Discussion

From the data procession of the first section of the given questionnaires the profile of the educator in Adult Education Centers had the following characteristics. Two out of three educators are male (66%) and half of the total (50%) aged over 40.

As to the educational level of the educators we note that almost half of them (49 %) are University graduates. A 10% hold a Technical Higher Education degree and the same percentage (10%) are high school graduates. Only 7% have a master’s degree, the same percentage has attended modules at the Hellenic Open University and none of them holds a Phd diploma. At this point, we note that in CVT, almost 25 % of the educators hold a postgraduate degree (Masters or Phd) (Vergidis, 2006).

Concerning their continuing education and training, 75% has participated in continuing education seminars but more than half of them (55%) had not been accredited as adult educators from the National Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training. The main continuing education provider institutions are the Centers of Popular Education (29%) and the Adult Education Centers (26%) in terms of kick-off seminars.

Although a vast majority of the educators have educational experience (87%), their experience in the field of adult education is small as 38% of them have just one year of employment as adult educators. Based on these elements we can assume that they have gained their educational experience from teaching in the formal education system. Indeed 49% have taught in primary, secondary and higher education and private lessons (5%) which, in some way, are connected with the formal educational system in Greece.

Based on the above mentioned characteristics we conclude the following points for A.E.C. educator’s profile. They have a high age average. Although they are graduates, they seem to have low expertise in the field of adult education. Furthermore, due to their small experience as adult educators they need to sidestep the formal education oriented teaching.

The questions we set to the educators in order to rank the level of importance of the domains of competences are the following:

1. Needs acknowledgement of the adult learners
2. Awareness of the educational institutions’ goals
3. Support of the learners after their training
4. The awareness of educational principles, of teaching and empowerment methods
5. Awareness of the teaching subject
6. The use the educational means (IT skills, multimedia etc)
7. Adult education programmes management
8. The development of a qualitative relationship with the learners
9. Individualized monitoring of the learners

Their points of view for the level of importance of the above competences are shown in Figure 1 (mean ratings and standard deviations). According to the data, educators rate “the development of a qualitative relationship with the learners”, with a mean rating of 6.63 as the most important competence. “The awareness of the educational institutions’ goals” and “the needs acknowledgement of the learners” are considered important competences for the educators (mean rating 6.55 and 6.44 respectively).
The item “individualized monitoring” had the lowest mean rating of 5.59 and might not be recognized as an important competence but had a high stdev (1.59) which probably indicates that part-time educators limit their task to instructive teaching, while more experienced educators consider this competence important. All other items ranged (mean) from 5.89 to 6.36.

Data shown in figure 2 indicate mean ratings and standard deviations regarding the most important activities for a successful preparation of a course. Educators consider “the choice of the appropriate educational material” a very important activity before the course (mean 4.83 and a very small stdev of 0.379). Secondly follows the “development and the adaptation of educational material” with an average score of 4.72 and a slightly bigger stdev of 0.495.
At the and comes the item “Determination of educational topics” with the mean rating of 4.62.

Conversely, the “information on special characteristics, problems and expectations of the target group” has the lowest rating (mean: 4.28). We point out that although the needs analysis of the learners appeared quite important in priorities of competences (Figure 1), it is last in rank before teaching to adults. It seems that educators consider needs analysis as an important task, but irrelevant to their duties.

Data reported in Figure 3 indicate the mean ratings and standard deviations for the perception statements regarding the importance of the activities during the course.

![Important activities during the course](image)

**Figure 3**

*Educators’ points of view for the level of importance for the activities during the course*

The top rated factor is “Listens carefully, resumes the basic points, clarifies” (average score 4.94 and stdev 0.305) and second the “encouragement of their students” (average score 4.88 stdev 0.323). These are followed by both “Empowers and encourages the learners” and “Introduces and informs learners about his role” with similar mean ratings (4.88, 4.81). All other ratings were relatively lower, while the less important activity of the educator during the course is considered “the data collection for the knowledge assessment” (average score 4.33 stdev 0.82).

Finally, we have asked the educators for the importance of the activities after the course. The majority answered that the most important activity of the educator after the course is the self evaluation (average score 4.38 stdev 0.753). The educators indicated as their second most important activity after the course the data recording procedure of the material which can be found useful for the evaluation. (average score 4.23 stdev 0.857). As least important the educators indicated the assessment of the written essays (average score 3.28 stdev 1.294). We can assume that educators do not give special emphasis to the assessment of learners.
Overall, concerning the activities before, during and after courses, educators in A.E.C. gave special emphasis on the proper use and development of educational material, on developing a good communication with the learners, on the empowerment and encouragement of the learners and on self-evaluation, rather than information on special characteristics, problems and expectations of the target group, collecting data for evaluation reasons and assessing written essays.

**Summary and conclusion**

The approach of this study for the assessment of the educators needs was focused on the target group’s involvement rather than an expert’s process on the matter.

According to the findings of this study, educators who work at A.E.C. have both a very difficult and demanding role. They are part-timers, not over qualified with comparatively low remuneration, working in a recently developed institution (A.E.C.), and teaching to a demanding target group without special training, carrying experience from a formal-oriented teaching system. We can describe it as the “What is” situation.

Instead of goal setting we set this assessment on the basis of the competence priorities (high ranked and low ranked considerations), in order to describe the “Should be” situation. Setting the priorities is in accordance with the determination of the satisfactory and the adequacy level.

Based on the findings, we concluded that special emphasis must be given on the empowerment of a more consultative-oriented profile of the educators. The sample
considers the awareness of adult education principles, of teaching and empowerment methods, the need acknowledgement of the adult learners and the development of a qualitative relationship with the learners as very important domain of competences. Furthermore, the important activities during the course (to listen carefully, resume the basic points, and clarify) underpin the above mentioned stance.

The choice, the adaptation and the development of appropriate educational material as high ranked competences are rather expected, if we take into account that educators while teaching in formal education using only one handbook they face difficulties in this domain.

Educators seem not to be engaged with activities that are connected more to the institution’s aims and objectives such as to keep notes during the course or to collect data for evaluation purposes. We may assume that they perceive their role out of the institution’s framework. We consider that, according to their working status in A.E.C. the working conditions must be improved (improvement in resources and structures).

Knowledge of self-evaluating tools would be extremely important to educators as they identify as an important activity after the course, their self- evaluation. However the respondents do not seem to involve their self-evaluation with the learners’ progress. Based on the findings, we note that some items have a high deviation. Taking into account the characteristics of the educators we consider that some educators are more informed about the concept, the process and the methods of adult teaching. This must be evaluated in planning their individualized training.

We assume that much effort must be put on this area of research and although needs assessment is a fundamental element in the field of adult education, not much work has been done due to its complexity. Scriven (1978) notices that although needs assessment is absolutely fundamental to evaluation, at the moment it appears to be a leading candidate for its weakest component.

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The Promotion of Competences Among Teachers in Further Education within the context of actual challenges in adult education.

Introduction and outline

Following qualification offensives for teachers in further education in the new German Länder during the 1980s and 1990s (cf. Emminger/Giesecke/Nuissl, 2001, p. 192), the focus in further education has been on quality maintenance, development and quality management (cf. Meisel, 2002). Professionalization, too, is mostly discussed within the context of quality development. Many of the concepts debated aim toward the quality conceptions of staff. Only recently has there been a shift towards quality concepts regarding the participants in further education as well as course instructors (cf. Loibl, 2003). Aside from its rather objective aspects, quality also has subjective aspects; in this case, one could speak of “appropriate quality”, the appropriateness of which is determined by the learner (cf. Ehres/Zech, 2002, p. 118), which refers to addressee- and participant-orientation. The pedagogical staff (not only the full-time regular members of staff, but also and above all the many freelance extra personnel [course instructors and coaches]) in the institutions of further education plays a crucial role in the construction of quality – also with regard to profile formation and successful participant linking – as they constitute a direct interface with addresssees and participants (cf. Tippelt et al. 2008).

The realization of lifelong learning presupposes competences pertinent to adult education among teachers in further education. In-service training for those working in further education can be considered as part of a strategy for the promotion of competences among teachers in further education, and therefore part of the process of lifelong learning among adults (cf. Commission of the European Communities, 2007, p. 9).

On the European level, it is a professed political aim to increase participation in further education. In Germany, an increase from 43 per cent (participation in formalized further education) to 50 per cent by the year 2015 is requested, as well as an increase of those with a low level of qualification from 28 per cent to 40 per cent (BMBF, 2008, p. 8). This represents a great challenge, both on the German and on the European level: „Against the background of the demographic challenges with which all European countries are confronted, increasing of the participation rate is equally a common and key mission for all“ (Egetenmeyer/Strauch, 2008, p. 16).

The present contribution inquires into the question of what teachers in adult education – who are to be considered a crucial criterion of quality – regard as current and future challenges in further education and links these findings with reflections on requirements concerning competences. A short survey of the state-of-the-art in research on trends and challenges in further education (section 2) is followed by an outline of the methods and the design of the research project which provided the results for this study (section 3). Section 4 explains these findings with regard to challenges perceived by teachers in further education. Section 5 gives a short outlook on reflections on continuing education.
Research Developments

On the European level, five challenges are mentioned which are to be dealt with in adult education in the course of the next few years: “The Commission refers to five key challenges that need to be addressed by adult learning stakeholders in Europe: (1) Removing the barriers to participation; (2) Ensuring the quality of adult learning; (3) Recognising and validating learning outcomes; (4) Investing in the ageing population and migrants; and (5) Establishing indicators and benchmarks.” (ALPINE, 2008, p. 39).

In recent years, several studies on changes in adult education have been published in Germany (cf. Meisel, 1997; Kil, 2003; von Küchler, 2007; Hartz/Schrader, 2008). Furthermore, a number of studies have revealed current trends in adult education (cf. BIBB/DIE, 2008; DIE, 2008; BMBF, 2008). According to Meisel (2003a), the institutions of further education are subject to a high pressure to change, caused by the following factors: “the relative decrease in public funding, the increase in competition on the market, a high pressure to achieve a certain standard of innovation and quality, a greater differentiation of the expectations among learners, the linking-up with other institutions in the region, an ageing staff, growing difficulties in finding new personnel in face of a decrease in unemployment among teachers.” (ibid. p. 20) Von Küchler (2007) describes “the widespread perception of a need (…) to reorganize institutions of further education, so that they will be able to survive despite numerous changes in the environment.” (ibid. p. 7ff).

As current organizational changes – and thus as challenges for the institutions – she mentions the change in the legal form, the fusion of different educational and cultural institutions, changes on the market and the ensuing need for a repositioning, as well as the creation of networks parallel with a creation of distinctive images. That teachers in further education are confronted with ever greater demands is also the result of a pluralized group of participants (cf. Barz/Tippelt, 2004; Tippelt/Hippel, 2005), of greater demands made by the addressees, “a growing need for counseling and the great variety of multi-media methods” (Bastian, 2002, p. 91) as well as new cultures of teaching and learning (cf. Kress, 2000, p. 188; Heuer, 2006). The growing need for counseling is due to changes in further education and to the demands made on the individual during the process of life-long learning (cf. Schiersmann, 2004; Schiersmann, et al. 2008).

The studies mentioned above can reveal trends and challenges; however, they do not allow to make statements concerning the point of view of the agents themselves – the teachers in further education – and neither do they allow to differentiate with regard to the perspectives of the different levels in further education.

Methods and design

The results on challenges in further education explained in the following are derived from the research project “KomWeit” (Increase in Enrollment in Further Education and Improvement of Equal and Just Opportunities through the Promotion of Competences among Teachers in Further Education) (cf. von Hippel/Tippelt, 2009)\(^\text{58}\). In total, 114 interviews and 16 group discussions were conducted on the macro level (association management), meso level (full-time pedagogical staff – FPS) and micro level (course tutors). (cf. figure below) Within the framework of a method triangulation, the

\(^{58}\) The project was sponsored by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) from May 2007 until May 2009. Main cooperation partners were the member associations of the Council of Further Education – KAW.
interviews were furthermore linked with a survey on the basis of questionnaires, carried out within the framework of a Delphi process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Delphi Questionnaire</th>
<th>Problem-Centered Individual Interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro-level</td>
<td>(N=61)</td>
<td>(N=44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meso-level</td>
<td>(N=48)</td>
<td>(N=44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro-level</td>
<td>(N=45)</td>
<td>(N=38)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1**
Research design ’KomWeit’ study

Due to the theoretical sampling (selection of interviewees according to institution, age, period of employment, discipline, pedagogical/educational background etc. cf. Strauss/Corbin, 1996), the surveys carried out in the course of the KomWeit project are of an explorative nature, not statistically representative, but rather representative as regards content. Both the group discussions and the interviews were transcribed word for word and were then coded and evaluated, using the MAXqda program (a program for the computer-aided analysis of qualitative data). This procedure, combined with the method of reviewing the coding by means of the intercoder reliability examination, contributes to the quality of the qualitative research (cf. Mayring, 2002).

The present contribution aims at providing answers to the following questions: firstly, which challenges do teachers in further education consider to be of importance now and in the future (section 4.1); secondly, in how far are similarities and differences to be perceived between the diverse agents in further education on the different levels and, thus, how does each of them interpret the respective challenges (section 4.2).

**Results**

**Challenges from the perspective of teachers in adult education**

Information on current and future challenges was obtained in a Delphi survey carried out in writing as well as in interviews and group discussions. In the development of the questionnaires used in the Delphi survey were included the results of the qualitative survey among experts, in the sense of an iterative procedure, so that, with regard to the issue of current topics and challenges, the following nine subject areas could be put forward and a ranking could be asked for. This means that these nine subject areas constitute challenges which had already been mentioned on a broad level. In the open category, the interviewees named above all “counseling” as an additional challenge.
The above figure no. 2 reveals both general challenges across all levels as well as differences. Among the topics that are conceived of as very important by all three levels – macro, meso, and micro – are “target groups” and “funding”. More than half, i.e. almost two thirds of the interviewees ranked these topics on the places 1-4. The topics “professionalization” and “networking and cooperation” – although considered to be important by both macro and meso level, are seen as a greater challenge by the micro level. The “demographic development” is considered a challenge by the macro level, in particular. More than a third of the interviewees regarded “migration/immigration”, “marketing”, and “quality management” as an important challenge. The issue of “competence assessment” is not considered that important; only those working on the micro level, which could possibly be affected personally by this topic via certification, seem to attach some importance to it.

It cannot be substantiated statistically that differences in the age of the interviewees, in the duration of their occupation or in their vocational degrees have an effect on the perception of challenges. A comparison between the different areas/associations, however, reveals slight differences; yet, these have to be interpreted with precaution due to the low number of case figures on the level of the associations. Thus, the issue of “migration/immigration” is of special significance to the Volkshochschulen (folk high schools/adult education centers), which offer integration courses\(^\text{59}\). It seems that “competence assessment” is not considered an urgent topic by any of the associations.

If one examines which topics will become more important across all levels in the future, the following picture emerges:

\(^\text{59}\) These are courses consisting of language and orientation units which are sometimes obligatory for foreigners living in Germany and for recent immigrants. They are offered by the Volkshochschulen and by other institutions. The teaching staff has to have special qualifications because otherwise no state subsidies will be granted.
Figure 3
Comparison among levels: The topic will gain in importance during the next five years
Data basis: in per cent, saying importance will increase (not “remain the same” or “decrease”; macro N=60, meso N=45; micro N=45

According to the interviewees, the topics “demographic development”, “migration/immigration”, and “target groups”, as subject areas referring to the addressees, will gain in importance, same as the topics “funding” and “networking/cooperation”. On the meso level, “marketing”, which acts as a connecting link to both the addressees and the financing sector, is considered to be of growing significance.

If one compares these general challenges to other studies, certain similarities become apparent. Thus, Egetenmeyer/Strach (2008, p. 16) identify as main trends on the European level the following issues: participation in further education, equal opportunities/social inclusion, professionalization, funding, new forms of teaching and learning, and internationalization. The EAEA study, too, mentioned the increase in participation in further education, the demographic development, migration, as well as cooperation to improve the accessibility of target groups and funds (cf. EAEA, 2006, p. 56f). If one looks at the recommendations formulated by the Innovation Circle on Continuing Education (Federal Ministry of Education and Research [BMBF] 2008), the focus is on counseling and on different target groups. The issue of funding is not mentioned explicitly. The trend analysis carried out by the German Institute for Adult Education (DIE, 2008) determines different trends in five areas. In the area of “participation”, some fields are still determined by the selectivity persistent in the participation in further education, - a topic which keeps challenging the interviewees of the KomWeit study too. Trends in the area of “learning opportunities” seem to go in a direction similar to those revealed in the KomWeit study; especially the addressees’ expectations regarding shorter, more compact forms of learning opportunities, combined with the wish for more flexibility. The trends in the area of “staff”, too, can be substantiated and differentiated by the results of the KomWeit study, both with regard to new tasks to be taken on by the administrative personnel and to the growing importance of counseling. While the DIE trend study showed this to be true of the teachers, in
particular, it could be shown within the framework of the present research project that counseling is steadily gaining in important across all levels. Cooperation and competition, too, are on the increase, according to the trends revealed (cf. also Nussi, 2008, p. 63). The fact that a decrease in funding, on the one hand, and an increase in financing through competitive procedures, on the other, presents a challenge to the institutions of further education and to teachers in adult education is also shown by the DIE trends (cf. DIE, 2008, p. 113). Although the continuing education monitor [wwwmonitor] 2008 does not inquire into current challenges, it still reflects – via its atmosphere index – the general atmosphere on the scene of further education. It is shown that, among institutions of further education receiving public funds, the general morale is positive only below average – this reflects the challenges caused by a decrease in funding. The studies quoted here can reveal trends, but they do not allow for specific statements concerning challenges as they are perceived on the different levels; these will be described in the following, on the basis of results provided by the KomWeit study.

**Individual representations and an integrated comparison of the different levels**

**Macro level (institution management, association management)**

From the point of view of the experts interviewed via questionnaire or in face-to-face meetings in the Delphi survey, the funding of teachers in further education is the most prominent topic (cf. the figure below). Mentioned was, above all, the decrease in public funding, the growing importance of the individual's personal responsibility for educational processes as well as the apparent shift in funding from a structural support towards short-term funding of single projects. With regard to the area of further education, professionalization and qualification, the issue of funding is considered to be an impediment – without secure structures a professionalization of the staff is made much more difficult. Furthermore, due to the changes in the field of funding, new tasks and requirements regarding teachers' competences arise, for instance in the field of project management or in the acquisition of funds from third parties.

![Figure 4](image_url)

*Figure 4*

Current challenges from the perspective of the macro level (ranks 1-4, sorted according to rank 1)

Data basis: per cent of the ranks 1-4 (very important/important); macro N=60
If one looks not only at the entry on rank 1 but also considers the subsequent ranks, it becomes clear that the topics “target groups” and “demographic development” are seen as important challenges, too.

With regard to demographic change, different facets were mentioned such as learning processes among older people, the older generation as an important target group, qualification for civic commitment, or intergenerational dialogue. According to the experts, it is important that adult education adjust itself to this growing target group and its needs.

Also important, from the point of view of the experts, is the area of networking and cooperation, - be it horizontal or vertical; here, new tasks and challenges for teachers in further education emerge, just as they do in the field of marketing. The necessity of a life-long vocational qualification, the preservation of the ability to work and be occupied and the issue of “transitions”, too, represent new challenges for those working in adult education.

Significant from the perspective of the experts interviewed, but not as frequently to be found on the first ranks, is furthermore the area of competence assessment and certification; mentioned here is the entire range of possible deployments, from documents to the certification of competences acquired. With regard to participants and addressees, the carrying out of competence assessment or certification, accompanied by counseling and support, is seen as a possible new responsibility of pedagogues. As far as their own profession is concerned, a certification of the competences of teachers in adult education is seen as a possibility to implement, as it were, “soft” standards for getting a job in adult education.

In summary, one could say that, if one combines the areas “target groups”, “migration/immigration”, and “demographic development”, funding and addressees/participants are currently the most important challenges on the macro level. When looking at the development of the challenges just mentioned, it becomes clear that, during the last five years, these fields (“demographic development”, “migration/immigration”, “funding”) are also those that have gained the most in importance (cf. the figure below). The topic “integration & cooperation”, too, has become much more significant.

![Figure 5](image.png)

*Macro level: During the last five years, the topic’s level of importance has ...*

Data Basis: macro level, n=59
Prospectively, no new topics are thought to surface during the years to come, rather the experts expect a reinforcement of the issues and trends mentioned above. Thus, they assume that those topics that have become more important during the last five years will keep gaining in significance in the near future. These topics are “demographic development”, “migration/immigration”, “funding”, and “networking and cooperation”. While the topic “quality management” has gained in importance during the last few years, it is anticipated that its importance will remain more or less the same in the near future.

4.2.2 Full-time pedagogical staff (FPS)

Similar to the macro level, the full-time pedagogical staff, too, considers the most important challenges to be target groups and funding, followed by marketing and cooperation, if one considers the first four ranks (cf. the following figure).

**Figure 6:**
*Current challenges from the perspective of the meso level (ranks 1-4, sorted according to rank 1)*

Data basis: per cent of the ranks 1-4 (very important/important); meso N=45

Compared to the interviewees on the macro level, the work of the FPS has shown a much stronger increase in the importance of the topic “quality management” during the past few years (cf. the following figure). This is certainly due to the introduction of diverse systems of quality management (such as ISO 9000ff. EFQM) in further education. The estimation of the increase in significance of the topics “demographic development” and “funding” is similar to that of the macro level.
According to the FPS, the issues of “funding”, “demographic development” and “networking and cooperation” will continue to gain in importance in the near future. Here, too, the results correspond with those on the macro level. The topic “marketing”, on the other hand, is considered to be slightly more important by the FPS, compared to the macro level, because this area refers more closely to their personal field of work.

Within the framework of the interviews, it became clear what the points mentioned in the DIE survey actually meant to the FPS.

The challenge of funding signifies to the FPS above all decreasing public funding and an increase in competitive procedures regarding the allocation of funds from third parties on the basis of projects (cf. also DIE 2008). The application requires new skills from the FPS as well as a much greater load of administrative work and thus a greater amount of time, which they then, in turn, are often lacking for long-term planning. “The personnel-related possibilities have decreased continuously because the funds have become less and the demands made on the educational experts to actually explain, evaluate and substantiate what they are in fact doing, have become much more comprehensive.” (FPS, Arbeit und Leben - a youth and adult political education institution supported by the German Federation of Trade Unions and the German Association of Adult Education, working towards a democratic culture of citizen participation)

Evaluation within the framework of quality management will, according to the interviewees, clearly gain in importance because they have to be able to explain to the providers of funds in their reports: “What do we actually contribute to the solution of social problems? (...) That means we actually have to prove: what has in fact happened to the funds that were put at our disposal?” (FPS Arbeit und Leben) In this, efficiency and a certain output orientation as well as working on projects were not per se considered to be negative. As disadvantages of project work, however, the interviewees mentioned the increase in administrative processes required, the lack of long-term planning and the breaking away of personnel-related structures. According to them, nothing will work without a basic budget: it is needed for the long-term planning of programs, for reaching
target groups that keep a great distance to education and for high qualitative standards in their work. An advantage of project work would be the possibility to reach new target groups through cooperating partners and to design educational concepts within the framework of the projects. The emphasis on efficiency is perceived as something positive and as a chance to concentrate on what will actually yield results. On the other hand, the interviewees think it constitutes a problem that the effects of education are hard to prove and to measure, that there are too few research results regarding this issue, and that the administrative costs are too high compared to the amount of money provided. The need to acquire funds from third parties affects institutions from all areas - from the folk high schools via the denominational and political institutions up to the vocational ones. A comparison between East and West Germany reveals that formal prerequisites for projects, such as the required number of participants with migration background, are harder to meet in East Germany due to local conditions.

The demographic development does, according to the FPS, have an influence on the design of the programs if, for instance, course formats have to be restructured because they included longer excursions which would be impossible to undertake with an older clientele. At the same time, the reaching of younger people represents a challenge to many institutions. However, demographic development signifies to the FPS also a change in generation regarding the personnel structure in institutions of further education because, currently, many colleagues who had been employed in publicly sponsored adult education during the 1970s and 80s now start drawing their pensions. From this follows – if the posts are not filled again – an increase in workload for the remaining staff and a reorganization of the teams, which raises new demands on internal communication. Networking and cooperation, thus, refer not only to cooperation with other institutions (in case fusions are planned or joint applications for projects are made), but also to internal communication. Cooperation with other institutions is also used to reach diverse target groups through the different profiles and images of the institutions involved (cf. also Tippelt et al. 2008).

The accessibility of target groups is crucial to the FPS interviewed. This issue comprises different areas. Thus, new target groups (e.g. persons with migration background) as well as the changed demands on the professionalism of learning opportunities constitute new challenges. “A stronger orientation by demand and flexibility are aspects that concern not only topics and the content-related design of learning opportunities, but also the form of these learning opportunities and learning environments.” (DIE, 2008, p. 55) Professional learning opportunities can, according to the FPS, only be created with qualified course tutors and this, in turn, presupposes a secure budget. Target groups distant from education, in particular, but also young, modern target groups willing to participate in education (cf. also Tippelt et al. 2008), should be made significantly more accessible by publicly co-funded further education. This constitutes a challenge for financial concepts as well as for the didactic design (content, formats, etc.).

In addition to demographic development and the change in generation, one interviewee summarizes the future challenges as follows: “Educational management, the linking-up of institutions, and funding will be the major issues of the next few years” (FPS, EEB/Protestant Adult Education).
Micro level (course tutors, lecturers)
While the areas of “funding”, “target groups” and “cooperation” are considered to be of great importance by the micro level, too, as was the case with the other levels, the area of “professionalization” is stressed specifically by the course tutors (cf. the following figure).
This area refers to their own competence development, in particular, since many of them have undergone a subject- and content-related training, but have attained no special qualifications in adult education, and since their qualifications and certificates keep playing an important role in the acquisition of teaching posts.

In the course of the interviews and group discussions it became evident that the interviewees link the topic “funding” above all with their own role as honorary staff – often in rather precarious occupational situations. According to the micro level, the topics “migration/immigration”, “target groups” and “funding” have grown in importance during the last few years (cf. the following figure). This coincides with the perception of the other two levels (see above).
In correspondence with the other levels, most of the course tutors assume that the topics of networking & cooperation and of funding will gain in importance.

**Outlook**

In summary, one can say that target groups and funding constitute the major challenges for the interviewees. “Cooperation and networking” can be considered a topic which will gain in importance in the near future and which is even now of topical interest to those institutions it affects directly and which confront the issue in an innovative manner. Strategies for dealing with changed conditions on the market and for a repositioning can refer to the following aspects: internal structural changes in the institution, changes in the learning opportunities/in the target groups, orientation towards the market as well as cooperation with other institutions (cf. von Küchler, 2007, p. 22). Cooperation can thus be interpreted as a reaction to changes and, simultaneously, as a challenge.

Among the competences teachers in adult education are thus required to have is the ability “to reconcile the competing referential systems of economics and pedagogics” (Meisel, 2003, p. 108) – which are manifest in the central challenges of funding and target groups. The wish for further training mentioned by teachers in adult education in the course of the interviews refers to just these areas; thus, FPS, for instance, showed a strong interest in topics such as “addressing target groups”, “developing new learning opportunities”, “educational marketing”, “project management” and “funding” (cf. von Hippel/Tippelt, 2009). Learning opportunities in these areas aiming at teachers in further education could be extended and should, in the future, intensify their focus on topics such as “counseling” or “networking”.

The present study provides an analysis of the point of view of different agents in further education with regard to the challenges perceived. A desideratum for research on the European level would be to carry out further empirical studies on the perspectives of the agents in other European countries, to compare and to relate them, with the unanimously requested aim of increasing participation in further education (keyword “target groups”) despite the shortage in the public coffers (keyword “funding”).

**References**


Andragogical foundations of adult educators’ educating.

More than centennial experience of development of adult education witnesses obviously and convincingly that organisation of efficient adult learning requires appropriate theory and technology of learning, specific teaching-learning aid materials and specially prepared personnel of educators, including teachers, counsellors, tutors and managers.

Andragogy represents the most appropriate theory of adult learning. Andragogy “is premised on... crucial assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners that are different from the assumptions about child learners on which traditional pedagogy is premised. These assumptions are that, as a person matures, 1) his self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directed human being; 2) he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource of learning; 3) his readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his social roles; and 4) his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centred to one of problem-centred” (Knowles, 1980. P. 39). The fifth assumption is that the learning of an adult is largely determined by his/her life context, i.e. by the time, area, daily life, professional, social, family factors. The sixth assumption we could formulate, means: the learner himself can play the leading role in organisation of his/her learning process. And the seventh assumption presumes co-operative activities of the learner and the teacher in all stages of the learning process.

So, andragogy considers adult learner as a real subject of his/her learning process. This situation changes radically the roles and functions both of learner and teacher. The learner in adult education is a self-directed, responsible person, the principal performer in learning process. The teacher in adult education is primarily an expert in learning technology, an organiser of the co-operative activities with the learner, facilitator of adult’s learning process.

Andragogy could be determined as science of adult learning that sets scientific fundamentals of activities of adult learners and educators concerning the organisation of adults’ learning process.

Taking in account particularities of adult learners and the specific roles and functions of learners and teachers in adult learning, basing on andragogical assumptions mentioned above, we could formulate the fundamental andragogical principles of adult learning as follows.

1. Preponderance of the self-directed learning. According to this principle, the learner plays essential role in the organisation of learning process.
2. Principle of co-operative activities. This principle proclaims joint activities of teachers and adult learners concerning organisation of learning process.
3. Experiential learning. Following this principle the social, professional, family life’s experience of learner is used as a source of his/her own and other learners learning.
4. Individualisation of learning. According to this principle every learner, in co-operation with the teacher and sometimes with other learners, creates an individual programme of learning, aiming the accomplishment of the concrete objectives and the satisfaction of
the determined educational needs, taking in account the experience, the preceding training, the psycho-physiological and cognitive particularities of a concrete learner.

5. Systemic learning. This principle foresees correspondence of objectives, contents, methods, means of the learning and of the evaluation of the results of learning.

6. Contextual learning. According to this principle the learning of an adult must be organised in the context of his/her anthroposphere (immediate milieu), i.e. it must aim at the concrete and vitally important for a person objectives and, on the other hand, it must be designed taking in account professional, social, familiar activities and time, area, everyday factors of life of an adult.

7. Actualisation of the results of learning. This principle supposes an immediate practical realisation of knowledge, skills, personal qualities and values obtained by the learner.

8. Elective learning. This means a certain learner’s freedom of choice of objectives, contents, forms, methods, sources, means, terms, time, place of the learning, of procedures of the evaluation of the results of learning and also of teachers.

9. Principle of the development of educational needs. According to it, the evaluation of the results of learning consists in the revelation of a real level of achievements in learning and the designation of matters not learned enough but indispensable for the achievement of the learning goals. Secondly, the learning process must contribute to the creation of new educational needs, encourage the learner to the life-long learning.

10. Consciousness of learning. This means the conscious approach of both learner and teacher to all elements and procedures of the learning process, the awareness of these two subjects about all their activities.

The principles formulated above serve as the base of the technology of adult learning which can be used in different educational situations and in diverse domains of the educational service sphere. Technology of adult education based on andragogical principles of learning mentioned above, represents a system of operations, actions and functions accomplished by adult learners and educators at every one of six stages of the process of learning (diagnostics, plan designing, creation of favourable conditions, realisation, evaluation and correction) which in high degree guarantees achievement of determined objectives of learning.

Finally, education of adults will be more efficient in case of using specific teaching-learning aid materials orientated towards adults’ educational needs and socio-psychological characteristics. They must also take in account andragogical principles of learning, and be based on specific principles of elaboration. So, they must offer to adult learners all possibilities of autonomous, self-directed learning, but in cooperation with adult educators. It is obvious that adult learning on the base of andragogical principles and using the technology of adult learning and specific teaching-learning aid materials can be organised strictly by a specially educated and trained personnel.

The educating of adult educators is one of the crucial items and one of the most difficult problems in the development of adult education and in the achieving of high quality of adult learning. It requires the setting of scientific foundations, the elaboration of specific teaching-learning aids and an intensive practical work. The standpoint of this setting is formed by two models: this one of activities and another one – of competence of adult educator.

The model of activities includes principal actions and functions of adult educator at all of six stages of learning process: diagnostics, plan designing, creation of favourable conditions, realisation, evaluation and correction.
At the stage of diagnostics adult educator accomplishes following operations:
1. Determination of educational needs of learners.
2. Determination of volume and character of vital (everyday, professional, social) experience of learners.
3. Revealing of physiological and socio-psychological characteristics of learners of different ages.
4. Revealing of cognitive and learning styles of learners. Actions of adult educator on this stage: diagnostic tests, questionnaires, talking, observation.

At the stage of plan designing adult educator participates jointly with a concrete adult learner in creation of individual learning plan (or learning programme, or learning contract) determining objectives, strategy, tasks, contents, models, sources, means, methods, forms of learning, essential stages, criteria, procedures and forms of evaluation of achievements of learners and efficiency of the process of learning.

At the next stage adult educator creates favourable conditions of learning: physical (learning spaces and places, acoustics, lighting, colours and so on), psychological (atmosphere of empathy, cooperation, mutual understanding and respect etc.) and educational (elaboration of specific teaching-learning aid materials).

Principal actions of adult educator at the stage of realization of learning process (in framework of face-to-face education) consist in determination of readiness of adult learners to accomplish learning process, monitoring of learning activities, choice of methods and forms of learning adequate to readiness and individual functional characteristics of learners and facilitation of realisation of an individual learning plan (programme, contract) of concrete learner.

At the stage of evaluation adult educator, in cooperation with adult learner, determines a real level of learner's achievements and prospective educational needs of learners, appreciates organisation of learning process, programmes, plan designing, activities of learner and of him/herself.

At the stage of correction adult educator introduces necessary modifications in the process of learning.

Functions of adults' educator at all six stages of learning process hierarchically are as follows:
1. Expert in technology of adult education.
2. Organiser of joint educational activities with learners.
3. Counsellor, facilitator, guide of adult learners.
5. Creator of necessary comfortable conditions of education.
6. Source of knowledge, abilities, skills, personal qualities and attitudes.

Realisation of all these actions and functions requires a certain level of andragogical competences. The model of competence of adult educator includes a set of certain skills, knowledge, abilities, personal qualities and attitudes necessary for providing a high quality of organisation of adult learning. In accordance with this model, adult educator must be andragogue, high skilled specialist in organisation of adult learning.

Beside possessing a large general scientific and humanity knowledge, adult educator must manage technology of adult learning, technology of self-directed learning and different techniques of teaching.

He/she must be able to:
• determine educational needs, volume and characters of vital (everyday, professional, social) experience and level of preceding education of learners, reveal physiological and socio-psychological characteristics, cognitive and learning styles of learners;
• determine objectives, strategy, tasks, contents, models, sources, means, methods, forms of learning, create individual learning plan (or learning programme, or learning contract) of learners;
• create favourable physical, psychological and educational conditions of learning;
• realise operative socio-psychological, functional cognitive diagnostic of learners, monitor learning activities, choose methods and forms of learning adequate to readiness and individual functional characteristics of learners create educational situations, organize joint activities of all participants of the learning process;
• determine and implement in practice essential stages, criteria, procedures and forms of evaluation of achievements of learners and of the process of education; reveal the changes in the development of personal qualities and values of learners;
• introduce necessary modifications in the process of learning.

All these skills must be based upon a system of knowledge indispensible for efficient activities of adult educator-andragogue. In this state he/she must possess:
• knowledge of psycho-physiological characteristics of adult learners of different age;
• a systemic knowledge of psychology and theory of adult learning;
• a concept of the history of andragogical ideas;
• knowledge about the philosophy, sociology and organisation of adult education;
• economic and legislative aspects of adult education;
• concepts of organisation and technology of distant education as one of the most important and appropriate type of adult learning.

Adult educator-andragogue also must be able to carry out psychologo-andragogical diagnostics of adult learners, to process and analyse their results, elaborate teaching-learning aid materials, realise practical work of teaching, to work with scientific and methodological literature, to use computers in his/her activities. This specialist must have such personal qualities indispensible for the work among adults as: empathy, tolerance, communicability, discretion, organisational abilities, aspiration for leadership, enthusiasm, and thirst for permanent self perfection.

He/she must share essential humanistic values and possess progressive attitudes, in particular:
− possess the concept of human being as self-developing, self-actualising and self-managing subject of noosphere,
− understand the learning as modus vivendi of human being,
− be conscious of equal role of adult learner in the organisation of learning, and of his/her role as facilitator, counsellor and expert in organisation of adults’ learning.

Without any doubt, the educating of adult educators must be also based on the andragogical theory and implies the use of andragogical technology of learning. Knowledge, abilities, skills, personal qualities and attitudes mentioned above could be acquired in process of learning of such andragogical matters as: psychology of growth of the adult, psychological foundations of adult learning, theoretical fundamentals of andragogy, history of andragogical concepts and ideas, philosophy and sociology of adult education, psychology of human being, psychology of adult learning, technology of adult
learning, history of organisational forms of adult education, economic and legislative aspects of adult education, technology of self-directed learning, organisation and technology of distant learning.

So, andragogically organised education of adult educators as andragogues, i.e. the process of acquiring skills, knowledge, abilities, personal qualities and attitudes included in the model of competence of adult educator, which are necessary for activities providing organisation of adult learning of high quality determined in the model of activities of adult educator, is an indispensable and decisive factor of efficient functioning and developing of adult education.

References
PART 8 | The role of the University in providing quality adult education and training: Unfolding the HE agenda

Management Education: Dysfunctions and Remedies.

Introduction

Those attending educational institutions with the UK today subjected to a plethora of tests as the examination result and performance culture is rife in our schools. This reaches its final crescendo in the university system where students are more interested in their degree classification rather learning for leanings sake. The joy of learning has been lost in the current climate of consumerism, whereby a university education has suppressed curiosity and critical thinking in favour of a free market economics, reducing its deliverables to “bite sized” learning experiences that promote width rather than depth, “vocationalism” rather than academic study, and a “supermarket mentality” rather than “intellectualism”. Alan Wilson, Chairman of the Arts and Humanities Research Council (2009) articulates these concerns regarding the quality of pre-university education. He advocates that universities must take responsibility for preparing those who wish to continue in to higher education by stating that ‘If a large business, indeed an industry, were having serious problems with its supply chain, it would intervene. The time has come for higher education to do so’. Questions concerning the quality and rigour of higher education were made by Vignoles’ (2007) study has revealed that the expansion of university education has reduced the value of some degrees to zero, and male graduates in arts and humanities are earning no more than those who left education after A-levels. This also comes at a time when the Government’s long-term aim is to increase university participation from 43% to 50% of the adult population. These comments challenge us question how we educate future generations of university students who will (and currently do) learning culture that is entrenched within a rote learning, and examination lead culture, a culture that finds its genesis in the school system and is now finding its roots within the UK higher education sector. This begs a fundamental question first posited by Dewey (1916/2007), how do we enable students to become independent critical thinkers?

What the government term as “education” reality translates into the number of examination pupils pass and the proportion leaving school with the minimum benchmark of 5 grade C GCSE’s. Whilst these have seen a record number of pass rates it is against the backdrop of concerns regarding the rising literacy and numeracy levels in the general population (DFES, 2003). This concern is further noted by The Association of Graduate Recruiters (AGR) (2009) who conducted a study and found that 56% of the 200 firms they surveyed had concerns about a lack of «hard skills» and literacy levels amongst UK graduates. The survey also found employers were also less likely to trust degree grades for the recruitment of graduates, that there is a lack of certainty over what degree grades represent and that employers are much less likely to use an upper second-class degree (2:1) as the «gold standard» for deciding which graduates to recruit. The survey also revealed that a significant proportion of employers are also worried about low levels of
knowledge in mathematics and IT/ skills’. I commence the next part of the discussion with a quote from Seneca (Letter 33) that sets the tenor and context in which UK university education is regarded by some (many?) academics today:

“[these]people who never attain independence follow the views of their predecessors, first, in matters, in which everyone else without exception has abandoned the older authority concerned, and secondly, in matters in which investigations are still not complete. But no new findings will ever be made if we rest content with the findings of the past. Besides, a man who follows someone else not only does not find anything, he is not even looking….The men who pioneered the old routes are leaders, not the masters. Truth lies open to everyone. There has yet to be monopoly of truth. And there is plenty of it left for further generations too”.

University education: The crisis from within

The quote by Seneca in his letter to Lucilius bemoans those who follow the slavish rules and mantras of the past and do not seek truth on their own account. However, these sentiments are as relevant today as they were then within the growing debates concerning failing university education standards and the place these institutions have in serving society and the economy. Gill’s (2009:6) comments are typical of this debate stating that:

“Claims of academic standards are slipping have been submitted to an enquiry on higher education by the Innovation, Universities, Science and Skills Committee. Among them are tales of pressure to increase grades, failing quality controls, lowered entry hurdles, and below par and apathetic student”.

These comments come within the context of the burgeoning bureaucracy that has been prevalent with UK universities over the last decade whereby the system of quality control and the call of widening participation of 18-24 years olds have been the core of New Labour’s vision for higher education in a competitive economy (DfES, 2003). Added to this Munck (2008:2) notes ‘The global market place for ideas, commercialization and increasingly researchers and students, transforms the university into a player in a global game. This game is, of course, competition in terms of global ratings’.

To avoid criticism from government and society universities take refuge in “rote learning” and teach to tests to ensure they are not reproached for poor performance. Again Gill (2009) cites one lecturer who told the Innovation, Universities and skills Select Committee and who come s from an eminent UK university that ‘indeed, many of them [students] have serious problems thinking critically or independently at all: “Just tell us what we need to know....to pass our exams. Everything else is irrelevant or boring they say”’. Moreover, league tables have encouraged a target driven culture with the UK HE sector and have marginalised creative and the intellectual pursuits thus stifling the freedom to think critically ass universities clamour for a status of “excellence” via measurable government set target setting. The university sector is now open to public scrutiny and is shackled by a performance-based system that destroys the very essence of higher education, namely that of free expression and critical thinking. In such an oppressive environment students become clients, clients demand service and value for money and this leads by de facto educational success in the guise of “payment for results”. As Fromm (1994:168-169) sates:

‘Critical thinking is the only weapon and defense which man has against the dangers of life. If I do not think critically then indeed I am subject to all influences...Critical thinking is not something you apply
to a philosopher….Critical thinking is a quality or faculty, it is an approach to the world, to everything, it’s by no means critical in the sense of hostile, or negativistic, of nihilistic; but on the contrary critical thought stand in the service of life, in the service of removing obstacles to life individually and socially which paralyses us”

Education in its quest for higher league table ratings has paradoxically lowered the bar of “success” to allow the vast majority to succeed as it replicates a manufacturing production process and finds its actualization enshrined in league tables for public consumption and scrutiny. The genesis of league tables was initially given birth in the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors of education under Conservative government of John Major in the early 1990’s. The idea was to bring education and its management back to its roots, namely society and to loosen educational from the grip of the professionals. It was an educational programme intended to be orchestrated by government, but accountable to the “masses”. Educational outputs would be determined by central government and subsequent measures would then be held up to public scrutiny who would be able to evaluate the worth or otherwise the performance of individual institutions. The democratic rights of individuals were first enshrined within the Parents Charter (1991) and gave parents and children freedom of choice to be educated at the school of their choice. In practice, this was unsustainable. It took no account of exiting class and power structures within society.

Whilst it was an appeal to win “working class” votes, the benefactors of the Parents Charter were the middle classes who had the privilege, where for all and “spending power” to manipulate the system, for example by relocating to the catchment area of “good” schools so their children could attend the school of their choice to the detriment of lower income families who were (and still are) constrained by economic mobility. This was subsequently taken up in the UK HE sector with the The «Times» Good University Guide in 1993 and the Guardian University Guide in 2004 (see Leach and MacLeod, 2008; O’Leary et al, 2009). In effect, universities were to be judged by metrics and league tables. In theory this has merit. Accountability of higher education to society was seen as a democratic imperative that a civilized society should not only encourage but should wholeheartedly embrace unconditionally, the likes of which are to be found in the pre-university education sector. The ethos of the Parents Charter is now applied within the UK HE sector under the auspices of Student Chatters that universities are obliged to produce that states their contractual obligations they have towards its students and sets out the expectations that students will be in receipt of. Likewise they also set out the expectations of students during their period of study towards the university and their peers. It has paradoxically eroded academic discourse between students and teaching staff because it affirms the consumerist environment that university education now operates within, and has been reinforced with the introduction of student fees of £1175 in 2006 which are due to rise to £3225 in 2010 and is questioned by Munck (2008) who states that:

“Our students are our raison d’être. At present most universities have an uneasy conceptual relationship with their students. Are they clients simply paying for a service that can provide? Are they necessities of life that allows individuals to get on with the business of higher level scientific research?”
The use of contractual language has lead so some to suggest that universities have had to re-appraise their delivery strategies and that it had produced an adversarial learning culture where rote learning is the accepted method of acquiring new knowledge and skills for fear of contravening student expectations and their rights to appeal to the The Office of the Independent Adjudicator for Higher Education (OIA) which operates an independent student complaints scheme pursuant to the Higher Education Act 2004 if they feel aggrieved with the quality of their course and in some cases the final degree classification they have been awarded. This culture of consumerist fear and the need to generate funding that now pervades the UK HE sector has lead to suggestions that institutions are relaxing standards and is leading to the “dumbing down” of degrees as reported by Gill (2008). This is further supported by Fearn (2009) who states that ‘An economic lecturer has told MP’s that her university is guilty of dumbing down its course content and pass marks, with the average graduate having to achieve far less to obtain a degree that was the case just ten years ago’. This has lead to calls of lowering entry students to HE and students who now enter the UK HE sector lack “critical thinking” skills (Dorey: 2009). Yet, today’s university students are subjected to a plethora of tests and an examination, result led culture whereby they are more interested in their degree classification to the detriment of “learning for leanings sake”. This is exemplified by McVeigh (2008:22) who reports of a law student at well established UK University when questioned on the economic crisis of 2008, ‘Young people do not understand economics because we’re not taught about it. I sort of guess it probably does affect us, but it sort of feel irrelevant’.

Added to this performance management systems now dominate the UK HE sector; whereby universities are now adopting “industrial processes” when measuring their outputs. At the bottom of this is the Quality Assessment Authority (QAA) who defines the generic learning outcomes to be used in the delivery and assessment of students (QAA 2001 and 2008). The concept of setting «learning outcomes» was established by the QAA after the 1997 Dearing report said that students should have much more detailed information about their studies. But Hussey (2008) argues that learning outcomes have been widely misused arguing that ‘A «craze» to spell out detailed «learning outcomes» for courses, driven by the Quality Assurance Agency, is a futile bureaucratic burden. This craze has led to their being applied to individual teaching sessions such as lectures, seminars or classes, to whole modules and even to entire degree courses,» and that ‘The term ‘learning outcome' cannot mean the same in each case. Some uses are legitimate, and some just lead to confusion’. Hussey (2008) also states that the term should only «indicate in the most general manner» what teachers need to assess, and should not be used as performance indicators, arguing that the concept is most useful when tutors employ it to specify, in broad terms, what they want their students to acquire from a given teaching class, lecture or seminar.

Universities demand that academics specify learning outcomes when designing a degree programme, but these can usefully be «little more than an annotated list of contents»’. This results in “Fordism” whereby the curriculum and its outcomes are divided into their smallest components and tasks, measured as precisely as possible and the outputs of this process are held up against league table targets. However, Hussey (2008) argues that ‘The kind of learning achieved during a module is complex and limits of what has to be learnt will always be arbitrary and states that «Attempts to make them precise statements for exactly specifying assessment tasks or for audit by those not familiar with
the subject area are futile’ and that ‘Learning outcomes cannot be applied to whole degree programmes [and] the farther away from students and the teacher together in a classroom, the more remote, generalized and irrelevant statements of learning outcomes become».

Thus, university education has adopted the tenets of kind of division of labour that focuses on parts rather than wholes of educational delivery and has reduced intellectual pursuit, imagination and genius to one of measurable outcomes and performance indicators. This standardisation of the education to a prescribed process to a set of measurable metrics is counterpoised to exploration, experimentation and discourse. In short creativity and critical thinking are secondary requirements of a university education that now has to pay homage to quality systems that claim to raise standards of student experience and academic standards, the efficiency of assessing student academic performance whereby a common assessment is given to all but do not recognize the particulates of individual circumstances. In effect university education has adopted expediency over excellence and consumerism over connoisseurship.

**Regaining a critical university education**

Today, individual creativity and genius is today marginalised within society. Those of an enquiring mind that exceeds the boundaries of received wisdom are regarded as “troublemakers” who do not fit in (Panton, 2005). This is also true of the university system where they have been stifled and failed those who are in need of intellectual challenges that go beyond the “course text book” by fragmenting the education process into modules where students can accumulate points in as one collects “supermarket bonus points” (Reisz, 2009). It is analogous to assembling a car on a production line whereby education in delivered in packages that bolt onto each other (see also Braverman, 1974). As Reisz (2009:38) notes, ‘What we need are stratospherically intelligent semi-crazies. But, what is left at the end of the modern process are hard working, moderately intelligent dullards’. The education system and universities in particular, have “unlearned” society how to think critically by the continuous quest for examination success and certified status.

We have now reached the stage where education itself has become uncritical and has alienated teachers, lecturers, administrators and researchers from the true quest of its endeavours – that of free thought and expression, innovation, tolerance, equity, justice, integrity, rigour and transparency. Munck (2008:7) when citing Banks (2003) states ‘in reality it is the universities that are failing in their traditional educational function’ echoes these sentiments. Therefore, we should grasp the nettle and admit that most universities have not done a terribly good job of “educating global citizens in a diverse world” (Banks, 2003). It can be argued that university education has been sacrificed on the “altar of compliance”. The UK HE sector has to ask two fundamental questions if it is to meet these objections laid out against it, these being: How can university educational regain the critical ground? What sort of education is required to produce students that can think critically?

This “uncritical” stance is a point eloquently made by Mills (1959) who attacked the dogma of what he saw as the de-skilling of human endeavour from that of an intellectual craftsman to that of a mere “technician” driven by the demands of fragmentation of labour and the alienation of the individual from the means of production. He saw the intellectual endeavour being “procedurised” and “stifled” by
bureaucracy. This approach restricts the human capacity to think about what he coined as “personal problems and social issues” and he railed against the diminution of the individual as a thinker in the midst of the mass centralisation, the state ownership of knowledge and of its dissemination. The same argument can be levelled at the UK HE today whereby university education lacks relevance to real world problems and an ability to question what it mission is. Consumer driven university education has pushed to the margins the educational endeavour and has diminished us to question who we are in terms of intellectual and social beings. University education is now fragmented where knowledge and skills are delivered in “bite sized” modules and has become industrialised much in the same way that production line workers are (see Braverman, 1974:59-85).

If we are not to create mere “technicians” by “regressive” educational practices we must be prepared as Kuhn (1970) espouses to undergo a paradigm shift in the way we teach and deliver higher education provision within our “seats of learning”. We have to embrace Plato’s mentality and refrain from our own prejudices and dogma if we are to produce creative individuals who “think for themselves” and turn from the shadows of the cave. We have to reject what Freire (1970) coined “banking education”, a rejection of social and political domination and suggests a model of education based on continual shared experiences and development of teachers and students. This attitude is needed if we are to re-gain our self-respect, freedom of thought and our creative impulses if it is to offer hope in our quest to question ourselves and thus take our first step to intellectual freedom and calls for the return of hope, one that can throw off the fetters of an uncritical society as Illich (1970:106) states ‘Survival of the human race depends on the rediscovery as a social force’. With this hope in view we need to re-define what the ends of education are. We radically need to define the territory of a university education that raises awareness and thinking if we are to unfreeze the untapped potential of those entering the university system. However this requires us to return to a “progressive” education that recognizes that students are not merely consumers (see Dewey, 1938).

Education has been sold to the masses as a marketable commodity that has an exchange value promised by labour market demands. This is true in many senses. However, what is lost is the utility of what a university education has to offer. The contractual relationship of students and parents with their university of choice, academic and support staff is underpinned by and measured by its monetary value and utility. It is this aspect of modern university education in the HE sector that prevails. However, if we are to reform our higher education system it has to be an undertaking that is initiated by those who know their products well – the academic staff. This is not a call to arms in a revolutionary sense, nor is it a fanciful romantic dream, but it is the awakening of the academic community to re-establish their professional identity on a landscape that has been populated by those who are several steps away from the realities of delivering a higher education curriculum. To suggest that the managerial ethos can be wiped out in one blow would be folly, but a compromise has to be arrived at whereby support staff work alongside the professional educators. The former are required to shoulder the burdens of government edicts and rising student expectation, the latter should involve themselves with “for whom they serve”, the students’ and the academic process. Sadly this arrangement is not often the case in many (if all) of today’s universities. Thus, we need to re-model a higher education system that practices emancipatory practice to the benefit of all. As such, these practices uphold ethical and moral values in the pursuit of individual liberty and freedom. They support and create working environments where
individuals can interact with each other without fear of retribution. It upholds and respects the dignity of an individual by giving them a voice and meaning to their contributions to the educational experience and process in their pursuit of intellectual freedom, fulfillment and expression of thought (see Fromm, 1977). Whilst history cannot be undone, we can determine the future and as Robert Louis Stevenson once said ‘it is better to travel hopefully than arrive’.

Conclusions
What I advocate is a university education challenges us to question how individuals can reach their full potential as human beings. It is a position that espouses that every person should have freedom of thought to judge independently and one that places its values in the freedom intellectual endeavour. It is a position necessitates by a code of ethics whereby an individual’s life is the ultimate standard of value (Rand, 1957). As Watson (1996) notes, we have a ‘contract of cynicism’ whereby students accept, and faculty delivers knowledge which both know to be virtually useless (Grey, 2005). My contention is that if we are to change the way university education (and schools) operate we will have to regain the identity of the university and the type of education it should provide. This is an essential component of an intellectual debate in itself if we are to recapture the critical and intellectual tenets that are required in the global economy. Academia and society alike have to create a relationship of respect if they are to reconcile the separation of control and ownership of knowledge to enable wealth creation. As a first step universities have to decide, what their function is if its programme and legacy are to be for the social and economic good. If universities are to contribute to the progress of human knowledge and challenge the bureaucratisation of the HE system they must define academic standards that command respect if they are not to fall into the darkened abyss of Plato’s cave and turn away from the debate of expediency versus excellence and that of consumerism versus connoisseurship. This will not be easy, especially in the face of the UK governments programme to widen participation alongside funding mechanisms that find many universities struggling to keep up with demand. However, whether we will either see some universities become predominantly research or teaching focused institutions there is no argument for the academic community to abandon critical discourse between themselves and their students and must reject Bertrand Russell’s quip that ‘Most people would die sooner than think; in fact they do so’.

References
Tutoring in Teachers Vocational Education and Training.

Premises

The present material has been elaborated starting from a series of reflections on the tutoring system used nowadays in a series of countries in the process of professional training, from the desire of identifying new ways and methods of optimizing the process of the future teachers’ professional training.

The authors use as referential the experience they gained during 2008/2009 when participating to the realization of an European project of a Leonardo da Vinci type, with the theme Development of Systems for Vocational Teacher Qualification Improvement [PROPETO] in which there were involved researchers from Lithuania, Germany, Romania, Finland, Italy. The project aimed at developing the systems of vocational teacher qualification improvement in partner countries emphasizing the pivotal role of vocational teacher when implementing the objectives set in documents of Lisbon, Berlin and Copenhagen.

The reflections below are subsequent to the unfolding of the already mentioned project, aiming at the thorough approach of the tutoring activity in order to perfect the training of the higher education staff involved in the process of initial and continuous training of the Romanian pre-university teachers.

The context of theme approach

The experience gained in the [PROPETO] project, has emphasized the fact that the use of the concept of tutor as well as the definition of the tutoring activity raise a series of difficulties, under the circumstances in which there is not a common and unitary vision on the reality designed by these concepts, nor have the roles of the characters named “tutors“ been well delimited. We estimate that a distinction is being made between theoretical approach and the practical approach of the problem.

From a theoretical point of view, we signal the importance of emphasizing the socio-cognitive perspective on learning (cf. Resnick, Levine & Teasley, 1991; Resnick, 1989; Salomon, 1993) as well as the relevance of the socio-cultural perspective on this process (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1990). Both visions lay a special stress on the interactions taking place in the process of learning between educators/trainers and educated/trainees.

The supporters of these approaches argue that most knowledge is an interpretation of personal experiences and also social in nature: in other words, knowledge is jointly constructed in interaction.

According to these theories, learning is a process of participation in communities of practice, at first legitimately peripheral, working its way to the more central position. So, learning occurs in interaction through cognitive apprenticeship in real contexts, in authentic learning tasks (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989).

On the other hand, the theories of distributed cognition (Salomon, 1993; Hutchins, 1991) and socially shared cognition (Resnick et al. 1991) sustain that the power of a group in building new knowledge and solving problems, is more than the sum of its individual
members. Students are entitled to this opportunity of shared expertise, which is now easily available via networked environments, in projects where several teachers and their students collaborate on-line or in optimized direct relationships.

In such a learning context completely reconsidered, is about the problem of redefining the teachers’/trainers’ roles, as well as the roles of the educated / trainees. Teachers are referred to as facilitators, tutors, participators, resource people, learning consultants, to mention a few descriptions (cf. Nunan & Lamb, 1996, p.137-142). An important goal for such a teacher is to become a reflective practitioner (Schön, 1987) who critically examines his/her teaching practice and develops it further. Teachers could also be seen as co-learners.

This metaphor suggests that instead of delivering content to the students from an expert point of view, a teacher should engage in collaborative research projects with the students, all the participants assisting each other throughout the process and learning from it as equal participators.

This view is also supported by research on collaborative learning (cf. Dillenbourg, 1999), which accentuates the role of negotiating a common ground as an essential part of the learning process (Baker, Hansen, Joiner & Traum, 1999). The assimilation in the process of professional training of such perspectives of learning leads, among other things, to emphasizing and capitalizing the activities of tutoring and mentoring, which requires to precise their specificity and to underline the roles and position of the tutors and/or mentors.

In the context of this problem, our focus is on the problem of tutoring, which is to be found both in current theoretical approaches and practical approaches.

A contradictory aspect we want to signal from the very beginning is that, despite all difficulties in defining the specificity of tutoring activities, there are observations regarding a series of practical successful experiences in the field:

- in Japan, for example, attendance at elementary-level juku is reported to have doubled from 12.0 percent of pupils receiving tutoring in 1976 to 23.6 percent in 1993;
- in Singapore surveys in 1982 and 1992 suggested that the proportion of primary pupils receiving tutoring had increased from 27.0 to 49.0 percent.
- During the 1990s the shift toward a market economy in China and Vietnam permitted and encouraged the emergence of supplementary tutoring in settings where previously it did not exist.
- Supplementary tutoring has also become more evident in parts of Australia, Canada, and the United States.
- Eastern Europe has also undergone economic transition. The partial collapse of public education during the period that accompanied that transition has required families to invest in tutoring on a scale not previously evident.

In Romania, the concept of tutoring is to be found in legal documentation only beginning with 2004 (Law no. 349/14 July, 2004), where it is mentioned the fact that the term “tutor” designates that teacher responsible of professional insertion. In the same place it is also mentioned the following aspect: teaching staff – mentors and teaching staff-tutors contribute to the process of initial training and professional insertion.

Tutor’s role is not yet well delimited in neither of the important legal documents. The term has been imported and maintains the meaning common in Europe. The tutor is someone who has a broad and deep theoretical knowledge and who disposes of ample practical experiences. His tasks are the supervision, the consulting and the teaching of
future teachers or of future specialists. In Romanian traditional education is to be found at the level of pre-university education, a teacher who fulfils similar roles to those accomplished by a tutor in the European meaning of the term. He is called “form-master” and is responsible for integrating students in school educational environment. Tutoring has penetrated the higher education environment in the following situations:
- Peer tutoring – the situation in which older students help junior students for a better integration in higher education environment.
- Tutoring in distance education. In this case, the tutor is a professor who counsels the student regarding the specific problems of the study program he attends on-line.
- Tutoring for pedagogical practice. In this situation, the tutor is a professor who collaborates with the mentor-teacher in the training school where the student completes pedagogical practice.
- Tutoring for students in a study year. In this case the tutor is the professor who has the responsibility of counseling students in a certain study year about the problems they face with integrating in Higher Education system and in participation in study programs they attend.

In neither of these situations the tutors receive a special training in order to achieve the activities they are involved into and for which they are responsible.

In the last two years there were also identified some initiatives at the level of primary-school education as regards the realization of certain tutoring activities. They aim mainly at counseling students facing learning difficulties. In this way there have been realized several programs of continuous training authorized by the National Centre for Staff Training in Pre-university Education (CNFP). In all mentioned situations, it is accepted the idea according to which a person has to display certain specific qualities and abilities for realizing tutoring activities.

**Tutoring in Teachers Vocational Education and Training**

Regardless the multiple meanings associated to the concepts of *tutor* and *tutoring activity*, we propose to reflect upon the role and significance of those tutoring activities which can be related to the process of Teachers Vocational Education and Training at the level of Higher Education. From this point of view, the PROPETO study stressed some fundamental characteristics of the teaching staff tutors (Pukelis K. Fokiené A. 2008):

*Tutor* is one of the actors in vocational teacher education who works at university in the field of vocational teacher education (both initial and in-service training), is responsible for the design and development as well as implementation of the vocational teachers’ education program (in an academic perspective) at university, provides the supervision of practical realization of a theoretical study process and encourages program teachers by providing advice and consultations.

The professional category called *tutors* is usually associated with the process of vocational education and training.

*The vocational teacher* is a person who delivers theoretical and (or) practical vocational education and training.

The tasks and roles of vocational teachers could be defined in a teacher professional standard, qualification framework or job profile. In case there is no agreed national definition of tasks and roles, they should be identified by activity research. It is a combination of theoretical and empirical research with the analysis of the related national
and international documents as well as interviews with stakeholders to find out their viewpoints towards the examined issue.

Possible tasks and roles of vocational teachers could be as follows:

- Preparation and development of teaching plans and vocational teaching programs, preparation of study modules according to the requirements.
- Delivery of lectures and supervision of student activities in the classroom.
- Preparation of tasks and assignments.
- Running and supervising the practical studying of students.
- Preparation and organization of examinations.
- Preparation of reports on students' work and progress and discussing them with other teachers and external stakeholders.
- Participation in school meetings and debates on teaching and organizational issues.
- Organizing and facilitating extracurricular activities of students.
- Individual teaching, fulfilling various tasks.

The tutors' roles are configured in close correlation to the roles which vocational teachers are to play.

These roles can be also related to the categories of competences considered to be relevant for the professional profile of the tutor-teacher, as follows:

**Table 1. Correlation of tutor’s competences with his roles in the process of vocational education and training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competences category</th>
<th>Roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Curriculum designing and/or development:</td>
<td>• describe the main concepts of curriculum designing and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• explain the principles of curriculum designing/development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• characterize learning outcomes-based curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• define the stages of curriculum designing/development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• indicate and formulate the learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• formulate assessment criteria of learning achievements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• prepare the tools for assessment of learning achievements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• choose the content of study program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• organize curriculum design and/or development for training of mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Management of curriculum implementation</td>
<td>• make interventions of study phases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• manage theoretical studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• manage practical studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• manage selection of Mentors and their training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• management assessment of prior learning and program participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Quality assurance of study program</td>
<td>• describe the main concepts in assessment and evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• explain the principles of assessment and evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• explain the stages of assessment and evaluation process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• apply the principles of quality improvement in developing the curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• set objectives, criteria, and indicators of quality assessment and improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• choose the appropriate quality assessment methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• prepare tools for assessment the quality of study program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• execute the quality assessment and evaluation of a study program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• interpret quality evaluation results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• report quality evaluation results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Networking</td>
<td>• define the stakeholders of VET teacher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• organize the involvement of stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• use the experience of stakeholders for learning outcomes based curriculum design and development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
use the experience of stakeholders for organizing practical studies of VET teachers
use the experience of stakeholders for indicating the quality of study programme

(Pukelis K. et al. 2009, p. 277)

In the process of stressing the roles of the tutors involved in future teachers’ training, it was emphasized the necessity of comparing them to the roles held by the mentor-teachers, as sometimes confusions raise concerning the roles of the two professional categories. The mentors involved in the process of teachers’ initial training are teaching staff with an acknowledged experience and high professional prestige which teach in pre-university school units. They are receiving students who train in order to become teachers and who run pedagogical practice training periods in the schools they usually teach.

Table 2. Correlation of mentor’s and tutor’s roles in the process of teachers’ training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The roles of the tutor who trains teachers</th>
<th>The roles of the pedagogical practice mentors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Projects, from a strategic perspective, the unfolding of the practical training period</td>
<td>Organizes, in detail, the unfolding of the pedagogical practice period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manages the process of future teacher’s training as practice-oriented learning</td>
<td>Manages the process of future teacher’s training as practice-based learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommends the use of different models of action in educational practice</td>
<td>Demonstrates the applying of different action models in the school context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counsels the student at a strategic level (as regards the correlation of theoretical and practical training)</td>
<td>Counsels the student as regards the direct and immediate verification of theory into practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitates and intermediates the student’s relation with the mentor and school environment</td>
<td>Facilitates and intermediates the relation of the student with the pupils and the teaching staff in the application school unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supports the process of student’s personal development and his career orientation</td>
<td>Assists directly at the unfolding of the process of personal development and career training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommends the permanent articulation of specialty and methodical training</td>
<td>Creates opportunities of situational correlation between specialty and methodical training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offers medium and long-term feed-back</td>
<td>Offers immediate feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be easily observed, tutors’ and mentors’ roles are complementary. The two professional categories relate to the same objectives and propose to solve the same categories of competences for the future teachers. It is of an outmost importance that both tutors and mentors should be aware of the roles they hold and agree upon the concrete way of action.

Changing some concepts or much more than that?

The research within the [PROPETO] project as well as the subsequent studies undertaken at the level of The Department for Teachers’ Training (DTT) have emphasized a series of relevant aspects for the improvement of the process regarding future teachers’ professional training. They are organisms specialized for granting the teacher certificate. DTTs are autonomous higher education structures, capacitated to provide the initial, psycho-pedagogical, didactic, theoretical and practical training of the students and higher education graduates in order to obtain the right to teach in pre-university and university educational system. DTTs also run programs of teachers’ continuous training, organize master studies etc.
The framework which facilitated the discovery of some practical solutions was represented by a diagnostic study on the concrete way of realizing the tutoring activities in the area of training the future teachers, initiated at the level of the University of Pitesti. On this occasion, the Romanian partner observed that the character designated by this concept (tutor!) is already to be found in the level of The Departments for Teachers’ Training. It is represented by the methodologist and is characterized by the following traits: He:

- is a specialist in a vocational field (has got a bachelor's degree in a distinct field of science or arts)
- has a supplementary psycho-pedagogical training obtained from post-university courses, master or doctorate studies
- teaches the discipline called “specialty didactics” for the field he represents (mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology etc)
- is usually integrated in a specialty department, having complementary roles as regards teachers’ training for the respective specialty area
- has attributions of career counseling for those students who make their choice for becoming teachers in such a field
- coordinates activities of pedagogical practice

A problem faced by the Romanian partner in this situation was: is it necessary to replace a concept with another (the “methodologist” with the one of “tutor”) or is it more about it?!

Starting from these interrogations, there occurred a series of other reflections which lead to the idea that, at the bottom, it is not about a change of concepts, but a change of conception which regards, first of all, the multiplication and refining of the roles played by this professional category, regardless how it is called. Therefore, there was deduced the urgency of introducing tutors (methodologists) in special training programs destined to train them to play these new and complicated roles in the context generated by the knowledge society. Tutors’ training through special programs should be associated with mentors’ continuous training and, as much as possible, the two types of programs should be correlated under the aspect of pursued finalities.

From this perspective, in Romania there was another de-synchronization: mentors’ psycho-pedagogical training is being improved more rapidly than that of the tutors’ due to the reform policy promoted in the area of continuous training at the level of pre-university education. The Romanian universities do not dispose, yet, of coherent policies regarding the realization of continuous training for higher education staff. In order to exemplify, we present below several observations made while running the respective study which was focused on identifying some training needs of the higher education staff involved in training the future teachers as tutors. The diagnostic study was structured on some interrogations, important for launching for the first time in Romania a program of tutors’ training, which will benefit of financing from European Structural Funds. In the experimental sample there was included 100 university teaching staff from 7 universities from Romania, 20 respondents for the following categories of experience:
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of subjects</th>
<th>length of service in higher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>under 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>10-14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>15-20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>20-25 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis of the answers offered by the respondents, there occurred a series of aspects which we consider important for the configuration of a national continuous training program which should have as a target group: the higher education teaching staff involved in the process of teachers’ initial and continuous training, having explicit attributions in the tutoring field.

We present as follows several of the aspects signaled, which display a diagnostic value.

- **At the question “Are you interested in participating in continuous training programs?”**
  
  we observe the following interest level underlined depending on the criterion of year experience in higher education:

  ![Figure 1](image_url)

  We observe that in the case of those categories with reduced teaching experience the interest for these programs is bigger as compared to the categories of richer teaching experience where the interest is rather low. Almost predictable, the most interested year category is that between 10-14.

- **The answers to the question “Do you think that your university has created internal mechanisms for the realization of the continuous training of its own teaching staff?”**
  
  show that 83% of the respondents consider that the universities they are affiliated at have not created such mechanisms and only 3% consider these are sufficient as regards their training needs.
The given answers reveal a confusing aspect: the higher education teaching staff do not benefit of training programs adapted to the academic level whilst the higher education environment represents one of the most important suppliers of continuous education programs.

- The answers at the question: “Does your university sustain, from its own financial resources, the process of continuous training of its teaching staff?” reveal another surprising aspect. Although 14% of the respondents have previously considered that the internal mechanisms created within universities were sufficient for solving the problem of professors’ continuous training, 31% of them consider that their university are, however, currently sustaining this process from personal resources:

Such a result expresses the respondents’ trust in other suppliers of continuous training programs and a certain degree of acknowledging the efforts undergone by the universities in order to financially sustain this process.

- At the question: “What types of continuous training programs would you like?” we observe that the most significant needs are expressed in the direction of thorough study of their specialty discipline (42% of the respondents would prefer these programs). The
programs of a psycho-pedagogical type (37%) enjoy an almost equal interest. The programs which aims at developing the competences of using the computer and integrating the multi-media means in the process of teaching and learning are of a real interest (preferred by 21% from the respondents).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program type</th>
<th>Percentage values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>specialty/thorough study</td>
<td>42 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycho-pedagogy</td>
<td>37 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIC and IAC</td>
<td>21 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The personal benefit of participating in the continuous training programs results from the answers given to the question: “have you participated in continuous training programs financed by the University or sustained from personal resources?” Distributed on categories of length of service, the situation is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>length of service in higher education</th>
<th>Programs financed by the University</th>
<th>Programs financed by personal resources</th>
<th>Non-participating in programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>under 5 years</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>70 %</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>71 %</td>
<td>16 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 years</td>
<td>18 %</td>
<td>77 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20 years</td>
<td>22 %</td>
<td>64 %</td>
<td>14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25 years</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>67 %</td>
<td>28 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The programs financed by personal resources include, according to the offered answers, the participation in specialty national and international conferences*

From the data synthesized, it results that the continuous training programs are mostly sustained from personal resources and that the length of service category which invest the most in training using its own personal resources is that situated between 10 and 14 years. It seems that the universities invest more in training the teaching staff from the 15-20 length of service category.

- Considering that in the academic environment there is a certain degree of vanity as regards the acknowledgement of the professional value and prestige of those who hold the position of trainers, the respondents were addressed the following question: “Who do you think should be the trainers in such programs?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trainers categories</th>
<th>Answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialists acknowledged at a national level</td>
<td>39 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialists from abroad</td>
<td>52 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer professors who display acknowledged competences</td>
<td>9 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The answers confirm the reticence towards colleagues (only 9% prefer them), a certain degree of trust in specialists acknowledged at a national level (39%) and a bigger
level of trust (52%) towards the specialists from abroad, from different foreign universities and cultures.

- Considering that the content of the training programs represents a very important criterion in formulating a choice for participating or non-participating in a program, the subjects were addressed the following question: “What organisms do you think should be involved in the elaboration of curriculum for continuous training programs destined to higher education teaching staff?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisms</th>
<th>Answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National organisms constituted on specialty commissions</td>
<td>29 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trainers themselves</td>
<td>22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agencies specialized in realizing studies of training needs</td>
<td>49 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be observed, the highest degree of trust is held by those agencies specialized in running studies of training needs (49%).

- As regards the actors who should involve in the elaboration of the strategies concerning the realization of the continuous training programs destined to higher education environment, the respondents have formulated the following options:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actors category</th>
<th>Answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The structures of the Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation specialized in programs of continuous training</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top leadership structures from the university management</td>
<td>39 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside specialists</td>
<td>28 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside specialists</td>
<td>57 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The beneficiaries themselves</td>
<td>10 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data obtained draw the attention on the fact that the respondents have a higher level of trust in institutions rather than in other individuals when referring to the internal resources of solving the problem of continuous training programs; when having to choose between the inside and outside specialists, they prefer the latter.

- In order to identify the types of competences the respondents are interested in, they were presented the four categories of competences considered relevant for tutor’s professional profile (elaborated within the PROPETO project) and they were asked to specify the category they are interested in the most.
The answers show that in the case of the first categories of length of service there is a special interest for the competences regarding curriculum designing and/or development and management of curriculum implementation, while in the case of seniority there is a higher interest for the competences regarding the quality assurance of study programs and networking competences. At the 10/14 length of service category, the respondents demonstrate an almost equal interest towards the four categories of competences.

- As regards the role of the tutors in the process of professional training, the respondents answered as follows:

### Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tutors’ roles in future teachers’ professional training</th>
<th>Answers weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They help for a better understanding of the discipline they are to teach</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They intermediate the collaboration relations towards mentors and students</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They facilitate students’ integration in the school environment</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They coordinate the process of future teachers’ practical training</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The subjects could choose among many variants of answers

- Considering that all respondents are tutors in the process of future teachers’ professional training in the universities they teach in, they were asked to specify **What types of solutions could be identified in the Romanian space in order to solve these problems?**

### Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of solutions</th>
<th>Answers weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Launching specific programs of a national interest</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contracting specialty services from specialized companies</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaborating specific internal strategies at the level of all universities</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The subjects could choose among many variants of answers

As it can be observed, most choices aims at the solution which transcend the internal space of the universities and that have a national character. We observe their hope in the launch of ample, strategic projects.
The results of the study opened new perspectives of approaching the process of continuous education within universities and offered a series of coordinates regarding the curricular options and priorities, partners/institutions, trainers...which are to be named/referred to within the project of tutors’ continuous training from the structures of DTT, that the University of Pitesti, and other 5 partner universities are to launch in the latter half of 2009.

Conclusions

The analytical study of the documents of Romania’s educational policy, the concrete results of the PROPETO project, the recommendations formulated as well as the data obtained from the investigation presented above lead to several observation which can become important premises for a series of ample actions which are to be launched in Romania in the area of professional training, with an explicit emphasis on the improvement of tutoring activities:

1. tutoring activities (and the mentoring ones also) require a more systematic and coherent approach
2. the two forms of activity significantly contribute to the improvement of the practical training of higher education graduates, regardless their specialty field
3. Romania has to surpass this situation: the tutors and mentors involved in the professionalization process should be integrated in continuous training programs aiming at assimilating the psycho-socio-pedagogical competences associated with exercising these roles
4. in order to fulfill this desideratum, it is recommendable that the interest manifested towards assimilating these solution should be capitalized, as well as the preoccupation existent at the level of the universities regarding the identification of the financial resources necessary to sustaining the activities of continuous training
5. the success of such initiatives could be also provided through capitalizing the transnational partnerships created in the context of running European projects aiming at the continuous training activities in universities
6. by launching ESF programs – there have occurred genuine opportunities of accessing European funds which can be used the high professional development of university teaching staff
7. in the last 5 years important steps have been made as regards the consolidation of the scientific and professional community belonging the DTT structures which can take the initiative of extending the policies of continuous training from pre-university level to the university one.

Beyond these conclusions with a practical, operational character, the experiences of the type already mentioned in this study have lead to an irrefutable statement regarding the challenges the third millennium brings to education: the necessity of continuous pedagogization and psychologization of the process of professional training as well as a programmed marketing of its “products” – by training graduates perfectly capable of integrating and adapting more easily on an increasingly flexible labor market.

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***Report on Romanian Educational System, 2007, elaborated by the Minister of education, Research and Youth – [www.edu.ro](http://www.edu.ro)***


Lean Tools in AdET Development.

Context & Background
My name is Cristina Musat and I am the founder of PhileanCT, a small training and consulting company in Romania. I work as a trainer since 1995 and since 1996 I am a fan of continuous process improvement techniques. Before becoming aware of Lean Manufacturing, I was involved in quality management, TQM and business excellence related services. So practically all my adult life consists in mixing training skills with continuous improvement initiatives.

As a member of the European Society for Research on Adult Education, I have now the opportunity to address both topics enjoyable for me at this moment: Lean and Adult Training.

Trainers dealing with adults (or all other persons with relevant occupations for training delivery, regardless their title: trainers, learning facilitators, training content developers, instructors, educators, training managers, training course organisers, and so on) are actors of the processes performed to achieve desired results, either within own organisations or at the interface with the trainees or other stakeholders. Here is a list of some of the most common processes: Training Design, Training Materials Development, Training Evaluation, Training Delivery / Facilitation of the Learning Process, Training Marketing, Training organising, and so on.

A way to understand a training process it the well-known model of transforming inputs into outputs via a series of actions and operations specific for any area of activity, as seen in Figure1.

![Figure 1: The Process Model]

To exemplify for the process of training delivery, used by all adult trainers, it is obvious that the following main issues are significant to be identified:

Environment:
- *International, national, regional, local level*
- *Category of training: Initial or LL learning*
- *Type of learning: Formal, non-formal or informal*
Inputs:
- Data on trainees and their training needs
- Training specification
- Training materials
- Training rules, standards and regulations
- Trainers’ proficiency
- Other useful resources and facilities – financial, material, human, etc.

Outputs:
- New skills and competences
- Feedback and future improvement opportunities
- Etc.

Process steps:
- Welcome of trainees and group development
- Objectives and content delivery
- Trainees assessment
- Etc.

Methods:
- Lectures
- Games
- Examples
- Etc.

Procedures:
- Face-to-face training delivery
- E-learning
- Self-learning

According to the Romanian occupational standard, a “trainer” needs different categories of competences: a series of specific competences (to be able to prepare training, deliver training, evaluate trainees and apply special training methods and techniques) and a series of optional competences (training marketing, training design, training organising, training evaluation and improvement).

When discussing about AdET, as part of proficient adult training organisations, it seems obvious that additional competencies are needed to support dynamic capability of training services, increasingly significant to help to better adequate to nowadays complicated management issues and problematical business change.

Between these competencies it should be included the competence to use Lean tools for the improvement of the processes involved in teaching/training of adults, as a set of key competences for effectiveness and efficiency.

Therefore, the aim of this paper is to identify how Lean tools may be useful for the management of education and training activities or for managing people involved in learning processes. Additionally, I would like to put together knowledge about previous experiences in the area and to provide future drives for AdET development.

Brief Lean Introduction

Lean is the generic name of a set of tools and principles used to control, manage and improve process performances, to achieve dramatic improvements in cost, quality, and time by focusing on process performance. There are many definitions, and a simple one is
the following:

“...**Lean** is a production practice that considers the expenditure of resources for any goal other than the creation of value for the end customer to be wasteful, and thus a target for elimination.” (Source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lean_manufacturing](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lean_manufacturing)). Or even a simpler one: “**Lean** is a philosophy that shortens the time needed between the customer order and the delivery of required goods or services”.

![The Lean Principles](image)

**Figure 2**  
*The Lean Principles*

Moreover, Lean is seen as a philosophy, not only as a collection of empirical tools, or as a methodology for continuous reduction or elimination of waste, useful. Its history is long and rich in interpretations, but the term “Lean” became worldwide known after the issue of a book with a visionary title: “The Machine That Changed the World” ([Womack, James P.; Daniel T. Jones, and Daniel Roos, 1990](https://www.amazon.com/Applications-Modular-Industrial-Production-Production/dp/0743206052)). Nevertheless, Lean is based on a series of common tools used originally in production, some of them being developed since 1950s as part of what nowadays is known as TPS ([Toyota Production System](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Toyota_Production_System)). But more important, it brings also a set of Lean principles and specific approaches to all types of activities, which enable the development of the so-called Lean behaviours and Lean leadership, supporting the operational tools used to generate improved process results.

There are five key principles, which aim at continuous reduction of the time needed to provide a product or service requested by a client, from order to delivery, and consequently, of process costs, by cutback or elimination of waste. The five Lean principles are:

1. Specify **value** from the standpoint of the end customer by product family.
2. Identify all the steps in the **value stream** for each product family, eliminating whenever possible those steps that do not create value.
3. Make the value-creating steps occur in tight sequence so the product will flow smoothly toward the customer.

4. As flow is introduced, let customers pull value from the next upstream activity.

5. As value is specified, value streams are identified, wasted steps are removed, and flow and pull are introduced, begin the process again and continue it until a state of perfection is reached in which perfect value is created with no waste.

(Source: http://www.lean.org/whatslean/principles.cfm)

Obviously, there are some key words for understanding the Lean principles:

1. **Value**
2. **Value Stream**
3. **Process Flow**
4. **Pull Flow**
5. **Perfection.**

In brief, **value** is what customers are likely to pay for. Let’s think of a trainer delivering a course. He/she needs some time for preparing before coming in front of the trainees. For example, how many clients do you know that would pay a 5-days-fee, for a 3-days course? Obviously, no one may be perfect; therefore usually it is impossible to do only what the client would pay. So Lean defines an antonym for “value”, i.e. “WASTE”, meaning any activity done that takes up time and uses resources, but does not add value when it transforms inputs into outputs that meet customers’ requirements. Waste is not about controlling financial loss (to be easily spotted in financial statements), but it means to identify and approach extra resources spent during current activities (caused either by high variation due to process instability, by overburden processes, or by unreasonableness operational decisions).

For that reason, Lean considers that any process is composed of **value added** and **non-value added** activities, even if the non-value added activities may be considered as necessary ones (hidden waste) or as non-necessary ones (obvious waste).

The 7 waste categories defined by Lean are:

- **Overproduction** – production of materials, offers, products ahead of demand
- **Waiting**, or queuing, or idling – inactivity due missing needed resources: an answer, a decision, a person etc.
- **Transport** - unnecessary motion or movement of materials, products or persons
- **Extra Processing** – doing something repeatedly, more or more complicated than necessary, including rework, reprocessing, recurrent handling or storage
- **Inventory** – all existing components, actions or orders waiting to be processed
- **Motion** – people or equipment or documents or information moving more than necessary
- **Defects** – non-conforming products or services, the effort involved in inspecting results and fixing complaints or unsatisfactory results.


Attempting to make an analysis of the training processes, one may find similar categories of waste, such as, for example:
Table 1

7 Wastes in Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overproduction</th>
<th>More input than needed to achieve learning objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overstuffing topics for a limited amount of time for a training program such as a day or week. Very little of this training will end up being used because it's too much, too soon with too little practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The forgotten knowledge - as the retention rate for lectures is less than 20%, everything that is forgotten the next day or next week is waste.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Huge binders full of stuff that nobody ever looks at again, involving much time and costs to be created, printed, multiplied, bound, manipulated, etc. used rather as door stops and paper weights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting</td>
<td>Longer breaks then planned, postponement of training due to trainer/trainees availability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Companies often wait until they have enough employees to make up a class. Waiting time is often weeks or months.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Larger groups of trainees and only one trainer – it involves waste of time during work in small groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Long distance to/from training room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra Processing</td>
<td>Repetitions during classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Written tests – even if tests are relatively easy to score and simple to create, they are almost always about testing knowledge. However, there is often no correlation between doing well on a test or in school and doing well on the job. So testing knowledge is often waste.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gaps between training needs communicated by the manager and the actual needs of the attendees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inventory</td>
<td>Larger groups than effective for training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More printed training materials than the number of participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old stuff in the training materials (out-of-date information, processes that have changed or are no longer used and old procedures)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motion</td>
<td>Poor content and layout of written materials, difficult to find a topic in the training material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defects</td>
<td>Misspelling, missing words in the written training materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inappropriate participants - many times attendees are sent to a training that does not pertain to their job or to achieve competencies they already have or do not need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication barriers – due to misuse of a foreign language or to misunderstanding of specific vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of standardization of knowledge delivery – different trainers deliver different courses based on the same training course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exceeding time provided to deliver training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of organizational support – trainees may be eager to apply tools from training, but when returning in the organization, the pressure from the management is to do things as before</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This Research and
http://www.linkedin.com/groupAnswers?viewQuestionAndAnswers=&gid=27003&discussionID=7612380&commentID=6432874&trk=NUS_DISC_Q-G-subject&goback=%2Ehom#commentID_6932874

Consequently, to be able to identify value, it is important to understand the processes used to provide products or services and to be able to focus on the **value stream**. Once the value stream is known, a **flow** as continuous as possible should be deployed for delivering the planned process results with minimum waste.

Another key word in Lean is “**Pull**”, usually used as an antonym for “Push” process flow. For example, in training delivery, “Push” means to persuade the customers to buy the
already existing products/services, available as “inventory”. Obviously, “Pull” means the opposite approach, namely being ready and capable to provide only what, how much, when and where is actually required by the customer. Process simplification comes from not doing things that are not needed, as stated in Just-In-Time philosophy\(^{60}\). The last key word, but the essential one, is “Perfection”. It is not about having the perfect product or service, but about pursuing perfect processes through continuous improvement.

There are a variety of tools and techniques associated with Lean production; however the following are perhaps the most commonly used and easy to implement in an office environment, regardless the field of activity:
- Standardized Processes & Takt Time
- Value Stream Mapping (VSM)
- Visual Workplace & Visual Management
- 5S
- Jidoka
- Poka Yoke (Mistake Proofing or Error Proofing)
- Pull Systems and Kanban
- Continuous process flow, Just In Time (JIT), Process Smoothing & Load Levelling
- Setup reduction (SMED)
- Total Productive Maintenance (TPM)
- Kaizen (Continuous Improvement)
- Hoshin (Policy Deployment)
- Quality and Problem Solving Tools: Pareto Principle; process mapping; product family analysis, etc.

**Research Methodology**

The approach used for this research is a non-scientific survey, following the next steps:
- Identify interested adult trainers, using personal and professional social media networks
- Use a questionnaire to obtain data on topics related to adult trainer’s additional competencies needed to identify typical waste in training activities and to employ specific Lean tools for reducing or eliminating waste levels
- Use discussions and interviews with people interested both in Lean and adult training topics
- Qualitative analysis and report of main findings.

The questionnaire used focuses on issues that are currently faced by adult educators and trainers, covering most of the competence units described in the occupational standards. It has been designed to identify perceptions and ideas from both people using Lean tools, and trainers not familiar with Lean concepts and tools. It was finalized in June and has three parts, as follows:

A. General Information
   A.1. Personal and Professional Information
   A.2. Organization Information

\(^{60}\) For better understanding of Lean terms used in this paper, see the glossary (page 497) or check on [http://www.lean.org](http://www.lean.org) or [http://leanromania.wordpress.com](http://leanromania.wordpress.com) – only for Romanian speakers.
B. Lean Tools in AdET
C. Training Needs Assessment in AdET.

It was made public via direct mailing, using several professional communities and discussion groups related both to adult training and lean issues and it is available at http://leanromania.wordpress.com/2009/08/24/how-to-use-lean-tools-in-adet-development.

Study Results and Conclusions

Some results are available after receiving some answers at the questionnaires and after interviews and discussions with Lean practitioners.

Rate of response to the questionnaire

Even if the target group consisted of over 300 trainers, there were only 17 questionnaires received - mainly from trainers specialised in Lean-related topics, and 21 answers declining the ability to fill in the questionnaire, due to lack of any knowledge related to Lean issues.

After a brief literature review and more open discussions with Lean practitioners, some conclusions are obvious at this stage:

1. Lean is still unfamiliar for most of adult training organisations. There is no much information on how and if Lean is used in workforce education or training, but there are some initiatives in formal education - mostly schools and universities from USA and UK, such as Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Oakland University – USA or University of St Andrews – Scotland. (Sources: http://lean.mit.edu/, http://www.oakland.edu/leanschools, http://www.leaneducation.com/home.html, http://www.educationreport.org/pubs/mer/article.aspx?id=9674)

2. Even for Lean practitioners, it is not a priority to apply Lean principles for own activity.
From the trainers answering the questionnaire, the majority work with trainees between 25 – 45 years old, employed in large companies, which usually apply Lean on a large scale. As far as usual training activities, from the major groups usually identified in occupational standards, the ratio of VA/NVA activities is as follows:
Table 2. Percentage of VA/NVA Activities in Training.
Concerning the possible use of Lean Tools and other improvement tools, to eliminate waste in the different adult education and training processes, the results are as following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>VA activities</th>
<th>NVA activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning for Adult Education and Training Activities</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Marketing</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Materials Design</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organising Training Programmes</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Delivery</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainees' Assessment</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Evaluation and Improvement</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Training Management Activities</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdET Development and Self-Development</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This Research
TOTAL 100% 16% 84%

Figure 6
Use of Lean and Other Improvement Tools in Training
Other relevant issues rose during interviews and online discussions concerned the following:

1. Lean can be used in any company, so also in training companies and training departments, as lean is about eliminating waste and improving processes. The more standardised process a company has the more it is possible to use lean tools in that company. It is true that every class is different and one can never know what is getting into during the training delivery process, but also there are many repetitive tasks to be done before the class is started and after it is finished. For sure these processes can be improved and save the companies a huge amount of time and costs.

2. First Lean principle is important to set success criteria and targets for training. Usually, for open courses, the challenge is to satisfy as many trainees as possible, but that means a percentage of non-satisfied ones, i.e. a waste in the training process.

3. Large companies are rather poor at really developing their people and getting them up to speed effectively. There are not any real Lean management systems broadly implemented in the training organisation.

4. Even if Lean Tools are so powerful to cutback costs, the most important thing is to change the organisational culture and support Lean behaviours. The tools are not too difficult to implement, but they will never work if the people are not focussed on continuous improvement. And this is where trainers should play a significant role to enable change.

5. For people with no special knowledge of Lean from training organisations, it is also useful to see that there is some need for some of the Lean tools or at least concepts, even if Lean seems so very manufacturing-oriented.

6. If one looks at the training process from a Lean point of view, it is worthwhile to know how to identify the Lead Time to move people from «Unconscious incompetence» to «Unconscious Competence». Usually the training processes are considered as simple and linear, i.e. sending people on a training course is supposed to make them learn and spontaneous moving them through all these steps. It will do to have a simple value stream map, an estimation of the existing «inventory» (number of people at each step) and «first pass yield» (the number of people who get past each step from first time) for each step. This should give a clear picture of where the focus needs to be applied on training process, to yield effective training. Practically training process may be approached like any other process, but unfortunately training is more often seen as a «box ticking» exercise in most of the companies, even within training organisations. Instead «Lean» in training should mean VSM, improvement to cut waste and to enhance value in the eyes of the customer.

7. It is advisable for trainers to use 5S and visual management, and also elements of SMED. But these tools are more about being more comfortable as a trainer, regardless the environment. It is also important to identify and control Lead Time for the learning process.

In conclusion, it is obvious that using Lean by adult educators and trainers has started in formal education organisations in some countries, but there is still a long way to go before case studies and best practices will be available to support AdET competence development.

References

Annex - Brief 'Lean' Terms Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| S5S  | A methodology for creating a self-sustaining culture that perpetuates an organised, clean, safe, and efficient workplace. The English words approximate the Japanese originals for the 5 steps:  
- Sort (Seiri) - Clearly distinguish between what is needed and what is not needed to perform a given work process  
- Straighten (Seiton) - Organize those things that are needed, making it easy for users to locate, use and return them  
- Scrub (Seiso) - Clean everything in the area, including floors, machines and furniture  
- Standardize (Seiketsu) - Maintain and improve the first four S's in addition to personal orderliness and neatness.  
- Sustain (Shitsuke) - Achieve the discipline or habit of maintaining an organised, clean, safe, and efficient workplace.  
Often there is a 6th S added: Safety- Provide the operator a safe and ergonomic workplace. |
| Continuous Flow | Only one work item is processed at a time and it is moved directly to the next process. It implies no waiting time for the item after entering the process. |
| Flow Production | A philosophy that rejects batch, lot or mass processing as wasteful. Product should move (flow) from operation to operation in the smallest increment, one piece being the ultimate. It implies no defects on the process flow, only quality parts are allowed to move to the next operation. |
| Heijunka (Process Smoothing & Load Levelling) | A Japanese term that refers to the act of levelling the variety and/or volume of items produced at a workplace over a period of time, by sequencing orders in a repetitive pattern and smoothing the day-to-day variation in total orders to correspond to longer-term demand. |
| Hoshin (Policy Deployment) | Japanese term for annual planning process, used throughout operational, financial, strategic, and project based scenarios, focusing on a few major long term customer-oriented breakthrough objectives, critical to a company’s long term success. This process deploys major objectives to specific support plans throughout the organization. |
| Jidoka | Built-in quality, such as if a process is not capable of creating the required output then it will not operate until it can. |
| Just in Time (JIT) | A strategy that concentrates on delivering quality products/services, in the quantity needed, when and where it is needed. |
| Kaizen | Continuous improvement of cost, quality, delivery, safety and responsiveness to customer needs. |
| Kanban | A signal that specifies what and when to produce within a pull system. It is generally used to trigger the movement of material where one piece flow cannot be achieved, but is also used to “signal” upstream processes to produce product for downstream processes. |
| Lead-Time | The total time from the beginning of the supply chain to the time of delivery. It includes the sum of the VA/NVA time for a product to move through the entire value stream. |
| Lean | A business improvement strategy persistently focussing on reducing waste within a system. It is applicable also to business processes such as paperwork flow through an office. |
| Overproduction | This was considered by Taiichi Ohno to be the worst type of waste as it creates and hides all other types of wastes. |
| Pareto Chart | A vertical bar graph showing the bars in descending order of significance, ordered from left to right. It helps to focus on the vital few issues rather than the trivial many (also known as the 80/20 rule). |
| Poka-Yoke | A method or device that prevents errors from occurring during the process. |
| Pull / Push | Pull  
Material flow triggered downwardly by actual customer need rather than a scheduled production forecast. Downstream processes signal to upstream processes exactly what is required and in what quantity.  
Push  
The production of goods regardless of demand or downstream need, usually in large batches to ensure “efficiency”. |
| Setup reduction / Quick Changeover (SMED) | A method for rapidly and efficiently converting a process from running the current product to running the next needed product.  
**Single Minute Exchange Of Dies (SMED)**  
A technique to reduce setup or changeover times, therefore to eliminate the need to produce in batches. |
| Six Sigma | Six Sigma may be approached at three different levels: |
- **As a metric**
  A process that is six sigma generates a maximum defect probability of 3.4 parts per million (PPM), i.e. a probability of 99.9997% to have good products.

- **As a methodology**
  Six Sigma is a business improvement methodology that focuses an organization on driving rapid and sustainable improvement to business processes by minimizing variation in those processes. At the heart of the methodology is the DMAIC model for process improvement (Define opportunity, Measure performance, Analyze opportunity, Improve performance, Control performance)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standardised Work</th>
<th>A defined work method that describes the proper workstation and tools, work required, quality, standard inventory, knocks and sequence of operations.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Related terms</strong></td>
<td><strong>Standard</strong>: A prescribed documented method or process that is sustainable, repeatable and predictable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Standardization</strong>: The system of documenting and updating procedures to make sure everyone knows clearly and simply what is expected of them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Standard Work</strong>: It details the motion of the operator and the sequence of action, based on the best process currently identified. Standard Work has three central elements; Takt time, Standard Work Sequence, and Standard Work in Process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Takt Time</th>
<th>The pace at which the customer is demanding a product (how frequently a sold unit must be produced). Takt Time = Available Time / Customer Demand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Cycle Time (TCT)</strong></td>
<td>The time taken from work order release into a value stream until completion / movement of product into shipping / finished goods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Productive Maintenance (TPM.)</strong></td>
<td>A means of maximising production system efficiency by analysing and eliminating down-time through up-front maintenance of equipment. It is based on the principle that equipment improvement must involve everyone in the organization, from line operators to top management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Toyota Production System (TPS)</strong></td>
<td>The production system developed and used by the Toyota Motor Company which focuses on the elimination of waste throughout the value stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value Added Activity / Non-Value-Added Activity (NVA)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Value Added Activity (VA)</strong> Any activity that transforms input into the output for which a customer is willing to pay for. <strong>Non-Value-Added Activity (NVA)</strong> An activity that takes time, resources or space but does not add value to the product sold to a customer. The activity may be necessary from the point of view of the provider; however the customer is not willing to pay for it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value Stream</strong></td>
<td>The value stream of a business is the sequence of steps that a company performs in order to satisfy a customer's need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value Stream Map (VSM)</strong></td>
<td>A visual representation of the aggregated material and information flows within a company or business unit. Using VSM icons, it shows interdependent functions, material and information flow, buffer inventory, flow time, cycle time, and decision points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual Management</strong></td>
<td>Systems that enable anyone to immediately assess the current status of an operation or given process at a glance, regardless of their knowledge of the process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Waste</strong></td>
<td>An activity that that consumes valuable resources without adding value for customers. Eight types of waste have been identified for business processes: <strong>Waste from over production</strong> <strong>Waste from waiting or idle time</strong> <strong>Waste from unnecessary transportation</strong> <strong>Waste from extra processing (inefficient processes)</strong> <strong>Waste of unnecessary inventory</strong> <strong>Waste of motion and efforts</strong> <strong>Waste from producing defective goods</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zero Quality Control</strong></td>
<td>Each individual is educated, trained, and empowered so there is no need for inspection of their quality of work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: [www.lean.org](http://www.lean.org), [ww.motorola.com](http://www.motorola.com)
Portuguese experts’ perspectives about key-competencies for adult educators and the role of the universities in providing quality education and training for those professionals.

Introduction

The Lisbon Agenda aims to make the European Union a leading economy in the world, based on information and knowledge. This golden-goal will only be possible if education and training are considered as basic principles and are used as a factor of economic growth, research and innovation, competitiveness, sustainable employment, social inclusion and active citizenship. In the same way, the Communication from the European Commission “Adult learning. It is never too late to learn” (2006) acknowledges that the adult learning increases social returns in terms of improved civic participation, better health, and greater individual well-being and fulfilment.

However, according to some preliminary results of Eurostat Adult Education Survey (2009), more than half of the population does not participate in any kind of formal or non-formal learning activity. Furthermore, the proportion of people neither attending nor wishing to attend education is frighteningly high (48%) and in a large number of EU member states the attendance rate is lower than 30%. So, after more than a decade of collective efforts in several grounds (political, academic, economic, social and others), the quest for “Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality” is far from being reached.

This being so, the adult participation in lifelong learning needs to become the main challenge in many European countries, and several unavoidable discussions are focused on the role adult learning professionals and teachers can play on adult education. Undoubtedly, there is a need to better prepare those professionals for the many challenges that our complex and uncertain societies, called risk society (Beck, 1992), place in every citizen, as well as for the increasing worth of the paradigm of lifelong education and learning (Oliveira, 2005). An important step for that matter is to clarify and achieve a large consensus about what the key competences are for those working in adult learning. That’s why, by acknowledging that there is a need for research on this issue, an investigation has been carried out based upon the consultation of Portuguese academic adult education and experienced field experts, focused on the following key-questions:

1. What are the key-competencies, knowledge and fundamental attitudes that adult educators need to develop so that they could perform effectively their different roles and tasks?
2. What would be the role of universities in providing quality education and training for adult educators and trainers?

Since it is recognized that “the professional development of people working in adult learning is a vital determinant of the quality of adult learning” (RvB, 2008, p.10) and given the challenges posed by European Commission, which drives Member States to ensure that teaching staff perform with quality and meet the needs of adult learners (European Commission, 2006), with this paper, which is part of an ongoing study, we intend to provide
a modest contribution to establish a framework of knowledge, regarding the key-competencies of adult educators in Portugal. Furthermore, it is also our intention to provide a first input on the "development of a reference framework for competence profiles at the European level" (RvB, 2008, p.165) as it’s recommend by the ALPINE Study.

Methodology
The Delphi methodology was used to carry out the study. It is an inquiry tool particularly helpful when we intend to reach valid and consensual opinions about topics where we do not have certain knowledge, from a restricted group of participants, recognized as experts in the aforementioned issues (Borg & Gall, 1983). Additionally, the Delphi methodology allows to attain results that truly reflect what the involved people think (given that it is anonymous), is able to get controlled feedback (reducing the possibility of irrelevant or repetitive contributions), and makes the descriptive statistical treatment of the answers possible (supplying to each participant a relative index of their position compared to those of the group), creating the opportunity of each member to rethink their opinion (Guglielmino, 1977). In order to generate ideas and achieve consensus, usually it is needed a process with three discussion rounds.

Selection of Delphi panel
The panel was made up by Portuguese academic and experienced field experts, undertaking different professional activities and holding different responsibilities in a given field of adult education. Although with a diverse profile (e.g. in terms of age, academic background and experience), all invited participants are recognized as experts and have committed themselves voluntarily to the goals of this study. Thus, the Delphi panel has integrated 14 experts with different perspectives and experience in Adult Education: scholars, experts in programme planning and management, experienced trainers, and professionals of recognition and validation of prior learning. They also represent different Portuguese regions (North, Centre as South).

Procedure
Technical implementation of the Delphi procedure, besides the constitution of the panel of experts, requires making up questionnaire, from the contributions of all panel members. Afterwards, it is sent to all participants in the discussion, for classification of the several items, and for eventual introduction of new items or exclusion of some of them, in accordance with the members’ views. Throughout this process, the questionnaires are revised several times, until a convergence of opinions can be reached (Guglielmino, 1977; Rowell & Kazanas, 1992).

Beginning the Delphi procedure, an e-mail has been sent, asking each member of the group to draw up a list of elements, based on their experience, knowledge and reflections, regarding the two open questions mentioned above.

Questionnaire 1
Based on the replies received, a global list was elaborated, resulting from all the different ideas that could be identified. This summed up 70 items regarding key-competences, and 44 items concerning the second question. Such a questionnaire was
then forwarded to all participants, in order for each item to be classified on a Likert type scale, ranging from 0 (not important) to 7 (very important). It is noteworthy that, in this scale, the mid-point is 3.5.

**Questionnaire 2**

Following the compilation of responses to the questionnaire 1, the first quartile (Q1) was calculated for each item, as well as the median (Q2) and the third quartile (Q3). Then, a second questionnaire was sent to all participants, reporting these statistics and pointing out the items in which less than 25% of the members had scored likewise. In this second questionnaire we explicitly asked the panel members to reconsider their divergent answers, in order to bring them closer to the great majority group, or to justify their opinions if they decide to keep the same scores given in questionnaire two.

**Sample**

The Delphi panel has incorporated 14 adult education professionals. Eight are male (57%) with an average age of 48, ranging from 26 to 68 years old. Their experience in the adult education field ranges from 3 up to 40 years (with an average of 19 years). Graphic 1 shows their individual number of years as adult education professionals. It can be seen that twelve of them have ten or more years of experience in the field.

![Graphic 1: Experience in adult education field (years)](image)

**Figure 1**

*Years of professional experience of each participant*

Although all members of the sample carry out functions in adult education, their tasks and daily activities are various and go beyond the act of teaching/training. Three of them are professionals at recognition and validation of prior learning centres and another three are university teachers and researchers. Besides one pedagogic coordinator, the panel also includes participants with management or administrative responsibilities, either at regional level (in a public employment and training centre – IEFP) or at national level (at Portuguese National Agency for Qualification).

In parallel with this diversity of professional experience, status and jobs, there is also a very sharp diversity in their academic profile. In fact, besides two lawyers, all the
remaining participants have different educational backgrounds: International Relations (1), Educational Sciences (2), Human Resource Management (1), Organizational Psychology (1), History (1), Economics (1), Primary Teaching Course (1), Psychology (1), Philosophy (1), Physics and Chemistry (1) and Sociology (1). However, regarding to their academic degree, most professionals are holders of masters or MBA (7), three have a PhD degree and the other three hold a Licentiate degree. One participant has completed a postgraduate course.

Results
Since the first quantitative analyses, which focused on the answers to the questionnaire 1, a high rating was found for the majority of the items. Indeed it could be seen, concerning the key-competences, that 83% of the values of Q1 (1st quartile) were above the mid-point of the scale (3.5), and that 55.7% of the items reached very high values of Q3 (5, 6 and 7). Considering the second question, 29.5% of the items have also obtained highly valued items. In addition, and pointing to a tendency to consensus opinions, the inter-quartile range (Q3 – Q1) of most of the items has denoted a low variability in responses. Only 25.7% of the items regarding key-competences and 29.5% concerning university roles were greater than 2. From questionnaire 1 to questionnaire 2, following the requirement to reconsider their own position on the items where scores were more distant from the central values, a substantial change toward consensus was found: 71.5% of answers have moved into convergence, whereas 28.5% of them have been maintained. In what concerns the second question, the movement registered was also in the expected direction, since 59.6% of the total possible changes went into convergence.

Tables 1 and table 2 present the items highly rated (those above the lowest value plus half of the range) in the third round, concerning the key competences of adult learning professionals (first question) and the specific roles of universities in developing quality programs for adult educators and trainers (second question). The ranked items are in decreasing order of importance. It is worth noting that in the first case, since the possible range of scores could vary between 0 and 91 and since the average point of the scale is 45.5, all items in table 1 were considered very important. Similar results were found in the second question (table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key-competences of adult learning professionals/adult educators</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being assertive (e.g. being able to say no, without being hostile).</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to foster adult skills for lifelong learning.</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To show and express an ethical conduct (to respect confidentiality and act in accordance with professional ethics).</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To master the methods and techniques of education, training and adult learning.</td>
<td>76.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to carry out procedures for the recognition of acquired experience, using them as a starting point for establishing training situations.</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to develop in the adult learners an increasing capacity for critical analysis, testing it first in the learning process, but always within an educational perspective, leading to constructive proposals for improvement and not just for negative and self-destructive reactions.</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to bring about tasks and dynamics having the potential to foster self-reflection.</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to understand and value the experience of adults.</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to use methods and techniques of conception, planning, management, organization, development, monitoring, control and evaluation of education, training and adult learning processes.</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to develop a curriculum, a methodology of work and training contents tailored to each adult, regarding their personal, social and professional background.</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to build a project around educational intentions, emerging from interests and needs of the adults, with appropriate methodologies (active, participatory and constructivist or others more traditional) and contextualized contents.</td>
<td>74,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to establish equality relations with the adult learner.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical reflection.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to use various methods of work (debates, roleplaying, newspaper production, exhibition documentation, development of video, field trip, etc.). To capitalize on previous experiences, interests and strengths of participants.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to establish active and dynamic methodologies (encouraging less active adults).</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to provide a satisfactory feedback on the performance of the group and that of each participant.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to manage projects on adult education to encourage lifelong learning, which always requires a lot of creativity and entrepreneurship from the Educator and openness to the development of an ongoing process of reflection-action.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to inspire confidence, motivation and encouragement.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognize that each person has its own intelligence profile, resulting from combining their various capacities: linguistic, mathematical, physical, aesthetic, emotional, etc.. and thereby showing a greater or lesser capacity of understanding or learning before the situations and problems it faces.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to communicate effectively, both in a verbal and nonverbal way (produce oral and written discourse with versatility, use oral and written language adjusted to the adults, use body language which endorse trust, acceptance and host).</td>
<td>72,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to take co-responsibility and engage adults in new scenarios of learning, encouraging them to learn more.</td>
<td>72,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to take the role of facilitator of learning.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to manage a group, working with tools for managing people.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be able to act flexibly and impartially regarding the intrinsic differences of adults.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have scientific and educational skills as well as being able to involve adults in different activities (to adapt teaching strategies, organizing spaces and lead the processes of learning).</td>
<td>74,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing high ability of observation of non-verbal language: valuing the importance of silence, «reading» of body cues, facial expressions, etc</td>
<td>74,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to articulate the processes of education and training initiatives for social, cultural, civic and environmental, artistic expression, leisure and sports, socio-economic development, entrepreneurship, etc.. in which adult people feel heavily involved.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning to learn.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to understand different cultures and values and to interact with them.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to mobilize, guide and ensure space for discussion and reflection within the group.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to use the knowledge coming from his own life story.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to stimulate adults to find and make reformulations required to get a quality product.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to play the role of facilitator, providing sharing and discovering of the adults potential, leading them to recognize in their own experience production, their implicit learning and possible interaction.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastering a set of cross-sectional skills, such as those of citizenship, problem solving, taking initiative and cooperating with stakeholders.</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Specific roles of universities in developing quality programs for adult educators and trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific roles of universities in developing quality programs</th>
<th>Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promote scientific research in the field of education and training of adults.</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide a space of reflection and discussion through workshops or seminars with experienced professionals in the field</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The main target should be made in training of who has been active as a professional or volunteer in activities related to the promotion of cultural, educational or technical adult.</td>
<td>74, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop curricula which address content related to adult education, focusing on sociological, cultural, economic and relational aspects</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer courses in postgraduate education and training of adults.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote non-formal lifelong learning</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote the study of knowledge, contexts, methods, times and places of education, training and adult learning.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote the development of projects of research-action-training.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In addition to face-to-face training, it is up to universities to provide an online theoretical and methodological follow-up, regarding different activities of education and training of adults, across the country.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritize the research-action methodology, so that it could be a facilitator of compromise between stakeholders, and used as a platform of learning, reflection on action and about action and training of educators in context.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote the dissemination of new knowledge related to adult education and adult educators (organizing events, seminars, conferences, short courses, organizing magazines, information on reports, etc.)</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect, analyze and compile best practices, suggesting lines of work, preparing materials with content adjusted to adult audiences, offering practical exercises, etc. (this process of training consultancy, would be based on a b-learning approach, in which the material provided online would be operated on local units coordinated by tutors of proximity).</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage with new audiences, through the promotion of forums, meetings, open weeks, etc. in order to discuss their role as Educators/trainer entities, near them.</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foster research processes based on observation/action/intervention, working for some activities on assemblers of a triple objective: to improve them (especially the educational intentions, methodologies, the objectives statement and realistic skills), to evaluate them, and increase knowledge in the field.</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Making the «practice theory» of models and methods of Adults education undertaking the revolving door between the contexts of their applicability (practice in context) and the theory that is being produced in universities (this way could honour the Adult Education, which would not go on a easy way or even fall in enrolment or autonomy damaging of the learning subject).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Act</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adapt their schedules and ways of learning.</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide long duration training, leading to formal certification, but based on short units, after work organized with a small number of hours per week.</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give basic training to adult educators, that is, to prepare them properly bearing in mind the difference between educating adults and children</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualizer and promoter of adult education programs.</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training educators to be open to modern times and to features of world organizations, rather than to the past role of training elites.</td>
<td>68,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training should primarily aim to better equip professionals for Adult Education, both methodologically and theoretically, as well as to allow the rising of a «community of practice» between students and teachers.</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote face-to-face discussion forums and / or interactive, between students and former students, through which they can share relevant experiences, discuss and debate strategies to work, obstacles and difficulties of adaptation, impact and importance of lifelong learning, identifying of operational needs and promotion of strategies for action (e.g. organization of small training taking place in academic and / or real-life context, targeted to the needs uncovered in these forums ... in a technological term or for personal development and / or citizenship).</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection and official statement by the academic staff on issues, dilemmas, challenges concerning adult education and adult educators today.</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote basic and advanced training (graduate and postgraduate).</td>
<td>67,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote small workshops, fostered by working groups interested in given projects or activities for discussion and / or presentations of new work practices.</td>
<td>67,5</td>
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</table>

Discussion

Regarding the key-competences of adult educators and trainers, the ideas generated and highly valued, translated in the 41 items listed above, point to complex and high level abilities and skills. Some of them have an air of being specific, others cross-sectional and still others personal. Relating to the latter, the psychological and emotional maturity appears to be seen as fundamental to perform a good educational job with adults. Summarizing the ideas in table 1, the following categories of competencies seem to be imperative in the adult educators’ training: (1) Ethical behaviour (showing respect for the dignity of all adults and fostering an open attitude to different cultures and values); (2) Establishing positive interpersonal relationships (ability to be assertive and to communicate verbally and non-verbally bringing about a climate of confidence and acceptance, conducive to learning); (3) To be able to call up adults to learn (inspiring, motivating, encouraging, giving adequate feedback); (4) To be able to promote and strengthen adults’ ability to learn (lifelong learning, learning how to learn, learning autonomy); (5) Technical competencies: mastering process design, planning, implementing and evaluating training/educational programmes for adults; mastering several methods and techniques of adult education, with emphasis on methods oriented to increase action, collaboration and participation; (6) Skills in adapting the training processes to individual characteristics, interests and needs (personalizing education and training); (7) Ability for giving relevance to adults’ experience and for recognizing and validating prior learning; 8) Competencies in advanced cognitive abilities, such as self-reflection, critical thinking and reflection in action.
Concerning the specific roles of universities in developing quality programs for adult educators and trainers (table 2), the proposals focus around the main goals of the universities – the pioneer’s action in the field research, training and intervention. As to research, the suggestions pointed out to scientific studies and projects that should focus on practices and activities in context, in order to get improvements through processes in which observation, reflection and intervention are privileged. Related to this aspect, promoting the integration of theory and practice is seen as an important role of the universities. Regarding training, several suggestions have been made, stressing the provision of undergraduate training for adult educators and the need to diversify postgraduate courses, organizing them in more accessible formats for the adult population. Contributing to methodological and theoretical training of adult education professionals, through brief courses, non-formal education, etc. in a lifelong learning perspective, is regarded as another great added value in universities training offering. Promoting reflections and discussions with experienced professionals in the area and other publics, through different means (workshops, seminars, forums, open weeks, etc.) is also highly appreciated. Offering training-consultation services, departing from the systematization of best practices, accompanying at distance (from theoretical and methodological point of view) different education-training activities in the country, as well as preparing materials and suggesting work clues are considered other fundamental roles of the universities. It is worth stressing the relevance given to the universities in terms of taking official positions about problems, dilemmas and challenges facing the adult educators.

As was previously mentioned, since this study is still under way, there is the need to better integrate the proposals on the various items and to eliminate redundancy. That’s the reason why the results that have been presented in this paper, although important, should be regarded as preliminary, requiring further research.

References
Learning outcomes and the new grammar in higher education?

Introduction

All policymaking in education derives from more or less explicit assumptions about the inherent values of knowledge. What then is the state of affairs that learning outcomes intend to bring about and how can it be compared to other ways of regarding knowledge and education? The main purpose of this presentation is to explore:

- How ‘learning outcomes’ may be understood, and how they are argued for
- Looking into other ways of regarding education and educational purposes for comparison
- Discuss different aspects of curricula and how the language we use in education may matter

The discussion will relate to teacher education, which is my field of interest.

At the university where I belong, all academic staff members have recently been busy writing learning outcomes into existing curricula and programmes. All programmes are now to be written within the same structure, and a recipe of headings and standard formulations has been given us from the administrative level. This level was also to control our written programmes, making sure they were formulated in accordance with the standards given us. The standards come from the European Commission as a result of the Bologna Process in 1999. Learning outcomes may be seen as sign of how policy makers regard quality, and the standards given as a way of assuring quality.

In the process of reformulating programmes, questions from staff members were often heard, like: Where does it come from, what's the purpose, why should we do this? As academics we have been used to great autonomy in curriculum design with no interference from the administrative level. As most imposed change, this policy met some resistance among staff members, especially when being forced to express ourselves in a language and terms decided by others. Grammar is in languages referring to common rules and structures produced within a culture. These rules may differ between languages, and when learning a new language, you also have to succumb to its rules. Prescriptive grammars state how words and sentences are to be put together in a language, and having a good grammar means obeying the rules (encarta.msn). Curricula as written texts are now made prescriptions imposed by supranational bodies, adopted at the national level, and as such a top-down ministry-led impetus for change is part of the grammar of education, though often combined with institutional level activities.

At the institutional level the process also led to interesting debates among staff members across subjects and fields of interests. These debates aroused my curiosity about learning outcomes, the way they are argued for, and in what broader picture learning outcomes may be seen. This has also resulted in this presentation, though no learning outcomes were formulated in advance. Is not it amazing how just curiosity can lead to search for knowledge?

What is learning outcomes and how are they argued for?

In 1999 representatives of the Ministers of Education in 29 European countries met in Bologna to formulate the Bologna Declaration aimed at establishing a common
European Higher Education Area. One of the main features of the Bologna process is to improve the traditional ways of describing qualifications to be achieved in higher education, it’s said, and to achieve this improvement learning outcomes seems to have become one of the answers. “Learning outcomes are in the forefront of educational change.” Adam claims (2004). This change is obviously seen as something worth striving for when leaning on texts produced in connection with the Bologna Declaration.

Nowadays most programmes in higher education are broken up into smaller elements that are assessed within the units. These smaller units are often called modules, and programmes and modules in higher education should now be written in terms of learning outcomes. Learning outcomes is a movement from what’s being taught to what’s being learnt, it is argued, and as such learning outcomes are used to express what learners are expected to achieve and how they are expected to demonstrate that achievement within certain modules in the future (Kennedy et al. 2005). Bloom’s taxonomy from the fifties, seeing knowledge as something possible to range in a hierarchy, is often used to provide a framework for building up programmes from the simplest forms of knowledge up to more advanced forms. Educational objectives trying to establish a tool for measuring changes produced in individuals as a result of educational experiences are in the forefront. Verbs are used to indicate at what level learning outcomes should be assessed, for instance: recall, demonstrate, describe, explain, use or analyse. Examples of learning outcomes in teacher education might be: At the end of this module the students should be able to:

- describe the difference between an objectivist- and a process- model of curriculum design
- apply Kolb’s model of learning to the design of a teaching programme
- explain the difference between behaviourism and cognitive approaches in teaching
- demonstrate how to teach 6 years olds to read

While programmes earlier seemed to describe what should be taught, they should now describe what students are to learn. Words trying to catch the purpose of a programme, like aims or objectives, are replaced by learning outcomes, and this is seen as a progress, according to the texts on the internet. There are possibly confusions between learning outcomes, objectives and aims, and Kennedy et al. (op.cit.) argue: “The aims of a programme give the broad purpose of it from the teachers’ points of view, whilst an objective gives more specific information about what the teaching of the module hopes to achieve.” What’s confusing, they continue, is that sometimes they are written in terms of teacher intention and other times they are written in terms of expected learning.

Assessment

Further, learning outcomes as observable results will have consequences for assessments and exams. To be consistent, we should measure what’s possible to measure.

61 The Bologna declaration is a building commitment to an action programme. It is aiming at adoption of a common framework of readable and comparable degrees, introduction of undergraduate and postgraduate levels in all countries, ECTS-compatible credit systems, a common dimension of quality assurance and elimination of remaining obstacles to the free mobility of students (http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/educ/bologna)

62 At the internet, when searching on learning outcomes, we can find several defenders of this policy and several receipts on how to write learning outcomes in programmes. Few critical remarks or questions to what it is all about, its logic and consequences are found.
in accordance with the verbs used in the learning outcomes. One way of ensuring that assessment tasks are designed to fulfil the outcomes of a module is by directly linking assessment criteria to learning outcomes. This may involve a simple one-to-one correlation between outcome and criterion (www.ssdd.uce.ac.uk/outcomes/). It is good practice to be explicit about what you expect of learners in terms of learning, it is argued, and learning outcomes link with assessment criteria and assessment practice. They are written in relation to level descriptors, and as such knowledge is seen as something possible to range and measure at a specific point of time during a programme. Learning outcomes can help to guide students in their learning in that they explain what is expected of them, they can help staff to focus on exactly what they want students to achieve, and they can provide a useful guide to inform potential candidates and employers about the general knowledge and understanding that a graduate possess, it is said (op.cit.)

How can we understand learning outcomes when relying on curriculum theories?

As conflicting and contradictory logics of education and curriculum have existed for a long time, curriculum theories may illustrate different positions in these discourses and what have been predominant perspectives at different times in different cultures. If the curriculum is viewed as social construction where the process of decision-making is of a socio-political and cultural kind, it represents conflicting arguments which may become visible when analysing the discourses represented in the policy documents (Karseth 2005). Though curriculum also can refer to something that we do or something that exists in our heads, I further restrict curriculum to mean the formal documents produced for schooling or higher education. Curricular questions have not played a central role in higher education so far, Karseth claims (ibid). With teacher education it is different as it has been subject to central control and is heavily prescribed in all directions through the national curriculum for quite some time (Thiessen 2000, Ostrem 2008). A new reform in Norwegian teacher education, which is to be implemented next year, is stressing the importance of learning outcomes in all modules, telling in exact details what skills and expertise new teachers are to acquire.

Every curriculum details a set of aims and content within or across subject areas, but it differs how detailed or tentative the curricula are. The first textbook written on the subject by Bobbitt in 1918 promoted curriculum as an idea about what a child ought to become as an adult. Both he, and later Tyler, took up the idea of schools as purposive institutions and education as an intentional activity by stressing learning by objectives, often called the means – end curriculum. Tyler states: “One can define an objective with sufficient clarity if he can describe or illustrate the behaviour the student is expected to acquire so that he could recognize such behaviour if he saw it.” (Tyler 1949:59-60, quoted in Stenhouse 1975:54). This is the classical definition of a behavioural objective, which we also find as the basis for learning outcomes. Stating objectives are to define them in terms which identify both the kind of behaviour to be developed in the student, and the content or area of life in which this objective is to operate.
**Voices from the past**

Several scholars have criticized this way of regarding education, and further I will rely on arguments put forward by Lawrence Stenhouse and Elliot W. Eisner. They have both taken an active stance against learning outcomes as the only valid way of formulating educational goals in curricula. Their arguments are just as relevant today as they were in the seventies and eighties when curriculum planning could only be “*rational if it was guided by quite clear and specific statements of intended learning outcomes, defined in terms of measurable changes in student behaviour.*” (Elliot 1995:54). I recognize this way of thinking from the seventies when we in Norwegian schools to some extent relied on behaviouristic approaches to learning. Instructional programmes where one must be clear about the skills and information students were to learn at the end of a programme were in use, making a clear route from the entry point to the completion. Each step in the program asks for a response from the student, and immediately rewards the response if correct. But at that time programmed learning existed together with more progressive pedagogies inspired by Stenhouse, Eisner, Dewey, Freire and Illeris, and as such we had an option to switch between different ways of thinking and acting in relation to the content and students we were teaching. Programmed learning undoubtedly has potential, Stenhouse says (1975), but also serious limitations if seeing knowledge and learning as inquiry. The limitation is also discussed by Eisner (1994), who introduces problem-solving objectives and expressive objectives as important aspects of the curriculum. Such aspects cannot be formulated in predefined outcomes, but requires certain activities to be developed and has a risk involved in it. Because, how can we ever predict in advance how human beings will make meaning of what they experience? We will never be able to do that just because human beings are interpreting their experiences in subjective ways.

Lawrence Stenhouse (1975) criticized the objectivist model of curriculum being presented at that time and spent a great deal of his professional life attacking the technical rationality in curriculum planning. Learning behaviour is the easiest to operational, he claimed, hence the really important outcomes of education will be under emphasized. Pre specification of explicit goals prevents the teacher from taking advantage of instructional opportunities as life in classrooms is unpredictable and development happens in situations where teacher, students and content meet. Measurability implies behaviour which can be objectively, mechanically measured, hence there must be something dehumanizing about the approach, Stenhouse further argued. If human activities could only be justified if their outcomes refer to observable changes, education would loose its meaning. Instead Stenhouse defined curriculum tentatively “*A curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice.*” (1975:73). For Stenhouse education was preparation for life, and when designing the Humanities Curriculum Project it was value issues that was his concern. Instead of asking about the objectives of the curriculum, he asked: how do teachers handle value-issues in classrooms within a pluralistic democracy? (Elliott 1995). He regarded the objectivist model of curriculum as appropriate for only a limited range of learning activities, like mastery of certain skills. He wrote about standards already in 1960, and to him standards were criteria adopted in the criticism of classrooms, and not levels of attainment in class work. He urged teachers to discuss criteria for judgement with students so that the students themselves might begin to understand how
judgements of excellence are constructed and how they might more confidently use the criteria for judgement in relation to their own work (Rudduck 1995). Stenhouse was concerned about the teacher as an agent in education, and in “giving teaching back to teachers”. It is widely acknowledged that teachers are key actors in curriculum change, and the teacher as a researcher of his own practice was introduced by Stenhouse as an opposition to decisions about change from the political level. The alternative to the objectivist curriculum model (means-end model), is named the process model with inspirations from Stenhouse, and also Elliot W. Eisner with his arguments about education as a moral activity and teaching as artistry. As an American, Eisner took his point of departure in a criticism of the school reforms in USA, like Stenhouse did in Britain. Eisner claims (1994) that the model of natural sciences has formed the ideologies of schooling and that this basis is inappropriate for most of the problems and aims of teaching, learning and curriculum development. Instead he argues (op.cit.:369) “Knowing, like teaching, requires the organism to be active and to construct meaningful patterns out of experience. At base, such patterns are artistic constructions, a means through which the human creates a conception of reality.”

About learning outcomes and what he called the model of natural science, he claimed that the process of curriculum development is like the process of doing quantitative educational research. They make education much neater and much more predictable than in practice. Like Stenhouse, Eisner was deeply concerned about what schooling could contribute with in children’s development as human beings, and not as “raw material to be processed according to specifications laid down by the consumer” (p.112). They were both stressing the influence of the teacher and the processes between teachers, students and subjects. The unpredictable and challenging situations of classroom practice should not be formulated in preconceptions about learning outcomes decided by others. Instead they argued for a practice in education that gives rooms for the participants (students and teachers) to develop their own learning outcomes.

**Teacher training, or education?**

How we conceptualize the work of teachers inevitably influences how we think about their professional preparation, and ultimately shapes suggestions for the further improvement of teacher education, Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) say. Different orientations which have been particular influential in shaping the nature of initial teacher education may be summarized in the traditions that Calderhead and Shorrock list: The academic orientation emphasizes teachers' subject expertise, the practical orientation emphasizes artistry and classroom technique of the teacher, the personal orientation emphasizes the importance of interpersonal relationship in classroom, the technical orientation derives from a behaviourist model of teaching and learning, while the critical inquiry orientation views schooling as a process of social reform and emphasizes the role of schools in promoting democratic values (p. 2). Within these distinctions different curriculum theories may be recognized. The emphasis on learning outcomes belongs to the technical orientation with a behaviourist model of learning. We may then talk about teacher training, and if we knew exactly what knowledge teachers need and draw on to perform their work, it is possible to prescribe results in terms of learning outcomes. Regarding teachers’ work as a moral and practical activity we may talk about teacher education, and we will need other words to describe its content and purposes than learning outcomes can offer. Grimend (2008) argues that professional work has to be
understood in relation to the practical work they do and suggests practical syntheses as a concept to depict situations where various aspects of teachers’ knowledge are brought together in certain ways. Thus it is impossible to isolate knowledge from the practical situations of work, and it is the challenges of practice that create the synthesis (translation by Munthe 2009). As Schwandt (2003:355) puts it: “The practical refers to the real, embodied, linguistic material world of practitioners in which, for example, they exercise judgement to arrive at equitable, just and responsive decisions in concrete situations, and maintain or fail to maintain core values of their practice in the face of contingencies, constraints and contradictions.”

When teachers’ work is described as consisting of uncertainty and lack of technical standards to guide teachers’ actions (Lortie 1975, Jackson 1968, Munthe 2001), we would need other ways of educating teachers than can be expressed through learning outcomes. When there are no uniformed standards by which teachers can evaluate their work, when teachers must make thousands of decisions in the course of a week, and when work consists of ‘hot action situations’, the work itself involves a great deal of uncertainty. Munthe (2001) suggests focusing on the management of uncertainty as an ability to deal with inherent uncertainties of teaching. But how is it possible to express a learning outcome about the management of uncertainty? Taking part in education also involves uncertainty. It is about to find out what we need to learn, and it implies a risk – not only that we won’t learn what we wanted to learn. There is also a risk that we will learn things that we couldn’t have imagined in advance. And there is a risk that we will learn something that we rather did not want to (Biesta 2005). Seeing education this way, it cannot rely on a causal technology like the means – end curriculum. In this tradition in order to measure outcomes, knowledge has to be broken down into smaller and smaller units, and can be a long list of trivial skills or competencies not being able to grasp the inherent uncertainties and risks in education. If we have to live with uncertainty, we must exercise judgement as best we can to maintain core values. And it will never be perfect. It becomes apparent that predefined learning outcomes will not be able to grasp the complex and situated knowledge that teachers draw on and develop in practical situations, and they could only apply to isolated fixed knowledge.

**A new grammar?**

As I have tried to outline above, learning outcomes is nothing new, and is not necessarily in the forefront of educational change, like Adams et al. claim. On the contrary, learning outcomes have been part of educational discourses within curriculum theories since such theories began to develop. What’s new is that higher education now has become part of what schools has been part of for a long time, and that the Bologna Declaration has made options impossible. While behaviouristic approaches to teaching and learning in former times were ways of thinking and acting offered us, they are now imposed on the institutions as the only right answer to educational questions. While schools in former times were the domain of the teachers, they have now become the domain of political interventions. While universities always have been the domain of the professors, they have now become the domain of supranational organizations. The language of education is now standardized across subjects and programmes. This is said to make programmes easy to read for our students and will give them a clearer understanding of what to be achieved. But will it serve the purpose of the educations in question? An overarching framework of qualifications for the European Higher Education
Area driven by international mobility, employability and competitiveness may stand in the way of the primary task of teacher education – educating the teachers we need for the future.

**Does language matter?**

Words are doing something with us and we are doing things with words (Austin 1997). The metaphors and language we develop for education have profound consequences for educational values and our views of how education should occur, Eisner claims (1994:360). “All of us, through the process of acculturation and professional socialization, acquire a language and a set of images that define our views of education and schooling”. As such, language is not a mirror of reality, but social constructions creating institutional facts (Searle 1995). Institutional facts are facts that become true by the way we are talking about phenomenon, and as such they may be called myths understood as frozen ideologies. In Barthes (2002) work myth refers to the body of beliefs and representations that sustain and legitimate current power relationships, naturalizing and universalizing beliefs, while excluding rival forms of thought. The rhetoric in education regarding quality in teaching, like standards, learning outcomes, assessment, accreditation and accountability, are being employed to define the problem of teaching quality and to promote certain practical proposals for its resolutions, Carr says (1989). He goes on arguing that that the underlying assumptions dominating the debates remain unexamined, and unsubstantiated claims are beginning to acquire the status of literal truth. There is probably not one single truth within educational questions, and the different “truths” must be discussed in relation to the purpose of a programme and what it is aiming at achieving. From a Finish context Hannu Simola (2009) describes how the policy of supranational bodies influences the national policies of governance in higher education “...nonhistorical and decontextualized concepts such as efficiency, accountability and quality are colonizing the educational world undisputed and unchallenged, largely due to the fact that they have been internationally advocated” (p. 6-7). Similar points of view are also put forward in the Norwegian discourse (Karlsen 2002, Garm 2003, Stensaker 2008). Learning outcomes may be seen as one of the notions colonizing the educational world. And it may be seen as part of the accountability movement.

**Accountability**

It seems that achieving accountability in education is one of the core issues in the international agenda of school improvement. The accountability movement is about making individuals accountable for the products delivered, and in education the products are student performance. “The state and other authorities are making lower authority levels more accountable to higher levels in an attempt to satisfy political requirements for transparency and accountability in public sector and institutions. The establishment of accountability is accomplished primarily through contracts between all levels of the educational system.” (Moos 2009, p.84). Learning outcomes may be seen as part of a contract between students and institution, and by formulating precise outcomes both parts will know what’s expected of them, but at what cost?
Summing up

The overall intention of the Bolgna Declaration is to make European higher education more competitive and attractive to match the best performing systems in the world, notably the United States and Asia (European Commission 2007). Precise statements about what a learner is expected to know, understand or demonstrate at the end of a programme are seen as part of this reform. I have tried to argue that learning outcomes lean on a narrow assumption of knowledge concerned with effectiveness and efficiency in the production of outputs. By reducing knowledge to a question of ends, education is made a technical task like producing cars or furniture. It does not take into account the unpredictable consequences of actions in the world of persons where different persons might conceptualize the intervention differently (Oancea and Pring 2008). The aim to develop a highly reliable space of higher education which is manageable and predictable may be seen as a paradox when society is described as complex, plural and uncertain, Karseth (2005) argues, and she asks if the Bolgna process can be understood as an attempt to manage this complexity and uncertainty. But why should supranational bodies make decisions on behalf of those of us who are standing in the educational situations trying to make meaning out of the complexities. Why shouldn’t our voices be just as important as others’?

A democratic society is precisely one in which the purpose of education is not given but is a constant topic for discussion and deliberation, Biesta says (2007). The current political interventions and the grammar of education have made it increasingly difficult to have a democratic discussion about the purposes of education, he continues. If we accept that both teachers in primary education and professors in higher education are human beings with their own values, preferences and intentions, and if we accept that “teachers matter”63, the discussion should to a large extent rely on their own arguments and efforts to develop the programmes they take part in. It is something dehumanization with the imposed change in the curriculum design of the Bolgna process!

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63 Teachers matter is a new slogan in education and it is put forward in both international documents and Norwegian white papers.


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Job satisfaction of Greek university professors: Is it affected by demographic factors, academic rank and problems of higher education?

Introduction

Job satisfaction is an attitude emanated from employees’ perceptions of their jobs or work environments and refers to the extent to which a person likes his/her job (Pool, 1997; Spector, 1997). The level of job satisfaction reflects - and is affected by - one’s work experiences as well as his/her present situation and future expectations. Job satisfaction is an attitude very sensitive to the features of the context in which it is studied. There is no model of job satisfaction applicable to all work settings as there are no general truths regarding the factors and the mechanisms accounting for such an elusive and subjective concept.

The majority of job satisfaction studies in the last 80 years, since it was pioneered, have focused on industrial and organizational settings. In the educational context, job satisfaction has been a frequently studied variable both in primary and secondary education teachers. However, empirical evidence regarding job satisfaction of higher education teachers is scarce in the international literature (Oshagbemi, 2003; Tack & Patitu, 1992). According to Pearson and Seiler (1983), this area has not received much attention because a high level of job satisfaction has generally been presumed to exist in a university setting. Whether this presumption is true or not will be explored in the present paper.

Job satisfaction for faculty members: Data from the international literature

The characteristics of the academic profession are not frequently met in other professions, such as autonomy, freedom and flexibility as well as the teaching/research conflict, the tenure system which provides job (in)security, etc. (Kelly, 1989). According to Bellamy (1999, cited in Bellamy, Morley, & Watty, 2003), academics are mostly motivated by internal motives (e.g. autonomy, showing initiative, intellectual challenges) rather than exterior motives (e.g. financial or social rewards). According to Meyer and Evans (2003), their internal motivation and the particular importance they attribute to the characteristics of the academic profession (such as autonomy and flexibility) counterbalance the multiple requirements, the strong pressures, the animadversions and the poor financial rewards. Actually, flexibility and autonomy have been considered as key factors in becoming and remaining an academic (Bellamy et al. 2003).

As a result of the above, the academics’ job satisfaction appears to be related to internal rather than external dimensions of their professional activities. The content of the work itself (teaching/research), autonomy, flexibility, initiative behaviour, quality of interpersonal relations with colleagues and students, the feeling of “belonging” to a high social and educated community and, finally, the meritocracy and justice in the system of promotions (when they are present) have been pointed out as the main factors of job satisfaction of professors in higher education. On the other hand, empirical findings have
shown that the academics are less satisfied with their financial rewards, their promotion and tenure matters (lack of meritocracy, incomplete or ambivalent evaluating criteria, etc.) but also their work conditions (Ambrose, Huston & Norman, 2005; Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Ward & Sloane, 2000).

In general, there is a consensus among the researchers in this field regarding the motivation and the work-related factors that account for the academics’ job satisfaction. However, the empirical data concerning the impact of demographic, institutional and personal factors on their job satisfaction are very confusing. The relative findings vary as to which of these factors (e.g. gender, ethnicity, job achievement, nature of work, salary, collegial relationships, rank and tenure) affect the level of job satisfaction of academics. The fact that the number of the relative studies is limited makes it harder to draw solid conclusions (Oshagbemi, 2003). We will briefly describe the most important of these findings for our study.

Most studies have found that male faculty members have higher levels of overall job satisfaction than their female peers, particularly in terms of benefits and salary received and promotion opportunities (Bilimoria et al. 2006; Hult, Callister, & Sullivan, 2005; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). On the other hand, a few studies did not show any significant effect of gender on the overall job satisfaction (Smith & Plant, 1982; Ward & Sloane, 2000). Interestingly, it was found that female faculty members in higher academic ranks express more satisfaction with their jobs than their male peers (Okpara, Squillace, & Erondu, 2005; Oshagbemi, 1997).

Marital status can also have an impact on faculty satisfaction, but the results of the studies that explore their relationship are fairly inconsistent (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). On the one hand, marriage has been shown to increase satisfaction levels for faculty members (e.g. Cetin, 2006; Hagedorn, 2000). Yet, other studies have shown that marriage can have a negative impact on faculty job satisfaction (e.g. Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988).

Rank and tenure are additional control variables for faculty job satisfaction (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). Evidence shows that rank is a highly significant predictor of job satisfaction among academics, with full professors expressing greater job satisfaction than junior faculty members (Oshagbemi, 1997). Similarly, tenured faculty members have higher job satisfaction levels than untenured faculty members (Bender & Heywood, 2006). However, it must be noted that, in a study performed in Northern Cyprus, the level of job satisfaction of the academics did not increase with academic rank (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009).

**Higher education in Greece**

The academic ranks of the faculty members employed in the Greek universities range from Lecturers (this post requires a PhD but is not tenured), Assistant Professors (it starts as a non-tenure post and becomes secure three years later, if a person successfully passes the evaluation), Associate Professors and Full Professors (these are tenure posts).

During the last 60 years, many attempts have been made to reform the Greek educational system in order to keep pace with the increasing demands and needs of a rapidly changing political, economic and social context. Despite the improvements that have been attained, most scholars assert that the system in the Greek higher education is still inefficient, it is characterized by excessive bureaucratization, over-centralization, strict hierarchical structures, formalism, and extensive legislation. In addition to the
above, faculty members in the Greek universities have to struggle with severe budget limitations, lack of formal evaluation mechanisms, excessive numbers of student enrollments, and discontinuity of educational policies reforms (Bourantas, Lioukas, & Papadakis, 2001; Giamouridis & Bagley, 2006; Stamoulas, 2006). Although the reform of Greek higher education system is an imperative request to which all the involved parts agree (state, society, faculty, and economy), there is no consensus regarding as to how it should be implemented. The different interests and viewpoints of the involved parts in combination with the absence of trust, coordination and comprehension among them seem to sustain and occasionally make the current situation worse.

Aims of the present study

The aforementioned information aimed to portray a general picture of Greek higher education system that could be considered as the broad work environment of Greek academics. During their work life, faculty members in Greek universities often have to deal with problems such as the above, which may affect their overall job satisfaction. Although much has been written and discussed in the media about the impact that such problems may have on the satisfaction and productivity of the Greek faculty members, there is no scientific support for of these issues.

In the present study, our first aim was to investigate the job satisfaction of Greek faculty members. To our knowledge, this subject has not been addressed in Greece and no relevant empirical data are available. In addition, the effects of factors such as gender, age, professional experience in the university, academic rank and marital status on the job satisfaction of faculty members were explored.

Second, we aimed to investigate what the faculty members think of various aspects of higher education which are broadly pointed out as problems; specifically, we asked them to assess how serious each problem is for the effective functioning of higher education. The investigated problems concerned university administration, involvement of political parties in the university, big numbers of students, evaluation, funding, resource allocation, governmental control, syndicalism, etc. As in the above, the effects of the demographic characteristics of the faculty members on the severity assessments of the problems were investigated.

Our third aim was to explore whether the attitudes of the faculty members towards the problems of higher education may have an impact on their overall job satisfaction. Therefore, we aimed to investigate how job satisfaction is related to problem assessments and whether any of these problems can predict the level of job satisfaction of faculty members.

Method

Participants

In this study, 105 individuals belonging to the faculty of four universities located in North Greece participated in the study. Eighty of them were males (76.2%) and only 25 (23.8%) were females. Their age ranged from 30 to 63 years ($M = 44.1 \ SD = 7.5$) and their professional experience in the university ranged from 1 to 34 years ($M = 10.9 \ SD = 7.2$). In relation to their academic rank, 37 (35.2%) held the position of Lecturer, 42 (40%) the position of Assistant Professor, and 26 (24.8%) belonged to the highest ranks of Associate and Full Professor (they were grouped together due to their small numbers). In relation to
their marital status, 87 (82.9%) were married or lived with someone and 18 (17.1%) were singles, divorced or widows.

**Measures**

Participants were contacted via e-mail and were asked to fill in an inventory administered on-line. The inventory consisted of two parts: the first was designed to assess the perceived level of job satisfaction of higher education faculty members; the second was designed to investigate their attitudes towards some problems related to higher education.

*The Job Satisfaction Inventory*

This part of the inventory consisted of seven items inquiring how satisfied the faculty members were with their job (e.g. *In general, how satisfied are you with your job? My career so far is corresponding to my qualifications*). Participants were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale their level of agreement to each item (1 = *Not at all* and 5 = *Absolutely*).

In relation to the reliability of the scale, it was found that the Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI) had a fairly good reliability (α = 0.79). To test for construct validity, a factor analysis was run to the data using a varimax rotation. It revealed that the structure of the JSI can be explained by one factor, demonstrating that this is a uni-dimension measurement of general job satisfaction. Therefore, the mean of the seven items was estimated for each participant as an indication of his/her overall job satisfaction.

*The Problems of Higher Education Inventory*

The inventory consisted of 18 problems of the Greek higher education that are likely to have an impact on job satisfaction of faculty members, such as university administration, politics, big numbers of students enrolled, evaluation, funding, governmental control, syndicalism, etc. (they are presented in Table 1). Participants were asked to assess how serious they think each problem is for the functioning of higher education using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Not at all* and 5 = *Extremely*). The Problems of Higher Education Inventory (PHE) was tested for its reliability and the latter was found to be quite satisfactory (α = 0.82).

**Results**

The first aim of our study was to investigate how satisfied faculty members of Greek universities were with their job. According to their self-reports, their overall job satisfaction was a little above average (*M* = 3.43 in a 5-point scale, *SD* = 0.70). In relation to the effects of demographic characteristics, no significant differences were found between males and females, or between faculty members who were married or lived with someone and those who were singles, divorced or widows. Academic rank was not found to have any significant effect on faculty job satisfaction, although Lecturers reported a somewhat higher satisfaction with their job compared to the Assistant Professors and the Associate/Full Professors. Finally, age and professional experience of the faculty members had no significant correlations with their job satisfaction.

Our second aim was to explore how the faculty members assessed the various problems of the Greek higher education. According to their self-reports (see Table 1), most of the problems under inquiry were assessed as very severe or quite severe; these related to poor funding (*M* = 4.42), dependency on the political parties and the state (*M* = 4.3).
launching of new departments without long-term planning \((M = 4.16)\), excessive
numbers of student enrolments \((M = 3.84)\), the non-academic attitudes of students \((M = 4.07)\),
lack of meritocracy and transparency in the academic functioning \((M = 4)\), poor
resource management \((M = 3.88)\) and lack of evaluation procedures \((M = 3.84)\). Few
problems were assessed as moderately to quite severe and these related to the
ineffective student enrolment system \((M = 3.51)\), the introversion of the universities \((M =
3.58)\), their failure to align with the demands and the needs of the society \((M = 3.3)\) and a
prevailing entrepreneurship in higher education \((M = 2.8)\). It is reminded that the
problems were assessed in a 5-point scale.

### Table 1. The problems of the Greek higher education and their assessment as reported by the Greek faculty members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems of the Greek higher education are ...</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. the poor funding and material/technical support of the universities</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. the dependency of universities on the State and the political parties</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. the weakness of the State to conceive the essential problems of universities</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. the &quot;sectional&quot; logic and practice characterizing many academics</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. the establishment of regional departments and postgraduate programs in an irregular manner characterized by the absence of long-term planning</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. the attitude of many undergraduates toward their studies</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. the occupation of academic positions by individuals with insufficient qualifications</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. the lack of meritocracy and transparency</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. the loose structural context which governs the materialization of undergraduate studies</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. the poor resource management by the universities</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. the lack of formal evaluation procedures and mechanisms in higher education</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. the excessive number of students enrolled in each department</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. the procedures followed for the election of administration offices in the university</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. the way in which evaluation and promotion of academics take place</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. the &quot;introversion&quot; of Higher Education Institutes</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. the enrolment system of secondary education graduates into higher education</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. the weakness of higher education to align with the demands and the problems of the modern society</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. the &quot;entrepreneurism&quot; of higher education</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to demographic effects, no significant differences were found in the
way males and females assessed the severity of the problems. Few significant differences
were found between the married/accompanyied individuals and the singles, divorced and
widows, but they do not seem to be psychologically meaningful.

The effect of academic rank was also tested and only few significant differences
were found. Specifically, the Assistant Professors assessed as more severe problems the
poor resource management by the universities as well as the election procedures in the
university administration offices (Rectors, Deans, etc.); the Associate/Full Professors assessed as more severe the big number of students enrolled in each department. Finally, the age of the faculty members showed few significant correlates with specific problem assessments: that is, proceeding age was positively correlated with the big number of students in each department \( (r = 0.29, p < 0.05) \), the loose implementation of the program of studies \( (r = 0.24, p < 0.05) \), and the lack of or deficient evaluation system of the universities and the faculty members \( (r = 0.20, p < 0.05) \). Significant correlations were also found between the above variables and the professional experience in the university of the faculty members, but when age was partialed out, the correlations were found non-significant.

The third aim of our study was to study how job satisfaction is related to problem assessments and whether any of these problems can predict job satisfaction of faculty members. To pursue this aim, first, the correlations between overall job satisfaction and each of the problem assessments were obtained. Only four correlations to job satisfaction were found significant: dependency of universities on the State and political parties \( (r = -0.30, p < 0.05) \), establishment of new departments without proper consideration \( (r = -0.27, p < 0.05) \), elections in administrative offices \( (r = -0.20, p < 0.05) \) and the “sectional” logic of the academics \( (r = -0.20, p < 0.05) \). That shows that the more satisfied the faculty members were with their job the less serious they assessed these problems to be. Moreover, a correlation of \( r = -0.19 \) was found between overall job satisfaction and their mean problem assessment; although non-significant, this correlation is in line with the aforementioned conclusion.
In order to further investigate the relations between job satisfaction and problem assessments, we employed a K-means cluster analysis to classify participants into two groups according to their job satisfaction reports: the first included the faculty members who were satisfied with their job \((n = 56, \text{overall job satisfaction } M = 3.97, SD = 0.37)\) and the second included those who were dissatisfied with their job \((n = 46, \text{overall job satisfaction } M = 2.77, SD = 0.40)\). In the next step, an analysis of variance was run which revealed that the first group tended to assess as more moderate the problems than the second group, although most differences were close but did not reach the level of significance. Only the assessments of three problems were significantly different between the two groups (see Figure 1): that is, the satisfied faculty members assessed as less serious the dependency of the Greek universities on the state and the political parties, the establishment of new departments without long-term planning, the evaluation procedures employed for faculty promotion.

Finally, in order to explore which of these problems can predict job satisfaction of faculty members, a step-by-step regression analysis was run, in which the dependent variable was the overall job satisfaction and the independent variables were the 18 problem assessments of the faculty members. Results showed that only one problem, the dependency of Greek university on the state and the political parties, can significantly explain the variance of job satisfaction \((R = 0.25, R^2 = 0.06, \beta = -0.25, t = -2.44)\). It must be noted that this problem was rated as the second more severe by the faculty members.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

The issue of job satisfaction of the faculty members has been rarely studied in the international literature and never before in Greece. Given the fact that the academic profession is characterized by features that are not met in other professions, it is essential to study their job-related parameters per se, should we want to comprehend this professional group and, possibly, administer interventions for the benefit of the entire higher education (Conklin & Desselle, 2007).

This is the first study aiming at exploring the level of overall job satisfaction of the faculty members who are employed in the Greek universities. Results showed that Greek academics are moderately to quite satisfied with their job. It is interesting to note that a recent study of faculty members in Northern Cyprus reports same levels of job satisfaction (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009). Similar results were also found in a previous study that examined aspects of academics' satisfaction with their job across eight nations (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, UK, USA) (Lacy & Sheehan, 1997). These consistent findings imply that, as professionals, the faculty members are generally content with their job in the university.

In relation to demographic variables, no significant effects were found of the factors of gender, age, previous experience in the university, marital status, or academic rank on the overall job satisfaction of the Greek faculty members. These findings are not in agreement with the results in most studies conducted in the western countries. Most of that research consistently reports that age and academic rank are strong predictors of the academics job satisfaction, with individuals of older age and higher rank being generally more satisfied with their job (Holden & Black, 1996; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1978; Oshagbemi, 1997, 2003). Also, with few exceptions, in most studies, male faculty members report higher job satisfaction than their female peers (Bilimoria et al. 2006; Hult et al. 2005; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). In our study, this finding was found not consistent to the
results of the previous studies. Given the scarce evidence, we are not able to assume whether this is attributed to (a) our relatively small sample, in which not all Greek universities were represented, or (b) the Greek higher education system which is different than those of western countries in which most of the research has been conducted so far. Relevant research in eastern countries, in the future, may shed light to the aforementioned inconsistent findings. The findings reported in the Eyupoglu and Saner (2009) study conducted in Northern Cyprus strengthen this argument, as most of those findings are in line with ours.

For example, in our study, academic rank was not found to have any significant effect on faculty job satisfaction, although Lecturers reported a somewhat higher satisfaction with their job compared to the Assistant Professors and the Associate/Full Professors. Similarly, Eyupoglu and Saner (2009) found that overall and intrinsic job satisfaction of Northern Cypriot faculty members was not significantly dependent on their academic rank. Only the extrinsic satisfaction of the academics was affected by their rank, with Lectures and Full Professors reporting the highest levels. Intrinsic satisfaction refers to internal and occupational factors, such as achievement, activity, creativity, independence, variety, while extrinsic satisfaction refers to environmental conditions, such as company policies and practices, compensation, recognition, etc.

In the present study, job satisfaction was studied as a general attitude towards the job of Greek faculty members (Spector, 1997), of an intrinsic nature and which relates to ‘non-measurable’, symbolic aspects of the job, such as quality of interpersonal relationships, drive for recognition and self-realization, pleasure from the job itself, etc. (Kelly, 1989). Exploring their attitudes towards specific features of the job (e.g. environmental conditions) that may result in (dis)satisfaction was beyond the scope of the present study. Yet, it can be the subject for future research, as there is a lack of evidence regarding job satisfaction of the Greek academics. In addition, in future studies, care should be taken in order to obtain data from faculty members representing all the Greek universities and, possibly, the Technological Educational Institutes; the latter also belong to higher education but there are marked differences, among others, in the job parameters of their faculty members.

In the next step, we aimed to explore how the faculty members assessed the various problems of the Greek higher education and whether these assessment have an impact on their job satisfaction. It was found that most of the inquired problems were assessed as very severe or quite severe. Such problems (e.g. poor funding, dependency on the political parties and the state, establishing new departments without long-term planning, big numbers of student enrolments, lack of meritocracy and transparency in the academic functioning, poor resource management and deficient evaluation system) have often been included among the major shortcomings of higher education in various countries (e.g. Ambrose et al. 2005; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; see also Welch, 2005). It is interesting to note that the Greek academics were not very much concerned with the prevailing entrepreneurship in higher education and they assessed that there is only a moderate failure of the Greek universities to align with the demands and the needs of the society. Their moderate assessments of the above problems indicate their openness in the currently strong trends common to both Greek and European higher education for the alignment of society and the workplace.

Results showed that the faculty members who were more satisfied with their job tended to assess as less severe the problems of higher education, in comparison to those
who were less satisfied with their job. Finally, the regression analysis revealed that only one of the most severe problems of higher education, the dependency of Greek university on the state and the political parties can significantly predict the overall job satisfaction of the Greek faculty members. It is encouraging evidence to see that most of the major shortcomings of the Greek higher education, although they may be responsible for holding back the reform and sustaining the weak points in the Greek universities, do not significantly affect the level of academics’ job satisfaction. Further research in this topic could explore in depth the sources of (dis)satisfaction of the Greek faculty members and provide more evidence that could be used for the improvement of the current situation in the Greek higher education.

References


University training of trainers? A research about perception of adult education in University and of University among adult educator practitioners.

Introduction

Higher education is profoundly influenced by adult educations. The new discourse in higher education about flexible access, credit accumulation or experiential learning is rooted in principles of lifelong learning, continuing and recurrent education, and is now being reproduced in faculty reports, university strategies, and research programs. The influence of adult education in changing the traditional discourse of higher education was greater then we often realized.

Knapper and Cropley (1985), 24 year ago, mentioned that “while lifelong learning is unlikely to produce immediate and radical change in conventional system of higher education, it met sense to be on alert for examples of partial shift in philosophy and practice that go some way towards fulfilling our goals for this new approach” (pag. 86).

For many years, there was a distance between adult education and universities. In the mainframe of university education, adult education was literally „extra-mural” and proud of it. In the liberal adult education tradition, the adult education organizations and free-lance trainers “denied itself effective dialogue with universities” (Duke, 1992).

These discussions have typically represented two differing perspectives. One perspective can be characterized as a functional and utilitarian belief system and view professional training programs as a practitioner’s degree, with program objectives to develop expertise with real life problems and best practices of the field as shaped through the knowledge economy. In the same boat the liberal tradition tratrainers are concerned about the erosion of opportunities to learn from its on sakewithout the intrusion of vocational and instrumental goal. (Usher, Bryant Johnston, 1997)

The second perspective has assumed that training should be futuristic, focused upon the preparation of innovative leaders and designers for new and different leadership (Boyd, 1969). These programs have utilized scholarship to create the new knowledge and skills for organizational policy. With new scholarship, the goals of these programs include crafting and critiquing innovative program designs that represent the new lifelong learning social order, instructional and assessment strategies that validate and critique best practice, and adult learning theory based in collaborative strategies to serve the future lifelong learning society. (Kasworm, Hemmingsen, 2007)

While policy makers and educational researchers continue to debate the impact and policy formulations of lifelong learning, limited discussion and research has examined the preparation of lifelong learning adult education professionals in graduate higher education. These professionals are the backbone of the creation, innovation, and implementation of organizational policies, of the design and implementation of teaching, and of the provision of specific services related to adult lifelong learning. These individuals are part of the success or of the lacking impact of this new agenda for a knowledge society. (Kasworm, Hemmingsen, 2007).

There are several studies concerning the interest of universities in what was previous the specific adult education field. Findsen (2001) tracks the effects of university

In the recent years, proper initial education exists for some adult educators in the form of university degree courses, leading to a diploma in adult education, mostly structured in a way that students obtain competencies relevant to a wide range of activity fields. In order to properly frame and understand the cultural and academic context of this issue, one must consider that the English concept of “education” corresponds to three closely related Romanian words with slightly different attributes: “instriuire (professional education),” “formare” (an adaptation of the English term of “training”, related closely to short term adult education), and “educatie” (nearer to formal education). Hence, respectively, in Romania “instriuirea personalului,” “formarea adultilor,” and “educația adultilor” all indicate the English field of “adult education”.

Because in Romania one does not make a clear distinction between a trainer and an adult educator, the former training of trainers’ process could completely change into a university level education of adult educators. Two master studies in Romania (European Master in Adult Education, West University of Timisoara and Master in Training of Trainers, București University) offer a diploma in Adult Education, and one of them in training of trainers. It is a constant pressure of public university to reach this market of professionalization of adult educators (or trainers).

However new times come. “To achieve high quality level professionalism among adult education staff, a common European framework of competences is desirable. This is needed also for adult education itself, as a prerequisite for developing adequate initial and further education programs, and as a quality reference and competence framework covering not only adult education teachers and trainers but all who enable and support the learning of adults, formal, non-formal and informal” (The European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning, 2008).

Survey

The study was developed in Romania among 23 adult educators’ professionals, 8 university teachers in education and 52 students. The topic is about the perception of the further role of the University in providing education and training for adult educators. The survey is based on mixed methodology, quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (focus groups).

First step was to question students in what they know about adult education. The respondents were 31 from a variety of field of studies and 21 from the educational sciences department.

The first group of students consider that adult education is simply about skills related to computer use and learning of foreign languages. The educational science students however, who are familiar with the concepts of adult education, believe that adult education is marginal in the educational field, yields an uncertain career and is attractive just if it’s related to an European project and it’s well paid.

More relevant were the focus groups with adult educators’ professionals and university teachers in education.
The starting theme of the focus groups was the issue of regulation of adult education. The answer was mostly affirmative, but a long debate begun between university teachers and practitioners if this regulation is the responsibility of governmental bodies or of professional associations of trainers. In this 5 focus groups, we identified several forces which tend to unify the non-formal education of adult educators system (the general Trainings of Trainers) with formal high education:

**Standardization.** “Through standardization knowledge is sand blasted from the strata of historical overdetermination, becoming a commodity, a pure reified object whose only function is to ‘pass’ the test. As such, facts become free floating signifiers detached from the material relations of history” (Cho, Lewis, 2005). There is a contradiction between standardization and postmodern diversification of educational arrangements. Waks (2006) states that „over the past two decades the educational policies of neo-liberal nation states have exhibited contradictory tendencies, promoting both bureaucratic standardization of curriculum and standardized evaluation on the one hand, and postmodern diversification on the other” (pag. 405).

This informal perspective held strong philosophical beliefs that adult education was historically without exams and was for life (not work life). However, in the past decade within European educational community, the discourse has changed (Delors et al. 1998)

For an adult educator (or trainer), the new ‘European System of Education of Adults’ is a treat. Nowadays, it would sound awkward to discuss about the importance of quality in adult education or about the skills and competences needed to be a trainer. Despite this, there are some recent legal constraints in certification of every adult educator from Romania, to be implemented starting 2010.

“As of January 1st, 2010, in order to be approved, the trainers who conduct the training programs should be equipped with specific pedagogical training and specialized trainings appropriate for adult training programs” (Romanian Adult training provider methodology - p. 3, art. 10, par. 3)

Before this legal intervention, the training and adult education activity was liberal and unregulated. The former “Training of Trainers” courses were sustained mostly by nongovernmental organizations that provide some institutional certification without legal recognition. The trainers and adult educators position on the market was determined just by personal or organizational prestige.

“As of January 1st, 2010, in order to be approved, the training provider companies must demonstrate that the training programs are conducted by trainers who, in addition to appropriate specialized training, have specific training and pedagogical training of adults.” (Adult training provider methodology - p. 3, art. 10, par. 4)

This legal regulation has no instruments to be endorsed, because there are not enough authorized adult education institutions to organize new Training of Trainer courses. Just five institutions organize training of trainers and another 8 are authorized to recognize competencies. In this context, Universities have all the interest to set up the organizing of Training of Trainer courses, according to the Bologna Declaration:

„Qualifications frameworks play an important role in developing degree systems as well as in developing study programs at higher education institutions. They also facilitate the recognition of qualifications, and they are important for those who make use of qualifications, in particular learners and employers”. (Bologna Declaration 2008)
It sounds nice, but to recognize competencies is a strange idea in our educational system. Just to give an educational example: All teachers in primary education (some of them with 25 years of experience) were conditioned by the system administratively to «retrain the completion of a university-profile», because they do not have a mechanism for recognition of competencies. Connecting these with the quasi-absence of training competencies recognition institutions, one can understand why most trainers prefer to follow a new TOT than to pass through a bureaucratic and tiresome recognition of their competencies.

Finally, an adult educator wants just an official certificate, and by tradition, the best is a university diploma.

**Social prestige of the University diploma**

"During the last 20 years, education system in general has expanded, with individuals in society seeking higher levels of education and in general participating in greater numbers in the academies. Further, university education has developed from elite education to an egalitarian and mass education and from a focus on liberal to vocational" (Jarvis, 2002).

Romania is a country with a culture of diplomas. The fact that many years the access to higher education was restricted, university diplomas have earned a special importance in the social and economic environment. Having a university degree is more important than what the diploma certifies.

Romania is a relatively poor country in terms of the number of possessors of university degrees and of the number of students. Out of the working age population in Romania, in 2005, only 11.1% are high education graduates. The working age population of the European countries show, that only Turkey (9.7%), Macedonia (8.7%) and Albania (7.4%) score lower in higher education graduates. Moreover, if we consider that the data for Albania and Macedonia are older, it is likely that the figures from Romania are even lower (in the last 10-15 years in all European countries, the number of university graduates demonstrated an upward trend). EU countries, Malta (11.4%), Italy (12.2%) and Portugal (12.8%), but also Czech Republic (13.1%) and Slovakia (14%), are placed closer to Romania. Other European countries, especially Western ones, have more educated population than Romania (Comșa, Tufiș, Voicu, 2007).

In this context, on the training of trainers market there are two with equal costs alternatives (600-1000 euro): a diploma issued by a trainer of trainers of adult education center and the same degree obtained in a university, doubled by a masters-degree diploma. In my opinion, the Universities TOT will cannibalize the poorer adult education centers.

**Bologna Process**

Bologna process is an disputed issue. This recommendation match the 'The European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning (EQF)' with all European High institution.

"Qualifications frameworks are intended to be an instrument that help learners as well as those who develop higher education programmes and the competent national authorities. They should help learners move within a given education system as well as between systems. Qualifications frameworks are therefore important in
promoting mobility within education systems as well as internationally. They are not intended to be administrative straightjackets or to make all national education systems identical.” (EQF, 2008)

Traditionally in Romania, a European recommendation is transforming in law without any public or professional debate.

**Compatibility with the Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area (2008)**

- The descriptor for the higher education short cycle (within or linked to the first cycle), developed by the Joint Quality Initiative as part of the Bologna process, corresponds to the learning outcomes for EQF level 5.
- The descriptor for the first cycle in the Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area agreed by the ministers responsible for higher education at their meeting in Bergen in May 2005 in the framework of the Bologna process corresponds to the learning outcomes for EQF level 6.
- The descriptor for the second cycle in the Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area agreed by the ministers responsible for higher education at their meeting in Bergen in May 2005 in the framework of the Bologna process corresponds to the learning outcomes for EQF level 7.
- The descriptor for the third cycle in the Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area agreed by the ministers responsible for higher education at their meeting in Bergen in May 2005 in the framework of the Bologna process corresponds to the learning outcomes for EQF level 8.
- According to this a trainer of trainers is in a second cycle, which implies that to be a trainer of trainers needed a master’s degree.

**Resources**

In Romania, education for adults is 10 times smaller than the European average, without the situation to disturb anyone. There was a motivating framework for retraining unemployed. According to Romanian Minister of Economy, approximately 2 million people in rural areas cannot enter the labor market due to lack of qualifications. There are no reliable mechanisms for validating informal and non-formal education by certifying compliance in relation to pre-referential and accepted by stakeholders. The higher institutions have to be present at the competition for recognition and for resources. The interest of universities in adult education is encouraged by public policies, in order to meet social needs. Shapin (2003) pinpoints the issue:

“To establish commercialization as a ‘key mission’ of the university, on an exact par with teaching and open inquiry, is crucially to confuse center with periphery and to misunderstand what it is that universities can do which no other institutions in our society are able to do, or to do nearly as well. Basic research and well-educated (not just well trained) students are public goods: goods which, unlike a seat at an Arsenal home game and like the beam from a lighthouse, are not made scarce to me because you have access to them, and out of which it is therefore difficult to make a profit. And as the federal Reserve economists pointed out: ‘Because these products are types of public goods, unfettered markets will fail to produce enough of them. Public universities are designed to cover this market failure by providing more education and more basic research than the market would yield on its own: these are the fundamental roles of a university and the argument for government support’ (p. 19).

In the same sense Usher, Bryant and Johnston, (1997) describe the process of marketisation of knowledge in the form of information spreads from the commercial
realm into educational practices. Like otherwhere government have embrace economic rationalism, an ideology which tolerates reductions in government expenditure impacting directly on funding to universities. The most obvious manifestation of economic retrenchment within universities has been an increasing drive towards user pays and people’ heightened interest in credentials as the job market has minimize.

Romanian Public Universities are also on the educational market where individual choice determines quality and education is perceived as a privilege, not a right, and since education benefits the individual, the individual should pay for, it in part at least. The striving for excellence and quality in the higher education sector has resulted in increased attention to charters, mission statements, strategic planning and quality management approaches (e.g. total quality management). Romanian universities must face to a very turbulent politic end economic environment and mostly for an economic surviving (and not for ideological reasons) will extend curriculum in lifelong learning area.

Conclusion

What is the future of Training for Trainers in Romania? As suggested in this paper that the trend is to transfer this type of program in Universities. The history of the transfer of adult education in universities does not provide much cause for optimism. Adult education and high education are yet (maybe not just in Romania) to different. The question is if today Romanian University prepared to be a competent provider of quality in adult education. The answer is negative. Several treats was identified in our study:

For the majority of educational teachers the adult education it is just an economic short-term opportunity.

We have in our Universities educational teachers that have never contact with some form of adult education; and the problem is that is possible for them to be responsible for educating the future adult educators. Specifically we realized a historical skepticism towards adult learners and a university mentality both for and against adult education practitioners and university education teachers.

For the majority of adult education practitioners this adult education degree is become just a legal constraint. In the market economy they would go in the cheapest and easily done university adult education program.

The parallel educational institution, that until now provide courses in training of trainer, it seems to disappear from legal/policy reasons.

References


Descriptors defining levels in the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) 

Metodologia de autorizare a furnizorilor de formare profesională a adulților
http://www.cnfpa.ro/Files/Norme%2ometodologice/Metodologia%20de%20autorizare.pdf

The European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning


Romano, F. (2002) Adult education and the Italian University:Politics in Higher Learning and the 'social'. Convergence. 36 (2) 71-86


The teacher of non-traditional adult students: A first needs analysis at a Portuguese University institution.

Introduction

The University of Aveiro (UA), as most of Portuguese Higher Education Institutions (HEI), has been facing a new reality since 2006: the growing number of Non-Traditional Adult Students (NTAS) entering HEI. This contingent of NTAS (also called “mature students” in several countries), older than 23 years (M23), has been raising diverse questions regarding several issues: administrative procedures, academic validation and certification of competences, teachers’ training, just to name a few.

In fact, Portuguese HEI were not expecting to receive these students, due the short notice of the Ministry of Higher Education on the process which ended with the subsequent promulgation of the Law-Decree 64/2006, that legislates on the entrance of NTAS in HEI. Consequently, since the UA had decided to open its door to this non-traditional public, it has been trying to improve the support and means of monitoring the path of these adult students from the very beginning, in order to improve their academic and personal success. However, there are still many difficulties and obstacles to surpass and many projects to develop in order to achieve a supportive institutional background directed to NTAS.

One of our concerns is focused on the competences and skills that the teachers of adult publics attending HEI have to demonstrate. In fact, these adults are randomly distributed among ordinary students’ classes, mostly during the day, because only very few courses have night classes. This is one of the challenges that the teacher has to face: the great variety of students’ profiles in large classes. Consequently, at the UA some research is being conducted so that we can understand this new reality and put into practice several devices to respond the new demands these non-traditional publics raise to HEI, in general, and to the UA, in particular.

Therefore, within the general background previously designed, the authors have two major intentions:
(i) To present some of the main characteristics of NTAS, so that we can better understand the challenges that teachers have to face;
(ii) To present a first analysis of a questionnaire made to teachers of NTAS. These teachers were members of the jury of the final interview made to NTAS and may also have this kind of students in their classes.

It is important to highlight that the questionnaire is, therefore, important to understand teachers’ perspectives regarding NTAS’ difficulties and expectations, the competences and skills they as teachers already possess and others they need to develop, and possible strategies (even institutional) to put into practice. In fact, we consider that the teachers of adult students need to possess several competences and skills that must be developed in continuous professional training courses, so that (a) the teaching and learning process is enhanced, (b) these NTAS have success, and (c) lifelong learning initiatives in HE environments are put into practice. But to do this, it is essential to initially obtain data concerning teachers’ perspectives about NTAS, also because there is no such research developed in Portugal.
Remembering the importance of lifelong learning

It is inevitable to say that our society is continuously emerging: change seems to be an intrinsic characteristic in all its different but interconnected dimensions. Consequently, if we are aware of this “life-world becoming” (Barnett, 1997, p.41), it is inevitable to focus also on the educational system, and more specifically on HEI:

“Quite clearly, the creation of a knowledge society is highly dependent on the performance of our education and training systems, and particularly on the universities and other Higher Education Institutions. Indeed, the role of universities in the process is crucial.” (Kelo, 2006, p.7)

In fact, this society underlines that the “common good” or the “currency” of our days is knowledge which is permanently changing, evolving, and being recreated. Consequently, this perspective towards the learning contexts and knowledge highlights the fact that we are always developing and learning: today it is underlined “We continue to grow and change” (Daloz, 1987). Thus, it is pertinent to reflect on adult students who are entering in HEI to improve their own future, their academic and professional competences - dimensions which are more unpredictable, demanding and challenging. And, like Jarvis stresses: the concept “adult” is implicit in the duration of life.

Mainly, we consider that Lifelong Learning strategies have a great purpose: “the development of individual human potential” (Longworth & Davies, 1998, p.22), which starts when we are born and only finishes when we die. Although we are always Lifelong learners, Medel-Añonuevo, Ohsako and Mauch (2001) refer some characteristics that are important to point out:

“The learner as an active and creative explorer of the world, (...) as a reflexive agent; (...) as a self-actualizing agent; (...) as an integrator of learning” (p.9-10)

This can enlighten us why Lifelong Learning has been frequently related to the adult education and to the creation of strategies directed to this public. Actually, due to the low levels of literacy and degrees that most adult people demonstrate in several European countries, as in Portugal, it is essential that responses are created. Additionally, new skills are required, because of the intense changes and demands that we can observe nowadays.

The entrance system at the UA

For a NTAS to enter a HEI in Portugal, (s)he has to present certain attributes that are described in the Law-Decree n. 64/2006 which legislates the entrance of adults M23 with particular characteristics: individuals over 23 years old, without secondary school diploma or equivalent, that need to pass through a specific entrance process, so that they can enter a HEI.

To apply for a course at the UA, the adult student has to undergo a set of phases, stated on a specific Internal Regulation of the UA, that are meant to evaluate his capacity to attend a HE course. This process consists of three steps:
- The appreciation of the academic, professional and individual Curriculum Vitae (CV) of the candidate;
- A written theoretical and/or practical exam focused on basic knowledge and competences considered fundamental to enter and progress in the degree in which the candidate intends to ingress;
- An interview to sharpen the evaluation process through, for instance, the analysis of the candidate motivations.

Thus, taking into consideration the previous phases, firstly the adult candidate needs to fulfill an application form that is submitted online and is essential to gather a set of information that will be subsequently analyzed and properly weighted in the moment of the interviews, the final phase of this process.

The second phase, as we have already mentioned, is devoted to a specific written exam required to enter the course to which the candidate applies for. This exam (a) may present two parts - one more theoretical and another more practical; (b) may be one or two, accordingly to the course; (c) is elaborated by teachers of the specific subject; and (d) is based on the criteria and competences specified by the secondary school. In fact, there is a concern of the institution to maintain a high level of quality, and so it is crucial to test if all applicants have the skills and competences to enter a HEI. Finally, to pass to the following phase, candidates must achieve a minimum grade of 8 (in 20).

Thirdly, candidates must submit themselves to an interview. The juries are formed, and the same procedures are developed and implemented regardless the origin of the teachers or the course the candidates are applying for.

Since the UA integrates both a University (UI) and a set of Polytechnic Schools (PS), and the process of NTAS entering the University extends to the Schools, the interview has been centralized in the University, where a unique counter ("one shop stop") has been established.

The composition of the juries of M23 interviews is also defined by the Internal Regulation document of the UA, and must have at least three elements which are: the Institutional Coordinator, the Director of the Course, and another member that represents the Head of Department where the degree is taught. The teachers are appointed from each department and have to be present in all interviews. Their roles are defined within each jury:

- The Institutional Coordinator makes sure that all the necessary and relevant information is transmitted to the candidates, as well as the procedures regarding administrative steps they will have to undertake concerning their application to a position in this process of entering a HEI;
- The colleagues from the departments will focus on the issues regarding the particular degree they are responsible for. Therefore, they have to know the CV, and the content of the motivation letters (ML) of each candidate, as well as the content of the legal documents that inform the process.

Also the appointed teachers must prepare and organize the interviews, bearing in mind the final classification of each candidate that will reflect their performance based on three aspects: (i) motivation, (ii) academic and professional curriculum, and (iii) academic grades at the written exam. By the time the interview takes place they already have all the documentation regarding these issues as well as the grade the candidates obtained in the exam.

Since the great goal of this article is to present the perspectives that NTAS’ teachers have regarding (a) their expectations when contacting with NTAS’ difficulties, (b) the competences and skills they already possess and others they need to develop, and
(c) possible strategies to put into practice, it is essential to highlight that this year (2009) we had candidates to 34 of the 45 degrees that opened vacancies to this process, and 33 juries (70 teachers) were constituted. Therefore, the questionnaire, mainly constituted by open answers, was delivered to these teachers. They were asked to answer it and return to the Institutional Coordinator of the process. We had 50% of returns (n=35 teachers).

The research at the University of Aveiro

Because a growing number of students with diversified features is increasing at HEI, it is urgent to know who these students are, so that coherent and systematic strategies can be planned to manage the diversity and the uncertainty (or some part of it), and to answer to a multiplicity of challenging and urgent requests.

Bearing in mind this major concern, we have designed a research focusing on the first group of NTAS that entered the UA on the academic year of 2006-2007, characterizing them demographically, academically, professionally and motivationally (Baptista et al, 2008).

Therefore, to achieve that goal, we analyzed the NTAS’ personal files very carefully, in order to contextualize and understand their paths and options. This research was mainly developed during the academic year 2007-2008, and updated in 2009, and the findings were all in accordance to what we have found in the literature. Therefore, we consider that some features, which we will point out (see 4.1) can be generalized, providing a general profile of NTAS at the UA.

When involved in the characterization of NTAS and contacting with many persons at the UA extremely connected to the M23 process, we became aware of the emergence of several important aspects and themes that needed to be highlighted and discussed. One of the subjects was the impact that these NTAS have in the teaching and learning process and the conceptions and perspectives that teachers have concerning that fact and their own pedagogical performance. Thus, to make a first approach to this subject, we have designed a questionnaire, that was delivered to the teachers who made part of the interviews in July 2009. This questionnaire was mainly constituted by open answer questions, in order to collect the greatest variety of answers, because there is no research in Portugal focusing on this subject in whom we could support this investigation. Thus, the questionnaire had two main parts (see findings in 4.2):

- Part I to generically characterize the teachers, particularly considering demographic and professional aspects;
- Part II to analyze teachers’ perspectives regarding the several aspects which we have already presented.

The previous data was qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed, so that we could achieve reliable conclusions. Additionally, we followed a descriptive perspective in our analysis.

Analysis of NTAS’ files: Some distinctive characteristics

Concerning relevant demographic characteristics, their ages vary between 23/24 and 78 years old. This fact points out the importance this process has to people of all ages with certain life experiences. The majority has a Portuguese nationality, even though it is possible for citizens from other nationalities living in Portugal to access HEI through this process. Also the majority usually lives near the University, many of these NTAS are married or de facto unions, and in this case many have children.
Considering their professional characteristics, the great majority is full-time employed, and consequently they are financial independent, even though NTAS have several commitments to answer, such as their family and the academic fees. These are worker-students and so part-time students who need a proper support, not only from their family and friends but also from employers to attend and be successful at the University. Usually, NTAS look for a course related with their professional career to progress in their work place or even to find out a proper job which suits their own achievements.

Considering the academic characteristics, we may observe that the majority has a third cycle school frequency and/or diploma (that is, the compulsory school) and that also the majority usually engages in professional development courses or in informal or non-formal activities. Consequently, we may consider that many NTAS have important and valid competences to apply for a HE degree, due to their professional and academic lives and experiences. Although there are many NTAS who reveal themselves as extremely successful students, there is a great percentage of those who fail and a high number of dropping outs.

Finally, taking into account their motivations, we gathered the following categories: (a) personal motivations, (b) professional motivations, and (c) social motivations. As Merrill (2001) mentions:

"Mature students generally begin university life with high expectations of what learning and, more specifically, a university degree can do to their lives in relation to personal development and employment." (p.6, our emphasis)

In fact, we must emphasise that in one motivation letter we may find explicitly various motives. We may highlight that personal motivations are related to the need of self-actualisation, of enhancing self-esteem, and of making a dream come true. Also, this opportunity is seen as a form of approaching the family and of opening themselves to new challenges, broadening their horizons.

Concerning professional motivations, NTAS searched for a place in a HE degree so that they could (i) give a proper answer to the new demands of working life, improving their working performance, (ii) progress in their own professional careers or, in some cases, (iii) (re)initiate professional life (especially for those who are unemployed).

To conclude, some NTAS reveal social motivations. In fact, some of them are committed with the enhancement of citizenship, with the society and with the qualification of human resources, as well as about the value of HE degree/diploma, mainly with the social and professional recognition it provides.

**First analysis of the questionnaire to NTAS’ teachers: Main findings**

Regarding the first part of the questionnaire – the characterization of the jury/teachers – we conclude that 40% (n. 14) were women and 60% (n.21) were men. According to their answers, their ages may be distributed as follows (table 1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20–40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41–50</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In fact, the age distribution is quite uniform, even though predominates the presence of younger teachers in the jury.

Additionally, we may verify that the teachers who collaborate in the jury are mainly in the beginning or almost in the middle of their teaching career at the UA, as we can conclude by the following table (table 2):

Table 1. Teaching at the UA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching at the UA (in years)</th>
<th>Frequency – n.</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37,1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31,4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20,0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 31</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Answer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8,6 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, regarding their professional categories, the distribution is observed in the table 3:

Table 3. Teachers’ professional categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional category</th>
<th>Frequency – n.</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UI Auxiliar</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UI Assistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UI Associate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UI Catedratic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS Coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS Adjunct</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS Assistant</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Answer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In fact, we may find a predominance of the lower professional categories, both from the teachers working at the University or at the Polytechnic Schools of the UA.

Furthermore, taking into account their areas of teaching and research (table 4), we may conclude that they represent the areas to which the NTAS apply for. Thus, we underline that the jury must gather teachers/researchers of specific areas regarding the academic path to which NTAS’ candidates are interested in.

Table 4. Teachers’ scientific areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research area</th>
<th>Frequency – n.</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exact sciences and Engineering</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design and Marketing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts and Management</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Social Sciences</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17,1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, the previous distribution gives an idea of NTAS’ area of preference when applying for a course at the UA.
On the other hand, it is important to realize the number of times each member has been presented in a jury of this kind (table 5), because it may enlighten us about the familiarity they have concerning this process, the recurrence of the teachers involved and, eventually, the establishment of a frequent type of approach to the interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Number of times teachers have been members of a NTAS’ jury</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings are somewhat difficult to analyze, because there are some influences concerning the M23 process and another called “ad-hoc” which had existed for some years, even though it had finished some years before the M23 process has started. If the M23 process began in 2006, it is impossible to be member of a M23 jury more than 4 times. Therefore, the frequency more than 6 times in a jury means that some teachers had the experience of contacting with adult publics, namely in the previous process called “ad-hoc”. Consequently, this fact gives us a perspective of the members’ involvement, experience and knowledge, and probably their profile regarding these tasks.

On the other hand, it is very important to know how teachers have prepared themselves to integrate the jury, in general, and the interviews, in particular.

So, taking into account the results presented in table VI, in general 94,3% of the teacher mainly read documents: the Institutional Regulation regarding this process, the motivation letters (ML), and the candidates curriculum vitae (CV). Some of them also interacted with colleagues with the same assignment (28,6%) and others “did not do anything special” (11,7%). In addition, one said that the previous experience was enough, and two of them checked the examinations previous to the interview. Finally, 3 did not give any answer.

In particular, regarding the preparation for the interview, while 42,9% of the teachers analyzed the candidates’ CV, 28,6% read the individual candidates’ files, 14,3% the written exams and the ML. On the other hand, there was 11,7% who did not consider any specific documents.

We believe it is relevant to point out that some teachers who have been taken part of the jury for some years, also met before the interview (14,3%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6. Teachers’ preparation for the interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation to integrate the jury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Regulation and ML</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ML</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candidate process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction with other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding the consequences to the UA  |  n./%  |  Regarding the candidates  |  n./%  
--- | --- | --- | ---  
M23 are an added value to the academia and the teachers research  | 8 (22.9%)  |  This process promotes autodidacts and the valorization of professional paths  | 24 (68.6%)  
This process motivates other students  | 6 (17.1%)  |  This process gives a new opportunity to the M23  | 16 (45.7%)  
This process enables the presence of new and different publics in the University  | 5 (14.3%)  |  This process enables the raising of qualifications, allowing M23 continuing their studies  | 14 (36.8%)  
This process allows individual promotion, increasing M23 self-esteem  | 12 (34.3%)  
This process opens possible academic paths to more matures and/or motivated students (M23)  | 10 (28.6%)  
This process allows that the M23 relevant life experience is observed at the UA  | 6 (17.1%)  
This process asks the UA more diversified offers with more freedom of choice, concerning the courses  | 6 (17.1%)  

Also some centered their attention on the selection criteria to be applied (20%), and the questions they were going to ask (5.7%). Finally, some teachers took into account their previous experience on interviews of this kind (5.7%).

In fact, these aspects may be important to evaluate the importance of the interview – the last phase of the M23 process through which a candidate may pass successfully – considering the teachers’ preparation and involvement.

Finally, to understand if those teachers recognized M23, we asked if they were able to observe NTAS’ presence in the classes they teach.

Actually, the majority (91.4%) is sensible to the presence of this public and this may be more important when asking those teachers about the teaching and learning process as well as their knowledge concerning the difficulties these students have to face.

Regarding the second part of the questionnaire – teachers’ perspectives about NTAS’ process and difficulties, competences to develop and strategies to put into practice – we may conclude that the majority (94.3%) of the respondents recognizes that the M23 process is important, due to various reasons (table 7).

Even though only 42.9% gave us three main reasons, we consider their contributes as extremely valid to understand what the broad academia may consider about this public.

Moreover, we could detect different understandings of the question, which are present on the “dimensions” of the answers: (a) regarding the consequences to the UA, and (b) regarding the candidates themselves.
On the other hand, regarding teacher’s expectations on contacting with M23 public, we could identify different perspectives, once again (a) regarding their presence at the UA, (b) regarding the students themselves, and (c) regarding their future performance. We may highlight the next aspects and respective percentages:

a) There are 57,1% of teacher who refer their expectations regarding the presence of M23 at the UA. More specifically, they expect that M23 will share their professional experience, providing a critical view on academic contents, potentiating teacher's work, enriching the teaching and learning process, and also the link to the labor market. Thus, the presence of M23 might help to improve the quality of teaching and learning, as they are expected to be more interested than the regular students.

b) Also, there are some teachers who mention their expectations regarding the students M23 themselves. In fact, they expect that M23 are more aware of what they are applying for (22,8%), considering that NTAS need to work harder in order to overcome difficulties. To manage it, these students may need support in several ways, and will have to make a real and effort in time management. In addition, there are teachers who expect that these students will reveal enriching life experiences (14,3%), as well as professional and technical experiences (37,1%); expect that they are mature (22,8%) and also motivated (42,9%).

c) Regarding their future performance, 45,7% of teachers considers that NTAS might demonstrate a greater capacity (i) to link theory and practice, (ii) to be interested on academic contents, (iii) to know how to accept new challenges, (iv) to be intellectually receptive, (iv) to have basic notions of academic contents, (vi) to have more experiences, (vii) to behave properly, and, in some cases, (viii) to have better results than some regular students.

When asked about the difficulties that NTAS may demonstrate, most of the teachers focused the lack time (42,9%), particularly to articulate their work and the classes’ attendance (45,9%). In fact, it is not new that worker students feel this difficulty: teachers point out some problems such as time management and timetables’ organization (14,3%).

Also, since M23 have been a long time away from studying at a formal institution, teachers consider they present some problems regarding basic knowledge (34,3%), mainly in a mathematics and foreign languages, as well as a lack of study habits and rhythm (36,8%), and both oral and written difficulties (17,1%). In addition, teachers (17,1%) say that M23 tend to undervalue academic contents which are not directly related to their working areas.

When confronted with a question asking the competences they, as teachers, should have in order to deal with this public, we could gather the next aspects:

- 40,4% of teachers considers they should be available and open to understand M23 difficulties, helping and supporting them individually;
- 22,8% of teachers stresses the importance of good communication skills, “an open mind, sensibility and good sense” (sic);
- 20% of teachers highlights the importance of good teaching experience, providing a good scientific basis;
- 20% of teachers mentions life experience, maturity and motivation, being able to expose contents in different registers, in order to connect theory and practice and promoting a bridge between the classes with the working environment and reality;
- 8,6% of teachers refers the ability to motivate;
- 11,7% of teachers does not consider that M23 need the actualization of specific competences and also 11,7% did not answer.

Focusing on those percentages and other aspects which were mentioned, we may conclude the following: (a) teachers point out generic competences, not specifying on their particular tasks to enhance the teaching and learning experience; and (b) teachers do not present a sensible perspective concerning the specificity and characteristics these NTAS reveal. Consequently, we might ask about the success of the teaching and learning process, taking into account the perspective of these non-traditional publics and other students. The difference must be acknowledged by all interveniens of the process, so that teaching and learning may be enhanced.

On the other hand, when these teachers were asked about the competences they should acquire or develop in order to deal with this public, we observe that 7 teachers (20%) did not answered and 8 (20,8%) considered that they needed to actualize the same competences as for other students. Again, these teachers reveal they are not sensible to the differences this type of students may bring to the teaching and learning process. However, there was one teacher who mentioned that, if NTAS were all in the same class, it would be different. In fact, if this aspect highlights this teacher is aware of the NTAS’ differences, we also conclude that the teaching and learning process is always seen as an homogeneous experience, that is, the group of students is considered by the teacher to possess the same “average” characteristics. Thus, we could question the success and failure of this perspective.

Nevertheless, among other respondents we could find that 25,7% of teachers considers essential the development and strengthening of competences on content development in more appropriate ways. Some teachers consider important linking the classes to the world market, establishing a bridge particularly directed to NTAS. In addition, 20% of teachers believe that interpersonal competences, to improve the teacher and student relationship, are essential. Also, 11,7% speaks about communication skills and also 11,7% mentions argumentation skills that allow more debate during the lessons.

Once more, apart from some teachers who demonstrate some awareness concerning some NTAS’ specificities, such as their linkage to the world market, the majority who have answered only mentions what we could name of generic pedagogical competences, not identifying other particularities. It is very relevant to observe that almost 50% did not answered or considered that it is not essential to acquire or develop other sort of competences to improve the teaching and learning process and NTAS’ experience.

Finally, when asking these teachers about the strategies that the University could implement to develop their teaching competences and to improve the whole teaching and learning experience and the interaction with NTAS-M23, 28,6% did not answered, 2,9% did not know and 14,3% mentioned that there was no need for developing any kind of strategies.

Additionally, the other answers did not demonstrate in-depth perspectives. In fact, the other teachers mentioned: the need of implementation post-labour classes, allowing more time to contact with the students (22,8%); and the need of continuous training, specially to provide teachers with academic and pedagogic training to better answer the new demands (17,1%).
On a first and broad analysis, the silence of the majority to many questions reveals that many teachers may not consider pertinent to think about these questions, to develop strategies to integrate different kinds of students, such as NTAS who possess different characteristics, and, generally speaking, to discuss teaching and learning methods, enhancement and experience.

**Final considerations**

This broad data analysis of the questionnaire directed to teachers, also jury members of the interviews to M23, revealed that those teachers are mainly men, middle-aged and in also in the middle of their professional career, although in the first professional categories. A quarter of them integrate these juries for 4 years, that is, since the process began, which reveals that they should be aware of the growing presence of NTAS at the UA and also of their characteristics, even though it is not totally highlighted by their answers to the questionnaire.

Concerning the interview itself, the great majority of teachers prepares themselves to the interview as expected: in fact, almost the totality of the teachers knows the CV, and MLs.

Almost all teachers are familiar with the presence of NTAS in the classes. They are considered important, not only in NTAS’ perspective due to the personal and professional benefits they might have, but also in an institutional perspective. However, as we could observe, teachers are not so sensible and prepared to talk about the consequences this fact has on their pedagogical competences, their role, experience and reflective practice as teachers, namely on training needs, and on the teaching and learning process as a whole.

Regarding teachers’ expectations when dealing with this public, we may find different perspectives, which reveal the attention they paid to the interviews. One focuses on the consequences the presence of these students have on the teaching and learning process, because NTAS are more mature, adult and realistic than regular students, being a positive influence and giving an example of perseverance and involvement. Another is related to the personal and professional consequences and benefits that NTAS may acquire, because they attend the UA, and also related to institutional consequences, since these NTAS are a way of enriching academic culture.

They are alert and conscious of the reality of the NTAS difficulties, as they detect the same already known from the NTAS characterization. Also, teachers refer some gaps in basic concepts and knowledge and some difficulties in reacquiring an efficient study rhythm and habits. We cannot forget that NTAS have been apart from formal academic system for quite a while.

When asking teachers about their competences, among others the interpersonal and communication skills are the most highlighted, mainly due to the specificity of NTAS characteristics, even though these teachers do not clearly explain them.

Regarding the competences teachers needed, the majority does not answer or considers that they do not need to actualize different types of skills. Nevertheless, we observe that teachers’ continuous training is seen as important and essential to reinforce and develop some academic competences regarding the curriculum, teaching and learning methods and overall process.

Finally, about strategies the University may implement regarding this problematic, the majority did not answer. However, those teachers who did emphasized
the need of continuous training actions and more attention from the University regarding logistics and timetable organization.

Moreover, the last two questions may be considered as the most sensible: teachers are not used to be confronted with such questions, mainly because, as we have already pointed out, the reflective practice regarding teaching is not as developed as we could think.

From this analysis we can conclude that there is a long way to go regarding the development and enhancement of the teaching and learning process, specially taking into account students’ differences. Consequently, teachers’ training along with other initiatives in the academia which could influence the academic culture, may be seen as important to highlight several changes needed at the teaching and learning process and experience, both from teachers’ and students’ perspectives. In fact, different kinds of students and the emphasis given to the lifelong learning approach at the Universities emerge as essential discussions that must be developed and promoted, so that considered changes can be visibly put into practice.

References
Assessing prior learning and current competency in educating adult educators: A quality issue for higher education providers in the Australian context.

Introduction

Recognition of prior learning (RPL) and Recognition of current competency (RCC) are established aspects of the adult education and training architecture in Australia. The fundamental rationale for RPL and RCC have been accepted in the adult education canon for many years; ie that the existing skills, knowledge and experience of adult learners should be recognised and acknowledged, and can form the basis on which further learning can be scaffolded and developed.

The Australian context for RPL and RCC is underpinned by various structures, including the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). The three sectors of education incorporated under the AQF include the schools sector, the vocational education and training (VET) sector, and the higher education sector (universities), and pathways between the sectors include recognition and articulation between qualifications from school certificates through to vocational certificates, diplomas, and degrees.

Assessing prior learning is quite straightforward when it can be substantiated by credentials or qualifications which are covered by articulation agreements between institutions and sectors. Assessing ‘uncredentialled’ learning is more complex and requires demonstration and substantiation of skills, knowledge and competencies. It is in this area that issues of quality arise – in terms of who does the assessing, how the learning is assessed and what processes are used to ensure consistency and accountability.

The University of South Australia (UniSA) has been offering professional teaching awards to adult educators for many years, and works closely with the other sectors in understanding the importance of RPL and RCC in the educational landscape. Adult educators however - especially those teaching in the VET sector – also expect their own knowledge and skills to be recognised when enrolling in these awards. UniSA therefore offers significant credit transfer or advanced standing to such students on the basis of vocational experience as well as any existing qualifications.

One such qualification, the Certificate IV in Training and Assessment (TAA), is a foundational vocational credential that specifies the competencies required to deliver training in an industry or subject area, and to conduct competency-based assessment in a range of contexts. While this credential is recognised as credit against a number of courses in the adult education programs at UniSA, many adult educators obtain the TAA Certificate not by undertaking the learning, but by a process of RPL. They can then claim further RPL for the TAA Certificate if they enrol in the UniSA programs.

A problem therefore is that while the credential as a whole is recognised, the way it is achieved varies widely, from undertaking the full 13 week program to gaining it entirely on the basis of prior learning. Furthermore, this prior learning may have been assessed by a colleague in the same institution, raising questions of accountability, pedagogy, methodology and quality assurance. These questions will be explored and discussed in the paper with reference to the literature and using case study examples from the Australian adult education context.
Adult education provision in Australia

Adult education in Australia has been influenced more by the English tradition of Workers Educational Associations and Mechanics Institutes which arose historically out of the efforts of workers to educate themselves either within trades or guilds or for personal development, similar to the idea of *folkbildning* in Sweden, but without the widespread uptake and funding support (Stehlik & Christie, 2007). This type of continuing education is now more often associated with lifestyle-type courses in cooking, crafts, languages and coffee for middle class people with time and money to pay the fees. Adult education associated with social change and / or second chance education is found within two separate but connected sectors – adult community education (ACE) and vocational education and training (VET), and to a lesser extent within the public education system.

ACE is widespread in all states and territories in Australia, but more established and organized in some of the larger states such as Victoria, which has a state Council for Adult Education. There is however a national association (Adult Learning Australia) with branches in each state but a relatively small membership. ACE courses are characterized by being community-based, locally organized, accessible and relevant to the local community. ACE providers compete for a limited pool of public funding and are increasingly being drawn into the provision of vocationally oriented courses as government funding is increasingly tied to skills-based training; as well as becoming involved in collaboration with schools to deliver courses to some secondary students, a cohort that has not traditionally been the age group accessing ACE programs.

The VET sector is a clearly defined education sector in Australia, with a national system of TAFE (Technical and Further Education) Colleges, which are funded and organized at state level. Although TAFE accounts for the majority of VET provision, there are also many other large, small and medium Registered Training Organisations (RTOs) which are private providers of education, also competing for the same funding as TAFE; as well as VET in schools programs where secondary schools offer vocational courses as part of flexible curriculum offerings, sometimes on campus but often subcontracted to a TAFE or an RTO as the actual provider.

Adult re-entry colleges provide second chance school completion for adults and early school leavers, and can either be located within a traditional secondary school or in a stand alone institution. They are generally state funded and offer the state-approved secondary curriculum.

The Workers Educational Association (WEA) as mentioned runs lifestyle type courses on cooking, photography etc, but also some vocational courses such as computing for adults. Continuing Education courses are offered by some universities on a fee paying basis to offset income as well as offer non-formal education to a wider section of society, and again concentrate more on lifestyle and interest-based courses and study tours rather than vocational programs.

Adult literacy programs make up a big part of ACE provision in Australia, and are available in communities and workplaces as well as with public and private training providers (Stehlik & Christie, 2007)

The Australian Qualifications Training Framework (AQTF) is ‘the national set of standards which assures nationally consistent, high-quality training and assessment services for the clients of Australia’s vocational education and training system.’ (AQTF, 2007:1). The AQTF governs the regulation not only of all training providers – whether
public or private – but also of the national vocational curriculum and individual courses which are known as *training packages*. These packages cover a range of vocational skills-based industry areas such as Retail, Tourism and Hospitality, Building and Construction, Automotive, Hair and Beauty etc; but also include courses in Aboriginal Studies, Women’s Studies and Vocational Preparation. The training packages can offer courses at a range of levels on the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF), from Certificate Levels 1, 2, 3 and 4, to Diplomas and Advanced Diplomas. These are known as vocational qualifications, but TAFE and some private RTOs can also be accredited to offer higher education qualifications such as bachelor degrees and some graduate awards, in direct competition with universities.

Delivery of these vocational training packages, accreditation of Registered Training Organisations and Quality Assurance in the VET sector is regulated by a series of Quality Indicators that include: Learner Engagement, Employer Satisfaction and Competency Completion (ACER, 2007). They do not appear to include clear guidelines on the qualification requirements of the educators and trainers delivering these training packages. However, one of the national training packages (TAA04) relates to qualifications in training and assessment - the Certificate IV in Training and Assessment, is a basic vocational credential that specifies the competencies required to deliver training in an industry or subject area, and to conduct competency-based assessment in a range of contexts. It requires the completion of twelve core units and two elective units of competency. The TAA package also includes a qualification at Diploma level, which is inclusive of the Certificate IV but requires completion of a further twelve units of competency – five core and seven electives. (See Appendix 1).

**Adult education qualifications and provision**

The Certificate IV from the TAA04 Training Package is accepted as the minimum level of credential to deliver adult vocational education and training in most Registered Training Organisations. It is also a requirement for those people in workplaces who need to be accredited to assess workplace competency and formal workplace training, including on-the-job training. It is therefore a widely accessed and in-demand qualification, and is offered by a range of providers including TAFE institutes, private RTOs and some universities.

However, there is also a wide range of provision in terms of cost, duration and delivery. For example, the Local Government Training Institute in New South Wales offers the course via a combination of face-to-face delivery and online learning over a period of 13 days, claiming that:

> Unlike some courses on the market that may be of shorter duration, participants will be competent trainers who are able to unpack competency based training packages. That is, turn units of competency into training materials for course delivery (LGTI, 2009: 3).

This provider also makes the rather optimistic claim that:

> this course also caters to those who do not deliver accredited training; on completion of training they should be able to plan, construct and deliver training on almost anything (LGTI, 2009: 3).
The Local Government Training Institute is a not-for-profit organisation owned by twelve regional councils in the Hunter Valley district of New South Wales. It charges AUD$3000 for the full Certificate IV course.

By contrast, TAFE in South Australia (TAFE SA) offers the Certificate IV TAA at a number of its campuses around the state, either full-time, part-time, on campus, externally or online. Completing the qualification at this provider requires a study commitment of six months full-time, or part-time equivalent, at a cost of around AUD$1000, subsidised by the government. However, the same provider also offers the course on a ‘Fee for Service’ basis, in which case it can be done in three months, with twelve days of classes, at a cost of AUD$2265 (TAFE SA, 2009). Therefore, even within the same educational institution, there is no consistency in relation to cost, duration or delivery. This is the nature of training packages – while the units of competency have nominal hours associated with them, completion is achieved by attaining the competency, as assessed by the provider/assessor. This attainment could be achieved by a combination of factors, including recognising prior learning, which is discussed in the following section. However it is also important to note that training packages are not curriculum documents that specify teaching methodologies, they are designed to be unpacked and turned into training materials, so that methods of delivery - and by implication quality of delivery - can also vary immensely.

Pre-requisites for enrolling in the Certificate IV TAA also vary widely and again raise questions of quality assurance and the level at which the course is taught. For example, while TAFE SA require applicants to have completed a vocational qualification at Certificate 3 level, or have graduated from secondary school, the private RTO Inspire Education announces on its website that ‘there are no formal pre-requisites’ other than ‘sound language and literacy skills and basic word processing’ (Inspire Education, 2009: 1). Inspire Education also offers to deliver the course in five days through ‘blended delivery’, or fully online by distance education.

All providers also offer the opportunity for applicants to claim a significant amount of RPL for the Certificate IV – at a cost. TAFE SA for example charges applicants 50% of the course fee per unit to undertake a process of RPL. While the same assessment processes are used to determine prior learning as are used in assessing actual learning, it then becomes a case of the assessment driving the learning, rather than teaching driving the learning – a subtle but important shift in pedagogical thinking.

The Diploma qualification from the TAA04 training package is not so widely accessed as it is not mandatory as the certificate course is for most VET situations, yet its intention is to provide an adult education teaching qualification at a higher standard and level from that which could be obtained in five to twelve days. However, as marketed by some private RTOs, it is also aimed more at those people who are managing training organisations and programs (HBA, 2009). While HBA offers to deliver the Diploma in 350 hours of learning at a cost of AUD$2000, it also suggests that:

*We often find that owners of RTOs that have been audited by their State Training Authority and given a Compliant report are usually able to provide sufficient evidence to be Recognised through all or most of the qualification (HBA, 2009: 1).*

Further up the levels of the Australian Qualifications Framework, some universities offer specific awards aimed at those teaching in adult and vocational education settings.
who are interested in a more in-depth and theoretically grounded approach to educating adults. One such example is the Bachelor of Education (Adult, Vocational and Workplace Learning) offered by the University of South Australia. This flexible degree program is designed to extend and develop the professional competence of people involved in facilitating learning in post-school settings such as community education, human resource development, and private and public training organisations such as TAFE.

The four year program (144 credit units, or 32 courses) can be studied full-time or part-time over a number of years, either as an internal student or entirely by distance education with no residential or attendance requirements. Admission to the program will normally require completion of an approved TAFE / VET award at Certificate IV level in addition to at least two years of experience in adult vocational education and training or equivalent.

A significant feature of the program is the fact that advanced standing for the first two years of the program is available to those who hold the TAA50104 Diploma of Training and Assessment. Credit transfer is also available for the Certificate IV in Training and Assessment, for vocational / trade qualifications and for industry experience. The program was designed specifically to recognise the vocational qualifications and experience of its target market, and is offered as an in-service program; ie it assumes that participants are already working in the field and have access to an adult teaching or workplace training context in which to practice and reflect on their knowledge and skill development.

For many years, the program and its antecedent awards have seen about 50% of the enrolments coming from TAFE SA staff who are required to gain a recognised adult teaching degree in order to progress through a workplace salary and promotion barrier. As the author has been a member of the academic team that manages and teaches in the program, it has been interesting to observe the professional development of some of these adult educators as they struggle to become adult learners and engage with the discourse and concept in education theory and practice. Despite some initial resistance, lack of confidence and even lack of interest, we have seen examples of people who saw themselves mainly as someone who was expert in a trade (e.g. plumbing, electrical, hairdressing etc) who happened to be delivering training in that trade, to someone who grew to see themselves on a developmental pathway as an adult learner able to facilitate learning for others. In this regard, the value of learning and development is priceless, compared to the savings that might be made by claiming prior knowledge and experience through credit transfer.

**Recognising prior learning and credit transfer**

In developing the credit transfer for the Bachelor of Education (Adult, Vocational and Workplace Learning), the University of South Australia (UniSA) policy relates to recognised whole qualifications, such as the Certificate and Diploma from the TAA04 training package. Therefore, applicants only need to show documentary evidence in the form of a certificate or parchment – there is no consideration given as to where or how the credential was gained.

However, anecdotal evidence from academic staff teaching in the bachelor program, reinforced by observations from colleagues in other university adult education programs, has noted that many adult educators with the Certificate IV TAA have gained it largely via a process of RPL, usually on the basis of some years of experience in adult...
education classrooms or training environments (Smith & Keating, 2003). Furthermore, it is apparent that the assessment of RPL has even been undertaken within the applicant’s own institution – often by a colleague from within the same work group or program team. The quality assurance of such practices is questionable, but has also been difficult to determine or measure the extent to which it occurs.

Furthermore, it has been noted that the process of assessing prior learning requires a judgment call on the part of the assessor – what has been described as a ‘tension between compliance and creativity in VET’ (Schofield & McDonald, 2004), particularly in the field of assessment and the sub-set of recognition of prior learning (RPL)’ (Mitchell & Gronold, 2009: 1). The idea of applying creativity to assessment is rather interesting, but also questionable in terms of quality assurance, and it has been suggested that it also requires time, a commodity that is increasingly lacking in the modern workplace with its demands on achieving immediate outcomes:

*The exercise of professional judgement requires deep reflection by the VET practitioner, yet these practitioners like many other professionals are increasingly busy, time-poor and find it hard to allocate time for reflection* (Mitchell & Gronold, 2009:3).

Credit transfer into a university award also implies that there is some reciprocation, ie that if the learning outcomes are achieved in the university courses, then equivalence for the vocational qualification could be claimed. For the University of South Australia, this process has proved to be far more difficult than negotiating articulation into its programs from the VET sector. This is partly because, as can be seen from the preceding, there are many different providers offering VET qualifications. Given its long and established connections with TAFE SA, the university has negotiated for reciprocal articulation from its Bachelor of Education (Adult, Vocational and Workplace Learning) into the Certificate IV and Diploma TAA as it is offered by that institution.

Even that has not been simple, with TAFE SA recognising credit against most of the units of competency, but still requiring university graduates to complete one or two units at TAFE, almost as way of demonstrating some control over the curriculum. In addition, TAFE SA charges a fee for the RPL process. By contrast, the university does not – a significant cost saving for higher education students in Australia, where university education is not free, but charged at the rate currently of around AUD$500 per course, and another reason to make credit transfer an attractive proposition.

Furthermore, TAFE SA is just one of hundreds of Registered Training Organisations in Australia. While the university would recognise VET qualifications from any of these providers if they are accredited under the National Training Framework, it would have to negotiate individually with each provider for reciprocal agreements – a curiously one-sided arrangement. It is actually surprising that private RTOs have not approached the university to negotiate articulation into their training packages offerings, as it could be quote lucrative – they could charge any fee they liked to award a Certificate IV or Diploma to university graduates on the basis of RPL, without having to invest in any teaching. It is hoped, however, that even in these commercially market-driven times, RPL is still largely offered for educational rather than economic purposes.

The aim of Bachelor of Education (Adult, Vocational and Workplace Learning) program at the University of South Australia is to develop critically reflective practitioners who, as adult educators come to recognise that the ‘guide on the side’ is increasingly a
more relevant role than the traditional ‘sage on the stage’. While the foundation courses that are credited against the TAA04 training package are concerned with adult learning methodology, assessment of learning, program development and adult education theory, all participants must take the core course *Critically Reflective Practice in Adult, Vocational and Workplace Learning*. This course cannot be claimed as credit, as it is premised on practitioners undertaking a practice-based critique of their own teaching philosophy, style and stance, in order to identify their strengths, weaknesses, development needs and learning strategies. Since the bachelor award provides graduates with a university level professional adult teaching qualification, courses like this provide some quality control and benchmarking of adult teaching standards, and signals that we want our adult educators to be more than just ‘competent’.

**Conclusion**

This paper has discussed RPL, assessment and the implications of taking a competency-based approach to vocational education that focuses on achievement of outcomes rather than the process of learning. The consequences for further and higher education lie in the cumulative effect of continual RPL based on an assumption of experience rather than the experience of formal learning. While it is acknowledged in adult education practice and pedagogy that adults bring significant life experience and prior learning to formal educational programs, which can be recognised and used as the basis for scaffolding further learning, it is also apparent that a purely functional and administrative approach to this process can trade off experience for expediency.

In the Australian further and higher education context, these issues will be foregrounded even more given some of the policy developments and predictions for the immediate future. For example the recent *Review of Australian Higher Education* (2008) compared Australia with other OECD countries and found that we are lagging behind in public funding of higher education and in achieving a comparable level of tertiary qualifications across all sectors of the population. Among a number of wide-reaching structural reforms, a main recommendation was that:

*The Australian Government will progressively extend the tertiary entitlement to the vocational education and training (VET) sector commencing with higher level VET qualifications (Bradley, 2008: 4)*

This will have significant implications for making the articulation between VET and higher education qualifications even more seamless, and will also have interesting consequences down the line for adult educators currently working in either universities or VET institutions under completely different awards, conditions, qualification requirements and career paths.

The Australian Government’s response to the review, *Transforming Australia’s Higher Education System*, handed down as part of the national budget in May 2009, includes the establishment of a new national body for regulation and quality assurance in higher education – the *Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency* (TEQSA). While this agency will be tasked with monitoring improvements in the quality of university teaching and learning, it appears that it will be expanded to ‘cover the entire tertiary sector by 2013’, (DEEW, 2009: 1). It will be interesting to see how quality assurance processes across the entire sector will tackle the issues of recognising prior learning, credit transfer, articulation and accountability as currently discussed in this paper.
References
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Smith, Erica and Keating, Jack, 2003, From training reform to training packages, Tuggerah, N.S.W.: Social Science Press

Appendix
The Certificate IV Training and Assessment requires completion of 14 units, comprising 12 core units and 2 elective units:
TAAENV401B - Work effectively in vocational education and training
TAAENV402B - Foster and promote an inclusive learning culture
TAAENV403B - Ensure a healthy and safe learning environment
TAADES401B - Use training packages to meet client needs
TAADES402B - Design and develop learning programs
TAADEL401B - Plan and organise group-based delivery
TAADEL402B - Facilitate group based learning
TAADEL403C - Provide training through instruction and demonstration of work skills
TAADEL404B - Facilitate work based learning
TAADEL405B - Facilitate Individual learning
TAAASS401C - Plan and organise assessment
TAAASS402C - Assess competence
TAAASS403B - Develop assessment tools
TAAASS404A - Participate in assessment validation
The Diploma of Training and Assessment requires completion of 12 units, comprising 5 core units and 7 elective units:

**Core units:**
- TAAENV501B - Manage and enhance professional practice
- TAADES501B - Design and develop learning strategies
- TAADEL503B - Provide advanced facilitation to support learning
- TAAASS501B - Lead and coordinate assessment systems and services
- TAACMQ503B - Lead and conduct training and/or assessment evaluations

**Sample elective units:**
- TAADEL502B - Design and develop learning resources
- TAADEL505B - Research and develop competency standards
- TAADEL502B - Facilitate action learning
- TAADEL504B - Lead and coordinate training services
- TAADEL501B - Undertake organisational training needs analysis
- TAACMQ501B - Develop training and/or assessment organisational policies and procedures
- TAACMQ504B - Determine and manage the scope of training and/or assessment services
PART 9 | Initial and continuing training of teachers and teacher trainers: From initial preparation to in-service training

1

Academics and teachers –and their professional institutions– as collaborative partners in continuous teacher education.

Introduction

In this paper, the idea of quality associated with adult education is examined in the context of teacher education. We begin by discussing the role of teacher education in an era of change, a time when multiple voices gather to claim the centrality of teachers in an effort to respond to the pressing demands and challenges of the present day life. In this reflection, the notion of quality emerges in an intimate relation with the ultimate purpose of fostering teacher development – the improvement of students’ learning in a post-modern, globalised society.

Our focus falls on continuous teacher education. It is our contention that if this teacher development tool is to be regarded as a powerful contribution for effective improvement of student’s learning, and thus, for sustainable change, it should be grounded on principles that acknowledge teachers as intellectuals, capable of and committed to taking charge of their own development. Furthermore, we believe such development is richer and stronger when empirical research is incorporated as a learning strategy leading to knowledge construction and innovation in professional practice. In this context, we sustain that collaboration between teachers and experienced researchers (academics) holds promising opportunities for professional growth.

Considering that the professional institutions of teachers and academics play a vital part in this collaborative dynamics of research towards development, we analyse, for the purpose of this paper, the perceptions of the institutional leaders and members implicated in a project recently developed within our conceptual framework, in Aveiro, Portugal64. It is our aim to understand the extent to which the project was institutionally valued, and thus to suggest lines of reflection leading to the clarification of the role of institutions in initiatives of academics and teachers involved in collaborative continuous teacher education processes.

Research, collaboration and institutional commitment in in-service teacher education

The phenomenon of globalisation, though present throughout the history of mankind since the earliest expansion attempts, has recently evolved in a direction that

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64 This project was developed within the scope of the PhD work of the first author, under scientific supervision of the second, and supported by Foundation for Science and Technology (ref. SFRH/BD/38370/2007).
determined the emergence of new challenges and the need for human societies to find ways to respond to those challenges (Little & Green, 2009). The dramatic scientific and technological advances during the second half of the 20th century, mainly in the western world, have accelerated the process of change in such a way that change itself has become the distinguishing element of life in all of its domains. In post-modern times, the world is perceived as dynamic, unstable and involved in permanent transformation, and knowledge is no longer accepted as a definite conquest, but as a provisional construction that is bound to be renewed in every stage of evolution: “Change is not an outcome in the post-modern world: it is a condition” (Goodson, 2003: 66).

In order to cope with this new perception of the rules of existence, human societies and individuals have understood the need to develop competencies to deal with change, and this has moved the focus of attentions towards Education. In the new world order, school education is steered by the principle that an individual will only be able to deal with change if he can learn from change. Thus, the central task of Education and of teachers is to promote the learner’s life-long competencies (Coppieters, 2005), and a quality educational system will be measured by its success in achieving this goal. But schools and teachers are object of hopes and distrust. On the one hand, educational systems are regarded as natural and crucial devices to support new learning, and therefore indispensable if present day demands are to be met (Hargreaves, 2004). But, on the other hand, numerous voices rise to acknowledge these systems’ past and present failure in equipping the young generations with basic knowledge and teachers are singled out as main agents of that frustration (Charlot, 2006).

Indisputably, teachers have an important role to play in the general effort to meet the challenges of our time. To fulfil their part assisting the development of autonomous individuals, ‘knowledge workers’ (Collinson et al, 2009: 6) capable of generating knowledge to support decisions, actions and life projects, teachers need to stand out as citizens of the new world, independent intellectuals, authors themselves of the knowledge in which their professional action is grounded. As such, the relevance and the prestige of their social task should no longer be an issue, and the idea according to which teachers’ foremost job is to apply and convey theory has to be abandoned. Teachers are not technicians, reproducing and applying knowledge created by others, scientists in a higher position on the pyramid of intellectual reputation. They have, thus, to see themselves and to be seen by others as men and women of culture and knowledge, capable of reading the world in its complexity and of conducting an informed intervention upon it.

Because the post-modern teacher is aware that knowledge is under constant reconstruction and that it is contextual and situated (Morin, 1999), self-commitment to professional development becomes an intrinsic dimension of the profession, understood as a life-long process that prepares for change and integrates change as a natural and perpetual movement. Understood as continuous and constant through life (Day, 1999), teachers’ professional development is acknowledged to occur in every situation that contributes to professional learning and growth. It is therefore a part of life itself integrating a very clear informal dimension. However, it is also deliberately planned and thus comprehends a formal, institutional dimension that, consistently with its continuous character, is projected in three sequential periods: initial education, induction, in-service education (Buchberger et al, 2000). Teacher education, or training, is then a tool for
professional development, and likewise a process of self-improvement, of autonomous growth.

In this text, our attention falls on in-service teacher education and training (INSET), understanding it as formal and institutional programmes conducted after initial education aiming at teachers' professional and personal growth (Estrela & Estrela, 2006). It is our firm belief that it represents a powerful support for teachers’ preparation to deal with the unpredictability of a profession oriented towards human development, with the instability of knowledge and, in general, with a world marked by change. Furthermore, we argue that INSET is a clear opportunity for teachers to develop specific competencies as educational researchers, assuming that these are crucial for teachers’ emancipation and for the strengthening of their professional prestige.

In this paper, we refer to research as an activity based on reflection and leading to reflection, and that integrates deep and solid theoretical backgrounds, methodological designs recognised by the scientific community, and dissemination actions that make processes and outcomes visible (Alarcão & Canha, 2008). In short, research in this sense is distinguished by the acknowledgement of its empirical value and the credibility that comes with it, which grants the outcomes generated by such activity the status of referential knowledge.

In our understanding, this is a vital activity for teachers, which therefore should be encouraged, nurtured and rewarded. It is important to notice that there are signs that reflexivity is scarce among Portuguese teachers (Sanches & Jacinto, 2004), a natural effect of the paradigm of teacher as practitioner (ie, technician) still dominant in our country, and that this difficulty will certainly interfere with the teacher’s capacity to help students develop their competencies as autonomous knowledge workers.

As far as empirical research conducted by teachers is concerned, the situation has been similar, though perhaps more documented and more debated, both in Portugal and in other countries (Canha, 2003). Teachers have in fact been distant from empirical research for too long, whereas academics have traditionally been responsible for the production of scientific educational knowledge. The explanations for this include, among others: i) alleged distinctions between the nature of scientific research, basically a cognitive and theoretical activity, and the nature of the teaching profession, which is practice-oriented; ii) the perception of two different professional communities, involved in different activities; iii) scarce effects of the research activity in terms of teachers’ careers promotion, as opposed to the incentives offered to academics; iv) the weight of teachers’ professional demands that limit their capacity to conduct research on a systematic basis and thus to become members of the scientific community.

These obstacles are, we believe, true and deserve close attention. However, we defend there are stronger reasons to trust the possibility of a more substantial contribution from teachers to scientific educational knowledge. As Alarcão has been emphasizing since the 90s (1994; 1999), teachers move professionally in a disciplinary field, Didactics, that exists and evolves through close relations between teaching and research65. In other words, the object of research is teaching, and teaching is stronger

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65 Originally, the author defined 3 dimensions in Didactics: research (scientific activity), professional (teaching practice), curricular (Didactics as a curricular area in teacher education) (1994). Recently, this understanding has been redefined as follows: research (scientific activity); formative (including the education of students at schools, future teachers and teachers); policy (referring to implications of didactic knowledge on policy determinations in the area) (Alarcão et al, 2006; Alarcão & Canha, 2008).
when it is research-based. This naturally means that the actors in Didactics have to work closely and that the separation between areas of expertise fades. In short, research needs teachers and academics and both need research to develop as intellectuals and autonomous professionals. In spite of the difficulties and the professional demands, a growing number of teachers have started to get involved in educational research, mainly within the scope of post-graduation courses (Canha, 2001; RAG, 2001), a few of them taking advantage, in Portugal, of the possibility of benefiting from a status that allows them to use up to 3 years entirely devoted to this type of training. On the one hand, it shows that difficulties, though serious, may be overcome, and on the other, these conditions offered only to a very limited number of teachers may reveal that the administration is recognising the need to foster scientific activity among these educational professionals. Besides these particular circumstances, other examples are showing that a scientific community including teachers and academics is possible, that they have found common ground in research and that, based on that conviction, have got involved in common research projects (cf. Badley, 2003).

In this context, collaborative research (Tripp, 1989) seems to be the one that best serves the interests of teachers and academics. We regard it as an activity conducted by a diverse team that shares the entire responsibility for their work together and, thus, an even commitment to an agenda that includes common concerns and research topics and that anticipates gains for all involved.

From our perspective, INSET offers great potential as an environment for teachers’ research to flourish in collaboration with academics. First of all, as previously acknowledged, academics hold vast experience in scientific research, an area with which most teachers are still less familiar. On the other hand, academics are interested in conducting their research in close articulation with the field and its agents. Thus, INSET may compensate a vast number of teachers for a missed opportunity to develop research competencies during initial education. Moreover, considering that INSET in Portugal is included in teachers’ duties and a pre-requisite for career promotion, it minimizes the weight that research might represent in the teacher’s professional agenda. Finally, and very importantly, there seems to be consensus regarding the positive role of collaborative research in teachers’ professional development, which makes it a key component in INSET programmes (Collinson et al, 2009).

![Collaborative research in INSET: involved parties](image)
In this reflection, we began by describing a world involved in a permanent process of change and the challenges that come with it. We've identified the role of teachers in the education of citizens equipped to deal with such challenges and defended that collaborative research conducted by teachers and academics within INSET programmes present optimistic possibilities in terms of our capacity to respond to our time’s demands. However, change is not an isolated endeavour. It is an integrated process and a collective enterprise that require the involvement of all sectors of society (Mason, 2009). Likewise, the transformation of Education and its agents towards innovation claims broad commitment not from individuals in research teams alone, but from the professional institutions in which these carry out their mission as educators, from the education systems that conform their activity, from the local communities with and for which they work, and from the general society that advances with its own capacity to generate new knowledge and, with it, new and more satisfying ways of living with change (cf. Figure 1).

From now on, we will focus our attention on the role of the professional institutions of academics and teachers implicated in collaborative research in INSET. Our perspective draws from the assumption that these initiatives have little chance of survival if they're not institutionally supported - normal professional duties and routines will stand as priorities and projects eventually started will perish under the erosion caused by discontinuity of activities and by the lack of institutional recognition. An opposite and more desirable scenery reveals institutions that see themselves as learning organisations, reflective schools (Alarcão, 2003) that understand that their own development depends on the development of those that constitute them. Bearing this principle in mind, these institutions play an active and interested part in the process (participating in the definition of goals, facilitating the necessary conditions for the work to be done, monitoring the trajectory and discussing results.

A case of collaborative research in INSET – the project ICA/DL (Portugal)

Methodology: context, aims and procedures

The case on which this study is based was set in Portugal and was grounded on a theoretical reflection that, as argued in 2, underlined a firm confidence on the power of collaborative research as a development strategy for those involved, namely teachers and academics, and a strong conviction of the relevance of including their professional institutions as partners.

Following the basic idea of designing and developing a collaborative INSET programme centred on research in Language Didactics, a team was formed by 4 teachers of the Dr. João Carlos Celestino Gomes Secondary School – Ilhavo, and 4 academics from the Didactics and Educational Technology Department of the University of Aveiro. A Collaboration Protocol formally involved 3 institutions: the secondary school, the university department and the organisation responsible for the co-ordination of INSET in that region (Teacher Education Centre for Schools in Ilhavo). The research team designated their enterprise Project ICA/DL, the initials standing for the Portuguese equivalent for Research, Collaboration and Action in Language Didactics.

The negotiation process that led to the definition of the collaboration terms involved all parties concerned, in a sequence of meetings that occurred between October and December 2003. Initially, meetings were held on an institutional level, involving top leaders and other management bodies specially dedicated to scientific and/or pedagogical matters. Only later did negotiation occur on a more personal level, in view of
the identification of a research team. With this procedure, it was our intention to create conditions for a genuine institutional commitment to emerge and to guarantee indispensable operational requisites such as common working periods, access to materials, equipment and facilities. The text of the Protocol, which resulted from the contributions of all parties, clearly sets obligations and expected benefits that emphasise the relevance for professional and institutional development of INSET centred on collaborative research.

In this paper, it is our aim to reveal how the initiative in focus was institutionally valued. For that purpose, we’ve analysed data collected from two types of enquiry: i) interviews, with the three institutional leaders; ii) one questionnaire, applied to the members of other institutional scientific/pedagogical bodies. In view of the set goal, we’ve tried to clarify perceptions regarding the following:

- Success of established goals;
- Effects on development (of academics, teachers, students at school and institutions);
- Future developments (viability/feasibility and personal motivation to get involved).

These aspects, turned into categories, guided the content analysis presented in the next section.

**The project value perceived by the institutional partners**

Very explicitly, the three institutional leaders are aware of the assumed institutional commitment. Over 2 years after the beginning of the project and its formal fixation in a protocol, they are able to recall the essence of the goals that set it in motion. Two notions are patent in their words regarding the project orientation: the constitution of a collaborative partnership that involved teacher education, research and language education at schools as central conceptual components; these components were simultaneously target areas to be improved.

The extent to which the established goals were successfully achieved is, however, not as easily identified. The university leader (UL) declares not possessing data or instruments to collect them, and similarly the TEC leader (TECL) is unable of providing an evaluation, though it has been made in a report written by the TEC consultant. The school leader (SL) bases his testimony on his personal perceptions: he considers there was success as far as the improvement of those directly involved in the project is concerned, namely teachers and their students, but less positive results in terms of school ‘contamination’, i.e. wider repercussions on the community.

Likewise, statements regarding the effects of the project on the development of those involved are based on personal perceptions rather than on accurate information specifically gathered with that purpose.; expressions like ‘I imagine’, ‘I believe’, ‘I have no data but I’m confident that’ are abundantly used. The UL believes the project may have stimulated proximity with the subject of collaborative partnerships between schools and universities as a strategy to improve research/teaching relations (an aspect considered highly innovative). He adds one factual reference - the project was included in the department’s portal as a university/school partnership and that is relevant as far as the public image of the department is concerned. Restating his incapacity to provide feasible information (‘all I hear are echoes’), the SL refers to positive effects on those directly involved, and less so on the school as a whole. He also trusts positive outcomes were
more noticeable at university, where team work is a tradition and communication is easier, and admits not having a perception regarding repercussions on the TEC. The TECL defends effects of a particular INSET programme are difficult to measure as the institution report is based on a ‘global analysis’. But there were benefits in terms of the quality of the institution activity plan – the project met goals set by the institution concerning teacher centred INSET programmes. He also presumes there were obvious gains for the teachers involved, but has no idea regarding effects on students’ development - ‘I do not deal with students and have no instruments to collect data regarding them’. In fact, this was the only reference to students’ achievements, among the three interviewees.

The three leaders reveal high levels of confidence when it comes to consider the continuation of the work initiated within this partnership and are institutionally interested in supporting such developments. The UL anticipates scenarios where the partners analyse results of this experience and project the future, involving the same actors or others, emphasising the importance of keeping the inter institutional strategy already initiated alive. The SL states there are on-going strategies of including at school the principles that sustained the project – spaces and time are being arranged to favour group and collaborative work. As his counterpart at university, the SL believes the experience should not be wasted, and that it is a privileged opportunity for school improvement – ‘which school has the opportunity of getting involved in this type of work? This is something unique. It is a luxury, and as such should be dealt with consideration’. On the same optimistic tone, the TECL declares his full support to future initiatives that bring educational research and teacher education together – ‘it is the obligation of teacher education centres to promote INSET programmes grounded on research (...) to be involved in a collaboration project with researchers is of extreme importance’.

The institutional leaders understand and value the principles that sustain the project, and unequivocally support further developments beyond it. This, we believe, is evidence that they perceive the relevance of dynamics of this nature for institutional growth, conforming an attitude that encourages learning organisations. They allowed the initiative to take place and to grow, and signed a protocol assuming their responsibility in creating the necessary conditions for the project to be launched. However, they kept their distance from the process, results and benefits are virtually unknown to them and there are no signs of attempts to stimulate wider involvement from the communities. Perhaps this will help explain the following results obtained in this study. It was our intention to understand how the project was institutionally felt on a larger scale, i.e. by a larger number of people that are in charge of the management in each organisation. The data (or the scarce volume of these) are enlightening.

The percentage of returned questionnaires is high and can therefore be considered representative: school – 24 (out of 36) = 66.6%; university – 37 (out of 75) = 49.3%; TEC – 6 (out of 6) = 100%. The totals of returned questionnaires are the universe of reference in the following analysis.

The first striking observation is that although the enquired subjects were members of the management bodies that approved and validated the original project, a substantive part of them declare not having had knowledge of the project at any time – TEC = 33.3%; school = 58.3%; university = 54%. The defined limits for this text do not comply with a complex attempt of explaining these results, but we mark them as indicative of a feeble commitment of these institutional managers to the project.
Table 1 shows the numbers and corresponding percentages of responses obtained regarding each of the considered categories. Once again, the data are expressive, and reveal that the respondents know very little or have very little to say about the project. Still, there are interesting indications emerging from the scarce data, which should be taken into consideration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Success of Goals</th>
<th>Effects on Development</th>
<th>Future developments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>1/4.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>4/10.8%</td>
<td>1/2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education Centre</td>
<td>1/16.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probably because the project co-coordinator was a university member or/and due to a particular institutional culture, a higher number of people at university seem to have thoughts about the project. Their references to goals mostly point to a perception of success in establishing closer inter institutional and interpersonal bonds, but also include alert signs - difficulties regarding teachers’ involvement in research and obstacles in communication between teachers and academics. Except one singular statement from a school member, university respondents are the only ones that identify effects on development. Among these, effects on academics are privileged and include a clearer understanding of theory concerning collaboration between research and teaching practice, and a stronger conviction regarding the interventional nature of educational research. At an institutional level, 3 statements indentify the project as pioneer, indicating that there was direct influence on the emergence of others with similar concerns and that the experience resulted on a firmer notion that teachers should be researchers. One respondent suggests the involved teachers created reflection routines and developed an attitude of openness towards ‘mixed research communities’.

Like the top leaders, these institutional managers reveal signs of optimism about the viability of future developments originating from this experience, and state their willingness to get involved. Although the need to conduct a serious evaluation of results is mentioned by elements in the three institutions, suggestions of further initiatives are formulated, involving the same partners and/or extended to new ones and focussing on diverse disciplinary fields.

Globally, in spite of signs of adherence to the conceptual foundations of the project, results concerning these institutional managers indicate that the initiative was not institutionally appropriated, but rather accepted as a team’s own responsibility. Some respondents’ attempts to explain the incapacity of providing answers regarding the level of success of established goals, for example, are clear in this respect – ‘I have not followed the project, I’m not a school, member’ (TEC respondent); ‘I did not participate in the

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66 Abbreviations: Tchs. = teachers; Acds. = academics; Sts. = students; Insts. = institutions; Viable = viability; Motiv. = motivation.
project’ (TEC respondent); ‘I do not know (the results), they were not communicated to me’ (school respondent). This manifest detachment suggests that, if institutional involvement is to be achieved, it should be strategically planned.

Closing considerations – perspectives on the institutional role

In this brief analysis, we have tried to reach a clearer comprehension of the role of institutions involved in partnerships aiming at the development of collaborative research within INSET programmes that prepare teachers to act in the demanding settings of post-modernity. To do so, we have centred our attention on a particular project set in Portugal and guided our analysis towards understanding the extent to which it was institutionally valued. We’ve described the initial process of negotiation and production of a collaboration protocol and analysed the perceptions of institutional managers at the end of the experience, regarding outcomes, benefits and perspectives of further developments. Limits naturally imposed to this text did not allow room for a more complete study including the project development, which would certainly shed a clearer light on the raised issues. Broader analyses are currently being produced and will be made public in the near future. For the time being, the present study has sustenance to support considerations that may guide future reflection and action.

It seems clear that, in the case we have considered, institutions were not pro-actively involved in the development of the collaborative project they had, as partners, formally approved. Thorough knowledge on accomplishment levels and outcomes is inexistent, and apparently there were no institutional initiatives to request it or to generate it. However, there are indications - tough very much based on personal perceptions – that there were actual benefits from the experience, and that collaborative research involving teachers and academics in INSET programmes does promote development of all parties, including the institutions. Furthermore, there is a genuine conceptual adherence to the theoretical foundations of the project and a firm disposition to extend it to new and broader experiences.

Yet, this consciousness and this attitude are clear in the top leaders’ statements, but less so among other institutional managers. This suggests that a leader’s own vision, though crucial, is not in itself enough to guarantee institutional involvement on a larger scale. It is therefore insufficient to generate the dynamics that characterise a learning organisation. In this sense, the leader’s vision and attitude need to be supported by a more visible action that stirs debate, joint decision-making and shared monitoring of the development process. In short, we believe that INSET based on collaborative research between teachers and academics calls for democratic supervision (Smyth, 1991) that encourages each particular project and that leads the institution as a whole to build a vision and a path towards development.

References


Future Teachers’ Mentoring – an Action-Research.

Introduction
The paper presents the results of an action-research performed in the 2007-2009 period at the level of the Department for Teachers’ Training of the Pitești University (DT’T), named Quality in educational mentoring [QualEM], being accredited and financially supported by the National Center of Scientific Research in the Romanian Higher Education.

The fundamental purpose of the research was the drafting of an institutional development program focused on the improvement of educational mentoring activities in the initial teachers’ professional training process.

Target groups: mentor teachers (performing their activity in education units where students perform pedagogical practice activities); students (having direct professional relationships with mentor teachers).

Used Methodologies: The starting point was the premise that the action-research is operational, in this case, due to the equal accent placed on the analysis (investigation and reflection) and on action (rigorous planning, well-defined instruments, the learning of new behaviors).

Applied research methods: a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods), e.g. focus group, the questionnaire applied in a crossed manner on the two target groups (mentor teachers and students), grids noticing behaviors, statistic methods.

Targeted products: strategic products (a coherent managerial conception on the performance of practical activities within the program for teachers’ initial training; the preparation of a program and of a calendar for performing the pedagogical practice activities agreed by the main actors involved in future teachers’ professional training), necessary instruments in the process related to the performance of pedagogical practice activities (Pedagogical Practice Notebook for students, the Mentor’s Guide), a competence profile of the mentor teacher corresponding to the real and immediate needs of the students training to become teachers in the DT’T of the Pitești University, a curriculum for mentor teachers’ training.

Research stages: Stage I (Time I) had an informative nature and represented the analytical phase, related to the knowledge of the newest acquisitions made in the mentoring activities field at a national and international level.

Stage II (Time II) - the proper action-research, focused on specific objectives: the particular aspects of didactic mentoring at the level of the Pitești University were highlighted; the analysis criteria and the quality standards relevant for the mentoring activity were prepared; the categories of competences characteristic for the mentor teacher’s professional profile were identified, and behavioral descriptors related to such competence categories were prepared; a competence profile of the mentor-teacher – desirable for the students preparing to become teachers within the DTT of the Pitești University was identified.

The IIIrd stage (Time III) - focused on the achievement of educational products with a logistic nature: a curriculum for the training of future mentors was prepared, course
materials were drafted for the mentors’ training program, the instruments necessary to the development of pedagogical practice activities were prepared (“The Mentor’s Guide”, “The Pedagogical Practice Notebook”); training programs for mentor teachers were made based on the training curriculum drafted within the project; a Resource Center for students and mentor teachers was established.

The professionalization issue for the didactic career has a major interest in the actual context of European policies, of national policies, and within institutional development strategies.

Starting from these coordinates, a group of teaching staff within DT’T of the Pitești University of Romania proposed to perform an institutional development program having as its object the improvement of pedagogical practice activities within the process related to future teachers’ initial training. In this regard, the starting point was the premise that, within this process, a very important role was the role of the mentor teachers to whom, since they work in school educational units at a pre-university level, students are entrusted to be initiated in the school education field as well as in actual teaching-learning-evaluation practices.

Below is the brief presentation of the design of the research made in the 2007-2009 period.

**Design of the Action-Research on “Quality in Educational Mentoring” (QUALEM)**

The general purpose of the research was the optimization of the educational mentoring activities made at the level of the Department for Teachers” Training (DT’T) within the Pitești University in the context of performing the future teachers’ professional training process.

In formulating the general purpose of the research, the starting point was the idea that mentor teachers bring an important contribution to the professional training of school educators. This point of view is shared by many authors, among which Booth T. and Ainscow, M. (1998) who urge on reflection on the gap that would be created by the absence of the mentoring activity in the future teachers’ training: *simply placing trainees in schools without qualified mentors and adequate mentoring support gives trainees little chance to develop their teaching skills and competencies, especially when they are looking for support in the early stages of their work in schools* – as per the quoted authors.

**Specific Objectives**

SO 1. knowledge of the theoretical context of the action-research performance and designing of its procedural itinerary
SO 2. knowledge of practicing students’ and mentor teachers’ perceptions on the mentor’s competences
SO 3. performance of a study on the training needs of the mentor teachers with whom the DPPD of the Pitesti University collaborates
SO. 4 preparation of a mentors’ training program according to the identified training needs and to the designed competence profile
SO. 5. implementation of the mentors’ training program and the organization of follow-up activities in school education units for identifying the behavioral changes produced as a result of attending the program
Target groups
a. target group 1: mentor teachers (performing their activity in school education units where students perform practical pedagogical activities);
b. target group 2: students (having direct professional relationships with the mentor teachers in the 1st target group).

Performance of the Action-Research
Stage I (Time I). Knowledge of the theoretical context of the action-research performance [OS 1].

The research made at DT”T level of the Pitești University under the title of QualEM began with the investigation of the newest theoretical and practical gains in the educational mentoring field.

From all the identified methodological orientations, the researchers’ team opted for resorting to the action-research, which decision was justified by the fact that it proposed the occurrence of changes in real life and the search for solutions to improve it. An important referential was the very definition of the action-research (in the most frequently approached version!): “a reflective process of progressive problem solving led by individuals working with others in teams or as part of a community of practice in order to improve the way they address issues and solve problems”.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Action_research].

From an acting point of view, the vision proposed by Kurt Lewin (1946) was adopted. He considered that the action-research supposes “a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action”.

The group of researchers agreed that the action-research represents an interactive inquiry process that balances problem solving actions implemented in a collaborative context with data-driven collaborative analysis or research to understand underlying causes enabling future predictions about personal and organizational change (Reason & Bradbury, 2001). As a consequence, we assumed the major idea to “research ‘with’ rather than ‘on’ people, considering action-research to be a real cooperative inquiry.

In configuring the procedural framework, the point of view formulated by Torbert (2004) was also adopted. He considered that the action-research constitutes “a way of simultaneously conducting action and inquiry as a disciplined leadership practice that increases the wider effectiveness of [mentoring concrete] actions”. As a consequence of the adoption of such an approach, “individuals, teams, organizations [became] more capable of self-transformation and thus more creative, more aware, more just and more sustainable” - as Torbert had anticipated.

The option for the methodology of the action-research was justified, among others, by the desire of the researchers’ group to use the results of the programmed investigations in view of optimizing the mentoring activities performed at the level of the Pitești University in the future teachers’ training process.

The decision of attracting mentor teachers in the organized focus groups was based on the idea launched by Kurt Lewin: if people are active in decisions affecting them, they are more likely to adopt new ways.

All the highlighted coordinates were subordinated to the optimistic credo formulated by Wendell L French and Cecil Bell (1973) according to which you can obtain “organization improvement through action-research”.

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By valorizing the gains of scientific knowledge in the mentoring activity field, the following procedural itinerary of the initiated action-research was established:

![Diagram of the procedural action-research itinerary]

The two sequences of the diagnosis, i.e.: *The study of mentors’ and students’ perceptions on the mentor’s competences* – and *The Study of the training needs of pedagogical practice mentors* required the organization of the action-research in two hypostases.

**Stage II (Time II) – performance of the action-research**

**Methodology:**

a. Application of the focus-group method for:
   – establishing the criteria related to the analysis of the mentor teacher’s behavior
   – preparing quality standards for the activity performed by the mentor teacher during the performance of the pedagogical probationary stage
   – drafting the Questionnaire for identifying mentor teachers’ perceptions, of the Questionnaire for identifying practicing students’ perceptions and of the Questionnaire for shaping opinions on the desirable competences of the mentor teacher. The items of the first two questionnaires were formulated in terms of value behaviors (expressing the ideal professional behavior of the mentor teacher) and were distributed in four compartmental categories: psychosocial competences, competences related to future teachers’ practical training contextualization, competences related to future teachers’ counseling, competences related to the management of future teachers’ practical training.

b. Application of the three questionnaires. Data processing and interpretation.

A. Performance of the first research hypothesis regarding the knowledge of *practicing students’ and mentor teachers’ perceptions on the mentor’s competences* [SO 2.]

**The general hypothesis** of the first research hypostasis focused on the comparison of students’ and mentors’ perceptions on the mentor teacher’s competence profile
We assume there is a relation between the in situ approach of the problematic related to the learning of professional behaviors targeting the didactic profession and the perceptions of the main actors involved in this process (mentors and practicing students).

**Work hypotheses:**
a. There is a positive significant correlation between students’ perceptions on the importance of psychosocial competences for the professional profile of the mentors and the mentor teachers’ perceptions on the same category of competences.
b. There is a positive significant correlation between students’ perceptions on the importance of competences related to the contextualization, by mentor teachers, of the theoretical training acquired by them at courses and the mentor teachers’ perceptions on the same category of competences.
c. There is a positive significant correlation between students’ perceptions on the importance of mentor teachers’ competences in the field related to the future teachers’ counseling and the mentors’ perceptions on the same category of competences.
d. There is a positive significant correlation between students’ perceptions on the importance of mentors’ competences in the field related to the management of the future teachers’ training process and the mentors’ perceptions on the same category of competences.
e. Students’ perceptions on the mentor’s competence profile (considered through the four categories of competences) are sensibly equal to the mentor teachers’ perceptions on the same profile.

**Performance of the first research hypothesis**

The study of students’ and mentor teachers’ perceptions on the competences of the pedagogical practice mentor was made in the October 2007 – May 2008 period.

**Experimental group:**
- 108 students in the IIIrd year, Bologna series (2007-2008 univ. year), of which 61 girls and 47 boys;
- 92 mentor teachers to be included in a specific training program (of which 56 women: 25 with a labor seniority between 10 and 15 years, 15 with a labor seniority between 15 and 20 years and 16 with a labor seniority of over 20 years and 36 men: 11 with a labor seniority of 10 and 15 years, 8 with labor seniority between 15 and 20 years and 17 with a labor seniority of over 20 years).

**Procedure**

The two questionnaires (Questionnaire for identifying teachers’ perceptions on the mentoring activity and Questionnaire for identifying practicing students’ perceptions on the mentoring activity) were applied in a crossed manner on the two groups of subjects: students and mentor teachers, being focused on the four categories of competences highlighted through the application of the focus group method.

**Research results for the first research hypothesis [SO 2].**

For verifying the hypothesis of this research sequence, the significance of the difference between the means obtained by the mentors and the practicing students (i.e. the subjects which answered the applied questionnaires) was established, by calculating the value of the significance test (t test, Student).

Further to the application of the mentioned questionnaires, a series of data were obtained which were processed through the SPSS program, version 10 for the Windows.
The results obtained by the group subject to investigation are synthesized in the table below:

**Table 1. Students’ and mentor teachers’ perceptions on the pedagogical practice mentor**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competences of the pedagogical practice mentor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychosocial competences</td>
<td>40.29</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>40.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competences related to the management of the future teachers’ training process</td>
<td>40.85</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>40.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competences related to the acquired theoretical training contextualization</td>
<td>31.01</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>30.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competences related to future teachers’ counseling</td>
<td>31.72</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>31.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obtained results highlight the fact that there are no significant differences between the teachers’ and students’ perceptions on the competences of the pedagogical practice mentor. Such results confirm the research hypothesis.

As regards the first four work hypotheses, correlations were calculated between the scores of teachers’ perceptions as regards the competences of the pedagogical practice mentor and the scores of students’ perceptions as regards the competences of the pedagogical practice mentor.

**The statistic interpretation of the research results for the SO 2 sequence.**

The synthesized data are presented in the table below:

**Table 2. Correlations at the level of the four competence categories of the pedagogical practice mentor teacher**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychosocial c. (st)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.787**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>.928</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluating the Adult Educator: Quality Provision and Assessment in Europe
### Table 3. Means and standard deviations for the group formed of students and teachers who answered the applied questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>SAMPLE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PERMENT</td>
<td>student</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>18.55</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. Results of t test for independent samples

**Independent Samples Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERMENT</strong></td>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>3.854</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>3.550</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The fifth hypothesis had a special status: it confirms the truth value of the conclusions formulated at the level of each of the other four hypotheses. Therefore, the confirmation of the four hypotheses confirms the truth value of the fifth hypothesis.

As regards the general value of perceptions on the mentoring activity, the first table (Group Statistics) offers the descriptive statistics of the two groups; thus, the following result: a mean (M) of 18.55 and a standard deviation (SD) of 1.12 for the group of students and a M =18.00 and a SD =1.06 for the teachers. Since the probability related to Levene test is higher than p=0.05, in our case .051, the condition related to the homogeneity of the variation of the two groups’ values is met. The obtained result is t (198 DF)=3.54 at p<0.001, the difference between the means of the two groups being .55.

**Conclusions of the research for the OS 2 sequence.**

The general value of the perceptions of questioned persons on the mentoring activity indicates that the difference between students’ score mean vs. the mentor teachers score mean is negligible, which confirms the agreement of the two target groups on the value competences considered to be relevant for the professional profile of the pedagogical practice mentor.

**B. Performance of the second research hypostasis regarding the performance of a study on the training needs of the future mentors with whom DPPD of the Pitesti University collaborates [SO 3]**

**Experimental group:** 92 pedagogical practice mentor teachers (the same who participated in the first hypostasis of the action-research).

**Study performance period:** II\(^{nd}\) semester of the 2007-2008 university year

**Procedure**
The study of the training needs of the pedagogical practice mentor was made by applying a questionnaire which required respondents having at their disposal an ample package of disciplines possible of being attended, to tick, on a scale from 1 to 3, those which they deem necessary and relevant for the competence profile of the pedagogical practice mentor. The disciplines included in the questionnaire were associated to the four categories of competences identified in the first hypostasis of the performance of the action-research, as per table 5.

Respondents were told to select the preferred disciplines according to the following criteria:
- the training needs personally perceived by the mentors;
- the necessary character of the instruments proposed to be used in performing the pedagogical practice;
- the new character of the content proposed by certain disciplines within the training program.
Table 5. Association of mentor’s competences to the potential disciplines of the training curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence category</th>
<th>Related disciplines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychosocial competences</td>
<td>a. Psychosociopedagogy of communication relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Psychosociology of conflicts settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Psychosociology of the educational group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future teachers’ training management competences</td>
<td>a. Management of the pedagogical practice activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Quality standards in pedagogical practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Management of educational partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competences related to future teachers’ training</td>
<td>a. School evaluation forms and techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contextualization</td>
<td>b. New trends in curricular designing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Differentiated education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competences related to future</td>
<td>a. Psycho-pedagogical counseling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers’ counseling</td>
<td>b. Self-knowledge and personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Methods and techniques for evaluating pupil’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>personality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By processing the answers, the following scores resulted, based on which respondents’ options were identified:

Table 6. Disciplines selected by the respondents to be integrated in a program for pedagogical practice
mentors’ training

![Graph showing disciplines selected by mentors for the continuous training program]

In order to turn to account the obtained data to the maximum, a Grid for noticing mentors’ noticeable behaviors was made. The behavioral descriptors were associated both to the four categories of highlighted competences and to the eight disciplines selected by the questioned mentors to be part of the training program curriculum. Researchers resorted to the initial application of this Grid for noticing noticeable behaviors on a group of 20 mentors before the launching of the training program, (respectively in the 1st semester of the 2008-2009 university year) in order to create a referential for the follow-up evaluation scheduled to be made after the graduation of the training program.
Stage III (Time III).

 Drafting of a mentors’ training program, according to the mentors’ and students’ perceptions and to the identified training needs [S.O. 4]  
 Based on the study of mentors’ perceptions and students’ perceptions on the mentors’ competences and based on the drafted needs study, the curriculum of the training program was drafted, which acquired the following configuration:  
 • Mandatory disciplines:  
   o Psychosociopedagogy of communication relationships  
   o Management of the pedagogical practice activities quality  
   o Psychosociology of the educational group  
   o Pedagogical practice quality standards  
   o New trends in curricular designing  
   o Self-knowledge and personal development  
 • Optional disciplines:  
   o Methods and techniques to evaluate the pupil’s personality  
   o Differentiated education  

 Implementation of the program related to mentors’ training and the organization of follow-up activities in school education units for identifying the behavioral changes produced as a result of attending the program [S.O. 5.]  
 The continuous training program of the 92 mentors in the experimental group was performed in the second semester of the 2008-2009 university year.  
 At the end of the program, the scheduled follow-up evaluation activities were organized, targeting the same 20 mentors subject to observation before the beginning of the training program.  
 In this regard, in order to verify the extent to which the program related to the training of pedagogical practice mentors had a positive effect on the teachers’ professional behaviors, the Wilcoxon test was applied for comparing two pair samples of test – retest type, under samples low volume conditions (N = 20).  
 The obtained results indicate that the intervention of the training sequence had a positive effect on the trainees taking into account the significant differences established between the variables before and after the attended training program.  

 Table 7. Scores of the behaviors related to psychosocial competences evaluated before and after the intervention and Wilcoxon test coefficients  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to psychosocial competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after - behaviors related to psychosocial competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Ranks</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to psychosocial competences</td>
<td>Negative Ranks</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Ranks</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Since $z=-3.939$, $p=0.000$ it results that there are significant differences between the behaviors related to the psychosocial competences evaluated before attending the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors and the behaviors related to the psychosocial competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors.

The inspection of the values belonging to the Sum of Ranks reveals that the highest one is 210.00 and corresponds to positive ranks; therefore, the behaviors related to psychosocial competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors have a higher score than those measured before attending the training program.

The effect size is calculated by applying the following formula: \( r = \frac{\sqrt{z^2/n}}{0.88} \) (\( r>0.7 \)) which evidences a strong effect of the formative intervention.

Table 8 presents the scores of the behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences evaluated before and after the formative intervention, as follows:

---

**Table 8. Scores of the behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences evaluated before and after the intervention and Wilcoxon test coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Ranks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Ranks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Ranks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>210.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

a. after - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences < before - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences

b. after - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences > before - behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences
behaviors training management corresponds significant contextualization follows:

Table 8. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Test Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Type</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Rank Sum</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>210.00</td>
<td>-3.956*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon</td>
<td>after</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspecting table 8 we can notice that z=-3.956, p=0.000; it means that there are significant differences between the behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences evaluated before attending the training program and the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training management competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors.

The highest value belonging to the Sum of Ranks column is 210.00 and corresponds to positive ranks; therefore, the behaviors related to future teachers’ training management competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors have a higher rating than the other ones, measured before the attendance of the training program.

We calculate here the effect size applying the following formula: \( r = \sqrt{Z^2/n} = 0.88 \) (\( r>0.7 \)) which evidences a strong effect of the formative intervention.

Table 9 summarizes the scores of the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences evaluated before and after the formative intervention, as follows:

Table 9. Scores of the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences evaluated before and after the intervention and Wilcoxon test coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Ranks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Negative Ranks</th>
<th>Positive Ranks</th>
<th>Ties</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20*</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0*</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Test Statistics

a. after - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences < before - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences
b. after - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences > before - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences
c. before - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences = after - behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences
Table 9 reveals the following scores: z=-3.953, p=0.000; which means that there are significant differences between the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences before attending the training program and the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors.

210.00 corresponds to positive ranks and is the highest value belonging to the Sum of Ranks column; consequently, the behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors has a higher rating than the others measured before attending the training program.

We calculate the effect size by the following formula: \( r = \sqrt{z^2/n} = 0.88 \) (r>0.7); this value reveals a strong positive effect of the program for the training of the pedagogical practice mentor.

The last table reveals the scores of the behaviors related to counseling competences, obviously, before and after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors.

### Table 10. Scores of the behaviors related to counseling competences evaluated before and after the intervention and the coefficients of the Wilcoxon test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Min.</td>
<td>Max.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to counseling competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after – behaviors related to counseling competences</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test: Ranks</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td>Sum of Ranks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before – behaviors related to counseling competences</td>
<td>Negative Ranks</td>
<td>Positive Ranks</td>
<td>Ties</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after – behaviors related to counseling competences</td>
<td>0a</td>
<td>20b</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>210.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. Based on negative ranks.</th>
<th>before – behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test</td>
<td>after – behaviors related to the future teachers’ training contextualization competences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-3.953 ( a ) ( 0.000 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inaugural Conference Proceedings
In the last table (Table 10) scores $z = -3.946$, $p=0.000$, which results in the establishment of the existence of significant differences between the behaviors related to the counseling competences noticed before attending the training program and the behaviors related to the counseling competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors.

The highest value which belongs to the Sum of Ranks column, 210.00, corresponds to positive ranks. This means that: the behaviors related to the counseling competences evaluated after the attendance of the program for the training of pedagogical practice mentors have a higher rating than those measured before attending the training program.

We calculate the effect size by the following formula: $r = \sqrt{z^2/n} = 0.88$, ($r > 0.7$); this value reveals a strong positive effect of the program related to the training of the pedagogical practice mentor.

The conclusion of the researchers who participated in follow-up activities was that the training program attended by the mentoring teaching staff brought sensible modifications, with a positive effect on their professional and personal relationships with the practicing students.

**Instead of Other Conclusions....**

Taking into account that the general results of the action-research on Quality in Educational Mentoring – [QualEM] really resulted in the optimization of the concrete pedagogical practice activities organized by the DT'T of the Pitești University and the fact that, during its performance, a rich set of instruments was achieved, necessary to mentor teachers and students, researchers ask themselves: How could gained experience also be extrapolated to other adults’ education activities?! From this point of view, researchers consider that:

- this kind of experiences may be useful to all the institutions and organizations concerned with optimizing the professional relationships with their beneficiaries
- the action-research constitutes the most appropriate methodological approach for implementing such changes which an organization wishes to produce.

**References**


**Web reference:**

The professionalism of Greek teachers in compulsory education.

Introduction

In this paper, we present the results of an empirical research which was conducted in Autumn 2007 in cooperation with colleagues and postgraduates students from the universities of Macedonia, Athens, Ioannina and West Macedonia. The research involved a sample of 326 teachers of primary and secondary education from certain regions of Greece. The aim of the research was to illustrate – through a questionnaire - the methods, strategies and means that teachers use to handle deviant behavior and crises in their schools. Moreover, the research traces the needs of teachers for knowledge acquisition and skill development through occupational training and support programs. The results of the research are important as they indicate content areas for teacher training programs.

The Professional Development of Teachers

Sociologists distinguish between profession, occupation and vocation. According to the sociologists, there are some constant criteria, which distinguish a profession from an occupation or a vocation. Furthermore, professionals characterized by:

1. Study and acquisition of theoretical knowledge and practical skills, which can be shared only professionals in a specific field.
2. Complete freedom of professionals to decide what is best for their “clients”.
3. An ethical code, that refers to solidarity among professionals and to a common attitude towards their clients.
4. Possibility to form and control job market to their benefit.
5. Professional pride and prestige, that stems from their offering vital service to society.

It is clear that acquisition of knowledge and development of practice skills are integral parts of professional development. The changing demands in the job market dictate changes in the content and the form of teachers' basic education, related with the educational policy philosophy of each country (Goudiras, Synodi, Angelis, 2002). Practical knowledge acquisition and professional skills development are integral parts of the professional development of teachers. On these grounds, we were interested to explore if Greek teachers find the content of their studies adequate. Moreover how they define their educational and training needs.

In England

In England, for example the systematic studies in the field of specialization, which stands as the base of teachers' work, focus in the preparation of the teachers in order to march out against technocratic revolutions, which pushed forward from the education.

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67 The research team consists of faculty members from many Greek universities, namely: 1. Prof. D.B. Goudiras, University of Macedonia 2. Prof. A. Noulas, University of Macedonia, 3. Prof. S. Polychronopoulou, University of Athens, 4. Ass. Prof. S. Papadopoulou, University of Ioannina, 5. Ass. Prof. K. Papadopoulos, University of Macedonia, 6. Ass. Prof. I. Agaliotis, University of Macedonia, 7. Lect. L. Kartasidou, University of Macedonia, 8. Lect. N. Paleologou, University of West Macedonia, 9. E. Papavasiou, postgraduate student, University of Macedonia, 10. K. Papageorgiou, postgraduate student, University of Macedonia.
The fact that future teachers rather choose to take part in full or part time seminars in fields such as English language, maths, physical sciences, which they tend to teach at school, without a systematically study in the pedagogical science as their basic field of specialization and any extensive reference in pedagogical theories, proves that their professional education is underestimated. Instead, the teachers tend to become just applicers of practical techniques (technicians), (see also Furlong 1992, Gilroy 1991, Jacques 1998, Richards 1998; Teacher training, Web site, retrieved 3/11/2009.).

In the USA

According to the Department of Education of State University of New Jersey, professional development actions must meet the needs of the teacher and serve the goals and objectives of the school. Furthermore, these actions must be learning- and learner-centered, to enable students to develop independent and creative thinking in and out of school. Moreover, professional development must foster an on-going dialogue among teachers, which will promote the exchange of ideas among them. The Department also suggests eight points that should considered in the design of teacher development programs. Conforming to the “No Child Left Behind” Act, that became law of the U.S.A. (2002), this list suggests the enhancement of knowledge, abilities and potentials of teachers and educational authorities so that they become able to support students’ learning and performance. More specifically, it suggests that the professional development of teachers should:
1. improve and increase teachers’ knowledge of the academic subjects the teachers teach, and enable teachers to become highly qualified.
2. be an integral part of broad educational improvement plans
3. give teachers, principals, and administrators the knowledge and skills to provide students with the opportunity to meet challenging academic content standards and student academic achievement standards
4. improve classroom management skills
5. be high quality, sustained, intensive, classroom-focused and medium-long term workshops or seminars
6. support the recruiting, hiring, and training of highly qualified teachers
7. advance teacher understanding of effective instructional strategies
8. be aligned with and directly related to the national curriculum orientation.

In Greece

Studies on the professional development of teachers have been conducted in Greece but do there are certain aspects that have not been investigated. Xohellis (1984) studied the attitudes of Greek teachers towards their pedagogic role, Pyrgiotakis (1992) investigated the working conditions of Greek teachers and Goudiras (1999) illustrated the profile of Greek teachers and their perceived position in the European Union. Goudiras, Synodi and Aggelis (2002) conducted a research in the attitudes of Greek kindergarten teachers and compared their profile with that of their British colleagues. Papanaooum (2003) investigated the views of primary and secondary teachers, focusing on the perspectives and practices that contribute to the reinforcement of the teacher’s role. Other studies and researches on teachers’ attitudes and professional issues (Vamvoukas, 1982; Mouchayer, 1985; Alexopoulos, 1990; Friderikos & Foleros, 1995; Kaila, Andreadakis, Xanthakou & Philippou, 1995; Xatzianagiotou, 2001; Lignos, 2006;) only present certain
aspects of the situation. Consequently, there was need for a thorough nation-wide research in the education and the professional needs of Greek teachers. On these grounds, we were interested to see whether Greek teachers share a common identity and how their basic education contributes to this.

**Frame of the topic and Methodology**

This empirical research aims at investigating the professional perception and the educational needs of Greek teachers. In the investigation were involved teachers from primary and secondary education schools in different Peripherals in Greece. Among the aims of the research were:

a. To illustrate –through a questionnaire- the methods, strategies and means used from teachers to handle deviant behavior and crises in their schools.

b. To investigate the training needs of teachers in order to acquire knowledge and skills for effective management of crises and deviant behaviors.

c. To conduct an in-depth study of the education and vocational training of Greek teachers in order to illustrate the present situation and also to suggest a complete plan for the development and implementation of training programmes that will help teachers with this thorny educational issue.

More specifically, our study aims to explore:

1. In what subjects teachers wish to acquire vocational training.
2. If the training needs of the teachers differ according to their specialty.
3. How long the training seminars should be, and which institution should offer them.
4. If teachers at all levels of education share a common professional identity.

**Demographical characteristics of the participants (sample)**

The sample consists of 326 teachers from all levels of compulsory education and from different fields who work in schools all over Greece. The participants were from 23 to over 60 years of age and worked in kindergartens, primary schools, junior high schools and high schools, as well as in vocational schools. There were a number of teachers (6.7%), who worked in special education.

The educational level of the participants was high. 92.7% of them had a university degree, whereas 14.7% also had a postgraduate or doctoral degree. A substantial number of them had attended seminars and training courses offered by different teacher training institutions more than once.

**Measure**

A non-standardized questionnaire was used which was trailed for reliability and validity in a pilot study. The final questionnaire assesses five parameters:

a. Demographical data

b. Types of deviant behavior of students (interpersonal relations, undesirable behavior, foreign students or other language speaking students)

c. Perceived roles of the teacher

d. Methods, strategies and techniques to improve deviant behaviors

e. Vocational training and perceived professional readiness of teachers

The questionnaire consisted of closed questions. To five questions teachers had to tick the statements that they agreed with. The rest of the questions were of a Likert type.
Participants had to choose a number from 1 (Rarely happens or Do not agree at all) to 5 (Happens every day or Agree very much). We will hereafter analyze the results concerning the last parameter (e).

**Professional education and professional awareness**

*The suggested content of teachers’ undergraduate education*

Teachers of all school levels seem to agree on the content of their studies. In order to be adequately prepared to handle deviant behaviors the participants stated that undergraduate studies of teachers should include more “Social sciences” courses and more practice time at schools and social institutions. Social subjects, that considered essential, were “Pedagogy”, “Psychology” and “Special education”. Considering the fact that teachers may have chosen the social sciences due to their top position in the questionnaire, it is preferable to focus on the choice of more practice time. It is also noteworthy that “Arts” was chosen almost as much as the very diverse subject of “New technologies and Informatics”. (More specifically: music, drama, painting, informatics and digital communication). Among theoretical studies, “Literature” was the most preferred subject whereas “Neurosciences” was the most popular subject among sciences.

The three groups of teachers – kindergarten, primary and secondary school - do not present significant differentiation in their priorities, bringing School Counseling, Practice, Pedagogy, Psychology and Special Education to the top of their preferences. This fact reflects the awareness of teachers of their inadequate knowledge on these subjects, which they consider vital for the effective handling of behavior problems at school (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Nurseries Median</th>
<th>Primary school Teachers Median</th>
<th>High school Teachers Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Counselling</td>
<td>3,58</td>
<td>3,32</td>
<td>3,03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy / School Psychology</td>
<td>3,20</td>
<td>3,44</td>
<td>3,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>3,54</td>
<td>3,36</td>
<td>3,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>2,82</td>
<td>3,07</td>
<td>2,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural Education</td>
<td>2,85</td>
<td>2,82</td>
<td>2,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Psychology</td>
<td>2,97</td>
<td>2,73</td>
<td>2,70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>2,76</td>
<td>2,80</td>
<td>2,49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Technologies</td>
<td>1,94</td>
<td>2,18</td>
<td>2,15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the contrary, there is statistically significant differentiation in the priorities of the three groups of teachers in sciences (F= 6.593, p<0.01). Secondary school teachers appear less interested in these subjects than kindergarten and primary school teachers do. This finding we can attribute to the lack of specialization in these subjects of the kindergarten and primary school teachers in their studies. The need for more on-the-job practice appears significantly higher to kindergarten teachers than to secondary teachers (F= 5.054, p<0.01). This finding depicts the need to transform theory into practical strategies and techniques, which is much more intense to kindergarten teachers than to teachers of adolescents (t= 3.049, df= 122, p<0.01).

**Proportion of theoretical learning to practical training of teachers**
In order to elicit the participants’ suggestions about the efficiency of their undergraduate studies we posed a question about the perceived ideal proportion of theory to practice that would enable them to handle modern problems associated with social and emotional learning. Therefore, 109 teachers found theory as important as practice while almost equal number of teachers value theory more than practice and vice versa. (85 were for theory and 89 for practice). There is not significant differentiation in the answers of kindergarten, primary and secondary school teachers.

Satisfaction from the effectiveness of teachers’ interventions in behavioral problems at school

As asked about the effectiveness of teachers’ interventions in behavioral problems at school, 35.1% of the participants are moderately content with their methods, 41.1% are content and only 7.9% of the participants are very content. Teachers appear to be more satisfied with themselves in issues that have to do with molding children’s personality, the acceptance of their means and methods by their students, and the acknowledgment of their work by colleagues and parents. Teachers find the available means of psychopedagogical support of students inadequate and they are not satisfied with the response of specialists or of institutions responsible for students’ behavior problems or crises management. Moreover, they feel that they lack knowledge and skills necessary for handling such problems. Consequently, they are only moderately satisfied from the results of their attempts to handle incidents of deviant behavior at schools considering the time they spend on them.

These findings are important as they reflect teachers’ awareness of their professional lacks and weaknesses as well as their need for professional development and reinforcement (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Percentage (%) of teachers who chose the subjects 1st, 2nd or 3rd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. On-the-job practice</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. School counseling</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pedagogical Psychology / School psychology</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Special Education</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Duration of teacher training programs

There has been much discussion among teachers concerning the kind and duration of training programs (either initial or in the service). The participants’ answers show that the six-month duration of training programs (150-300 hours) with a parallel reduction of their occupation’s time at school is the most popular. Than follows the one-year duration (300-600 hours) with a parallel reduction of occupation's time at school. Short, repeated, in-service training courses of 20 to 60 hours come third in the participants’ preference.

Teacher training institutions

As asked about which institution they consider as more appropriate to offer teachers training courses, the participants mostly preferred training courses offered by university
departments, and institutions of the Ministry of Education oriented to lifelong learning like the **Institution of Teachers Training** (O.EP.EK). In the second position were ranked the **Peripheral Centers of Teachers Training** (PEK) and in the third the **Institutes of Continuing Education** (IDE). However, the Institutes of Continuing Education until now have not implemented; they are only in plan of the ministry. This foreshadows that these institutions of life-long learning are going to be widely acceptable, at least as far as teachers are concerned. Other institutions that may offer training courses, such as municipal or prefecture authorities or schools, in the form of in-service training, equally ranked in the fourth position. Finally, syndicates and non-educational institutions fell way behind, in the last position.

**Conclusions**

To sum up the results of this part of our research, we see that teachers prefer mostly subjects belonging to social and theoretical studies as subjects of teacher training courses. We can explain these findings in terms of the relation they bear to matters of class management and behavior problems. Furthermore, it is worth pointing out that theoretical education and practical training are equally valued as parts of undergraduate education as well as of teacher training courses. The fact that participants preferred long-term training courses offered by universities depicts the demand for high quality training, as well as the extent of teachers’ training needs.

Teachers’ professional training should include:

1. Understanding of deviant behaviors
2. Conduct management skills
3. Communicative skills and teacher-student interaction skills
4. Methods of handling Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)
5. Intervention programs for the development of social skills and tolerance.

Data analysis shows that older teachers prefer shorter training courses than their younger colleagues do. In addition, they would rather attend theoretical subjects than practical ones and they are not interested in courses “on-the-job training”.

Studies on the training needs of Greek primary school teachers (Paleologou & Papachristos, 2000; Papanuma & Xohellis, 2001) showed that they would like to receive training on Teaching Methodology, Counseling, Special Education and Intercultural Education. The results of our research also showed that teachers do not feel ready and efficient for their pedagogical and counseling role in the modern school. They also believe that basic education of teachers does contribute to the formation of a common professional identity, which was also mentioned in Goudiras, Synodi and Angelis (2002).

There are significant differences between kindergarten, primary and secondary school teachers, concerning the application of teaching methodology in the classroom. We can attribute this fact to the inadequate basic education of secondary school teachers, especially of the older ones, as Pedagogy and Psychology were not included in their university education. Finally, we must underline the strong demand of all teachers, especially in primary education, for more on-the-job practice both in their undergraduate studies and in their professional training courses.

In conclusion, our research depicted formulated the need of Greek teachers for lifelong learning that will enable them to handle educational, pedagogical, social and emotional problems at schools. With our research, we tried to cast light on some aspects of teachers’ education in Greece. It will be very interesting to compare the findings of this
investigation with information from other countries because education of teachers
determines the kind of education in general.

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Curriculum design as an important quality parameter in the trainer’s education and in the adult education fields.

Introduction
The trainers’ training has become an interesting field of reference because of the importance of the so called life long learning philosophy.

Concerning this topic, some key questions are to be considered: What is a trainer? What is the place and the role of a trainer within the life long learning approach? Does an adult trainer have the same competence profile as a teacher? Which is the best approach of a trainer’s training, and what kind of curriculum design should be developed? All these questions shall find a short answer in the context of this paper.

The trainer as a core actor of adult education

Place and role of the trainer within the life long learning process

More than ever, in a global world, we need competent individuals and, within this context, we need competent teachers who lead the educational processes towards forming competent professionals and citizens. But is the educational process over when a person has reached maturity? It is obvious that, in today’s dynamic world, the need to continue the educational process is here. New forms of continuing education appear as being necessary after the initial training. In this context, some specific terms are used to name these forms: re-training, up-dating, reconversion and training for leisure. Here are some short definitions of the terms.

![Figure 1. The place of the trainer within the life long learning process](image-url)

The term re-training refers to building new, specific competencies for another field, additional to those of the initial training; this re-construction is based on already existing core or transversal competencies.
Up-dating the initial training means to develop (the quality and the quantity of) the existing competencies for a specific work field.

The term re-conversion refers to building new, specific competencies in a field of work, connected to those of the initial training. The process builds on already developed transversal competencies and on compatible, specific, already existing competencies.

Training programs for leisure are focused on answering the specific needs of the public (for training of different random public with specific hobbies).

Figure number 1 presents the *life long learning process*, its sequences, and the main actors involved within each sequence. Education in school (with its specific levels) triggers the personality development process, preparing the human being to become a professional and an effectively integrated citizen. The adult education continues the educational process, offering one the possibility to improve already developed competencies, or to develop other competencies considered necessary for the mature life phase, to facilitate a more dynamic professional and social integration. The *trainer* appears in the sequence of the life long learning process as a main actor together with the trainees who are seen as adults who need or want to be involved in a continuing training process. The trainees are “adult students” (with a specific psychology) with elaborated learning skills, animated by a specific motivation. The trainer is a teacher who works with adults according to their specificity. A particular approach of the trainers’ training seems to be necessary in this respect. He or she should be a competent professional, a competent person.

**Defining competence – a complicated issue**

There are a lot of definitions of the competence concept, and a lot of terms used in connection to it (Lawson, C. 1999). It seems that it was the vocational domain which has introduced this concept. That is why there are a lot of restrictive definitions of it. The term competence is used both in scientific context and everyday language, but with a variety of meanings in each of these contexts.

The everyday language especially emphasizes the hypostasis as an attribute of this term, focusing the meaning on the idea of the “competent person”. There is also another hypostasis of the term in the everyday language, a managerial one, when talking about the competence of decision of a particular person, as a consequence of a specified status. Usually, *competent* is an attribute used for individuals, social groups or institutions that possess distinctive qualities, or demonstrate their capacity to accomplish appropriate results, according to important and specific demands. This paper will only be concerned with the meaning of competence connected to individuals; nonetheless, I will try to emphasize the role of educational institutions in developing the process of competence.

The scientific literature on the competence concept displays a wide range of meanings. It is interesting that there are even two distinct words connected to this concept: (1) *competence* with the plural *competences* and (2) *competency* with its plural *competencies*.

It is not the purpose of this paper to scrutinize the meanings of the competence concept, but some short considerations should be made. The word *competence*, no matter in what area it is used, requires to be connected to other words like: *knowledge, ability, aptitude, capability, skill, attitude, value, effectiveness, and efficacy*. It is necessary to analyze this connection in order to ground a *structural* and a dynamic approach of the competence concept.
In this context, I intend to present, firstly, the distinction between the two concepts: *competence* and *competency* considering some specific approaches focused on this topic (Lasnier, 2000; Rychen & Salganik, 2005, Bakx et al. 2006).

*Competence* could be considered as a potential of the personality. I define the general competence as a general potentiality to mobilize an assemblage of knowledge, capacities/abilities, and attitudes to solve sets of problem situations (identifying, combining and activating); it is the power of personality to identify and properly use conceptual and procedural knowledge to effectively assume a task. This definition is approximately close to the sense used by other authors (Crahay, 2000, & De Ketele, 2001, apud Demause & Stauven, 2006).

*Competency* represents the concrete manifestation of *competence as potential*. Competencies are developed during the initial training stages, they are synergetic connected within competence, and further they are practically expressed within the real professional and social life, having great potential of development and re-construction.

A competency is more than just knowledge and skills. It involves the ability to meet complex demands by drawing on and mobilizing psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context. For example, the ability to communicate effectively is a competency that may draw on an individual’s knowledge of language, practical IT skills and attitudes towards those with whom he or she is communicating (Rychen, & Salganik, 2005, 4). Decoding the meaning of competency is very complicated, because it involves several other connected concepts (which show parts of the components of competency): knowledge, skills, and the general ability to understand and to answer to complex demands. The definition also emphasizes the competency mechanisms of acting, by mobilizing psychosocial resources, mechanisms which involve both behavior and attitudes. It is important to mention that, concerning competency, a very particular context of its action is considered.

I find this definition interesting because it shows that the tendency to reduce a competency to the idea of “being able to do something concrete”, without taking into account the wider psychological and social context of the act itself, is too narrowed and inconsistent.

It is obvious that, at the beginning of this millennium, individuals need a wider range of competencies demanded by the complex challenges of our time. That is why continuing education becomes a real necessity and the trainer seems to play an even more important role.

**The structure of competence**

The structure of competence is expressed through different hypostases of competency, or in other terms as competencies structured in different ways. I agree with Lasnier (2000) on the idea of the complexity of the structure and on the necessity to consider the components of competence as a hierarchy of levels. But I feel necessary to go further with the analysis. Lasnier (2000) considers competence as a complex umbrella term; the focus of the author’s definition of competence is on knowing how to act or to proceed as a result of an integration process which triggers a set of resources like capacities, abilities (cognitive, emotional, psychomotor or social) and knowledge, used all together in an effective way within contexts with common characteristics. I consider that Lasnier’s definition is more a definition of competency because of its last part.
I define competence as an umbrella term not only for its components (knowledge, capacities/abilities, skills, attitudes and values), but for competencies too, with their own way to manifest themselves within different concrete contexts. (Figure no. 2) More specifically, I understand competence as a personality attribute, consisting in knowing to act/to proceed, knowing to be, and knowing to become according to new challenges, as a result of an integration process which involves and puts in action a set of resources like capacities, abilities (cognitive, emotional, psychomotor or social) and knowledge, ontogenetically developed and concretely expressed as competencies. Competence as a generic term becomes an emblem of the entire personality during the whole life of a human being.

Competence, as a general attribute of one’s personality is the outcome of a long term process during life time. It can be considered as an emblem of personality at maturity level, resulting as a synergy of evolving/increasing competencies during the first stages of personality genesis; further, it expresses itself within an ongoing process of nuanced shaping during maturity age (professionally and socially, with all the cognitive, emotional and psychomotor aspects involved).
According to the previous figure, the structure of competence (and its concrete expression in competencies) consists in:

- **Knowledge** (from various domains) which is functionally structured step by step. Whilst the subject is under tuition, this focuses on the *studying-learning* process and represents *knowing* (*cognitive*) aspects of competence/competency.

- **Capacities** which includes *abilities* (according to Lasnier 2000); they could be cognitive, emotional, psychomotor and social. Abilities are developed as simple qualities/operators of *knowing to do something in punctual situations* (*savoir*–*faire*, *savoir*–*agir*), integrating basic knowledge (considered as understood and internalized information). Capacities are developed as qualities/operators of being able to perform middle complexity tasks, integrating abilities and knowledge of high complexity and functionality.

Capacities and their connected abilities are continuously developed during the first stages of the ontogenesis process. Initially, they are activated for the application of existing knowledge, in order to improve them. Later in ontogenesis, the same capacities/abilities are required to generate knowledge or other capacities and abilities that may be necessary to initiate actions. Capacities/abilities represent *knowing in order to take action, to then be able to perform an action effectively*. Here again there is an involvement of explicit and implicit aspects of cognition.

- **Attitudes and values** which cope with the present learning experiences represent (in complex connection with capacities) qualities of ‘*knowing to be*’ as circumstances demand it.

- **Attitudes and values** which cope with dynamic challenges and changes are represented by qualities of ‘*knowing to become*’ in response to demands.

Knowledge is, for sure, the necessary foundation or the core of the both concepts: competence and competency.

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**Figure 4**

*Competence as an emblem of the personality and its expression by competencies involving knowledge, capacities/abilities, attitudes and values in a concrete situation*

Figure 4 presents the rapport between competence as a generic term and competencies as its concrete expression. *The trainer’s competence profile and the training approach focused on competence*
The trainer, as a specific type of teacher, should be the subject of an appropriate well designed, effectively run, and accurately evaluated training process. The approach of the competence topic within the trainer’s education context is an important one for at least two essential reasons. The entire educational process of a trainer should be developed according to a clearly defined competence profile. This competence profile is requested by the work market and its dynamics.

A trained teacher is the most important actor within the complex development process of students’ competence. An effectively trained trainer is able to work together with the trainees to help them on the challenging way of continuing education. It is difficult to aspire to a high quality adult’s education and, as a condition of it, to a high quality trainer’s training without a clear understanding of the concepts involved in this approach. That is why I want to present some considerations focused on the core concepts involved.

It is necessary to define the concept of competence profile and its sense when talking about the trainer’s competence profile. The “competence profile” of an effective trainer is considered as a matrix containing the structure involved within table no.1: The matrix shows three categories of components:

1. Knowledge structured on domains/ hypostases/ roles of the trainer, specified in terms of must, should, and would which point at the necessity of acquisition.
2. Capacities/ abilities connected to knowledge on specific fields, but with possibilities of transfer. They have the same specification in terms of must, should and would.
3. Attitudes and values with the same structure.

For each item, there can be defined levels of development in qualitative terms (standards).

First, the assessment scales should be concerned with the levels of the must components, meaning the minimum of accomplishment. It is easy to recognize here the core idea of the French “referential”.

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**Curriculum for trainer’s training should assure the development of trainer’s hypostasis**

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**Figure 5**

*Trainer's hypostases*
The term matrix, in the trainer’s case, refers to five categories of roles, all related to the same number of the trainer’s hypostases. Figure number 5 presents the trainer’s hypostases.

Why should we complicate our activity by designing such a matrix? I suggest this matrix for a very simple reason. To design the curriculum for the trainer’s training as a particular case, focusing it on clearly defined outcomes, is a way to rationalize the educational process. It becomes easier to select and structure contents, to choose the methodology of teaching and assessing focused on learning in terms of: *what/ why/ what for/ how and what kind of connection.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Matrix of trainer’s competence profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Components of competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hypostases (roles) of the trainer as curriculum designer and active actor of curriculum implementation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source and resource for trainees’ learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge connected to the hypostasis of <strong>Source and resource for trainees’ learning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge connected to the hypostasis of <strong>Motivator/Animator for trainees’ learning and work</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge connected to the hypostasis of <strong>Counselor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge connected to the hypostasis of <strong>Evaluator for trainers competencies/ Self evaluator</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
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| **It was a great debate focused on the appropriateness of outcome-based education. This philosophy comes from William Spady (1993) and has its roots in Mastery**
Learning; it has many supporters but also many critics. In Australia, for instance, a lot of authors as Griffin (1988), and Willis & Kissane (1997) considered Spady’s philosophy as the basis for an outcome approach of education.

I do not intend to analyze in depth this debate, because the idea of introducing the competence profile does not mean our total acceptance of the outcomes focus curriculum paradigm. I do believe that a curriculum should focus on the efficiency of the learning situation, and that it should be built by the teacher/trainer to determine the trainees’ learning experiences expressed in competencies (through their components). The competencies should be as close as possible to the desirable standards of a competence profile defined as necessary on the labor market.

A trainer’s competence profile should have a clear design, it should set expectations at the end of the educational process. It is a dynamic structure according to the determinations coming from the domain where the adult’s education is requested.

The trainer as curriculum designer

Some considerations on curriculum

The fifth hypostasis of a trainer includes his/her role as a curriculum designer. It is obviously necessary for a trainer to be skilled to design a curriculum for the training process, taking into account all the steps of curriculum design in an effective manner.

I would like to suggest the following working definition of curriculum for this paper: Curriculum could be considered, in its widest manifestation, as the totality of learning situations connected to the subsequent learning experiences which occur during a human being’s life.

The learning situations are specifically designed and carried out within formal education, but they are also specifically designed in non-formal educational settings; life itself, for sure, puts us into various learning situations without having them planned (informal educational context). Each learning situation, purposely designed or incidental, shared or not with others, becomes a private “learning experience” being filtered through the learner’s personality, and influenced in this filtering process by a lot of contextual factors (Cornbleth, 1990). It is important not to forget that even the teacher/trainer is a “learner” involved within the learning situation created or projected by the teacher himself or herself.

The structure of a set of learning situations/learning experiences (synergic connected in curriculum) requires now certain revisions to some familiar elements, revisions illustrated in the figure number 6.

These five structural elements coming from the so called pentagonal model of curriculum structure (1. outcomes as results and aims/goals/objectives as paths towards the outcomes, 2. contents, 3. teaching methodology, 4. assessing methodology and 5. time) are put in a three dimensional expression, first suggested by Wragg (1997) in his “Cubic Curriculum”. Whilst these five core structural elements of a learning situation are strongly interconnected, we must also recognize that the concept is a functioning system. That is why, every change in one element necessarily calls for adjustment in each other.

The pentagonal model of curriculum structure cannot adequately express this complex activity. Consequently, I propose the pyramidal approach of the curriculum structure (figure number 6) as a diachronic expression of the three dimensional approach. The outcomes of a level of learning situations (sequence of curriculum) are intermediate components of trainees’ learning experiences expressed as competencies; they become
the starting point of the next level of learning situations, and the process continues. The dynamics could be explained more detailed but this is not the purpose of this presentation.

A trainer must understand this dynamic, he or she should be able to build sets of learning situations structured on levels, following aims, goals and objectives towards defined outcomes; in other terms a trainer should be an effective curriculum designer and manager.

**Necessary steps in curriculum design**

The trainer’s first step in curriculum design is a needs analysis of the concrete trainees involved within a particular training program. This needs analysis puts together some parameters:

1. The new requests of the competence profile to be trained for (meaning a higher quality of its items, higher standards or a more quantity of items: new knowledge, new capacities and different attitudes, new or modified values).
2. The existing knowledge, capacities/abilities, attitudes and values for each trainee.
3. The gap between the first and the second parameter.

The result of the needs analysis should be an inventory of knowledge, capacities/abilities, attitudes and values to be developed, improved or changed.

![Pyramid Model of Curriculum in Adult's Education](image)

**Figure 6**

*The pyramide model of curriculum in adult's education*

The second step of the trainer’s approach as a curriculum designer is to build appropriate learning situations aiming to rich learning experiences which encapsulate the
requested knowledge, capacities/abilities, attitudes and values to be developed, improved or changed.

Each learning situation must be carried out and effectively managed to develop appropriate trainees learning experiences materialized in competencies, which, in turn, are expressed by specific components (knowledge, capacities/abilities and attitudes) in competences.

Details of the steps of the curriculum design and management are presented in figure number 7.

**Figure 7**

Steps of curriculum design in adult's education

Curriculum management, on a tactical level, supposes the existence of specific trainer’s skills that enable him/her to implement effectively the curriculum design. The necessity to develop trainers’ skills as curriculum designers and curriculum managers during the trainers’ training must be considered. Figure number 8 presents the aspects involved in this respect.

**How to ensure quality within trainers’ training**

A good question in this moment could be *which is the more effective manner to develop these kinds of skills for a trainer?* There is more than one possible answer for the problem. The topic itself is a rich one. I intend to emphasize one of the most important aspects - the trainers’ learning style - which, in my opinion, should be a committed one.

“The term “committed learning” expresses the synergic result of the active, reflective, socio-cognitive and self-motivated involvement of a studying-learner within the studying-learning process. (...) This
studying-learning process is triggered by complex studying-learning challenges which are either designed by an educator in the formal education system, by professionals in specific fields or even by the studying–learner himself or herself on meeting the demands of everyday life. The outcome of each studying-learning situation will depend first on the unique existing learning processes and outcomes that are the personal history of the studying–learner. It will also be influenced by variables such as the context of the studying-learning process, the nature of the tasks, the variables of working alone or in team activities, the physical and affective environment and the nature of the teacher-student relationship.” (Niculescu, & Usaci, 2008: 200, 201)

Figure 8
Trainee as curriculum designer

There is a process of studying “where a learner engages in an action that is consciously self-motivated, reflective and inquiring”. For this to take place, we agree with Black, J. B. and. McClintock R. O. (1995:2) that this process of studying needs a “study support environment instead of ‘instructional systems’” (Niculescu, & Usaci, 2008: 201).

The studying–learning situation could be a formal or a non-formal educational situation that, in the case of adult’s learning, puts the (future) trainer in the position to behave as a studying-learner for a specific period of time.

“The status of a studying–learner calls for a particular attitude and activity on the part of the trainee. He/she has become voluntarily involved in a learning activity. In consequence, the individual has intrinsic motivation in respect of that activity. In this mode, the studying–learner uses his or her brain and mind not for the passive consumption of information. Instead, the trainee actively constructs personal interpretations of information and reflectively draws inferences from them. This form of study involves a range of mental activity – thinking, inquiring, and generating new knowledge, each of which is strongly supported by the
psychological energy of motivation and emotional involvement.” (Niculescu, & Usaci, 2008:202).

During the training sessions, in all activities, the future trainer, as a “studying -learner “, is in continuous, direct or indirect contact with others and with their ideas or interpretations. Thus, studying-learning is necessarily a collaborative learning and to this collaborative association each studying -learner brings immediate or tangentially-related prior learning. The group will start as a working group consisting of individuals who will then generate together a range of cognitive and emotional progenitors to new knowledge. At the conclusion of the event, each will have gained a unique educational experience. Within and as a consequence of each event the studying-learner will give meanings to the universe of endeavour and “construct a totally unique understanding” of it (Niculescu, & Usaci, 2008: 202).

![Diagram: Ongoing Educational Process](image)

**Figure 9**
The way from educational methodology, through the committed learning style towards the trainer competence as outcome

In order to become a studying-learner, a trainee should have the benefit of meaningful, well constructed, or contrived studying-learning situations. “The educator in this realisation of the act of teaching takes the role of the “master-architect”. Black, J. B.
and McClintock R. O. (1995) proposed a list of the core characteristics of effective learning structures that are designed by competent master–architects. We have adapted this list and suggest that the committed learning process must be: active / manipulative; intentional; complex; constructive; collaborative; reflective; contextual; effectively communicated to the learners.” (Niculescu, & Usaci, 2008: 202, 203). Committed learning, presented in this way, should be rather considered a learning style than an attitude.

Figure number 9 presents the ongoing educational process in adult’s education, with its particular case of trainer’ training, and illustrates the place of the committed learning style within the context, suggesting its role as well.

**Instead of conclusion**

Adult education could be the ashes Phoenix emerges from, again and again, when life requires it. The trainer should be the wind to sustain its wings; sometime a strong wind, sometime a soft one, but always able to adapt its blowing, its force. A trainer’s gift should be ..to lift!

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5

Trainers’ preparation and the quality of their training programs.

Introduction

At the start of a new century, it is useful to look back at the way that education and educators have worked to change society. Much of this change has occurred through very small activities that have drawn in other people and spread. Some of these changes have occurred through people organizing for change and usually there has been some form of education for these social change organizers. Adult education is extension of educational opportunities to those adults beyond the age of general public education who feel a need for further training of any sort, also known as continuing education. Contemporary adult education can take many different forms. Colleges and universities have instituted evening programs, correspondence courses, distance learning programs, etc. Community colleges and universities have been especially active in this area. Adult education is also sponsored by private institutions or non-profit organizations; this field now embraces such diverse areas as vocational education, parent education, adult basic education, etc. It is the intention of this paper to focus on the trainers’ preparation and the quality of their programs. Some questions such as: Who should be trained? What kind of man does the candidate for training should be? Why we need the training? Which are the main elements of training? When, where and how the training should be developed? find the answer in this paper.

Contemporary concept of training and the trainer

Training has played an important historic role in the human teaching process. All of us, ever since born, pass through a continuous and uninterrupted training process during which we learn how to grow, how to become educated, how to take care of ourselves, how to become part of a social system and how to enlarge our knowledge and abilities by adapting ourselves in the enormous world of work and nowadays reality. Training is an important planned investment that helps in the development of knowledge, abilities and attitudes, all of which are necessary to complete a duty in a satisfactory way. Training is an active relationship between the trainers and the trainees. The training process is a continuous and uninterrupted process. It passes from one level into the other helping the trainees to improve the way they complete with their duties and responsibilities.

We can distinguish different kinds of training such as:

- **Work training.** This kind of training is provided within the working environment in the form of direct instructions which aim is to improve and widen knowledge, abilities and attitudes, that will lead to a successful completion of the task. This form of improvement can be organized through a general program or a specific one.

- **Out – of – work training.** This training is provided in the form of courses organized by different organizations and institutions in order to gain new abilities leading to successful task or duty completion.
Close instructions. This kind of training is individually provided to all people who are interested in, in order for them to gain knowledge and to use their capability for the duty and task completion.

Coaching. During this training the participants expand their knowledge capacities and experience by systematically completing some special tasks accompanied with continual advising and evaluation.

Work directions are usually used when the trainees are not equipped with knowledge necessary for the fulfillment of all assigned duties.

Active participation stands at the center of the training process. It ensures to each individual the space needed for sharing opinions, knowledge, and personal experience towards joint solutions. In order for this training goals to be reached, the trainer him/herself must possess not only the necessary knowledge in the respective filed, but also the necessary background, dedication, energy and passion for the job that he/she is doing. He/she must communicate freely, in order to inspire trust and to create a supportive atmosphere for all. Being a trainer is not a gift born with the individual. Each of us can be a good trainer and for this, we need more work rather than to be gifted; we need to have love and respect for the teaching process.

Each training has to go through all stages of the learning process.

1. Direct experience
2. Experience application
3. Experience reflection
4. Experience generalization

These stages can be specified as follows:

- Experience
- Analysis
- Principle formation
- Application

First stage: First experience. During this phase the participants discover some new information that demands their reaction. For this reason there can be used different problem solutions such as: case studies, role plays, team works etc. During this phase the trainer asks participants different questions like: Are there any questions for the assignment? Can you think of other solutions? How much time do you need to complete the assignment? etc.

Second stage: Experience reflection. During this phase the participants select the information elicited during the first phase. They can work in groups, discuss over different problematic issues, etc. During this phase the trainer can ask questions such as: What did you notice? Do you have something else to add? etc.

Third stage: Experience generalization. During the third phase the participants must give their opinion on what they have discussed in the previous phase in order for them to elicit the right conclusions related to their work. The trainer can prepare a summary of the work done by the participants. During this phase he/she can ask questions such as: What did you learn? Have you gained some new knowledge? What does it mean for you? etc.

Forth stage: Experience application. Application is one of the most important points of the learning process. During this phase the participants must become conscientious that this is the most important phase of their work. They must understand the connections between the information gained and reality in the everyday life during their work as well as the changes that can happen in this course. During this phase the trainer plays the role
of a leader. He/she advises and stimulates them by asking questions such as: Do you have any further questions? How can you better organize your work? How can you apply the gained knowledge to your everyday life? etc. The learning cycle serves at the same time as a lead for the compilation of the training programs and its planning. The learning cycle besides the above mentioned stages also passes through four other steps:  
- It is not aware of the lack of abilities.
- It is aware of the lack of abilities.
- It is aware of the abilities it possesses.
- It is not aware of the abilities it possesses.

**During the first step** he is not aware for the lack of abilities; this means he “Does not know what he does not know”.

**During the second step** after the coming into contact with knowledge he becomes aware of what he does not know: “I know what I do not know”.

**During the third step** the person becomes aware of what he knows the abilities that he possesses “I know what I know”.

**During the fourth step** the earned ability becomes part of life and the man is in search of new knowledge and abilities. And he/she makes a return at the stage when he/she says: “I know what I do not know”. So in this way the ability is transformed into a spontaneous movement, into a habitude that takes place instinctively. So during the learning process we gain knowledge, abilities and attitudes. The balance between these three elements can be presented in the shape of a pyramid where Knowledge lies at its foundations, than come the abilities and at the top of the pyramid are placed the skills. (So, when abilities become part of one’s being, they are transformed into skills).

**Preparation and the training programs**

Training preparations and the training process itself take time. Preparation goes through these two phases:

1. Preparation of the long phase that asks for a great amount of time.
2. Preparation of the short phase that must be undertaken before the training session.

Training leaders and trainers before starting the training process must start the preparations taking into account replies of questions such as:

**Who?**

**Why?**

**Where?**

**When?**

**How?**

**Who will be trained?**

Training preparations start by answering to the question: “Who will be trained”? Sometimes importance is paid only to the training content leaving behind the trainee. In the case of those who work in the field of education, it is necessary to define their training profile as this will help in the compilation of the training programs adequate to them. When we speak in terms of profiles for people who will be trained we keep in mind their features which can be distinguished for their level of formation, working experience, stages of qualification, subject they teach at school, etc. In this way, a program compiled for teachers of elementary education of 9-year schools will change a lot from a program
compiled for teachers of the same schools who belong with the third or fourth stage of qualification. As a matter of fact we should never think that those who need training most are young teachers just arrived and without previous experience. The reason to their need for training can be the implementation of new methods, procedures or new containing. Another reason that can make them feel the need for training may be the fact that their knowledge and abilities are no longer considered useful or ahead with time.

Time and progress someone can have at his work

Planning and training at the “right time” is always a problem. Cooperation among trainers, leaders, school principals etc, can be used as a helping device to avoid random problems that may harm the successful completion of training. To start, the trainer must discover exactly what has the candidate learned about the training. He/she must verify if he/she has the necessary abilities and attitudes for that particular working place. The training plan must include and predict the progress for the immediate exertion of all gained knowledge, attitudes, and control in cases of completion problems. This also helps to avoid misapplication when the trained staff has misinterpreted the information.

What earlier training is made and when?

In relation to other earlier training and their kind, it is exactly stated how it can face progress according to the continuing program. Those who have been trained recently, have more probabilities to adapt themselves to teaching situations than those who have never before dealt with organized training. The last ones may be afraid of the unknown, may have the anxiety that they may not succeed to this process.

What kind of person is the training candidate?

The fact that the candidate is skillful or timid, stressed out or full of self-confidence, willing to “move ahead” or to stay behind, are all features that can help the trainer on his way of presentation. It may happen during the training for a candidate who thinks he/she knows everything to be included in the training and that he/she thinks nobody can teach him/her anything. Getting to know the candidate helps the trainer to avoid obstacles during the training such as abstract learning, far from reality, with the need to “un-teach” old abilities and procedures, lack of self-confidence, passive learning etc.

Why do we need training?

The trainer together with the organizers must think of how to explain participants the following issues:

• Which is the goal of this training and what will it evolve?
• Which is the training value for the school, department etc, where the candidate is employed?
• Preparatory measures that may be undertaken before the starting of the training process.
• What are the profits in relation to improvement or extra abilities after the training?
• What support and monitoring will the participant be having at their disposal from the trainer during training time?
• The confirmation that there will be a final discourse at the end of the training.

What will the training include?
After making clear who and why needs to be trained, another factor to be explained is for what reason are the participants going to be trained. If the trainer works in the leading sector of trainings, in general the materials with which he/she is going to work are in the form of packets or control lists. The trainers’ obligation in this case is facilitated by choosing those cases for which they need to be trained. In most of the cases the trainer prepares by him/herself the list of cases, exercises, practice sessions etc. As part of the training preparatory session, trainers use numerous techniques to select or compose according to a certain order those cases that need to be taught. In these techniques are included: the control list, interpersonal abilities list, procedural directions, etc.

Where and when will the training be held?

The “Where” question refers not only to the place where the training will be held but also to the materials and equipments there placed. The trainer has to reserve beforehand the room where the training will take place; that can be at the working space or a room booked in advance. He/she also has to make sure that these rooms are equipped with all necessary equipments for the training. All the necessary preparations have to be made in advance. The word “When” is refers to all time training factors. First, it is necessary to know when the training begins and second, one must specify its duration period. The time for the beginning of the training must be precisely settled because it is necessary for a precursory preparation to take place at early stages. The training time duration is also very important. The trainer prepares a list with issues and objectives to keep in mind during training. Another important aspect of time is the way the training period will be decided. A week or a few days can be intended for this purpose. Time can be divided into one week sessions, two hours per day, every afternoon for three weeks or even for a whole month, etc. The trainer after deciding whom to train, what for, where and when the training will take place, also decides how the training will be held, in order to make it as efficient as possible.

Training program composition

In the training program composition for teachers, school principals or education specialists, participants’ abilities, are taken into account their working environment and all other individual or institutional investment for their professional progress and development. The aim of the training program is closely connected to the professional progress of its participants. For example: in the case of teachers, school principals or education specialists, the general aim of the in-service training is officially and explicitly stated as follows:

- To improve the qualification of the teacher, school principal and belonging personnel from the responsible state institution.
- To improve teaching quality in school.
- To help carry out all novelties and new materials undertaken by the Ministry of Education and Sciences.
- To improve the leading abilities of directors and leading staff in the central and local offices.

The aim of this training program depends immensely on the program content and the professional level of the group that will be trained. In this way the aim of the training program for young teachers would be a different one from the aim of the program of experienced teachers in service trained several times.
The training program of young teachers’ and directors’ intends to:

- Help teachers and school principals to realize the meaning of young teachers’ performance.
- To grow their personal and professional well-being by familiarizing new teachers and directors with all aspects of a school program and school rules and regulations.
- To decide a monitoring system in order to ensure young teachers that they will have a continuous support.
- To analyze successful methods of solution for problems young teachers face, young school principals etc; for example class or school conduction.
- To develop abilities of how to put into practice the pedagogical theories.
- To develop the abilities for defining the quality of their teaching program.

Training programs and especially their content are distinguished by:

- Training organizing institutions (state institutions, non-governmental institutions, national & international institutions).
- Belonging auditorium to which the training is addressed.
- Capacities aimed by participants.

Further on, we will continue presenting one part of a national training program for a well-specified auditorium, directors and school administrators of pre-university education.

**Program for the training course of school principals**

**Introduction**

During a specified period of time from June until July 2008, the Institute of Training and Curricula Development together with the Faculty of Social Sciences at Tirana University held a one month course for school authorities; (full time course with teachers and school principals, in some towns of Albania, Tirana, Durresi, Vlora, Gjirokastra, etc).

**Goals of the program**

- Introduction of all participants with education perspectives inside the country and abroad.
- Gaining basic knowledge for school leading and management.
- Possession of competencies for the roles and responsibilities of a school principal.
- Getting to know the ways and methods of successful school curricula application.
- Competencies of human resource management and financial materials.

Program completion is related to the credits earned by the participants. The number of credits earned will be in concordance with the active participation in the class; for six sessions one credit will be awarded. (a total of 10 credits).

**Working methodology**

During the course apart from the treatment of different problematic issues presented by the lectors, the participants will be asked to reflect and discuss over different problems, to analyze case studies, to compose essays, etc.

**Duration**

The course will last 20 days in total, with three activities per day. It will take place from Monday to Friday, from nine (9) o’clock until fourteen (14), including the breaks between the sessions.

**First Module (3 sessions)**

**Topic: Leading philosophies**
• Education leading Philosophies and theories
• Traditional and contemporary research methods. Influence practices in priority settings of educational reforms.
• Perception of school principal for the school reform and concrete implementation. Achievements and obstacles for school reformation.

Second Module (3 sessions)
Topic: Focus of changes and their management
• Changes and problems in the education system
• Basic lessons of change paradigm
• Change management

Third Module (3 sessions)
Topic: School leadership
• Professional consultation leader – teacher in the context of quality evaluation.
• Communication and reporting of school leader.
• School contemporary leadership qualities.

Fourth Module (3 sessions)
Topic: School reformation in the framework of normative disposition
• School mission and its main obligations.
• School functioning practices: traditionalism and reformation efforts.
• Role of the leader for a qualititative realization of the legal school mission.

Fifth Module (3 sessions)
Topic: School principal
• Functions and qualities of the leader. Definition of school leader. (Different definitions from national and international authors). Functions of the classic and contemporary leader, formal and informal leaders (pull apart in school conditions).
• Qualities of a leader: Leader, communicator, able to receive and transmit information, decisive and insistent with decisions, critical assessor of himself and others, tolerant, educated, correct with his work, way of dressing and behavior, with principles, etc.
• Collaboration and group work.

Conclusions
• Adult education is considered nowadays as one of the most important means to enable adults to improve their economic productivity, to adopt themselves to their changing social and economical roles and to enhance their security in the society.
• The improving of teaching quality on the basic education is carried out by the cascade system of education.
• The analysis and evaluation of training needs to be taken into consideration.
• The necessary preliminary planning for training provides a successful development of the adults' training.
• The quality of the curricula and its successful implementation are the keys of the good trainers' preparation.

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Inter professional learning: Best opportunity for teaching, training and development.

Inter-professional learning is an educational process through which students and practitioners are provided with structured learning opportunities for shared learning. The goal of such learning is to enable learners to acquire knowledge, skills and professional attitudes they would not be able to acquire effectively in other ways (Parsell, and Bligh 1998).

The above quotation highlights a unique paradigm that focus on particular line of thought that encapsulate the actions and processes required for professional development of students and practitioners in a collaborative settings, resulting in the transformation of behaviour, acquisition of information through structured learning opportunities. If adopted, this creative thinking has the ability to transform how educational institutions view and deliver teacher training and development. The need for change is driven by many factors such as political, social, entrepreneurial, cultural, religious and technological issues. From an educational perspective, globalisation has had a significant impact on institutions of learning. The demand for education and training across the world has been on the increase because of the need to participate in the world economy which requires special knowledge and skills for individuals to remain competitive in the business environment. Consistent effort are being made by organisation and government reduce of poverty, address illiteracy and to encourage people to be responsible, accountable and productive citizens.

This demand has initiated educators to rethink their strategies on how teacher training and development should deliver to the future workforce in the learning world. The need to provide innovative training for teachers, equipping them with specialist knowledge and skills to satisfy environmental demands cannot be overemphasised. Since a well trained workforce can make it possible for a society to equip with information which are relevant to their circumstances thereby improving education, health and wellbeing amongst the population. This also motivates communities to strive towards independence or collective decisions making and to use valuable information and resources to respond to governmental policies of which they have little or no control.

The notion of inter-professional learning has not been a new concept from an educational context. Before it became popularise amongst educators, it was known as collaborative practice (Hoffman etal 2007), multidisciplinary ((Atwal & Caldwell, 2006), inter-professional education (CAIPE 2002) and multi-professional (Griffin, 1996 and Ivey et al., 1988) The various synonyms used to represent inter-professional learning allow individuals to access and participate this a form of leaning, which according (Barr etal 2000b) can increase motivation, change of personal attitudes and perceptions, cultivate interpersonal groups and organisations relations and establishing a common value and knowledge based.

Kuhnen (1978) suggested that, historically, the traditional role of the university was centred on only research and teaching. Its aim was to provide professional training and furnish students with abundance of professional knowledge for high level job, as well as the education necessary for the development of the personality. It was considered as unique organisation that recruits and mould individuals for example into the realm of...
elitism, engaged in protectionist ideology for an exclusive organisational and management practices. In addition, amongst the many roles and functions of the university departments, the structuring of iconic curricula programmes, making decisions on teaching and learning methodologies and promoting academic branch independence were the primary focus. However, one could argue that the dynamics of a modernisation in some countries and a pluralistic society, serves to stimulate universities to re-examine their teacher training and development strategies. The present focus is to prepare and provide a teaching workforce which is flexible and capable to work as individuals or in a collaboratively, multidisciplinary or multi-professional team. Importantly the aim is to improve the quality of service delivery (Koppel 1998) to the client groups they served and set up centre of excellence in training and delivery of education.

The sole purpose of this hypothesis on one hand is based on the notion that trained teachers should be independent as well as integrated thinkers capable to make informed choices and decisions. On the other hand, individuals should be capable of working collaboratively as part of a multi-professional faction thereby engaging in academic and scholarly activities for self and knowledge development. Also to meet organisational goals and contribute to the edification of students, community and society. Inter-professional learning provide teachers with real life opportunities to collaborate in projects that can be used to challenge racial discrimination, prejudices, stereotypes and cultural barriers that work against the principles of equal opportunity through the route of shared learning. Institutions and researchers noted categorically that inter-professional learning can be used to implement policies (DOH 2001), create a more flexible work force (Department of Health, 2000) enhance job satisfaction and ease stress (Barr et al 1998) remedy failures in trust and communication between professionals (Carpenter 1995) Also to enhance understanding of others’ professional role and responsible (Parsell et al 1998) and to modify negative attitudes and perceptions (Carpenter 1995) in the work place.

The expected outcomes of a learning process from a well designed teacher training and development programme should be one that enables the teacher to apply practicable and theoretical input into the learning and teaching environment that will help students achieve their desired goals and life ambitions. The concept of inter-professional learning between staffs on this basis not only create the opportunities for staffs to evaluate their work but also to explore personal experiences related to work and to look at the way they work together (Vasina-Cobbett 2005). Universities adopting the best opportunity for training and development for Inter-professional learning should involve strategic and reflective thinking and rationalising the reasons why this method of learning is significant to the organisation in the environment they operate. More so, its role is to identify internal and external organisational concerns that can prevent successful implementation of the collaborative learning opportunity. Further to this, recognising good models of professional learning practices that can be used to inspire staffs who may have different view points about the contribution it make to academic staff development. In addition, universities need to assess the impact that inter-professionally learning will have on the morality of staff who are considered purist or traditionalist in particular learning and teaching style. Also universities should evaluate the implications for learning in terms of cost quality and time, staff engagement, characteristics of the department, breaking down of professional demarcation roles which can lead to competition and internal conflict (Rance 1996) amongst staff.
Moreover, the institution needs to identify which inter professional learning tools would be the best apparatus to promote collaborative learning for example would it be inter-unit or departmental projects, joint consultancy undertaking, workshop, seminars, conferences and video-conferencing. Careful considerations should be taken into account to ensure that that topics selected for inter professional learning should be one that provides the opportunity for all to contribute. For example, topics such as problem based learning, teaching large groups promoting e-learning and teaching for distance education would be suitable suggestions.

In addition, questions need to be aired for example, should the philosophy of inter-professional learning in teacher training and development founded on working to learn from each other or should it be learning to work for each other. Plus should this concept embrace learning to work collaboratively or in a partnership with each other or working to foster the belief of building inter-professional relationship to be purposeful and productive. Hence, this phenomenon needs to be fully comprehended before it is adopted and implemented in the organisation. Firstly, it should be internally marketed on the principle that the learning experience will provide life long learning opportunities in the context of professional life of teacher in education. Besides, it should set out the professional ethics or code of practice that will be adhered to maintain respect, value, confidentiality, professionalism, and professional boundaries in relationship with colleagues.

The critical thinking behind inter-professional learning best practice in teacher training and development is that it endowed practitioners with a sound foundation of proficient knowledge, values, skills and practices that promotes inclusive learning and sharing academic experiences between educators of various disciplines. Consequently it promotes the active learning processes between staff of different disciplines while working collaboratively or in partnership to improve educational practices and policies. This process has the ability to increase staff satisfaction, motivation and to foster a new culture of learning that promotes creativity, stimulation and improve the quality of teaching and learning in institutions. It also serves to culture a symbiotic relationship leading to a significant shift in the attitude of staffs from unwillingness to keenness to be engaged in communal diversified group activity.

Learning from an inter-professional viewpoint is about recognising variation in individual roles, expertise, background, knowledge and values and the processes required to work mutually with colleagues on joint educational projects and proposals. It is also based on the cooperativeness of a group people engaged in exchanging information, teaching, planning and preparing projects. This is irrespective of the hierarchical or matrix positions they occupy in the organisational management structure. As well as developing a variety of tactics they can bring into play in solving staff conflicts, addressing leadership styles and application of techniques on how to create group dynamics when dealing with uncertainties in their teaching and learning surroundings.

In conclusion, at the nucleus of inter-professional learning are the teachers who are being prepared to take on the academic challenges in a pluralistic society. Universities are multifunctional, multifaceted organic structures which must be the agent of change for inter-professional learning, training to take place. For this to happen it must commence with documentation of this paradigm in the institution’s vision, mission, aim and objective statements and provide the financial, human and physical resources to support the programmes. It should democratically cultivate and launch a sense of
accountability, responsibility for all those who will be participants in the programme, thereby allowing individuals to contribute toward the management and evaluation of the programme. One of the essential role in teacher training and development is to ensure participants benefits from the learning experience ‘emotionally, intellectually, socially, and economically and contribute to community sustainability as suggested Keeley - Browne (2007)

In addition a reward and recognition system should be implemented to increase motivation, loyalty and academic contributions to the programme. It must be prepared to promote and improve inter-cultural communications where by individual can learn how colleagues from different culture communicate verbally and non-verbally, manage their work loads, work together, approach deadlines, negotiate, meet, greet and build relationships. Moreover, the comprehension of intra-cultural communication provides the chance for individuals to learn for example how collective cultural practices can be used to send meaningful messages to members within the team. Understanding these practices can often reduce negative perceptions or misinterpretations whilst working cohesively as mixed team.

One should not underestimate the complexities of that can arise from the implementation of inter-professional learning in teaching in situations for example issues of timetabling, inadequate preparation for staff, technicians, facilitators and resistance of staff to be involved in the learning initiatives. However, detail democratic planning and execution of this paradigm is vital if this learning technique is to be successful that will enable the universities to address new challenges in the field of teaching and learning in education, knowledge development and to achieve their organisational goals and hence make valid contributions to society.

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PART 10 | In-service training of adult trainers: The role of the enterprise and the role of the individual

A Study of Trainer's Vocational Representation about Training's Quality in order to Construct Makers for the Quality in Training of Trainers`.

Introduction

Trainers and educators of adults get involved in rather blurred vocational situations. Training's practices cause intersubjective, cognitive and relational processes which are difficult to plan. Furthermore, these practices are placed in an economic, technologic and cultural environment in fast and demanding evolution. In this blurred situation, the actors of the training field create proceedings, method and norms. But, in their everyday life, trainers and educators of adults face also unforeseen behaviour and unexpected attitudes. So, they develop specific representations.

This contribution intends to describe our research's object: trainer's representation of training's quality, the methodology we employed, and our interpretation of the results. From these results, we'll suggest markers to improve the quality in the training of trainers.

In the first part, we'll present the main characteristics of the French trainer’s occupation: contemporary sociological, legislative evolutions, diversity of the training's practices. We'll present also the place of the question of quality in the field of the training of adults.

In the second part, we'll explain the social psychological theories and methodologies we used to arrive at the results and to interpret them: social and vocational representations and their structure, central nucleus, peripheral schemas; questionnaire with inductive word methodology; focus group.

The third part will be devoted to the presentation and the interpretation of the results.

In the conclusion we'll propose vocational and theoretical markers in order to take into account what the trainers mean about the quality of training of trainers.

The quality of vocational training, context and social stakes

Training quality, a recent history

From 1945 to 1975, the French Government considered training as a national duty for the reconstruction of the country. Vocational training was provided by technicians: above all in the AFPA, Association pour la Formation Professionnelle des Adultes, a large vocational training association, subsidized by the State; while continuous education concerned some militants: teachers after their school job, trainers of trade unions, and religious, nondenominational or public associations. The question of training quality was not explicitly asked.

After industrial reconstruction and the slowdown in growth in the 1980's, training was perceived as a solution for unemployment, at the same time as an investment to modernize the methods of production and to increase the competitiveness of companies.
Training became focused on economic problems (Palazzechi, 1999). At this time, individual training became a legal right. Training has since become a product proposed by ever increasing numbers of training organizations: private, associative, mutualist and public, and the function of training consultant has appeared.

During the 1990's, the question of the appropriate relation between employment and training became clearly apparent. At the same time, new information technologies: Internet, video conferencing, didactic programs, etc. with their modern and pleasant appearance, seduced and led trainers to rethink their interventions with the idea to integrate these technologies into the training's sequences. It was also then that doubts surfaced about the value of some types of training, because of embezzlement, fraud, etc. perpetuated by some organizations and sects.

The cultural, economic, and technical evolution, and the subsequent doubts provoked attempts to regulate procedures: engineering and references of training, certification of quality, etc.

**Quality certifications: standards and procedures**

Treating training as based on the model of industrial production, organisms of quality certification consider the offer of training as a service, in a client – supplier relationship. This relation is guided by written quality standards and labels which are themselves commercialized. The quality certifications such as AFNOR NFX50 and ISO 9001 break down the organization's service in distinct parts: analysis of the training request; working out of training projects; pieces of information about training service; description of human resources. They suggest the writing of the conditions of contracts, checklists of questions about training needs, standards of quality insurance.

Quality here means: procedures to respect. It concerns training as a product. However, training is not only a product. It is also a complex phenomenon which brings together human and social processes. These various processes are sometimes complementary and sometimes in contradiction.

**Quality of trainings in the eyes of the complexity of the trainers’ actions**

If we can create some regularity in the way to conceive and to implement a part of the trainings, the training situations are, nevertheless, singular situations. The control of the evolution of most training situations is very difficult. In those situations different processes take place which are dependent on:
- the history of the persons and the groups themselves,
- the relationships between these persons or groups and the material and human immediate context,
- and also with the cultural and social environment: law, customs, ideologies, etc.

Those processes are partly implicit. The trainer tries daily to assess and to count on them. He provokes them, keeps them going, and also sometimes dreads them. He tries to focus them toward learning.

Most trainers we have met do not deny the necessity of the normative certification standards. On the other hand, they are surprised at the choice of the term quality which can have subjective meaning.

We have wanted to know how the trainers feel about the quality of training: what are the conditions of their vocational involvement?
Problematic and methodology

We locate our research in the conceptual field of the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961). A social representation is a “shape of knowledge, socially elaborated and shared, with a practical aim, and contributing to the construction of a common reality for a social for group” (Jodelet, 1989). A social representation is always a representation about a specific object for a specific social group. Among the heuristic developments of this theory, the one concerning vocational or professional representation (Bataille et al. 1997) concerns us particularly.

Social and vocational representation

Vocational representations are specific social representations that stem from vocational objects, worked out by professionals during their interactions and their vocational practices. Vocational representations are composed by theoretical, official, and practical knowledge, while social representations are made up of knowledge of common meaning. But vocational representations, like social representations are organized around values and beliefs: moral and ethical obligations, ideologies, utopias, etc. Barbier (2003) specifies that values are organized in semantic fields, and by reports of order and hierarchy binding the persons, the activities and the environment. Social representations are integrated to a social meaning (Guimelli, 1994), and vocational representations are integrated to a vocational meaning (Ratinaud, 2003).

The structural analysis of representation

The theory of central nucleus (Abric, 1987) stipulates that all the social representations are organized around some stable, consensual and normative representational elements. This one constitutes the central nucleus of the representation. The central elements, or central schemas, of the representation provide the principal common values, and they organize peripheral elements or schemas. Schema is, in the social representation, like a scene, or a part of a scenario in a film: the minimum element with meaning. The peripheral schemas express different opinions, attitudes or sensibilities from the different members of the group about the object of representation. The peripheral schemas have a realization and a regulation function in the representation.

The structural analysis allows conformation of the existence of an autonomous representation for a group about concerning a specific object; and pinpointing the central and peripheric elements.

Some of our previous research, about vocational objects in the educational field (adult groups in training, distance training, the function of accompaniment), show that the trainers work out vocational representations (Bouyssières, 2001, 2005, 2006). The central elements have always several meanings, and are loaded with vocational values like respect, fairness, generosity, etc.

The theme of quality is in vogue. Quality can have several meanings. The existence of a single representation about training quality, for the trainers, is a tenable hypothesis.

The social representation: generative and organizing principle for opinions

Doise's work (1986) deals with the theory of social representations with another axis. The social representations are considered as a *generative and organizing principle for opinions*: values, or attitudes as an organization of several bonded opinions. The development of social representation needs permanent exchanges between different positions. The studies of organizing principles locate and explain the discursive differences for the members of the same group about the same object of representation. The systems of position taking evolve in social reports of influence. Every individual or subgroup uses opinions and attitudes which were acquired during his previous life and in other social groups. An example for trainers: the different training organizations where they work; the kind of contents they teach; their previous jobs, etc.

**Methodologies of the research: free association about inductive term, and focus group**

Our objective is two fold: to reveal the structure of the vocational representation about training quality for trainers, and to study their principal opinions. For this aim, we have used two different techniques, to collect and analyse the collection of data:

- « free association concerning inductive term », with the technique of *free and ranked evocation* (Abric, 2003);
- the technique of collective interview: *focus group* (Merton, Fiske & Kendall, 1956; and Markova, 2003).

For the *free and ranked evocation technique*, we gathered results from four different research projects return by four graduate students who were also trainers in continuous training at university. They did research on a training subject. These trainee researchers used the same technique of *free and ranked evocation* in their research, all concerning the same object of research: the trainings quality for the trainers with whom they work, their colleagues. Altogether, they interviewed 118 trainers with the same questionnaire. Those 118 trainers work in four different structures: training in the building trade, in restoratel and restaurant, in nursing care, and in social work. The 118 interviewed trainers answered questions about their vocational trajectory, title, status, their certificates or diplomas, their vocational function, and, if they teach, the type of contents they teach (technical, theoretical, practical, or centred towards helping individual people or groups. They also answered the question: *give spontaneously 5 terms which express, for you, what is important about the quality of trainings. Rank these terms from 1 to 5, from the least important, to the most important.*

With 118 trainers who gave 5 terms, we could have arrived at 590 different terms. But many trainers gave the same terms, and some of them gave only 2, or 3, or 4 terms, and, in fact, we arrived at only 68 different terms.

We have gathered those terms in synonymous categories. In order to validate these categories, we verified that they were relevant, asking 18 trainers who gave their reaction concerning our work. Then we calculated the percents of frequency and the medium rank for every category.

The synonymous categories very frequent (85 % and more in the answer of the 118 interviewed trainers), and with a good medium rank (\<2.5\)\(^{69}\), constitute the central

\(^{69}\)Calculation of the medium rank: addition of the ranks which were gived at ever term by the trainers, and division by the number of time the term appears. If this medium rank is small (between 1and 2.5 on 5), this term has been choose often in good position.
nucleus (or central schemas) of the representation. The other categories, peripheral schemas, are in the peripheral area of the representation.

**Focus group of trainers**

In order to verify these first results, we organized, especially for our research, a focus group (Markova, 2003) of six trainers who worked in different organizations of training. We had as one goal to understand how the terms resulting of our first study with questionnaire, were used in their discussions concerning trainings' quality. These six trainers taught different contents: technical, academic, scientific. They have different functions: trainers teaching, trainer coordinators, trainer managers. They also have different type of employment: a temporary or permanent job. They accepted to be recorded during their discussions, one hour, about the trainings quality.

We transcribed the recorded discussions. Then we applied the technique of thematic progression analysis, and a conversational analysis to their comments, with the goal:
- to specify the terms of the agreements and disagreements of the six trainers,
- to consider the degree of enrolment of the six participants depending on the discussion subjects.

**Presentation and interpretation of results**

**Central elements of the representation about quality from trainers**

The questionnaire results about free and ranked evocation from the expression: quality of trainings, reveal two central elements:
- the competences of trainers (knowledge, capacities, skills, vocational experiences, trainer's seniority, etc.) for 87% of the 118 interviewed trainers, and with a medium rank of 1.4.
- the relevance of the trainings' objectives: clarity of the aims, of the outlets, explanation for the institution's projects, for the projects of the adults in training. This synonymous category exists for 85% of the trainers answers, with a medium rank of 1.7.

Those two central elements are specific to the field of adults training. The competences of trainers are above all the skills, abilities and knowledge in technical field of their contents of training, and sometimes other types of competences like didactic or organizational competences. The question of objectives definition or taxonomy was also an adults training creation: if the school objectives are imposed on the learners; the integration of the learners' and organizations' projects in the trainings' objectives.

The thematic analysis of the focus group discussion confirms the importance of these central elements of the representation about trainings' quality. Although these questions can take many meanings, the trainers of the focus group try to find an arrangement and a consensus about them.

The progression analysis shows that:
- It is in the central schema of the relevance of the training's objectives that the certification of quality standards and norms are most evoked. The trainers discussion about the difficulty to find a coherence between the institutional objectives and the personal projects of learners.
- Concerning the competences of trainers, they emphasize the diversity of these competences: technical, social, teaching, organizational competences.
Peripheral elements of the representation about the trainings quality

The intersection between the questionnaire and the focus group results allow the location of three peripheral schemas which are in reciprocal relation with the two central schemas. In fact, these three peripheral schemas interpret the two central schemas, according to different vocational contexts in the field of training. They are most conflictual and they carry keen questions for the vocational identity of the trainers. Following, are those three peripheral schemas, from the most to the least frequent.

The trainings quality: a question of adaptation to the job and technical capacities

The appropriate relation between the training contents and the employments is the central idea of this schema (for 72% of the answers). The good method is training with successive periods in the firm and in the training centre (53%). Training must permit the development of technical capacities (63%), technical knowledge (45%), the scientific spirit (24%) and firm's culture (18%).

The trainers who support these ideas work in technical trainings or in higher education. They teach young adults in initial vocational trainings.

This peripheral schema is an expression of the training organization's focusing on the economic problems which appeared in the 1990’s: the trainings must support the financial endeavours of the company, and the economy of the country, and make the learners employable and competent. Here, it is the good technique and the good vocational gesture which determines the trainings’ quality.

Within these schemas, two conceptions are opposed: on the one hand the trainers who favour scientific and academic knowledge, and on the other hand, the trainers who favour learning by working and for work.

The trainings quality: a question of personal and social development

In this schema, we find terms supporting the listening to learners (51%), and the importance of the personal project and objectives. For the trainers who register in this schema, it is important to develop basic knowledge (48%), self-conscienesness and a sensitivity to others (26%). The trainer must be able to accompany and run the groups of learners (46%). Some trainers mean that a trainings's quality is to develop the social life in a local context, like a village or a district in a town (14%).

It is the theme of humanist training, developed by French organization such as Education Permanente, from the beginning of the 20th century. For certain trainers, the first goal of trainings must be the personalization or the socialization of the human being. For others trainers, the first goal is the learning of basic or cultural knowledge.

In this schema, a good trainer must develop the competences of active and understanding listening of the learners. The discussion in this schema opposes the trainers who favour the personalization and the trainer who favour the socialization.

The trainings quality: a question of engineering

In this peripheral schema of the vocational representation concerning trainings' quality, the trainers have significant functions as trainers coordinators or trainers managers. They locate the trainings' quality in the conception of the training's devices (31%), or in the conception of training's sequences (29%). For these trainers, good ingredients for a successful training are the quality of institutional partnerships (14%), the
material and technological aspects (46%), and the quality of the communication in the organization (41%).

This schema is the expression of the training engendering concerns. The utilised terms here are close to those of quality certification standards. For these trainers it is important to control the results of the trainings, in term of learning, employment, finance. The divergence, here, separates ones who consider that those activities are training activities, and others who file those activities in the classic activities of the management like human resources.

Discussion and conclusion

These results can provoc two level of discussion: one centred on the representation's contents, and the other, more theorical, concerning the representation's phenomenon in vocational context.

For the level of contents' analysis of the representation, we can maintain that the trainers have worked out a vocational representation which integrates official quality's standards. But the trainers' representation goes beyond these standards with the expression of contradiction and complexity around this question. The two central representational schemas about the necessity of trainers' competencies and relevant training's objectives are closely follow these standards. But the peripheral schemas show the diversity of the trainers' meanings about this question. Those meanings are interesting because they contain conflictual opinions: focusing on adaptation to the employment and the learning of techniques; or focusing on human development with the necessity of listening groups or individual people, or social development; or again focusing on the trainings' matériel, human and economic management. We found here different values, ethical choices and ideologies, distant from the official quality's standards. The study of this representation permits unveiling what is in discussion in the trainers vocational context, concerning the trainings' quality. These results can have practical repercussions, concerning the contents of the trainings of trainers for example.

At the theorical level, the results of our research allow us to emphasize special aspects of the vocational representations. They are about vocational objects which are, at the same time: first, not very clearly defined; second, important for the internal and external visibility of the vocational group and its future; and third, indispensable for the conception of good sequence of vocational practices. This type of vocational objects requires strong vocational involvements:

- they are restrictive for the workers, in our case: trainers, who are in the situation of submission freely granted submission (Beauvois & Joulé, 1998),
- and they also require also to call attitudinal involvement (Kiesler, 1971), with different values, beliefs and vocational ideologies.

The dynamism of this type of vocational involvement is based on a double representational phenomenon in the vocational groups: the research of consensus in order to communicate about this object with common words and meanings; and the free expression of different meanings, sometimes with conflicts, centred on vocational practices including this object.

This duality of the representational process: researching of consensus and expression of differences, garantees the dynamism of the vocational meaning in the
vocational groups. It allow to get away from to obstacles in the vocational evolutions: pronounced isolation, and the excessive normalization.

References
A study of the in-service training needs of the instructors employed in Greek Second Chance Schools.

Introduction

Professional development of teachers in the SCS

The interest in studying the scientific field of adult education has begun to arise in Greece since late 1990’s. Most of the adult instructors in Greece do not have university degrees specialized in adult education leading to teach without having the required professional education and training (Liakopoulou, 2006). This situation has been stabilised in second chance schools (SCS), because in order to teach adults at this school context, an instructor should hold any kind university degree in combination with a training certificate.

However more and more students are considered at risk of school failure in the global society. As knowledge and information are essential to integrate people into society, adult education plays an important role in preparing flexible professionals ready to meet the requirements of the modern labour market (Xochellis, 2000). In this context the role of adult instructors is crucial and opportunities should be sought to enhance positive learner and to encourage the process of learning. It must therefore be providing new educational attitudes and aspects, focusing on active participation of trainees in the educational process through an interactive environment (Mouzakis, 2003). It is generally acknowledged that the instructor should be provided with scientific background and adequate educational ability, through which chooses appropriate educational and teaching methods and techniques (Bickman, 1987). In the aforementioned context, the need for systematic trainer training in both their scope and the acquisition of specific skills give role and value to the learner (Eraut, 2000).

Assuming that the instructor is the most important factor for effective education, the issue of professionalism is of great concern to the discipline of adult education, both for the science itself and for the people involved in its procedures. The concept of professionalism in adult education means that the functions of the field are taken place in a professional manner, taken place in a scientific context, in distinctively distributed processes, which are assessed on the basis of predetermined aims.

Teacher professional development is part of lifelong learning which is considered as «a long process beginning at birth and lasts throughout the life of man” (CEDEFOP, 1996:80). According to Henderson, (1989) it can be defined as “any action which contributes directly or indirectly to the professional development of teachers from the first day of commitment and service until the date of retirement” (Henderson, 1989:17). It is a continuous process that begins with the initial training (pre-service training) and ends with the retirement of teachers (in-service training) (Bolam, 1986; Jarvis, 1988; Hopkins, 1987; Stern, 1983).
Teacher education and training is an integral constituent of career development and a basic factor for efficient and effective teaching as well as personal fulfilment in the profession. It can be defined as a continuous process which can be systematically organized and repeated periodically in order to update professional skills. It follows the fact that the adult instructor needs continuous professional development in order to cope with new requirements of the modern world (Kioulanis, 2006).

**Teachers’ training needs assessment**

The process of training needs assessment is defined as «a process of collecting and analyzing information, which leads to identifying the needs of individuals, groups ...» (Kapsalis & Papastamatis, 2000:29) and «is always the first step in designing programs of adult education» ... (Kapsalis & Papastamatis, 2000:33). To identify the training needs of teachers is considered as one of the key factors in designing training programs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; West, 1994), since the content of training programs should meet both the needs of the educator and the needs of the society.

The learning process of the professional development starts with the needs and the interests of trainees, who must be in the focal point of the whole educational process in order for the teaching objectives to be achieved effectively. Through their involvement, their interest can be activated and their participation can be ensured (Rogers, 1989). Teachers’ needs can be categorised as: a) the needs of teachers resulting from any structural / institutional changes of the educational system, which depend on whether the necessary changes are made to the content of the curricula or the teaching methodology.

b) the needs that arise during the course of teaching and directly related to their everyday teaching practice and needs related to personal professional development of teachers (Gough, 1985:37). To become accomplished, the instructor should take purposeful actions, fuelled by desire for excellence. Moreover, it has to be considered that learning to teach is a lifelong developmental process in which one gradually discovers one’s own best teaching style through reflection and critical problem solving.

Since teaching adults in SCS is relatively an almost new sector, there is a lack of empirical research on investigating teaching issues at this level of education and on professional development. As far as we know, there is only one study conducted by Krizea (2008) that investigated the staff development needs for instructors of SCS in Greece. It was revealed that adult instructors in these schools needed training in the following areas: a) teaching planning, b) teaching methodology, c) teaching management and d) evaluation.

**Study**

**Rationale and objectives of the study**

The absence of empirical studies on the issue under investigation in our country as well as the obvious dissatisfaction, on behalf of the teachers for the existing training situation are the basic motives for conducting this particular research, which aims at drawing information from teachers themselves, investigating their views and their needs and writing down certain suggestions for an in-service training context. Furthermore, we hope that the findings of this study will provide the opportunity for future research, which will examine and analyze this issue from different perspectives and will cause additional concerns.
Taking into account the fact that teacher training can be indispensable in delivering effective adult courses, the present study set itself the purpose of identifying and recording the training needs of SCS instructors. The basic objectives of the research were the following:

- To elicit some information about the instructors’ in-service training experience.
- To shed light on the current INSET provision for SCS instructors in Greece
- To identify their viewpoints on practical arrangements with respect to the organization of future training programmes for instructors who work in SCS
- To investigate instructors’ training needs and their expectations regarding the content of future training courses.

Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 300 instructors employed in 30 Greek Second Chance Schools (SCS). Those instructors are specialised in various disciplines (eg instructors of first language, instructors of foreign language, instructors of mathematics, instructors of physics, instructors of social education etc). 179 of the total number of the participants (59.7%) are employed on a permanent basis and 121 (40.3%) on a temporary basis.

Their teaching experience varied: the least experienced teachers have been working for one semester to five years (43.3%), a fairly small percentage (16.3%) have been working for 6 to 10 years, while the most experienced teachers for more than five years (38%). A significant percentage of the participants (26.3%) hold a master degree and 7.7% of the sample declared they either hold a doctorate or are PhD candidates.

Instruments

The questionnaire was used as the basic instrument for conducting this research. It was designed based on researches conducted in foreign countries regarding teacher training (see Fradd & Lee, 1997; Grenfell, 1995; Hayes, 1997) and on bibliography concerning research design (Brown, 2001; Verma & Mallick 1999; Wallace, 2000).

The questionnaire was divided into the following sections:
- The first section was entitled ‘personal data’ and it consisted of items related to personal details about a) second chance school instructors’ teaching experience, b) their qualifications, c) their current place of teaching and d) their training experience and the evaluation on attended training courses.
- The second section concerned with a) the reasons for attending training courses and b) their needs related to planning and organising training programmes (course attendance, course length, institutions and trainers).
- The third section consisted of items related to the instructors’ needs related to ‘the components of a training course’. It was divided into two basic parts: a) theoretical issues on Adult Education and b) methodological issues on adult teaching.

Data derived from the questionnaires were analyzed by using descriptive statistical methods. Chi-square-test ($X^2$) was used to test possible differences in teachers’ training needs according to their demographic characteristics. Moreover, the techniques of t-test and ANOVA were performed in order to identify differences in ranking the various items concerning teachers’ viewpoints on training courses.
Questionnaire results

**In-service experience**

The questionnaire data indicated that the majority of the instructors (87.7%) had attended INSET courses or seminars during their professional lives. However, the picture resulted from the evaluation of their training experience was not satisfactory as most of them hold the opinion that they have not been particularly helped by the seminars. More precisely, 48 instructors (26%) stated that the content of the seminars did not cover their needs and interests, 49.3% scored the scale ‘fairly satisfactory’ and only 22.7% of the total number of the participants found that their training experience was relevant to their needs and helped them to improve their performance in their classrooms. The majority of the instructors declared that those seminars had mainly theoretical character and did not provide practical solutions immediately applicable in classroom (31.3% scored ‘insufficient’ and 39.3% ‘almost insufficient’). Only 17.3% of the participants declared they got satisfaction from the practical dimension of their training experience.

A positive picture was resulted from the training courses in relation to the teaching methods employed. More precisely, (46%) of the total number of the participants showed mediocre satisfaction and 5.7% a high degree of satisfaction. On the other hand the courses were characterized of short duration that did not fulfil their needs (42.3%). Thus the picture resulted from the evaluation of their training experience was not satisfactory as most of the instructors (68.3%) hold the opinion that they have not been particularly helped by the seminars which they characterized mainly theoretical, far from classroom reality (Figure 1).

![Figure 1](image)

*Figure 1*  
Instructors’ evaluation of in-service experience

**Course incentives / Reasons for attending training courses**

The most popular incentive (35%) for teachers in order to attend training courses appeared to be the improvement of ‘teaching skills’; the second priority of the instructors was to ‘update teaching methods’ (33.7%). They also viewed the ‘implementation of the theoretical background into teaching practice’ (24.3%) and exchanging ideas with colleagues (16%) as meriting an important level of priority. However, they showed little interest in ‘strengthening of self-esteem’ (7.3%) and ‘promoting professional growth (43%) (Figure 2).
Although the majority of the participants showed little preference for ‘promoting professional growth’, there were significant differences between the temporary and permanent teachers. The latter ranked it highly (m = 4.5) compared to the temporary ones (m = 5.4). Moreover the t-test revealed significant differences between participants according to their gender; the male instructors ranked it higher (M 4.3) than the female ones (M 4.9).

**Needs related to planning and organising training programmes**

**Course attendance**

The majority of the instructors (75%) welcomed the idea of participating in INSET courses in order to update and upgrade their knowledge and teaching skills. Statistically significant differences were revealed between the most experienced teachers (more than 11 years), who showed less interest in participating in training courses (M 2.3) and the less experienced ones (M 1.6).

**Course length**

It appeared that the teachers prefer training courses (70.6%) of one month duration. Courses of three month duration were listed as first priority by a smaller part of the teachers (16.7% %), meanwhile long-term seminars of over three months were selected by only 12.3% of the total number of the participants.

**Institutions**

The teacher training centers were identified as the main training institutions for organising training programmes by the majority of the instructors (47.3%). Moreover, a significant number of the participants (31.3%) showed their preference for universities as having the prestige, the infrastructure and the suitable teaching staff. The active involvement of institutional conveyors was also considered essential with the Ministry of Education being both the main representative of educational policy and sponsor and the Pedagogical Institute (10%) as the institution to take up the scientific responsibility and the undertaking of educational program design and implementation. However, regional educational institutions (PEK) were voted the least appropriate (5.1%) (Figure 3).
Trainers
In the present study, instructors were asked about their preference regarding the staff they would like to be taught by. A significant part of the sample expressed the view that they could benefit from having qualified colleagues as their trainers. In addition, they wish to receive their learning from highly qualified academic staff. More precisely, the highest percentage (40.8%) was given to fellow teachers with special qualifications and experience. In addition, high percentage (32.4%) was given to the university lecturers, since the instructors seemed to wish to receive their learning from highly qualified academic staff. However, lower votes were cast for trainers from the Pedagogical Institute (28.2%) and the ‘Advisors’ were scored with the least degree of preference (Figure 4).

INSET course teaching methods
The responses of the instructors revealed a significant degree of preference (27.4%) for ‘case studies’ and pair/group work activities (26.9%). In addition, ‘workshops’ (22.8%) and ‘microteaching’ (18.9%) received high percentage as the most preferred teaching method. A small number of teachers (10.2%) chose ‘microteaching’ as a useful teaching method during a training course. It is worth noting that ‘lecturing’ (8.8%) gained the lowest percentage from second chance school instructors, after so much criticism of its usefulness has been made by educationalists recently (Figure 5).
INSET course teaching methods

Needs related to the components of a training course

**Theoretical issues on Adult Education**

In order to discover the potential factors that make an INSET course effective, five statements were presented to the participants to choose the most desirable. The majority of the instructors showed great training need in ‘instruction to special groups’ by ranking it first (71.3%). Instructors welcomed the ‘subject-specific didactics’ as second priority (66%) and ‘General didactics’ (57%) as third priority. On the other hand, they scored a mediocre degree of need for being trained in ‘teaching principles for adult students’ (52.7%) and ‘theories of adult learning’ (50.7%). Significant differences were indicated ($F_{2,63} = 4.251$, $p < 0.05$), since the novice instructor ranked it more important ($m=2.3$) than the more experienced ones ($m=2.9$).

Moreover, it was found that there was a significant difference between the teachers with regard to their teaching experience ‘teaching principles for adults’; those with training experience ranked it higher ($m=2.4$) compared to the inexperienced ones ($m=2.9$) (Figure 6).

Methodological issues on Adult Teaching

Regarding the components related to the methodology of adult teaching, the majority of instructors expressed high percentages of training needs. More precisely, they indicated very high preference in being trained in ‘experiential learning’ (65.3%) along with a high number of participants who stated that ‘identifying students’ needs’ (63%) and
‘motivating students’ self-evaluation’ (61.4%) are important elements for their teaching practice (Figure 7). The more experienced teachers who hold a permanent position ranked ‘Identifying students’ needs’ lower (m=2.8) than less experienced ones (m=2.6).

**Figure 7**
Needs related to methodological issues on Adult teaching and learning

Furthermore, ‘modern teaching methods’ (60.3%), ‘assessment methods’ (54.9%), and ‘participatory learning’ (54.3%) received significant percentages. Statistically significant differences were indicated in relation to instructors’ teaching experience; the more experienced ones who hold a permanent position declared lower needs (m=2.7) in ‘participatory learning’ than the rest of the participants (m=2.4).

In addition, an important percentage of participants (53.6%) indicated that they need training in ‘autonomous learning’ and a significant number of participants emphasized the need in ‘computer mediated learning’ (50%) and ‘lesson planning’ (51%). ‘material design’ and ‘group working’ were the least popular components among the respondents of the questionnaires which were scored highly by the 46.7% and the 43.7% of the teachers respectively (Figure 8).

**Figure 8**
Needs related to methodological issues on Adult teaching and learning

**Discussion - Concluding remarks**
Through the questionnaire of the present research, rich and interesting information was collected on the second chance school instructors training needs and their viewpoints on the provision of training courses. The research data illustrated a number of issues, which need to be considered and could provide a framework for future investigations. In particular, it was highlighted: a) the absence of an INSET policy in the context of Adult Education in Greece; b) the need for focused INSET policy and plans to be introduced in the context considered.

The majority of the participants in the study were not satisfied with the practical arrangements of the current INSET provision and they indicated the need for a new policy and plans to be established. More precisely, they declared the need for the provision of focused INSET programmes which would familiarize the instructors with the underlying principles of Adult Education and would facilitate them in providing effective teaching in the SCS classroom. It was pointed out the importance of a training program which could satisfy the needs as perceived by the instructors themselves (Akon, 1991). Concerning their needs it was suggested that instructors should attend training seminars on a common basis of sectors or fields, however including some separate sessions according to the specific disciplines. Also, the provision of on-going INSET was regarded essential and need for INSET programmes that were planned centrally but executed decentrally was stressed.

Furthermore, the instructors provided a number of suggestions about the components to be the focus of INSET courses in the context of Adult Education. Among them emphasis was laid on the need for the realization of specific INSET programs with a high specificity level in terms of ‘teaching principles for adult students’, ‘theories of adult learning’ and ‘subject-specific didactics’ related to ‘modern teaching methods’, ‘identifying adult students’ needs’ and using appropriate ‘assessment methods’ in the specific educational context.

The need for practical foundations of the training process was stressed, as the teaching tends to become ‘practice-based’ (Lawton, 1989) eliciting the theory from the practice (Nunan, 1989). There is obvious preference for more ‘participatory’ methods to that of ‘lecture’; instructors’ highest interest was focused on case studies, microteaching and demonstrations, stressing the need of practical character of the training courses. Besides, adults learn through their experiences (Rogers, 1989). As a result, any training program should utilize a variety of INSET formats, of learning modes (Ellis, 1986; Richards, 1990), as well as a variation of techniques and approaches and avoid dependence on one training style. Moreover, the teachers stressed the importance of exchanging ideas and experiences with colleagues, that is to say the supply of a channel for “meditation and professional dialogue, which is absent from the majority of teachers during their careers” (Moon, 1994: 347).

The study provided information, which may be valuable in drawing up future plans for second chance school instructors and will also provide a framework for future investigations. For this reason, the introduction of an INSET policy to address the training needs of instructors operating in the context of Adult Education seems timely. A new on-going INSET plan based on the teachers’ real needs and the IDEKE, that is the responsible organization for undertaking actions related to lifelong learning (L.Decree 90/2-5-2001/v.2909), may consider the best way to enable education to keep pace with a rapidly changing society and the needs of the specific educational context with distinct
characteristics and the nature of adult education as well as the diversified role of instructors.

It is essential, therefore, that the decentralization of training activities, the negotiation of needs among teachers, trainers and researchers as well as the systematic planning and the evaluation of each individual training program constitute conditions for the qualitative upgrade of training. Emphasis should be given on the necessity of a training program, which would be designed ‘in a centralized way’ but it would be carried out in a decentralized dimension, based on any geographic and social conditions, supplying the same training opportunities to all teachers. Providing equal training opportunities was thought to be essential on the grounds that it “involves the improvement of teaching quality and the equality in education” (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992:1). The decentralization of training activities, the negotiation of needs among instructors, trainers and policy makers as well as the systematic planning and the evaluation of the training program are the prerequisites for effective training provision. A collaborative INSET model should be suggested including cooperation between instructors and other stakeholders through all the stages and processes of INSET, starting from the planning stage, through implementation to the evaluation and follow up stages (Nunan, 1989; Dubin & Wong 1990).

Concluding, we note the fact that the study needs to consider some limitations. Although the present study, which was concentrated on the instructors’ views and training needs, included a large sample of instructors providing the opportunities for generalizations, other stakeholders’ views, such as directors, supervisors and policy makers were not taken into consideration. Perhaps a direction of future research would be to include the above mentioned groups in order to record their views and suggestions and have a more complete picture of the situation.

References


Professionalism and formalism in the organisation of CVT in enterprises—Complementary or contradictory features?

Clarifying central terms

Professionalism – Professionalization - Profession

Adult Education originates mainly in social movements and grass route developments (Nittel 2000). Political parties, trade unions, churches or feminists played an important role in almost all countries when Adult Education became a much more institutionalized element in the European societies of the 18th and 19th century. Within this phase of take-off of Adult Education existed no formally trained adult educators, but at the best only otherwise trained lecturers like school teachers, priests or laymen. The establishment of training courses or even academic courses for adult educators has taken centuries and is even today an unfinished project since many trainers still educate many people without any formal educational qualification. Thus, professionalization characterizes the still un-going process in which trainers and the planning staff of Adult Education move from voluntary action of laymen or at the best semi-professionals to institutionalized services planned, organized and executed by professionals. The vision of a profession of Adult Educators is still a future prospect since the professional basics (academic knowledge as reference point of individual action, trained at the university, organized in a professional association, code of conduct, publically accessible registration of professionals, etc.), which make a profession to a profession (c. Archer 1982, MacDonald 1995) are missing in Adult Education or only existing in a rather rudimental way in many countries until now.

Overall, professionalism is a term which is very much focused on individuals or groups of persons. These professionals are described in relation to a reference group of similar professionals. Thus, individual action is defined in relation to collective arrangements. Professionalism is a concept or a linguistic field which deals very much with people and individual/collective actions out of the perspective of individual or groups of persons. Critics have stressed that professionalism in adult education was too much focused on educational action on the level of teaching, while organizational processes and management actions neglected (c. Fuchs-Brüninghoff 2001, pp 262-263). From this perspective, professionalism and quality assurance should be closely connected. Presently, the role of the professionals is considered in the context of EU policy as key factor for the quality of adult education (c. Egetenmeyer/Lattke 2009, p. 63). There is also an increased interest in defining competencies of adult educators.

Quality – Quality assurance – Quality development

The concept of quality and its various components (quality assurance, quality development, etc.) is much less persons-oriented, but rather process-oriented. It has a focus on the formalization of processes. It originates not within the educational field, but stems from economical developments. The introduction of the quality concepts into Adult Education is a rather recent development which started in many countries in the 1990s and was connected to an economic turn in Adult Education (c. Arnold 2001, p. 270). Concepts of market- and costumer-orientation from business economics were transferred
to Adult Education. Standards like ISO-9000 are used in many organizations and should apply to almost any business processes regardless the products which are produced by the organizations. In general, educational organizations started so being treated as enterprises and learners started to be seen mainly as costumers or consumers. This approach was very influential, but also heavily criticized. Education and formation are from the critics not seen as products and learners are not seen as consumers, but as ‘prosumers’ which contribute actively in the emergence of education and formation (c. Arnold 2001, p. 271). Learners do not pay for a final product, but pay for learning arrangements in which trainers and learners are jointly developing something which can finally result in education and formation.

Overall, quality is a term which is very much focused on processes, products and their formalization. These processes and products are defined formally according criteria or standards. Thus, quality seems to be a rather neutral term which can be filled very differently. The central characteristic of quality assurance or quality development is a formalization of organizational processes. Individual actions should be guided by formal procedures or formal structures, which are often laid down by written guidelines, mission statements or fixed goals. Persons, interests or individual objectives are not apparently visible and the individual factor shall be regulated by this formalism. In principle, quality assurance or quality development should help in the organizational execution of tasks regardless individuals’ subjective influence. It is non-accidental that discourses about quality are mainly organization-oriented and less person-oriented. This makes the quality discourse sometimes difficult to understand and often rather socio-technical.

**Continuing Vocational Training in Enterprises – The Training Profession**


a) Training specialists and training managers
b) Trainers and instructors
c) Temporary and part-time trainers

The training specialists and training managers are engaged in planning and organizing CVT. They often analyze training needs, define goals of CVT and organize training programs. They co-operate with trainers and instructors before and after trainings in arranging trainings or evaluating the effects of trainings. Overall, this personal is mainly engaged on macro-didactical levels (Siebert 1996). Nonetheless, this does not mean that training specialists and training managers are not sometimes act as trainers and instructors as well, but it is not their main business in work.

The groups b) and c) act mainly on the micro-didactical level. They plan and execute trainings. It is mainly their task to select the content, the methods or the media for trainings. Contrarily, this does also not mean that they are sometimes also involved in the macro-didactical planning of trainings, but again, it is not their main business. The group of trainers and instructors consists out of a subgroup of full-time trainers and out of a subgroup of part-time trainers. Many part-time trainers are for example engineers or IT-specialists and often technically qualified, but not didactically trained despite their teaching activities (Bahl/Dietrich 2008, S. 9-11).

The situation in enterprises is in practice even more difficult, because of different organizational structures and different trends in enterprises. Germe (1991, p. 11) was in the 1990s describing the tendency of a ‘decline in in-company training centres’ and a
trend towards the outsourcing of training staff (c. also Merk 1998). Unfortunately, empirically data is missing or of very limited scope (c. Staudt/Meier 1996). Thus it is difficult to assess seriously if outsourcing was really a big trend or if some prominent examples like the Audi Academy in Germany have been over-generalized to a general trend in the past.

Overall, the analysis of the situation of the training profession in enterprises is very difficult. Data is very scarce. We do not even have any serious estimation how many people are involved in the planning and execution of training within enterprises on national or European level. The definition of the training profession with its boundaries is difficult since there is no generally accepted professional definition on national or European levels existing. The provision and the organization of CVT in enterprises can be the business of highly-specialized professionals, but also a side-task of normal employees. CVT provision and organization can be offered directly by the enterprises, but also bought on the general training market or be done by free-lancers. Thus it is provide and organized within and outside of enterprises. This opens a wide field of research, both in qualitative and in quantitative directions. Nonetheless, the following text will concentrate on the trainings specialists and training managers (group a).

The Continuing Vocational Training Survey 3 (CVTS3)

Lifelong learning includes the development of competences and skills through continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises. Regarding enterprise provided CVT and the way how it is provided quantitative data is rare in many countries. The European survey of continuing vocational training in enterprises (CVTS) is the main data source that provides detailed internationally comparable data on enterprise level (c. Pérez 2004).

The first enterprise survey on continuing vocational training (CVTS1) was carried out in 1994 in the then 12 member states of the European Union (c. Eurostat 1997). It was focused on CVT financed totally or partly by enterprises and provided inside or outside the enterprises to its employees within working time or spare time. The European Commission initiated a second European continuing vocational training survey (CVTS2) in order to satisfy the growing policy interest in data on continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises and to meet the demand for CVT data to cover all member states (c. Grünwald/Moraal/Schönfeld 2003, Behringer/Käpplinger/Moraal/Schönfeld 2008). CVTS2 was implemented in 2000 in the 15 member states of the European Union, in Norway and in 9 of the candidate countries at that time. In CVTS2, more than 76,000 enterprises in 25 countries participated and provided comparable statistical data on supply and demand regarding vocational capabilities and skills, on the forms, contents and scope of the continuing vocational training, on their own continuing vocational training resources and on the utilisation of external continuing vocational training providers and on continuing vocational training costs (c. European Commission 2003).70 The third European survey on continuing vocational training (CVTS3) took place in 2006, relating to CVT activities of more than 100,000 enterprises in 28 countries in 2005 (c. Behringer/Käpplinger/Pätzold 2009). Micro data of the survey is available mainly on

70 Results of the survey are published in many publications. The most comprehensive summary of the results can be found on the internet (URL: http://www.bibb.de/dokumente/pdf/EU). The key tables of CVTS2 can also be found at the homepage of Eurostat. A compilation of main studies and publications using the CVTS2 data is available at the platform www.trainingineurope.com as resource: http://training.netletter.at/mmedia/2007.05.24/3179572722.pdf (date of access: 17.09.2009).
national level so far, but Eurostat intends to merge most national data into one European data file by 2010 for scientific usage.

Organisation of training – Section D of the CVTS3 questionnaire

The D section of the CVTS3 questionnaire has the heading ‘training policy of the enterprises’. The D questions ask mainly for institutionalised or formalised features of the organisation of CVT by enterprises (e.g. existence of a training centre/training plan/training budget, specific person/unit responsible for CVT, formalized procedures for skills needs assessment, evaluating training effects). It is very important to note that these 11 questions have only been asked to training enterprises (courses and/or workplace learning) and not to non-training enterprises. Most non-training enterprises do not have such formalised means, but it is known from CVTS2 and from additional studies in CVTS3 in France that even a few non-training enterprises have nonetheless some of these formalised means.

Although results diverge very much between countries and between size classes or sectors, the following table gives a first impression, how frequently these institutionalised or formalised means of CVT organisation are used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average (EU27)</th>
<th>D1 Training centre</th>
<th>D2 External advice</th>
<th>D3 Work Assessment</th>
<th>D4 Future Skills</th>
<th>D5 Employee interview</th>
<th>D6 Evaluation test</th>
<th>D7 Budget</th>
<th>D8 Plan</th>
<th>D9 Participants’ satisfaction</th>
<th>D10 Occupational performance</th>
<th>D11 Specific person/unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat, CVTS3. Date of extraction from NewCronos 13 Feb. 2009, additional calculations by the author of this article.

Note: Percentages in the table refer to the summation of the two answers “always” and “often” of four-point-scales or the answer “yes” of binary scales. The data of UK was not used, because of its limited comparability and data quality.

It is interesting to note that 42% of all training enterprises in 27 European countries have a specific person and/or a specific unit within the enterprise having the responsibility for the organisation of CVT (question D2). Having a specific person or a specific unit within the enterprises dealing with CVT issue could be one indication for a professionalized approach towards CVT within the enterprises. 42% means reversely that 58% of the training enterprises organise CVT by external agencies like training providers or the organisation of CVT is a subtask of normal managers, superiors or departments. As already mentioned, results differ a lot between countries. Specific persons or units can be most frequently be found in Italy (55% of all Italian training enterprises have such persons/units), Portugal (54%) and Luxembourg (53%). They are least frequently in Estonia (7%), the Netherlands (13%) and Finland (16%). Huge differences exist also between size classes (36% of training enterprises with 10 to 49 employees have such persons/units, while this is valid for 73% of enterprises with more than 250 employees), while the differences between sectors are comparatively smaller (57% for NACE J – finances and 38% for NACE G- Wholesale).

It would be problematic to use this question D2 solely as indicator for the professionalism of the organisation of CVT. The fact that enterprises have such a specific person/unit is very much affected by enterprises’ size and the general organisational structure of the enterprises. Smaller enterprises do not have the resources for such a
specialisation of tasks. Nonetheless, at least some small enterprises can offer highly professionalized CVT, often with the help of external providers (c. Käpplinger 2007). Additionally, the general CVT performance of Italy and Portugal are in many respects (incidence, access, intensity, costs) rather low in European comparison, while the Netherlands and Finland perform well above average in Europe (c. Behringer/Käpplinger/Moraal/Schönfeld 2008, pp 14-18). Thus, having only a specific person or unit in charge of the CVT organization might indicate a rather old-fashioned way of organizing CVT, while modern organizational theory is rather in favor of flat hierarchies and a diffusion of tasks on different persons/units instead of a specialization of responsibilities just for one person or one unit (c. Schmidt 1993).

When looking at the results of the remaining questions D1 to D11 of the CVTS3 questionnaire (see table 1 above), it is important to discuss the relationships between these different elements of formalization. There were several proposals for an internal structure of the questions on training policy of CVTS put forward in the past. For example, Grünewald et al. (c. 2003, p. 59) proposed a structure for CVTS2:

- **Demand analysis** (‘Bedarfsermittlung’, variables B1 and B2 on assessing skill needs).
- **Implementation** of CVT (‘Durchführung’, variables B4 on training plan and B5 on training budget).
- **Evaluation** of CVT (‘Evaluierung’, variable C7 on evaluating the effects of CVT).

Demand analysis was understood as the level of goal setting (‘Ebene der Zielformulierung’), implementation as the level of input quality (‘Inputqualität’) and evaluation as the level of success control (‘Erfolgskontrolle’). The question on the existence of a training centre (variable B6 of CVTS2) was – quite surprisingly - not discussed in this context. Grünewald et al. (c. 2003, p. 59) considered these five variables of CVTS2 mentioned above as a good basis for the development of a concept in order to measure professionalism in CVT.

In contrast, Radinger/Pauli 2004 used a diverging approach for the CVTS2 variables. They see ‘professionalism and institutionalization’ in having a training plan (B4), a training budget (B5), a training centre (B6) and a collective agreement (B7). One the one side, they exclude the variables B1 and B2 on demand analysis and variable C7 on evaluation in contrast to Grünewald et al. 2003. One the other side, they include the variable B6 on training centre and the variable B7 on collective agreements in their model.

Arguments in favour or disfavour of both approaches of Grünewald et al. 2003 and of Radinger/Pauli 2004 can be found. But what is somehow challenging is the fact that all these authors do not refer their structuring to a theory or to other references in the literature. At least, none is mentioned in their texts. This is pragmatically explainable since CVTS is not based on a theory of CVT, but the result of a complex political consultation process with various actors with different interests. This leads to an eclectic structure of the CVTS questionnaires with all its advantages and disadvantages.

35 Research Laboratory 2005 tried to prepare the questions on training policy of CVTS3 by referring to the literature of the human resource management discussions (e.g. Becker 2005). In consequence, 35 Research Laboratory (2005, p. 15) sees three different fields of professional actions:

- "Phase A ‘planning’: the demand analysis includes budgeting and the detailed formulation of the goals of the single training measures"
- Phase B ‘executing’: the professional selection of the training offers in need and the professional execution of all tasks coming along with the realisation of the chosen measures.  

- Phase C ‘assessing’: the professional measurement and assessment of the results and the support of the transfer of the acquired skills to the working process."

The authors of 3S Research Laboratory allocate the CVTS3 variables D4 (future skills), D5 (employee interviews), D6 (training plan) and D7 (training budget) in Phase A. Assigned to Phase B is only D2 (person/unit in charge). Phase C is covered by the four variables D8 to D11 which deal with evaluation. Additionally, each phase is given a different weight (Phase A: 0.5, Phase B: 0.2, Phase C: 0.3) and used for a professionalism indicator (3S Research Laboratory 2005, p. 15). The variables D1 (training centre) and D3 (external advice) are not used for this indicator on professionalism, but have been related to a separate external category ‘infrastructure/decision makers’. Overall, 3S Research Laboratory (2005, p. 15) states: ‘There are different models discussed in the literature to systematise the elements of the training process. Despite small differences and the use of different terms, the models are quite similar in their core contents.’ The first part of the quote is obvious when only looking at the three models discussed here, but the second part of the quote seems to be questionable when looking at this overview:

|---------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| **Demand analysis**                                            | - B4 on training plan  
- B5 on training budget  
- B6 on training centre  
- B7 on collective agreement | - Planning  
- D6 on training plan  
- D7 on training budget  
- D4 on future skills  
- D5 on employee interviews  
| **Implementation**                                             |                                                                                | - Executing  
- D2 personnel  
| **Evaluation**                                                 | - C7 on evaluating                                                              | - Assessing  
- D8,  
- D9,  
- D10 and  
- D11 on evaluation |

The proposal of Radinger/Pauli 2004 is based on an inclusion of four variables without further distinctions or weights. The inclusion of the variable on collective agreements is a difference to the other authors and might rather belong to institutionalisation than to professionalism.

Evaluation is indisputably included in one group by the different authors except Radinger/Pauli 2004, where it is not included at all. Implementation and executing diverge clearly. Grünewald et al. 2003 locate here training plan and training budget, while 3S Research Laboratory includes here the new CVTS3 variable D2 on personnel. This allocation of the variable personnel is rather surprising, because the personnel is normally not only involved in the execution of CVT, but also in the planning and the assessing of CVT. Training plan and training budget is located by 3S to planning, which makes the
category planning together with the new variable on employee interviews bigger than in the model of Grünwald et al. 2003.

Overall, there are communalities and differences between the three models, which have to be considered seriously when trying to develop an indicator on professionalization or formalization.

Furthermore, it is very much debatable if a holistic concept of professionalization or formalisation can be applied to big and small enterprises simultaneously. Small enterprises are differently organised and do not have the resources for a unit which is solely dealing with CVT. This implementation is much easier for big enterprises. Thus, the discussion of developing an indicator for formalisation should acknowledge the organisational differences between SME and big enterprises. It can be assumed by empirical evidence (c. Käppling 2007) that SME can also have a professional organisation of CVT, although the organisation of CVT is rather informally done in SME and differently done than in big enterprises. This assumption could be the starting point for further research, but will not be further discussed in this paper.

The D questions of CVTS3 – with the exception of the question on the usage of external advice - concerning the planning and budgeting of training, the existence of a training infrastructure and evaluation measures can give an overall picture of the level of formalizing the process of CVT within the enterprises. Somebody could argue that these elements of formalisation are necessary parts of the ‘professionalization’ of CVT within enterprises, because they indicate that the training processes are continuously organized over time, independent of the acquired tacit knowledge of an individual, transparent, contain feedback mechanisms and rules for continuous quality improvement:

'It is expected, that a systematic use of management techniques to execute the different tasks within the organisation of training lead substantially to better results than without any systematisation. It is expected, that enterprises with such instruments profit from them in two ways: First, the instruments should help to define the appropriate quantum of training, avoiding to miss benefits from a useful expansion of the activities and to suffer losses by investing too much in CVT. Second, the instruments should help to improve effectiveness and efficiency of the use of CVT. Losses coming from wrong decisions in the execution of training measures (e.g. wrong measures, wrong suppliers, wrong participants) should be avoided.' (3s research laboratory 2005, p. 13)"

Of course, a professionalised CVT provision can lead to the use of certain types of instruments and methods. Therefore, it can be assumed that the usage of a set of instruments is an indicator if a task was organized in a professional way. ‘Professionalization’ is thus very much associated with approaches connected to quality management, which mainly ask for a formalisation of processes.

Nonetheless, it is important to note that CVTS3 did not ask for other dimensions of ‘professionalization’. These dimensions are mainly dealing with persons or professions of the persons (professionals) in charge for CVT (c. Germe 1991, Gieseke 2005, Gross 2003, Compe/Helsper 2007, MacDonald 1995, Nittel 2000):
- educational (academic) background with the necessary grades/diploma,
- good and up-to-date knowledge of the state of the art of the profession,
- high levels of individual work autonomy for professional actions,
- regulation of actions by codes of professional conduct or codes of ethics,
- high organisational status or
- belonging to associations
Other authors relate ‘professionalization’ in CVT provision to the question of access to power resources by the professionals (Büchter/Hendrich, 1998). Formalization is a central feature of discussions on quality management, while it plays no or only a very minor role in discussions on professionalization. Since the above mentioned dimensions of professionalization are completely missing in CVTS3, it is not possible to speak of ‘assessing professionalization’ in relation to the D section of CVTS3 or only in a very limited, narrowly focused sense. Thus, it would be better to speak of ‘formalization’ in relation to these D questions of CVTS3. More information on professionalization is thus dearly needed on European level. CVTS is not sufficient in analysing professionalization of the CVT personal in enterprises, although it delivers at least for some parts of professionalization some basic information.

**Organisation of training – Results of a cluster analysis with CVTS3 data**

Multivariate cluster analysis within a research project financed by CEDEFOP (c. http://www.bibb.de/en/wlk31488.htm) has been conducted for seven countries (Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Italy, Romania and Spain) for which anonymised microdata were available. The CEDEFOP publication based on the final project report (August 2009) is expected to be issued in the first quarter of 2010. The results of the cluster analysis show that the level of formalization is rather low in the majority of enterprises in these seven countries. Simultaneously, it is interesting to observe that enterprises with a high level of formalization are also providing CVT to more employees and more hours in courses than enterprises with a rather low level of formalization. As stated, this overview will be described in more detail in the forthcoming CEDEFOP publication.

**Conclusion and outlook**

The available data about the training personal in enterprise-provided CVT is rather limited. The CVTS data gives quite substantial comparative data on the formalization of the CVT provision in Europe. The level of professionalization in organizing CVT can be assessed only partly by using this data. The existence of a specific person or a specific unit in charge of CVT cannot be solely used for assessing the level of professionalism within enterprises in the organization of CVT. European and also national surveys on the situation of the planning and training personal within enterprises are missing. This is also caused by problems of definition and by missing boundaries between professional personal, part-time personal and non-professionals with training and/or planning tasks in very differently organized enterprises of different size. Additional theoretical and empirical work is needed in order to analyze the situation of the training personal in enterprises.

Already possible analysis show some interesting links between a high level of formalization and professionalization and a high level of participation of employees and a high level of time investment for training. These analyzes indicate that an improvement of the formalization and the professionalization within the organisation of CVT can be fruitful for the general promotion of CVT within enterprises. Nonetheless, further quantitative and qualitative research is dearly needed in order to shed more light on this field of professional action in CVT.
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Acquirement and use of knowledge by adult education professionals: How do adult educators use technical information for their professional development?

Introduction

Adult educators play a key role for implementing lifelong learning. They are the ones supporting individuals to gain knowledge and skills. For that reason, there is a big discourse about professionalisation and quality provision in the context of adult education in Europe. There are many approaches dealing with education and assessing adult educators and a wide discussion about informal learning and competences which are acquired in an informal way. One way of informal learning is the use of technical information. This can, for example, be the use of technical journals or books, consulting the internet, the attendance of a conference or the exchange of information with colleagues in general.

The assumption is that technical information plays a central role in what could be called “everyday life professionalisation” which happens informally and – most of the time – in a self-directed way. Adult educators have to deal with two types of information: concerning content (for example about the topic of training) and dealing with pedagogical knowledge (for example didactics). In the presented study the focus lies on technical information providing pedagogical knowledge, which improves acting professionally.

Technical information connects theory and praxis of adult education. It supports the development of quality for all fields of activity like teaching, management, counselling and guidance, programme planning or evaluation (see Nuissl, 2005; Lattke & Nuissl, 2008). This study focuses on those teaching in adult education.

The project “Handling of technical information by adult educators”, which builds the basis for a doctoral thesis, works with a qualitative pilot study and a broad quantitative survey. It should provide answers to the following questions: Which meaning does technical information have for adult educators? How can professionalisation through technical information be supported?

In this paper first answers to these questions are provided. Background, research design and methodology as well as results of the pilot study will be presented.

Professionalisation of teachers in adult education

As part of the Lisbon Strategy, the European Union aims to become the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economic region in the world till 2010 (see European Council, 2000). This transition to a knowledge-based economy and society has to go hand in hand with a strategy of lifelong learning (see European Commission, 2000). The “memorandum on lifelong learning” started a comprehensive strategy throughout Europe to implement lifelong learning in all areas and aspects of public and private life, institutionally and individually. Teachers in adult education play a vital role in implementing lifelong learning strategies. In the field of adult education and vocational training, they are the ones who support learners on their way of gaining knowledge, skills
and competences. This is why the professionalisation of teachers in adult education plays such a central role.

Since the mid-1970s, professionalism and professionalisation are important topics in adult education, which gained popularity in the last couple of years, especially in the context of the debate regarding quality (see Meisel, 2005). In the past, the debate regarding quality focused almost exclusively on the organizational aspects of adult education. Only in recent years, the pedagogical side of quality came into the focus of the discussion. It is mainly the people working in the field of adult education who create teaching-learning-situations and are therefore responsible for implementing high quality standards in the process of lifelong learning. These practitioners of adult education have different educational backgrounds and have various qualifications and competences (see Kraft, 2006; Egetenmeyer & Strauch, 2009) and therefore no common knowledge base. These different knowledge bases are part of what is being examined in the debate about professionalisation. At this point, there are only few empirical studies regarding professionalism and professionalisation. The existing ones are mostly small parted and based on qualitative research.

Professionalisation amongst teachers, but also other employees in the field of adult and continuing education, is being debated within Europe and other parts of the world right now. Several studies on that topic have been completed in Europe (see e.g. Nuissl & Lattke, 2008; Research voor Beleid, 2008). More impulses are coming from the European Commission through policy documents (see European Commission, 2006, 2007). There is ongoing exchange between scientists from all over the world to get impulses for the discussion on professionalisation in adult and continuing education (see Egetenmeyer, Nuissl, & Strauch, 2009).

Ways which help to build a theoretical foundation and to establish and renew the knowledge base of teachers in adult education are the gathering of information and the participation in or reception of the discourse in the field of adult education. Technical information is most likely a major reason for the kind of professionalisation that we could call “everyday life professionalisation”. It is categorized by being informal, not always target oriented and permanently evolving in everyday life and work. It is a (mostly self controlled) kind of education.

The project examines technical information and the handling of this information by teachers in adult education. Technical information transmits the results of new research studies and practical experience of other adult educators. It informs about current questions and extends in and beyond the field of adult education. A transfer of know-how in technical information gets started. Technical information functions as a main interface between the theory and praxis of adult education.

Transfer activities from scientific research into praxis are carried out through publications or at professional meetings and conferences. But there are numerous other channels for spreading technical information. These can be for example newsletters, the internet or informal communication with colleagues.

The main goal of the project is to create an approach to the debate about professionalisation in adult education that is based on empirical data and to find out how professionalisation occurs informally in order to broaden knowledge bases. This study aims to gather and present a wide set of data about the handling of technical information by teachers in adult education. This should help to answer the question how knowledge is generated and kept up to date as well as how practitioners in this field form theories and
therefore professionalisation through technical information is reached. The leading question here is: Which role does technical information play for teachers in adult education?

**Teachers in Adult Education in Germany**

All teachers in German adult education are targeted within the study. We assume 650,000 teachers to form the universe (see WSF, 2005). Because there is no database providing addresses of teachers, the study has to target adult education institutions that employ these teachers. A profound knowledge about these institutions of continuing education is also essential because the study aims to draw a detailed picture of the adult education sector. The distribution of different types of institutions that offer adult education has to be taken into consideration when selecting the sample.

**Institutions that offer continuing education**

The numbers on German institutions that offer adult and continuing education diverge tremendously. This is, apart from unsatisfactory data, due to the problem of defining the borders between adult education and related fields (see Dietrich & Schade, 2008).

A study by *Wirtschafts und Sozialforschung* (WSF) from 2005 mentions 18,800 institutions that offer adult and continuing education (see WSF, 2005, p. 32), while the *Bildungsbericht* 2003 talks about more than 35,000 institutions (see Avenarius et al. 2003). The DIE-project “Weiterbildungskataster” 2008 reached close to 17,000 institutions, the real number must therefore be higher. Dietrich, Schade, and Behrens (2008) estimate that there are almost 25,000 institutions (Dietrich, Schade, & Behrendorf, 2008, p. 21 ff.). The project also concludes that the exact number can probably never be identified.

Practitioners in adult education work for various institutions. Dietrich and Schade (2008) categorize them according to the Adult Education Survey (AES) (see von Rosenbladt & Bilger, 2008, p. 99 ff.) and come up with twelve types:

- Commercial adult education institutions (41.3 %),
- community adult education centers (*Volkshochschulen*) (23.5 %),
- voluntary initiatives and alternative groups (7.5 %),
- educational organisations of various sectors of the economy (employers, chambers of industry and commerce) (5.2 %),
- religious adult education institutions (3.9 %),
- other public institutions (e.g. libraries or museums) (3.8 %),
- others (3.7 %),
- freelancers (3 %),
- state (continuing) education institutions (3 %),
- colleges, universities (2.4 %),
- trade union adult education (e.g. the “Work and Life” association, *Arbeit und Leben*) (1.9 %),
- foundations of political parties (0.6 %)

(see ibid. p. 53; the percentages are taken from the project “Weiterbildungskataster”, see Dietrich, Schade, & Behrendorf, 2008, p. 27; n = 14,880, multiple answers were possible; for explanation of the different types of institutions see Egetenmeyer & Strauch, 2009).

Commercial adult education institutions form the most common type of adult education institution, followed by the community adult education centers.
(Volkshochschulen). The nine other types of providers only have a market share of less than eight percent each, seven of them even less than four percent. The remaining institutions are listed with 3.7 percent. 6 percent only offer vocational training; only six percent work exclusively in the field of general, political and cultural adult education. 37 percent offer courses in both fields (see Dietrich & Schade, 2008, p. 54).

The adult education market is divided into small, mid-sized and large institutions. When looking at the sheer number of institutions, the small ones are dominant (40 % only employ up to ten teachers). 18.3 percent employ eleven to 20 teachers. This means that more than half of the adult education institutions only employ up to 20 teachers. A look at share of teachers shows a different picture that brings the large institutions into the focus. Only 20.8 percent of the institutions employ more than 50 teachers, but 76 percent of all teachers in this field work for these large institutions. Institutions with more than 100 teachers (11.3 %) employ almost two thirds of the teachers in this sector (see WSF, 2005, p. 33). On average, there are 71.9 teachers working in the surveyed institutions.

**Employees in adult education**

To find out the number of people working in the field of adult education seems also very difficult since there is no statistics that captures all employees in this field at once (see DIE, 2008, p. 70). New numbers mention 650,000 teachers in German adult education (spread across 1.35 million contracts). This includes people that teach and/or plan adult education or work in a coaching/advising position respectively (see WSF, 2005). This shows that most teachers (48 %) work with more than one contract. On average, a teacher works for 2.1 to 2.2 institutions (see ibid. p. 13).

Employment requiring social security contributions is an exception (13.5 % of all contracts in the field of adult education, of which 23.9 % are part time employees), freelancers dominate (73.2 % of all contracts in the field of adult education). Other forms of employment are volunteers (9.8 %) and other employment contracts (2.9 %; for instance civil servants, temporary workers etc.) (see ibid. p. 32 f.).

**Research design and methodology**

The leading question of the study “Which role does technical information play for teachers in adult education?” is structured into three subordinated questions:

1. How do teachers in adult education use technical information? This will be determined for the variables access, sources, ways of reception, content and usage.
2. What significance do print, online and social sources have?
3. Which differences can be figured out looking at attributes of person, employment and institution?

This study aims to find out how teachers in adult education educate themselves through the use of technical information. The study will be based on a quantitative survey. To come up with hypotheses a qualitative pilot study was carried out. The results of the pilot study will be presented in later. Figure 1 shows the research design at a glance.
The target group of the study is build up by teachers in adult education, a very heterogeneous group. The teachers differ, among other things, in the institutions they work for, their type of employment and their core field(s) of activity. All types of institutions in the field of adult education should be included in the study. Teachers working full-time and part-time as well as freelancers will be surveyed.

As the numbers of adult education institutions, the numbers of adult education staff can only be estimated. The universe for this study can therefore not be determined exactly (see chapter 3). Approximately, there are 650,000 people teaching in the field of adult education in Germany. They work for circa 25,000 institutions that offer adult education (in about 1.35 million contracts). The study targets five percent of the institutions working in the field, which means 1,250 institutions should be surveyed. These should be spread according to the identified types of institutions (see figure 2).

![Diagram of the research design](image)

**Figure 1**
*Research design*

![Graph showing the spreading of the sample by type of institution](image)

**Figure 2**
*Spreading of the sample according to types of institutions (Complete: 1,250; the numbers show the quantity of institutions of the specific type that will be included in the survey.)*
The target group of the study can only be reached through the institutions they are working for. The survey will be carried out with the help of an online tool. The institutions will be requested to disseminate the link to the survey to their teachers. Since the study works with a two-stage process, a double dropout has to be anticipated: during the first access to the institutions and during the second access to the teachers. Figure 2 shows the process of the survey.

Results of the pilot study

Design of the pilot study and investigated material

For the pilot study of this project, a questionnaire (n=12) was sent out and a workshop with ten teachers in adult education took place, accompanied by some exploratory interviews. The main goal of this pilot study was to gain a deeper insight into the use of technical information by teachers in adult education. The questionnaire was tested and categories for possible answers were sharpened and amended. In order to enable this, the questionnaire was sent out and evaluated prior to the workshop. The results were used to prepare the workshop and to develop the types of questions that were asked when it took place.

The workshop offered the opportunity to ask the participants for a whole day about their usage of technical information and to examine how they carried out certain practical tasks. This offered many new perspectives and gave suggestions on how to enhance the questionnaire and continue with the project. The workshop was realized by an external moderator. Four members of DIE were there to ask questions and observe the participants. There were realized group discussions and working in small groups on different topics.

These were the guiding questions for the workshop:

- Why/In what situations do teachers in adult education look for technical information?
- How do teachers do their research? Which instruments do they use?
- What do teachers do with technical information? How do they use technical information?
- What do teachers demand of technical information?
The participants of the workshop were selected before the event and were invited by phone. Apart from that they also received a letter that described the background of the meeting, as well as the goals and the program for the day. Invited were teachers in adult education from various institutions that work in different fields. This was to achieve the representation of a broad spectrum of the adult education community.

As part of the pilot study, the following material was surveyed:

- Twelve questionnaires that were answered by those who were invited to the workshop.
- Records of what was monitored by the DIE colleagues during the workshop. These records were compared and discussed after the workshop and merged into one single protocol.
- Photos of the products that were prepared during the workshop (wall newspapers etc.).

The collected material was analysed in order to detect consequences for the proceeding of the workshop and for the modification of the questionnaire. In the following, the results of the pilot study will be presented.

Reasons for the research

The reasons for the research were mentioned at the beginning of the workshop. The participants were asked about current research duties. The following reasons for the research were mentioned during the workshop:

- Continuing education of myself and my colleagues,
- concepts and tenderings that have to be developed,
- programme planning,
- evaluation of demand,
- creation of the professional website,
- Preparation of a seminar, speech, article, guided tour, event or presentation,
- advice for colleagues,
- counselling and guidance for participants of courses.

Furthermore there are non target oriented search activities about current topics.

Ways to do research

In order to detect the ways that research is done, three real life research tasks were selected and the participants formed groups in which they approached these tasks. For their research, the groups were provided with computers that had internet connection and they were free to use the DIE library. The participants had one hour to complete their research. Each group was accompanied by a DIE employee who observed but did not help during the research. The groups first planned the research and then carried it out. Sometimes plans were changed. The path that was followed during the research was documented in a wall newspaper and later on presented to and discussed by the plenum. The observation of the research process uncovered some general research procedures that are included in the following.

First of all there can be made some general comments about how research was conducted. All three groups used exclusively the internet, none of them included the DIE library in their research.
The participants conducted their research in a very unstructured manner and were not able to come up with a precise research question. The research was done by using non-pinpointed expressions so that the number of results was too large to filter out the relevant hits. The participants did not develop a research strategy and were not able to detect relevant hits. The participants were not able to classify information/results. Hits that showed texts by authors unknown to the participants were disregarded by them although these authors were sometimes distinguished experts in their fields.

Libraries are only a minor source for literature research. Many participants want to improve their research habits and would like to get suggestions or support and share opinions about this topic. The participants would like to have tools that focus exclusively on adult education, so that hits from fields like school or kindergarten can be excluded.

A common starting point for research is to ask others that are assumed to be qualified in the target field. These can be colleagues, co-workers, the personal social network or other networks but also librarians. Personal contacts are also considered a solution when it comes to structuring the research, evaluating authors and sources or if the research did not lead to any results so far.

Especially for the online research some common observations can be stated:
- The internet is very often the starting point for research.
- Apart from google, there are only a few known search engines. Google is the most common starting point to conduct research.
- Websites of universities or relevant institutions and catalogues of libraries only come in second place.
- Many participants use the website of their home university to look in catalogues, course listings and literature lists.
- Amazon and other online bookstores are used as a research tool in order to find relevant authors and to research technical books.
- The participants are quite impatient and also have high expectations from online research.
- The reliability of online resources is being doubted.

**Use of technical information**

The use of technical information was retrieved during the workshop by a silent mind mapping with the guiding question “What do you do with technical information?”

The participants use technical information for the following purposes:
- Technical information is being analysed, structured and amended.
- Technical information is being filed, excerpted and in parts implemented.
- Files by subject are created.
- Technical information is being stored for a possible usage in the future.
- New technical information is added to the existing knowledge base.
- New technical information is being combined with other technical information.

When comparing print and online publications one can say that print publications (especially books) have a high reputation, but are rarely being used. Only for their personal methodical education, the participants say that they like to read “good/real” books. Generally one can observe a large mismatch between the high importance that
the participants see in technical information and the little usage of it. Technical information is most often needed in a timely manner, so the internet is usually the medium of choice.

**Expectations towards technical information**

Expectations were discussed and favourite sources were detected. After that, the participants had a chance to check some showcase products (homepage of the DIE etc.) and see if their expectations were met. The resumes of the small groups were presented to the plenum by means of wall newspapers. These results give some clues about the general expectations towards technical information:

- Technical information should be easy to find and be available quickly and at all times.
- Technical information should be up to date (this can for instance be shown by the date of publication) and the actuality should be easy to recognise (for instance by mentioning the date of publication in online resources).
- Technical information should be well structured and help to gain a quick overview. It should be arranged neatly (user guidance is appreciated) and allow for fast orientation.
- Abstracts that introduce a text at the beginning and show what kind of text the reader can expect (practical experience report, thesis etc.) are being perceived as helpful.
- Technical information should be precise, understandable and easy to read.
- It be presented visually and structured.
- Examples of good practice should be a part of technical information.
- Evaluated information/data should be available online.
- Interdisciplinarity is a quality factor for technical information.
- Technical information should be scientifically well-founded.
- Technical information should be reliable. Reliability can be measured by the author and the publishing institution etc. Information about the authors as well as contact information is appreciated.

The participants have the following special expectations of all material that is used for teaching:

- It has to be available quickly.
- Teaching material is wanted to be available online and should be printable.
- Authority (author, publisher, institution) and scientific foundation of teaching material is considered secondary.
- Technical information should be easy to apply.

**Conclusions**

The pilot study offered a significant entry into the field. Expectations were being clarified and specified. Many suggestions were given on how to modify the survey method.

The teachers involved in the pilot study do use technical information to solve current tasks as well as for their personal education not linked to a special occasion. There is a lot of incertitude in investigating technical information and in knowing what source may be the most adequate and informative. The teachers do have a concrete imagination on what would be a “good” and adequate source but that does not always meet their practice in daily work. Personal contacts play a major role in finding information,
structuring the research, evaluating authors and sources or they are used if research did not lead to any results so far.

In the main study the meaning of technical information for the professionalisation of teachers in adult education will be surveyed more deeply with a wider spread. Access, sources, ways of reception, content and usage will be surveyed. The leading questions to be raised are among others:

- How do teachers in adult education look for technical information? What type of information do they use?
- What sources do they use? What sources do they prefer?
- How do teachers use technical information? In what ways do they deal with it?
- What content is of interest for the target group? Is the content mainly focused on teaching? What other topics are interesting?
- For what purpose do teachers use technical information?

The data will also be analyzed according to the question if there are any differences in the usage of printed sources (like books), online sources (like newsletters or surfing the net) and social sources (like talking to colleagues). It will be also important to find out if there are differences which can be related to attributes of person, employment or the institution the teachers work for. For example, does a freelancer use more technical information than a teacher with a fulltime employment? Do younger teachers prefer online sources? Etc.

The pilot study showed that technical information plays a major role in professionalisation for the surveyed group. The main study will show whether the conclusions that were drawn can be conveyed on teachers in general. At this point, the questionnaire for the main study is being developed and the pretest is set up. In the spring of 2010, the first results of the survey will be available.

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Educators as practitioners of learning – a multipurpose instrument in the continuing education of educators.

Motto:
“Knowledge is gained by learning,
Trust by doubt,
Skills by practice and
Love by love”

Thomas Szasz

Learning to learn: definitions and perspectives

The most general context of the research is offered by the great challenges of the knowledge society. Learning is a central issue – and it is considered ‘lifelong’, ‘life-wide’, ‘life-based’. Learning seems to fill homogenously our social and personal life. But if we accept that learning is a continuum, won’t it be contradictory, even paradoxical to decompose this process in discreet steps and aspects – even if it is for methodological – pedagogical reasons?

Our focus and our interest in this study is the domain of learning – we consider the process of learning itself as object of this research, and we ask: Is learning a learnable process? Is learning teachable? How do we learn to learn? and How do teach learning to learn?

This paper will approach the concept of “learning to learn” (L2L- from now on) having the teachers under scrutiny, while we are aware of the huge diversity of working definitions and different semantic uses of the concept: L2L is considered a key competence, or an indicator (among other 16 for monitoring progress towards the Lisbon objectives); often it is used at policy level, being considered a prerequisite for competitiveness and for employability, or in theoretical and pedagogical researches, where L2L is considered a meta-cognitive skill.

We can state that there is a strong European interest towards measuring L2L, but this interest is clearly oriented towards students’ performances; to the best of our knowledge the possible implications for teaching and as well as for curriculum, assessment and teacher education are not very often considered.

Learning to learn – the focus on teachers

What we propose is to re-contextualize L2L and complement the different investigations of this process/concept; to the focus on the students’ behaviour, and their performances related to learning to learn, we would add an examination of the way teachers learn (their behaviour, attitudes and competencies) and how their learning to learn influences the students.

We start from the hypothesis that the learning process is effective if it is underpinned by the identified five dimensions/characteristics presented in Figure 1; we then transfer these characteristics as requirements for an effective teaching process (teaching towards learning). As a result we draw the table below, which shows some of
the correlated behaviours of the teacher, for each of the five dimensions: attitude, motivation, emotion, cognition and situation of learning (AMECS from now on).

**The AMECS inventory and PA diagram**

Two instruments were designed to be applied in correlation. The envisaged result is to raise the awareness of those using the instruments regarding their competences level and satisfaction; in addition, these instruments allows us to design a personalized
intervention for each participant, accepted and assumed by them, in accordance with their identified needs.

The steps of the intervention are:

Consequently, we developed instruments that offer the educators a frame that enable them to evaluate their personal abilities concerning the L2L skills, and helps them to identify a personal development plan:

⇒ the AMECS inventory consists of 35 items, in terms of observable behaviours associated to the L2L skills of educators, covering each of the five AMECS dimensions

⇒ after filling in the inventory, an individual AMECS profile is developed for each participant

⇒ this individual exercise is followed by a raising awareness dialog, during which the participants are supported in the process of recognizing their own needs and strengths related to their L2L skills.

⇒ the second tool, the PA diagram, makes the self-evaluation more objective, and allows each participant to establish the main goal for their personal and professional development

Our expectation is that the two instruments help educators in assuming responsibility for their own personal and professional development; later, this is transferred to the students through: a constructive attitude, effective learning situations created, an efficient management of the emotional relations and conflicts, sustained motivation for learning and an adequate content. In this phase of the study we do not expect the two instruments to offer a final conclusion of the existing „state of art“ in education; instead, we consider the experience as a learning one, about own learning and about how teaching towards learning can be improved?

The AMECS profile.

The first tool is the AMECS inventory, (see Annex 1), aiming to offer teachers a first opportunity to reflect upon their strengths and weaknesses related to their skills of learning (to learn) and teaching (towards learning). The Inventory consist on 35 items, defined according to the five dimensions A-M-E-C-S, but presented in a random order, in order to ensure the non-perverted answers of the respondent. Example of behaviors: accept challenges for new learning situations, new learning contexts. (Attitudinal
The respondents were asked to estimate the level of the described behavior, using a scale with five levels. Example for the used scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>never / not at all</th>
<th>sometimes / sufficient</th>
<th>frequently / enough</th>
<th>almost each time / well</th>
<th>always / Very well</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### The PA diagram

The PA diagram was developed for our objectives starting from the ideas of the psychologist Csikszentmihalyi Mihaly, creator of the concept of „flow”, applied in business, for employers and employed. He try to answer the question if is possible to live the „flow” within the work? He considers that the life of the humans could be better if they „learn” how to create „flow”- situation while working.

The diagram, realize a mapping of the very diverse daily activities, which can be represented in one of the nine zones in the P-A axes. The first characteristic against which the activities are evaluated is P-provocations/challenges correlated to the considered activity, and the second one is A- the level of abilities that are needed in order to finalize the respective activity.

![Figure 3: The nine zone of the PA diagram](image)

Csikszentmihalyi (2006) considers that people can experience the state of „flow” when they are in situations which require a high level of abilities, that means a high level of challenges, too. Au contraire, they become depressed in situations with low level of challenges, when they need a very low level of abilities. All the possible combinations of
the two characteristics define the 9 different zones of the diagram, where one can place various activities performed during a day, a week etc.

Examination of data in recent surveys indicate that a rate of 15-20% of the adult population never experience flow, another 15-20% experience it daily, and the rest of 70-60% know the feeling, but experience it rarely, once per week, or in a few months. This means that there exist a great unused potential that can be activated in order to offer the feeling of satisfaction to each human being.

We expect that the two instruments applied successively, doubled by individual assistance through dialog can constitute a starting point in a conscious process of self-reflection and self-development, regarding the specific skills of learning to learn in order to improve the concrete performance in teaching towards learning.

Applying the instrument: developing AMECS profile

The intention behind developing the AMECS profile was to offer the participants the possibility to undergo a genuine analysis, within the limits of their subjectivity, regarding their strengths and needs related to the learning to learn skills, their own and later those of the students. Consequently, the instrument is applied at an individual level, and the results are compared to those from the PA diagram. We did not formulate any expectation regarding the results at group level, and no expectations regarding a preferential distribution of the five dimensions.

The first sample of results, consist of 21 AMECS profiles. The participants in the study were educators from the same organization; this target group was selected in order to offer us the possibility to formulate objectives at group / organizational level which could be later included in a new research exercise. Each participant used the same code (optional) during the two phases of the investigation, which permit the correlation of the two results. The AMECS profile for each participant is developed based on the calculated values for each of the A,M,E,C,S index; the obtained values for each participant / code are presented in Annex 2.

Applying the instrument: developing PA diagram

We considered the AMECS profile as a row needs analysis, realized at individual level, while each participant has given a personal and relatively subjective interpretation to the obtained profile, and identified its own personal strengths and weaknesses.

During the raising awareness dialog they received the feedback from the moderator, feedback based on the AMECS profile, and further support in order to fill the PA diagram.

The cross interpretation of the findings obtained from the two instruments were then used to help the participants in raising their awareness regarding their performances, in accepting their restricted areas of comfort, limited by their competencies, to identify the zones that need improvement, and motivate them for concrete actions. We could report that the interest of the group for issues related to self-evaluation was sincere and constant. In addition we could observe a clear interest of the participants for the others profiles, and the profile of the group. Many of the participants tried to compare their own results to the others.

Because of our historical background - a teacher centered educational culture, with learning outcomes defined preponderantly in the cognitive domain, we expected that in the self-evaluation of our participants the cognitive aspects will be well
represented. Within these circumstances we were surprised to see quite a low value for the Cognitive aspect, for most of the respondents.

Without having the aim to associate relevance to the values calculated (as a simple sum of the individual results) for the whole cohort, it is interesting to mention that the lowest values were recorded for C-cognitive and S-situational aspects. Within the further investigations we will consider these results as hypothesis to be verified, and explained, by using most sophisticated instruments and a representative sample.

Our expectation that the profiles could be very diverse, reflecting major differences between the participants regarding the five analyzed aspects was confirmed by the distribution of the results including the supplementary differences as the effect of the respondents’ subjectivity.

Two examples

Example BMD54

During the personal dialog, after filling the two instruments BMD54 says: "even if I am motivated and involved enough, I have the attitude to correct the others, probably due to the fact that I have a strong personality. I am emotive, which is an obstacle in keeping balance in different situations. My deep and serious cognition seems to be influenced by my attitude and emotions. I consider that improvements are possible regarding the creation of learning situations, if I will be able to have a better control at the level of emotions and attitude.” These are the first conclusions of BMD54. In its profile he has the highest score for M-motivation, and the lowest for S- learning situation.

The PA diagram confirms the first observations, through concrete examples of activities, as the following: In the area of positive emotions (2 and 4) we find challenging activities, like “school competitions” or “classroom activities, in which I make use of all my abilities, even the topics are not very new”. I feel that I don’t make use of all my abilities during “school
excursions”, “meetings with parents”. “My intention is to be good, but parents expect me to be exceptional”.

During the dialogs we registered a serious lack of competences in managing emotional situations in relation with students, parents, colleagues; this is why the activities related to these groups offer a low level of satisfaction. As a defending mechanism our participant tries to avoid these activities.

As further intervention BMD54 identified the possibility to ‘move’ these activities towards zone nr3, by developing specific skills related to control of attitudes and efficient management of the emotions.

As a further task, for reflection he considered the relative low value obtained for S-learning situations.

**Example FMP**

**FMP has an AMECS** profile including extreme values for M and E (M-motivation: 9,00 and E-Emotions: 9,00); relative high value for A (Attitude: 8,83). The lowest value is realized for S (Learning situations: 7,50) and C (cognition:7,00). And here is her self-evaluation:“considering the learning situations created by me I have to admit that I have certain stereotypes and I am not creative enough, even if I could be...”

Through this reflection she finds solutions: “I consider that I am able to improve my performances in creating learning situations, based on my motivated attitude towards the teaching process."

A very nice example for the awareness raised at the conscious level: “In a very practical approach I know that is not enough to offer a certain support for the student in what he is currently doing, but is necessary to put them in very new situations which permit their development”.

Later during the discussions we also reach the level of meta-cognition: “It is clear for me that I need to improve my knowledge related to learning and teaching; and to create challenging learning situations and to manage them in according to the personal needs of my clients”.

![Diagram AMECS](image.png)

**Figure 5**

AMECS profile for “FMP”

We would like to underline that the instruments offer various possibilities for further development even in these situations, in which we have high values for the
indexes, which does not mean the end of development. Participants need to be encouraged to establish their own aims, in accordance to their potential.

In this case, for FMP the classroom activities are associated with relative low level of satisfaction: in the zones 6, 7, 8 we find “didactic planning”. The professional meetings became a routine, and their effect is the discomfort and continuous sadness. Another source of frustration are the ‘evaluation sessions’, because of the lack of skills for a balanced assessment, lack of skills in managing situations with frustrated persons.

Activities which are not within the current responsibility of this person, like training and continuous professional development of adults offer special satisfaction, because require new abilities from FMP, so that she needs to make effort, to fully involvement in order to take these accepted challenges.

Through the comparative analysis of the results of the two instruments we concluded that the lowest values for C and S signalize for FMP that she need new activities, new motivations in order to continue her personal and professional career.

This development area suggested by the PA diagram, is counselling, consultancy, conflict management – situations which need a major mobilization of all potential.

**Expected results and developing personalized interventions**

One of the ways to value this instrument is related to the development of personalized interventions, which envisage the improvement of personal performances, based on the assumption that the desired situations, activities will be placed in the zone that correspond to the highest level of challenges and abilities, zone nr.3. These activities are supposed to offer the feeling of self realization.

![Figure 6](image)

*Generating intervention based on PA diagram*

The diagram (Fig.6) shows the target, the goal of the interventions, but it can also suggest the very different ways/directions towards the envisaged target. The different ways can be decomposed in small processes, through which the individual puts
herself/himself in a new situation, accepting more challenges (represented by a vertical process), or development of the new abilities (represented by a horizontal process). The aim of our intervention was to assist our participants in their self reflecting process to identify the desired and most suitable way of development. Aspirations are represented as a combination of small arrows, which show that certain activities are “moved” towards the zone of the highest level of satisfaction, the feeling of usefulness and self-realization, as closed as possible to the flow situation.

Conclusions, limits and open questions for future possible developments

Further interesting configurations were obtained and offered a great opportunity for reflection and discussion about their significance at the individual level, for making self-reflective analyses which lead to a consistent personal and professional development. Based on the findings of this research, we can indicate the main conclusions, define the limits of the frame, while planning for future developments:

a) we believe that the realized AMECS profiles allow a visualization and an examination of the rich diversity of competencies and interests of the educators who take the self evaluation exercise; we consider that the instruments are specific (we obtained a huge diversity of the configurations)

b) the way in which we defined the scale for self-assessment permits a visible representation of the strengths and weaknesses of the participants.

c) analyzing the distribution of the extreme values for each dimension, we find that the extreme value (g), is well represented for each of the five dimensions; we registered the value of 9: 2 times for A, 6 times for M, 4 times for E and once for S; and the value of 8,71 for C, 2 times.

d) the opposite extreme value, minimum (of 1) for each of the five dimensions was registered 3, or 4 or 5 times

e) thinking on further development, it is to be verified, whether the obtained wide/diverse distribution is a result of the real diversity of the profiles (and not a perverted result, caused by the subjectivity of the participants.

f) during our investigations we could not see whether the instruments are also useful for group investigations; the relevance at the group level was not an objective of this study

g) the results are displayed in a quite simple format, so that is possible to be valorized by each participant.

h) the participants received the AMECS exercise with great interest , and accepted the challenge to participate at the follow up session, for the second instrument;

i) the aim of the comparative analysis was realized: the obtained profiles were verified through the diagram.

j) we consider that the recognition of the strengths and the needs in a public session were highly motivating for the participants and for their further development.

k) advantages and disadvantages in using these instruments were identified: the individual approach is effective and result oriented, but very expensive, but the face to face sessions have their important contribution for the meta-cognitive aspects related to L2L.

l) follow up?: the intention is that after the first interpretation of these preliminary results to come back to the participants, and to evaluate the medium- and long term impact of the interventions. The next objective is to integrate these instruments in the personal development portfolio of the educators, so they will apply the instruments
when they need, autonomously. The final goal is to help educators to control their own learning process as concrete activity, at cognitive and meta-cognitive level, as a precondition for to assist students to develop their L2L and LLL skills.

References

ANNEXES

Annex 1

The AMECS INVENTORY regarding the behaviors associated to L2L skills

Please reflect upon your „teaching-learning‟ activities, and try to answer the questions below. Please choose the most relevant answer, and mark with x.

The questions below are an invitation to a self-assessment of the „teaching-learning „ process, from the perspective of the students, or of the teacher and sometimes both.

Please don’t forget that during this exercise we are considering as subject of the learning process the learning itself. We try to answer questions like: How can we teach students to learn? In this context we ask ourselves if we are able to learn? Or if we are aware of how we learn?

Thank you for accepting to take part in this exercise, which has the aim to offer an individual support in order to improve our performances in teaching.

1. In the learner – teacher relationship I am focusing on the learners’ needs (instead teaching them what I know, I assist them to learn what they need)

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<thead>
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<th>never</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
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2. I know and I am able to identify the learning styles for each student in the classroom.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>sufficient</th>
<th>enough</th>
<th>well</th>
<th>very well</th>
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</table>

3. I manifest enthusiasm when I learn and when I teach others.

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<th>never</th>
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4. I consider that in most of the situations I can identify learning possibilities

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5. I recommend each student learning techniques in accordance with their learning style within the concrete situation

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<th>sometimes</th>
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6. I manage efficiently the emotional situations of my students, caused by previous failure in learning

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<th>sometimes</th>
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7. I show respect towards learning and learners

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8. I am interested in news and useful information in psychopedagogy

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<tr>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>sufficient</th>
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</table>

9. I create learning situations for groups and individuals in accordance to the concrete context (thematic, objectives, participants etc.)

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<th>never</th>
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10. I encourage learning to learn, by being correct, objective and supportive with the students

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11. I accept challenges for new learning situations/contexts

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12. I manifest flexibility in and for learning

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13. I manage efficiently the situations in which students are under emotional pressure because exaggerated expectations from the school, family, society in general;

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15. I create learning situations in which my role is that one the facilitator of the learning process (I assist, give consultancy, observe, encourage, offer feedback etc.)

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16. I observe and assist the development of superior cognitive attitudes regarding the learning process (examples for superior cognitive attitudes are: “I know how to learn”, “I want to learn”, “it is useful to learn”, “I want to know how to learn”)

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17. I demonstrate curiosity in and for learning

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18. I encourage students having a low self-esteem, in order to overcome these emotional situations which affect the learning process

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19. Within the learning situations I identify moments of raising awareness of the learning outcomes and process (which have the role of the evaluation of the learning skills)

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20. I know several theories of learning that are useful in my current work at the classroom

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21. I am involved in the process of learning consciously, directly, personally and in a responsible manner (these are the four conditions, after M. Mot for a real involvement)

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22. I suggest within the learning situations the use of a huge diversity of learning strategies, in accordance with the context (debate, role-play, case study, study circle, presentations etc).

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</table>

23. I have trust in the process of learning and in the learning potential of each student

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24. I notice and assist the development of superior emotive attitudes regarding the learning process (examples for superior emotive attitudes are: "I like to learn", I don't like to be scared of school, teachers, exams, learning", I feel painful if somebody is humiliated, treated incorrectly", "I am not able to answer, to speak in public").

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25. I enjoy the new learning situations and the challenging learning contexts.

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26. I am able to apply the findings from different theories of learning regarding the design of the learning process. (teaching for learning, not to teach what I know, but assist students to teach what they need)

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<tr>
<th>not at all</th>
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<th>enough</th>
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27. I manage efficiently situations in which students experience an emotional dependence of a person, teacher, a subject (dependence could be an exaggerated interest, refuse of a subject, dependence of a gifted student etc.)

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28. I manifest openness regarding newness in and for learning

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<th>never</th>
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29. I know the new theoretical and practical approaches regarding the relation between emotions and learning.

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<th>very well</th>
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30. I am interested in the domain of meta-cognition regarding my personal development (concepts, theories, models, trends etc.)

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<th>never</th>
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31. I notice and assist the development of superior motivational attitudes regarding the learning process (examples for superior motivational attitudes are: "I appreciate enthusiasm", "I encourage involvement", "I valorise superior mistakes", I offer recompense for the involvement in learning")

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<th>never</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
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32. I demonstrate creativity in and for learning

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<th>frequently</th>
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33. As a facilitator of the learning process I respect the rhythm of learning for each student

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</table>
34. I know theories related to the process of learning in the group and individual learning

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<tr>
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<th>sufficient</th>
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<th>very well</th>
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</table>

35. I manage efficiently the emotional situations of the students without perspective, lack of resources which have as result low achievement in learning.

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<th>never</th>
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</table>

Thank you and please accept our fully consideration for your effort!

In order to be able to offer you a personal feedback and to correlate these results with those from the instrument nr 2, please use an individual code for both of the exercises!

The items grouped around the five A-M-E-C-S dimensions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Associated items</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>1, 4, 7, 11, 12, 16, 17, 23, 24, 28, 31, 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3, 10, 25, 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>6, 13, 18, 27, 35</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cognition</td>
<td>2, 8, 14, 20, 26, 29, 34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Situation (learning)</td>
<td>5, 9, 15, 19, 22, 25, 30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Annex 2

Table 1. The obtained values for each participant / cod

<table>
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<tr>
<th>COD of the respondent</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>Average value</th>
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<tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>7.86</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>7.44</td>
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<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>8.67</td>
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<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8.22</td>
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<td>MMV</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>8.33</td>
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</table>

The next diagram describes the main characteristics of the nine zones, including a representative example, based on daily activities for each of the nine zones.
Annex 3
The PA DIAGRAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Abilities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zone 1: P - high, A - low</td>
<td>zone 3: P - high, A - high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zone 2: P - high, A - medium</td>
<td>zone 4: P - medium, A - high</td>
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<tr>
<td>zone 5: P - medium, A - low</td>
<td>zone 6: P - low, A - medium</td>
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<tr>
<td>zone 7: P - low, A - low</td>
<td>zone 8: P - low, A - high</td>
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**PART 11 | ICT and quality provision: Issues of identity and personal knowledge management**

1

FACHANTIDIS, Nikos
University of Western Macedonia, Greece

**Implementation of bidirectional and multimodal ICT for support and assess the quality of SME's continuing education.**

**Introduction**

From a general point of view, ICT exploitation in vocational training can be used to increase the educational outcomes. Learner participation, self-directed and independent learning environments can be technologically supported in order to enhance active learning in continuing education (Phillips 2005). Researchers have shown that blended and online courses can add value to students’ learning.

Meanwhile e-learning evaluation is used to increase quality assurance and quality enhancement (Little 2009, Deepwell 2007). Evaluation tools can be based upon students’ feedback (Jara & Mellar 2009), adaptive methods (Theotokas et. al. 2008) or pure computing methods (Caramihai & Severin 2009). Also evaluation can be seen from various angles such as learning movement, theory based movement, evidence-based evaluation, implementation analysis and formative experiment (Mandinach 2005).

In principal, researchers show that, effective evaluations should be based on training community agreement for clear and appropriate purposes and objectives (Mandinach 2005). It also requires continuous interaction with stakeholders, as the evaluation feeds back information, which has been drawn from a wide range of training outcomes. Because training programs vary so much in their purposes and methods, evaluation design should be based also on what each individual vocational education program could accomplish (Grubb and Ryan 1999).

**Implementation of the Go-Digital initiative in Greece**

Go-OnLine is an action line of the Operational Programs Information Society and Competitiveness funded by the 3rd European Union Support Framework. It was launched in 2001 and its main objective was to encourage the adoption of ICT by Greek SMEs and self-employed professionals and to make them aware of the benefits and prospects that have arisen in the new economy (GRNET).

The Training Support of Go-OnLine aimed to acquaint 50,000 Greek SMEs with the new ICT technologies and e-business practices. It is based in the 13 regions of the country and has been carried out by consortia throughout Greece consisting of academic and technological institutions, industry and Chambers of commerce, private companies etc. For the purposes of the program, applicants are classified according to their familiarization with the Internet. Candidates with no Internet connection or Internet-ready stage are eligible for training support (with Internet connection and email, but no web-site).

During the evaluation process of the SME’s applications, a number of criteria are taken into consideration, such as: the number of employees and company's annual turnover (lower turnover is in favour), the geographical location (remote areas are in favour) and the
firm business sector and degree of susceptibility to e-commerce practices.

Until now, approximately 35,000 SMEs have received formal training from 1.800 specialized e-business consultants (GRNET 2009). Training Support includes:
- three 7-hour visits on site, by a trained e-business consultant
- provision of informational and multimedia educational material and self followed web courses
- online support through a web portal and also call centers

The official web portal of the Go-Online Program (Manouselis et al. 2004), www.go-online.gr, has been developed in order to contribute to the further familiarization of Greek SMEs with the potential offered by the ICT in four sections:

- **Training**: familiarizing Greek SMEs with the use of new technologies in their business and the integration of e-business practices and activities (e-learning courses available online, multimedia material)
- **Awareness**: providing an online information channel with continuous update on Internet technologies and e-business news from Greece and from all over the world
- **Participation**: setting up an online community of Greek SMEs and trainers supported by communication and collaboration tools (chat, discussion forum, newsletters, registration)
- **Support**: providing additional Support services to the members of the Go-Online portal community (HelpDesk, Ask an Expert, Digital Library, FAQ etc.)

The portal currently counts more than 36,000 registered users (GRNET 2009).

**Particular characteristics of the GoOnline Program**

Several training programs and evaluation systems, with web-based supporting and assessment infrastructure have been proposed or analysed regarding SME’s vocational training (Hummel 2006, Little 2009, Pollacia and McCallister 2009, Woltering et al. 2009, Fahantidis 2005).

Concerning the Go-Online program, researches based on questionnaires, interviews and log data, evaluate program’s web-portal (Manouselis et al. 2004, GRNET 2009) or analyze program’s peculiarities (Dagdilelis et al. 2003, Theotokas et al. 2008). In the following paragraphs a review based on these papers is presented, in order to underline the special needs of this program. According to them, the implementation of a large-scale program for training SME’s and vSME’s staff in the exploitation of ICT and e-commerce is a complex problem, related to their size (economic, staff, infrastructure), their organization, their range of activity, and the characteristics of their employees. The wide diversity of enterprise subjects and necessities requires a decentralized and flexible training system. This system should satisfy their needs, but also overcome problems relative to their constitution.

The first problem that has been addressed is the need for a well designed promotion campaign. The majority of SMEs seems not to have been informed about the program, especially in rural areas. Statistical data demonstrate that SMEs participation could be up to four times higher in certain areas. Maybe this fact has excluded SMEs which would have had a higher rank in the evaluation process for participation or maybe decreases the percentage of the participated SMEs with strong will for training.

The next problem was the necessity to convince small enterprises of the benefits they would reap from introducing ICT in their business. They usually have a limited range of business activity, conducted locally, with no computing skilled employees. The enthusiasm
of the tutor is an important factor in the formation of good mood and increases the will for participation of the training staff. Also a proper designed web-portal is important, which demonstrates the advantages of ICT for small enterprises by using relevant examples of technology exploitation in their business area.

Although the on-site training appears to be the best approach, there are certain difficulties regarding the time limitation of SME staff and the very small number of employees. Several of the participants were family based running SMEs and it was difficult to overcome any staff absences even for training reasons. So training took place during non-working hours mainly, raising a negative pose for participation.

Concerning tutor and the intensive style of the training program, they should be specially prepared, with an appropriate syllabus on SME subjects and optimal organized, but also flexible and adaptable teaching schedule.

The financial support was considered by the SMEs such an important factor, that in some situations, like local sub-contractors, it was the dominant argument in their dissemination efforts. For this reason even SMEs which applied or participated in the program were not informed about the educational support and the free training on-site. Also a major part of the applied SMEs which were well informed about the program benefits, aimed mainly at the financial support for equipment acquisition and were not convinced about the training necessity.

Although GoOnline vocational training program, was financial supported by the European Commission and the Greek state, there wasn't any correspondence with the public labour market programs. While the owner was obligated to participate in the investment, since program’s financial support was the 40 percent of the required total investment, this didn’t lead GoOnline to be a training program with characteristics of employer sponsorship programs. In principal, employer sponsorship training programs contributes more reliably to improved economic outcomes, for employers and workers alike, than do other forms of sponsorship (Grubb and Ryan 1999).

Implementing ICT for support and assessment of vocational training quality

According to International Labour Office (Grubb and Ryan 1999) the role of evaluation for vocational training programs is crucial in improving the decisions made by the sponsors (government, employers and individuals), in improving the quality of vocational training and finally in carrying on public debates about training. Also for educational and training programs, which evolve e-learning in a course or as a course, evaluation aims at the assessment of student learning, the pedagogical and institutional analysis and finally to elevate broader policy issues (Mandinach 2005).
In general the community which is interested in and also is involved in the evaluation process are the trainees, the trainers, the employers, the sponsors and the stakeholders. In the majority of vSMEs, like the participants of the Go-Online program, the trainees are also the owners of the enterprise (the employers) (Dagdilelis et al. 2003). Also the GoOnline program has the characteristics of an employer sponsorship program, as mentioned in the previous section. After that, the employer turns to be the dominant factor in the evaluation process.

Although it seems that employers would be greatly interested in the evaluation, they had a very low will to participate, especially concerning the face to face training evaluation. They were more interested in the evaluation of the e-learning part, basically with suggestions and queries. Partially this has to do with the short period of face to face training by contrast to continues support of the web-portal and with the lack of interest about training support by contrast to financial support. Under these circumstances, the major factor of the evaluation process (the employers) turns to be the less reliable participant and the challenge was how to increase employer's participation and draw their opinion in the best way.

The implemented web-based evaluation system designed in order to support multimodal and bidirectional flow of information and to integrate participant's entries in a way that helps them to adapt and adjust training plan in a cyclical manner (Mandinach 2005). After the end of each of the three on site educational visits, both the trainer and the staff member have to respond to the corresponding web questionnaires and report. In this way a continuous evaluation and monitoring is achieved. The logged data and information could be accessed from the relative community immediately, through the on-line forms of a web-based rational database.

The evaluation system consists of the Monitoring subsystem and the Assessment subsystem. Monitoring subsystem considers the unhindered and smooth continuity of the program. The trainers can be informed about installation problems, trainees’ attitude and rearrange the schedule. The consortium can follow trainers and SME’s cooperation and monitor the whole process. Assessment subsystem considers training evaluation about educational and professional subjects. Trainers can be informed about trainees’ satisfaction, their vocational education demands and proposals. Consortium can be informed about trainees’ opinion as concerns educational material, subjects, method and satisfaction as well as educators’ assessing performance, pedagogical method and communication skills.

Hereafter the evaluation web-based system is presented according to reviews forms.
**Monitoring Subsystem**
- Vocational subjects taught
- Educational material used
- Technical issues report
- Training and visits monitoring
- Schedule monitoring and rearrange

**Assessment Subsystem**

**SME’s assessment for training**
- Trainer Communication skills
- Pedagogical ability
- Proficiency
- Educational material quality
- Subject usefulness
- Difficulties encountered in understanding (comprehension)
- Subject relevance
- Usefulness of web portal
- Sufficient duration of training
- Confidence in the subjects learned

**Trainer’s assessment for SME and training report**
- Intent of cooperation
- Reliability
- Sufficient equipment
- Skills
- Interest in educational subjects
- Interested in official branches
- Inquires
- Participation
- Level of cooperation with the consortium
- Time devoted to subjects

**Discussion**

Special needs were raised in the training design, monitoring and evaluation, during Go-Online, vocational education program of SMEs. Problems encountered in SME’s member
staff will to participate, or owner’s lack of interest to participate actively in the educational part of the program. This attitude came mainly from the staff time limitation and intensive occupation, ignorance of ICT exploit benefits, SME’s limited range of business activity, local activity and program promotion effectiveness. To overcome these difficulties an evaluation system was developed. The web-based implementation and ICT integration offer the possibility for direct communication between training community, immediate access to web-based rational database and continuous feedback. Because of the intensive character of the training program, its short duration and the trainer’s alteration, the ICT implementation was a crucial factor in the effective usage of the evaluation system.

The evaluation system consists of the monitor and the assessment subsystems. Subjects concerning installation problems, trainees’ attitude, SME’s cooperation trainees’ satisfaction, inquiries, proposals, educators’ assessing performance and educational material are logged, according to trainers, SMEs and consortium entries. The flow of this information, through training community members, offers the possibility for continuing and flexible design, which is involved along with the evaluation. In this way, evaluation functioned as an instrument of quality enhancement as well as quality assurance (Deepwell 2007).

Since the last training visit was one month later than the previous visit, training follow up was accomplished and the changes in behaviour on the job could be measured along with the program influence on the SME. Follow up evaluation, which considered as top level evaluation (Kirkpatrick 1959), supported by the ICT evaluation system, with no extra effort.

In conclusion, the proper ICT implementation of the evaluation system made the accomplishment of monitor, assessment and support of training quality possible. Web-based evaluation system contribution was notably to effective manipulation of the program’s special needs and conditions on direct feedback, trainees’ attitude, lack of participation will, intensive short-duration on-site training and adaptable design.
References
GRNET 2009, www.go-online.gr
**Muslim minority women’s views on computer educators:**

**Preliminary results of a survey.**

**Introduction**

In recent years the concept of lifelong learning has been gaining acceptance across the world. The importance of building a “knowledge society” and a “learning society” is generally recognised in the new millennium. As, the technological and scientific advances have not improved life of the whole world and substantial inequalities still persist, education is the key for diminishing the gaps and generating development. The contribution of adult educators to the above is important. As Youngman and Singh (2005) claim the quality of adult learning programmes is influenced by the availability of competent personnel to develop, organise, promote, teach and evaluate modes of learning of adults. Those who educate adults require a particular range of competencies to be effective. These competencies are based on a defined body of knowledge, skills and values, which include such elements as adult psychology, teaching strategies, programme planning, research methods, social and political analysis, sensitivity, empathy and tolerance all relevant to the local situation and culture.

Although, technology has been the past century of great advancement and use the persisting social gaps in society cause the digital divide; which in turn, may intensify existing social gaps and create new ones (Latimer, 2001). Because members of minority groups and people from lower socioeconomic groups have less access to technology, they are likely to be even further disadvantaged from attaining some of the higher positions in tomorrow’s economy, widening the economic divisions that already exist. Furthermore, when women are excluded from learning, health care, and the public sphere, the world looses the creativity and productivity of half its population (Sharma, 2003).

**The setting**

Thrace is a rural area, one of the poorest regions of E.U. On 24 July 1923 the Treaty of Lausanne granted Thrace to Greece and recognised the existence of a Muslim minority in Thrace. Presently the Muslim minority in Greek Thrace, descendants from the Muslim populations who remained in the area after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, consists of approximately 110,000 individuals with the Christian population at the level of 226,000 people. The 93.75% of the Muslim population is mainly concentrated in the provinces of Xanthi and Rodopi. According to the census of 2001 carried out by the Greek National Statistic Service, the 3.6% of the Greek population are totally illiterate. According to General Secretariat of Adult Education the biggest rate of illiteracy among all regions of Greece is observed in Thrace (15.13%). The reason for this inequality developed in Thrace as an educational and literal diversity, is hatched up in the ground of the Muslim minority’s low participation in the secondary and tertiary education. The rate of under-educated people (with no mandatory education) in Thrace is 72 %, 15 points above the national average of 57 % (Katsikas, 1997). In the area of Greek Thrace, the Muslim family structure mainly oppresses women and delegates them to a low-level of educational achievement and to
confinement to the home sphere. Muslim minority women may be dressed in different ways, covered with scarves or feretze (black gowns) for the older ones or being uncovered, depending to the place they live, their educational level, their connection to religion, their marital status, employment status and cultural level. The rate of employment for Muslim minority women is rather low. The factors which exclude the minority women from the local labour market are: lack of education and training, the traditional structures of their society, insufficient knowledge of the Greek language and sometimes, discrimination towards Muslims. As employees, Muslims generally work as construction workers (12%), as employees in salaried jobs (both in the public and the private sectors) in a quite low participation (5%), as tradesmen (2%) and mainly in the field works (Imam & Tsakiridi, 2004). On the other hand, the participation of Muslim workers in the informal sector enterprises is much higher.

Although the number of educated minority women is increasing during the last years, mainly in urban areas, on the other hand the status of women living in the rural area and in the mountains is different, as they seem to be doubly discriminated against and excluded. In rural areas and in lower middle-class urban neighbourhoods, families have been reluctant to send their daughters to school even though nine years of education are compulsory in Greece (Kanakidou 1994, 1996; Tressou 1997; Askouni 2002; Imam & Tsakiridi 2004). Ascouni (2006) claims that one out of five minority women have not received primary education and only 1.6% of the minority women have entered the secondary education.

As Govaris (2001) claims during the last years the knowledge of Greek language is considered by the members of the Muslim minority as the prerequisite for their future social inclusion. The emphasis on learning the Greek language is a rejection of their isolation, imposed or accepted, in which for quite a long time the minority lived or is still living. The new generations of the minority recognize the learning of the Greek language as a medium for achieving a higher social status and a modern way of living.

The study

In an attempt to investigate issues of contribution of psychological variables such as perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, subjective norm, and computer self efficacy to behavioral intention to adopt computers by women of the Minority an adapted version of TAM (Technology Acceptance Model; Davis et al. 1989), a well-established model for predicting user acceptance was empirically validated. Data was analyzed quantitatively using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 11.5). Data was collected from 137 women of the Muslim minority living in the prefectures of Rodopi and Xanthi with the criteria of being computer literate, by responding to a structured questionnaire (Umran, 2007). The sample size was determined by social limits set of the Muslim minority life’s structure, by the will of the women to participate in the research and the need to include in the sample women with various social characteristics which are recognized in the strata of the minority.

The women who were administered were ensured anonymity and confidentiality. Fieldwork was conducted for 12 weeks (February-April 2009) at the towns of Komotini and Xanthi and at 21 villages of Rodopi and 8 villages of Xanthi province. After examining women’s answers in the questionnaire, it became evident that the study patterns of women with a more intensive use of computers combined to their residence area and educational
level were quite distinctive from other groups of women. Women falling in this category were asked to take part in a semi-structured interview. Twenty-eight of them responded positively and as we wanted to get in-depth and comprehensive information we proceeded with semi-structured interviews about their experiences on ICTs, knowledge on computer use, attitudes towards ICTs, and their aspirations through ICT use.

All women who took part in the interviews were given pseudonyms to safeguard their identity. Emphasis was given to qualitative interviewing because it served best the purposes of our study, which aimed mainly at exploring the ways with which social actors interpreted social processes and their place within it (Kvale 1996; Dingwall 1997; Warren 2002). More specifically, within an interpretive approach, in-depth interviewing allowed us to probe into the interviewees’ own experiences and perspectives and the meanings they gave to events they have experienced, through rich and detailed answers. Moreover, the method of unstructured and semi-structured interviewing is considered to be an extremely prominent research method within the feminist research framework (Bryman 2001) offering the opportunity to derive information from female experience not easily captured by quantitative studies.

Results

Once the interviews were transcribed, they were processed in order to reveal the main categories of the analysis. More specifically, women’s responses were coded, grouped and summarised to produce distinct categories, which allowed us to theorise possible explanations for our research questions. In this article, we start by presenting the profiles of the women who participated in the quantitative study and their stated gender preference of computer educators. We then present minority women’s views regarding adult educators on computer use, the structure of the class in seminars, their expectations from their participation in adult education programs. These interview data did provide a rich and valuable framework for more detailed investigation of the factors influencing adults’ use of ICT, preferences on educators. On this basis we now go on to discuss the research questions via analyses of these surveys and interview data.

The demographic profiles of the women and gender preference of computer educators

The mean age of the sample, for the quantitative research, was 32.5, the median of the age was the range of 20-30 years, 51.8 percent were young adults (less than 20 years-30 years), 34.3 percent were mature adults (30-40 years), 10.9 percent were middle aged (40-50 years), and 2.9 percent were in the older group (over 50 years old). Of them 57.7 percent live at the towns of Komotini and Xanthi and 42.3 percent live in villages; 20.4 percent were primary school graduates, 14.6 percent were high school graduates, 20.4 percent were lyceum graduates, 39.4 percent university graduates, 1.5 percent IEK (Institution of Professional Training) graduates and 3.6 percent were post-graduates; 64.2 percent were married, 27 percent were single, 2.2 percent were widowed or divorced and 6.6 percent did not respond to the question. Of the respondents, 6.6 percent belonged to the low-income, 73 percent belonged to the middle-income group, 5.8 percent came from the upper-income group, and 14.6 percent did not respond to the question; 27 percent were homemakers, 52.6 percent were employed, and 13.1 percent were students and 7.3 percent did not respond to the question. There were three women (2.19%) from engineering background. They all spoke the Turkish language and more than two-third spoke Greek. The mountain
village dwellers on mountains of Xanthi spoke mainly the Pomak language.

During the research, the subjects were asked to provide information on computer ownership, Internet connection at home and point of access. It was found that 86.1% of the women had a computer at home. It is worth mentioning that the figure for ownership in the sample is higher than the 54 percent found in the research of the Hellenic Observatory for the Information Society (2008). Their home (71.5%) emerged as the most important point of access followed by Internet café (8.8%) and friends/relatives house (8.8%) followed by working place (6.6%). A small group of subjects (4.4%) had access somewhere else.

Almost all (93.4 percent) of the women had one or more computer literate family member, while only a small percentage of the women (6.6 percent) had no such member. The frequency order of the literate member was siblings (n = 67; sister, n = 31; brother, n = 36), children (n = 57; daughter = 29; son = 28), husband (n = 36), and parents (n = 12; father, n=12; mother, n=4). In short, the background of these women is characterized by at least one computer literate family member who serves as a role model and inspires others in the family to become computer literate. In psychological learning theories, observation or imitation of a role model is a powerful method by which persons acquire new behaviour, in this case, computer adoption (Matlin,1995). Thus, ownership plays a role in women’s decision to adopt computers. The combination of a computer literate family member and a family computer are strong contenders in stimulating women to become computer literate.

As far as the gender preference of the trainer was concerned, 70.1 percent expressed no gender preference, while 23.8 percent indicated a preference; 16.8 percent of the women trainees preferred a woman trainer, while 5.1 percent opted for a man trainer; 8 percent of the women did not respond to the question.

Women’s aspects on computer education and educators

All women who took part in the qualitative research were computer users, 12 of them were at the age of 18-29, 7 at the age of 30-30, 6 at the age of 40-49 and 2 at the age of 50-59. Fifteen of them were town-dwellers and 13 were village-dwellers. We chose to interview women who studied in departments of technology either in tertiary or secondary education, who use the computer either for their profession or for communication or who just finished primary education and are computer users. These choices were made as our main concern was, on one hand to detect the role of computer education in the transformation of Muslim minority women in Thrace and on the other hand to find out if computer literacy lights them up pathways to social participation.

The interview data confirmed as well, when women were asked to answer if they would apply for more intensive lessons on computer use, that 8 women village-dwellers and 11 town-dwellers answered with “a definitely yes”, 2 village-dwellers and 2 town-dwellers with an “uncertain”, 1 from a village with “no” and 3 also from a village with a “definitely no”. Our respondents’ decision to pursue further studies on computer use could be seen as an attempt to break out of the typical female profile of low social position and to advance educationally. According to Parr (2000), as we read at Vryonides et al (2008), it has been well documented that women’s decisions to return to education has to do with practical and personal reasons but primarily with issues of identity and taking control over some aspects of their lives. Nine women village-dwellers and 12 women town-dwellers had no preference for the structure of the class in computer seminars. Four women, village-dwellers, wanted a single-sex training group of women only, 11 wanted a mixed-sex students group, 9 wanted a student group composed by women both from the minority and the majority populations,
and only 3 of the interviewees wanted women trainers. Unlike previous research, which recommended women trainers (Narayanan 2002) to promote computer adoption by women, Umrani’s research (2007) comes to support the findings of our research (the same questionnaire was used in both researches) as the gender of the trainer was not found to be important in both studies. This can be explained by varied sample characteristics of the studies. Narayanan’s work considered rural and semi-urban economically disadvantaged women and men trainees, whereas the Umrani’s study focused on metropolitan, educated women. Nevertheless, in our study we considered a mixture of the above groups of women and the findings were similar to Umrani’s, as a consequence of a more West-oriented behavioral intention to use computers, the Muslim minority women was proved to have in the initial quantitative analysis.

More than the gender of the trainer, her/his personal attributes emerged as important with the trainees emphasizing knowledge of computers, ability to adjust to the training needs of the trainee, inclination to help the novice ones, patience, ability to communicate and teach in a simple way, and for some of the women the knowledge of Turkish language. The role of trainers as a dimension of institutional support in novice women’s computer adoption is a crucial one.

_I want the trainer to be communicative, to adjust to the needs of the group, to explain things in a simple way without insisting on terminology (Gonul, age 30-39)_

Most of the women, 12 of them, showed a preference to state or minority schools as the place where they could attend programs on computer use, with private centres for professional training following their choices. The data of the interviews provide the information that women who took part in the study from the province of Xanthi were more informed on the function of private centres for professional training and the E.U. funded programs they provide.

**Women’s empowerment through ICT and adult education**

Findings of the study point out that women are interested in expanding their knowledge by attending seminars and computer use programs or learning the Greek language. Most of them spoke about the need women of the minority have to achieve a better social position, to change their family status quo, to be able to help their children, and gain their personal fulfilment.

_....A woman has to understand that life is not only marriage, a husband, and kids but she has to be creative in other parts of life (Vildan, age 40-50)_

_...I am learning for my own good and interest and to be able to help my children in the future (Gulsen age 18-29)._

_....The “second chance” schools help a lot. I believe that after finishing this school it’s a chance to continue your studies at the university. Knowledge has nothing to do with age (Minerve, age 18-29)._

Women were aware of the existence of state schools for adult education (the second chance school) and pointed out that this kind of school has to be established in every Municipality in order to be easily accessible or transportation must be provided to be easy of access. This finding comes as no surprise as the time saved on travel enables women to balance their educational aspirations with family and household responsibilities.
Discussion and Conclusions

The study focuses on the Muslim minority women’s views on computer educators or in a wider sense on adult educators. It provides an insight into the factors that need to be harnessed to promote adoption of adult education by Muslim minority women. As the present study has indicated, it is very important to take into serious consideration the social conditions of the people who are likely to participate in them as often these conditions may not be favourable. Huyer (2006) mentions the critical need for experienced gender experts to work in the field of ICTs with policymaking agencies and at regulatory bodies. Additionally it must be emphasized the need of the accurate sex-disaggregated data and indicators to understand gendered trends of participation in the information age, to inform policy, and to develop strategies to address any inequalities and gaps (Hafkin 2006).

The initial findings of the research come to prove that a “worm of knowledge” is releasing bubbles of oxygen and fresh air in the mud of illiteracy that Muslim minority women were determined to live in the past years. The needs for knowledge, change, and social improvement are subjects that Muslim minority women want to be part of them as a contradiction to their usual behaviours. A new face for the “woman of the Muslim minority in Greek Thrace” comes into sight. The impacts and conflicts this matter erupts, have to be considered. Adult education can become the vehicle to support the redefinition of the role that Muslim minority women were forced to adopt. This role, all the past years, derived from internal social conflicts the Muslim community went through or external actions. By giving the women the podium to speak out and define the conditions that have to be fulfilled in order to make adult education more accessible for them or just speak out for the problems they face, this can be a beginning for a more massive change in the way they function in their environment. Furthermore targeting computer education, as Umrani (2007) states, in order to optimize the advantages of computer learning, there is a need to educate women in the potential and versatility of this technology beyond a family agenda. Among others, this may include e-commerce, information technology enabled services, and tele-working, which open avenues for economic empowerment of women.

References


Factors shaping the profile of the ICT adult educator: Implications from a social inclusion program in Greece.

Introduction

The study reported in this paper explores the factors shaping the teaching profile and informing the educational practice of ICT adult educators, as these experienced and perceived by educators who embarked in the course of an adult education programme for social inclusion in Greece, namely, the Second Chance Schools Programme (SCSs). The literature in adult education postulates the importance of exploring educators’ beliefs about teaching adults (Taylor 2003) in relation to the aspects that formulate those beliefs, as it is argued that the latter provide the ‘bulk of the iceberg’ (Pratt, 1998) upon which teaching practices and methods rest. Nevertheless, there has been little exploration on this (Taylor 1999, in Taylor 2003). The study presented attempts an illustration of the above issues by focusing on the case of the ICT adult educators. It is linked to two bodies of literature on the adult educator and the teaching of ICT in the context of the adult education programme under exploration. It harnesses a qualitative case study approach within an interpretative paradigm and draws upon Pratt’s (1998) research on teaching perspectives and Mezirow’s (2000) and Cranton’s (1994) work on transformative learning to discuss the research findings.

The analysis of the semi-structured interviews with the eight adult ICT educators revealed five factors that shape their teaching profile and inform their educational practices. These are: their education including their undergraduate and postgraduate studies, studies in adult education, past conceptions of self as adult students and past positive learning experiences; teaching experience, ranging from experience in teaching adults, past positive teacher models and ideal teachers, experiences of teaching in the typical school and past positive teaching experiences; personality, appeared as personal traits and characteristics, strengths, weaknesses and competences, and personal aspirations and targets; context of teaching that incorporates the SCSs curriculum and philosophy and digital literacy aims; and training on teaching, the scope and philosophy of SCSs and on the psychological and social foundations of adult education. From the cross-case analysis of the findings a number of implications have emerged that might be taken into account in the education, preparation and training of the ICT adult educators for the SCSs and alike adult education programmes. Moreover, the exploration of an under discussed research topic (the adult educator) in combination with a relatively new area (ICT learning) contributes to the broadening of the former, and the better understanding of the latter, with regards to how adult educators position themselves in this particular learning context.

In what follows the article unfolds under the following parts: the review of the literature on the adult educator, the context of teaching digital literacy at the Second Chance Schools, the conceptual framework and the methodological foundations of the
study, the data analysis, presentation and discussion and the concluding remarks of the study.

**Literature Review**

The study places at its core the adult educator and rests on the assumption that a trainer is not necessarily an adult educator. As Knowles (1980) poses, an adult educator is the one who practices the profession of facilitating the learning of adults by applying principles of andragogy to all phases of course development, namely, determining learner needs, writing learning objectives, creating a learning plan, selecting methodologies geared to the adult learner, implementing the plan and evaluating the degree to which objectives have been met. Knowles (1980) argues that to be a successful adult educator, one must recognize that adult learners are self-directed and know what they need to learn at a given point in their career and seek to engage in the process of their learning through active participation. Knowle's ideas were further enhanced by Kolb's (1976) work who proposes that adults learn through reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, active experimentation and concrete experience hence educators should create learning plans to incorporate the above.

Continuing on the characteristics and traits that the ‘ideal’ facilitator of adult education should exhibit, Pratt (1981) develops the following five clusters of desirable characteristics for the adult educators: developing adult-to-adult working relationships; developing understanding of and responsibility for instruction; dealing with closure and ending, i.e. summarizing learning accomplishments and indicating future learning; establishing role clarity and credibility; and guarding the contract, i.e. keeping the instruction within agreed boundaries. Taylor (1998) suggests that adult educators promote a sense of safety, openness, and trust; support a learner-centered approach, student autonomy, participation and collaboration; encourage exploration of alternative personal perspectives, problem-posing, and critical reflection; are trusting, empathic, caring, and authentic, demonstrate a high degree of integrity; emphasize personal self-disclosure; discuss and work through emotions before critical reflection; and provide feedback and encourage self-assessment (Taylor, 1998).

More recently, Fenwick (2003) identifies and makes the connection between the purposes, roles and activities for adult educators and the different theoretical orientations to experiential learning such as: constructivist theory, situative, psychoanalytic, critical theories, complexity theories. She sees the following different roles in an adult educator. The: facilitator of reflection, facilitator of transformation, catalyst of active learning experiences, coach and assessor of experiential learning, tuner, intentional participant in learning systems, environmental designer, coaching ‘anticipative action’, story-shifter, action learning mediator, interferer, analyst-listener, problem poser, social organizer, interpreter and story-maker. She concludes in her book by saying that there is no one role for any one educator, for an adult educator’s vocation encompasses a variety of demands and tasks requiring different postures. The above assumption is adopted for the purpose of this study.

**The context of the study**

The study reported took place in the context of the Second Chance Schools (SCSs) programme in Greece, a project funded by the European Community and the Greek
government aiming at combating social exclusion of the individuals who lack qualifications and skills necessary to meet the needs of the labour market; re-linking individuals with the educational process; and creating networks of co-operation between the school, local community, business world and education. The SCSs is a flexible and innovative educational programme and addresses mainly to adults who have not completed the nine-year compulsory education offering them the opportunity to obtain a lower secondary education certificate and to well integrate into social, economic and professional life. Its duration is two academic years (eighteen months) and it is divided in two stages of nine months each. Teaching takes place in the afternoons while the weekly schedule covers twenty one hours per week. Adult learners are selected for the programme on the basis of an application and a successful interview with the school’s principals. With the end of the studies, they get a certificate while they are expected, under the guidance of the career advisor of the programme, to well integrate into the social, economic and professional life. Educators who teach at the SCSs are either permanent secondary school teachers who used to teach at the typical school or part-time teachers who are employed to teach for up to six hours per week. Adult educators are centrally selected for the SCSs by the administrative authority of the programme, the Institute for Continuing Education of Adults. The latter takes the responsibility to provide to all adult educators pre-service training that has the form of two-days training courses. These include training in adult learning and teaching and the philosophy underpinning the SCSs programme and its units. Nevertheless, in the majority of the cases, training takes place after the beginning of the courses (GSAE, 2003).

The SCSs programme operate on an open and flexible curriculum which is differentiated from the one followed in ‘typical’ high schools of the country in terms of its principles, content, teaching and learning activities, assessment. Multiliteracy is at the core of the programme and forms the basis for the development of the Programme of Studies. The curriculum unfolds around three interrelated literacies: the language literacy, numeracy and digital literacy. It covers the development of skills in language, mathematics and communication, with special emphasis on foreign languages and ICT; the basic training and preparation of adults for professional life with the guidance of the orientation and career counsellors; the development of skills in the domain of adult learners’ personal interests with the help of consulting psychologists. In the context of the SCSs, courses are interdisciplinary and are designed to operate on an open curriculum and oral program, in which teaching and learning activities are seen as a communication act. Subjects and learning activities draw upon the basis of students’ individual needs, while teaching methods and practices implied promote personalised teaching, experiential learning, self-motivation, students’ active involvement and decision making, critical thinking. The most important methods routinely used are group-centred teaching, team working, brainstorming, case-studies, collaborative learning and project method (GSAE, 2003). In the light of the above, teaching practice at the SCS is seen as a journey during which knowledge is produced as a shared responsibility of the adult learners and their educators.

In the context described above, ICT educators teach digital literacy aiming at helping adult learners to acquire the necessary technical knowledge and skills that will make them able to use ICT effectively; be competent in using ICT to solve problems of everyday life; understand the social dimensions and the impact of ICT in our modern society; and cultivate positive attitudes regarding the use of ICT to face the demands of modern age. According to the Programme of Studies (GSAE, 2003), ICT educators should present in the courses a broad view of computer use and place emphasis not only on the knowledge and skills of
using a wide range of ICT environments but also on those skills related to accessing, processing, analyzing, evaluating, applying and communicating information in order that learners will become active members in the information society (Jimoyiannis & Gravani, 2010).

Conceptual framework

Since the study places as its core teachers’ beliefs and perceptions, Pratt’s (1998) research on teaching perspectives, along with Mezirow (2000) and Cranton’s (1994) work on transformative learning are used in the study to provide insight into the ICT educators’ experiences and perceptions. Pratt (1998) talks about three types of beliefs to a perspective on teaching, the *epistemic beliefs*, which address questions related to what teachers want their students to learn and how do they believe students learn the content of the course; the *normative beliefs*, which focus on the social norms of educators; roles, responsibilities and relationships with students and others; and the *procedural beliefs*, that link to the managing of how and when of actions in the classroom and the justification of those actions, and address questions about how educators introduce a new concept in class and what is their justification for this particular approach.

Similarly to Pratt, Mezirow et al. (2000) talk about meaning-making as being shaped by an established belief system, a frame of reference that is a product of early life experiences. A frame of reference is comprised of ‘meaning schemes’ which are sets of immediate specific expectations, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and judgements that tacitly direct and shape a specific interpretation and determine how we judge, typify objects and attribute causality. Meaning schemes that indicate our beliefs about teaching and learning evolve as a result of early life and school experiences. They also evolve, according to Cranton (1994), from the way we grew up, the culture in which we live, and what we have previously learned. These beliefs formulated early in an individual’s will continue to perpetuate, even as they enter the practice of teaching adults. The above concepts are harnessed in the present study to navigate data collection, analysis and presentation that are discussed below.

Methodology

The methodological design of the study involved an interpretive qualitative orientation and a case study approach. Four broad case studies were used for the purpose of this research. These were the four oldest SCS programmes run in Greece since 2000. In the above contexts, all the adult ICT educators (one woman and seven men) teaching digital literacy were selected for the study. They were all full time secondary school teachers in ICT that were appointed to teach at the SCSs on the basis of an application. All of them had received a short training in adult teaching and learning before or after joining the SCS. Educators’ profile varied. Their teaching experience in secondary schools ranged from two to fifteen years while their experience in teaching adults in SCs or elsewhere ranged from none to hundreds of hours. In the study, educators are referred as educator 1, educator 8 etc. for the purposes of confidentiality and anonymity. The primary method of data collection was the in-depth, audio-recorded, semi-structured interview of 60-90 minutes in length. An interview schedule was prepared for the educators aimed at drawing out data on their personal and professional profile as well as their experiences, beliefs and perceptions of teaching ICT at SCSs. Respondents chose the place of the interview so that they felt
comfortable, while researchers ensured trustworthiness and confidentiality before the beginning of the interviews. For the analysis of the data a grounded theory and constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), whereby categories and their properties emerged from a detailed analysis of the data, was adopted. The emergent categories were then turned into a series of codes that were applied to the corpus. The themes were then contextualized by placing them in correspondence to the literature through the process of theoretical memoing (Locke, 2001). Five major themes that shape the teaching profile and inform the educational practices of the adult ICT educators emerged from the analysis. These are: education, teaching experience, personality, context of teaching, training.

Data analysis and presentation

Education

Almost all the ICT adult educators participated in the study argued that their teaching profile and educational praxis was influenced to a great extent by the education they had received, taking the form either of undergraduate and postgraduate studies or studies in adult education at the Open University. Some of them also pointed out that past conceptions they had of themselves as adult learners as well as positive and negative learning experiences informed their professional profile as adult educators. Characteristic is the following quote from the interview with the female ICT educator who argued:

“I got my degree in Information Technology in 1991...I also completed the Masters programme in Education at the Open University and the programme for the vocational education and training of the adult educators. I joined the SCSs as I wanted to put what I've learned in practice, and I did it. I now have a clear idea of what it means to teach ICT to adults. The majority doesn't know how to use the PC but they are interested in the social dimension of digital literacy”
(Educator, 8)

In the above extract the adult educator explained how the education and vocational training she had received has enlightened her everyday practice at the SCS. She could comprehend what was going on in a classroom of adults when learning ICT and was in the position to work out the difficult situations emerged by using the knowledge she had gained.

Teaching experience

It involved the experience in adult teaching, past positive teacher models and ideal teachers, experiences in teaching in typical school and rich past positive teaching experiences. It is worth pointing out that four out of the eight educators in the study argued that the teaching experience they had from the typical school has shaped to a great extent their profile and educational praxis in the classroom.

A 37 year old ICT educator with postgraduate studies in IT and 10 years of teaching experience in the typical school argued:

“You always carry with you the same logic you use when teaching in the typical school. It chases you. Each of us face this differently. Some of us adjust to the new reality at SCS easier,
for others it’s more difficult. Personally, I needed more than 1 1/2 year to realize what’s going on here and that, if you teach ICT in the same way you do it when teaching in the typical school, it simply doesn’t work ...in the course of the first meeting with the students at the SCS, I was uncomfortable. I had to teach adults and I was worried about what to say. With students at school it’s always different.”
(Educator 7)

**Personality**

Data showed that the personal traits, characteristics, attitudes, competences and competencies, aspirations that each of the educators developed and exhibit in life have influenced their professional profile.

The most qualified of the educators in the sense that he was towards the completion of a PhD with some experience of university teaching argued:

“Personally speaking, I like research and active involvement in knowledge production, therefore in the course of the sessions I enjoy encouraging learners to explore and critical reflect on things they know before I start instructing them. I’ve used goal based exercises, e.g. I taught them the Excel by using examples from everyday life and the experiences of a student who runs a Kebab place and uses tables to sort out the expenses”
(Educator, 4)

According to the above educator, a tutor should encourage learners to actively participate in the process of learning, even when teaching ICT. He presented himself as being a facilitator of learning and transformation rather than a knowledge transmitter and provider. The above originates in his established personal beliefs about knowledge and learning and is in agreement with Mezirow et al. (2000) and Cranton’s (1994) work described above.

**Context of teaching**

The context of the programme, i.e. the underpinning philosophy and aims of the SCSs, the curriculum that was based on multi-literacy and interdisciplinarity and the aims of the digital literacy course shaped to a great extent the educational practice and professional profile of the ICT educators in the study. All the eight educators agreed to the above. Indicative are the following words of Educator 3. He argued:

“There is a general and flexible framework for teaching ICT based on the SCS curriculum and underpinned by three axes: the need for the learners to obtain basic technical knowledge and skills of ICT; to be competent in using the PC to solve everyday life problems; to understand the social dimension of ICT.”
(Educator, 3)

**Training**

Training has emerged as an important issue in the study, as it has been identified by all the participants as one of the most important factors that could possibly inform the teaching profile of the educators. This could have the form either of training on the psychological and social foundations of adult education, or training (pre-service, induction
training and in-service) on the scope and philosophy of the SCS and the teaching of ICT in this context. Almost all the ICT educators argued that the training they received was inadequate since it either came very late or it did not focus on practical aspects of adult ICT teaching. One of the educators with a few (seven) years of experience in teaching commented:

“I first started teaching at SCS in October while the two days training seminar took place in March. It was too late and its content was too general. I got the first information from colleagues and then, according to the needs of each class, I’ve learned to adjust my teaching.” (Educator, 1)

Concluding remarks

In exploring the findings with the intention of identifying the factors that shape the teaching profile and inform the educational practices of the ICT adult educators, the study has identified, although imperfectly, a number of dimensions (personal, biographical, educational, contextual) which highlighted the essential elements of the phenomena and should be considered in the education, preparation and training of the ICT adult educators for the SCSs and alike adult education programmes.

Moreover, the cross-case analysis of the data has revealed several themes that begin to offer light into the adult educator, they link to and are consistent with other studies in the field. One is that meaning schemes - indicative of beliefs about teaching and learning - develop as the result of early life and school experiences, and continue to a great extent to perpetuate, even if educators enter the practice of teaching adults (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981; Taylor, 2003). Hence a first step of helping adult educators to develop new beliefs about teaching could be better understood by exploring the relationship between their present beliefs about teaching adults and their prior school lives (Mezirow, et al., 2000). This opens up the possibility for discussion about educators’ biographies and their learning trajectories in authentic learning environments. Knowledge about the learning biographies of the educators can help to unravel the reality of learning activities in which they are engaged in. The above is consistent with research conducted by Taylor (2003) and Lichtner & Milana (2000). Adult educators should be posed and challenged with key questions such as: ‘who am I?’, ‘why am I here?’, ‘what I do?’ ‘for what reason?’. Answers to the above questions are important when designing educators’ training. Moreover, educators’ personal skills, characteristics and experience contribute also to the development and beliefs about teaching. These include: beliefs about self in relation to others; experiential learning; understanding of the relationship of schooling to society. The same more or less assumption may also be found in Taylor (2003). He affirms the important relation between the positive teacher models of the past and the practice of the adult educators. This assumption can be progressed a bit further by stating that the specific biographical factor seems to be related to a teacher-centered understanding for the role of the adult educator, such as the one that that some of the ICT educators exhibited in the study.

Looking for the value of the research presented, it can be argued that the points raised and the propositions of the study might be helpful in raising useful questions in an attempt to develop a national framework for the specification of the education, training and competences of the ICT adult educators aimed at improving learning and teaching in SCS in
References
Teaching adults ICT at Second Chance Schools in Greece.

Introduction

The European society is becoming more and more caring about developing the status of training and teaching, as well as the percentage increase of citizens attending classes at lifelong learning programs. The Community’s principles are that the member states’ future should be based on their citizens’ occupational qualifications, their inventiveness and their creativity (innovation-business skills).

The new approach of the European Top Committee at Lisbon in 2000 was for the states to develop local learning centers, to improve their citizens basic abilities (especially through teaching computer science at a basic level at least) to the majority of Committee’s citizens and to promote the importance of having I.C.T. skills (Sipitanou, 2005).

Second Chance Schools in Greece were established, following the above new approach. These Schools are only available to adults whose education was interrupted or blocked, when they were pupils. The duration of their studies is 2 years (from September to June for two consecutive years) and classes take place in the afternoon from Monday to Friday. The lessons are offered in the form of literacies (γραμματισμός-grammatismos) which are determined as: language (Greek and English), mathematics, computer science, social and cultural-aesthetics literacy and natural sciences (Ministerial Decision 2008, article 4).

S.C.S. run under the National Security of Quality System and Valuation of Adult Learning. Greek S.C.S. are members of the European Network of S.C.S. Adults who study at S.C.S. have varying needs, different economic status and different origins. That’s why their teachers should be able and sensitive enough to meet their students’ needs. As S.C.S. operate in prisons too, quite a lot imprisoned adults (men and women) can be educated there, therefore teachers should also be able to communicate and interact with difficult and troubled personalities. Humans, who are able to participate in educational programs throughout their life, become more responsible and sensitive individuals and learn not to discriminate others, because of their mental or cultural differences (UNESCO, 1999, p.p. 70-72). Education which respects cultural differences as a philosophy as well as a practice, can encourage the lifelong training and education, because the bicultural education concerns all human beings.

S.C.S.’s schedule also aims in educating adults to care about the environmental affairs (pollution, lack of water etc) and promotes environmental sustainability. People adopt good practices about protecting the environment, so they do not feel guilty or irresponsible for doing nothing at all. Environmental issues are also supported by I.C.T. classes via interdisciplinary projects between I.C.T. classes and environmental science ones.

For those people who face some kind of difficulty (i.e. unemployed women who try to return back to work or people with special needs), studying in a S.C.S. offers them the opportunity to become active members of society and even earn profits. Moreover, as far as special needs and elderly people are concerned, studying I.C.T. in S.C.S. allows them to interact with other people and gives them some kind of independence.

The purpose of this survey is to conclude whether and/or the extent the above points are
supported by teachers of S.C.S. Teachers answered questions about subjects they teach and techniques they use and also whether they handle people with the flexibility and sensibility that meets their students’ needs and abilities (disabled people and/or people of different origins). Computer science teachers were questioned on their efforts to sensitize their students about the environment, ways to protect it and about the sustainable development too.

The main part of the questionnaire concerned subjects which are taught in S.C.S. the teaching procedure, the laboratory equipment and the efficacy of the knowledge adult students manage to get in using computer and I.C.T.

Also it is worthwhile to mention that through our questionnaire we managed to, indirectly, gather a piece of demographic information about the profile of the students attending classes in S.C.S. We have a slight insight of the type of people studying in S.C.S. as per their age, their cultural status, their sex, their ethnicity and their special needs (if any).

**Computer science literacy at Second Chance Schools and the I.C.T. teachers.**

Informatics and computer science literacy are significant factors for the community. An important factor which supports adults’ adaptation in the modern life style is to learn how to use the computers as well as I.C.T, even at a basic level, as that is accepted at S.C.S. (Dagdilelis, 2003).

When someone speaks about computer science literacy, refers to three separate but cooperating domains. These are:
1. Basic knowledge of computer science (alphabetism in informatics).
2. Solving problems with the aid of I.C.T.
3. The social dimensions of computer science.
   (ibid).

I.C.Ts. were included in Second Chance Schools’ schedule in order to make adult students think positively about using them in their daily social life or even their occupation. Also, adult students become more aware about the role and service of I.C.T. for society in general and finally they recognize the usefulness of I.C.T. services in different situations (ibid).

The topics of computer science which are taught usually are of practical interest for the students which could ultimately help them solve everyday life’s problems. For example, some Excel formulae help people solve mathematical problems or make calculations in the financial world rapidly (ibid).

**Computer science teachers of Second Chance Schools**

Teachers of computer science literacy have been educated and trained at Universities or Technical Colleges. They are employed at S.C.S. as full time teachers and are derived from the state’s secondary schools for certain period of time (usually one year that is renewed every year, if the teacher applies for it). There are also computer scientists occupied as part time staff. All of them participate at scheduled seminars, organized at regular times by I.D.E.K.E. the state institute that supervises those schools’ operation. These seminars enable computer science teachers become more knowledgeable and qualified in teaching adults at S.C.S.
A relevant survey has pointed out that teachers of computer science literacy are flexible when they organize their lessons, plus they choose their subjects and teaching techniques according to their students’ needs and abilities (Tzimogiannis & Gravani, 2008).

S.C.S. Service Rule declares that teachers play a participatory role as they try to educate the adult students by helping them discover what they already know. This kind of technique will eventually play a big part in the process of development of each student’s abilities. Teachers evaluate their students’ needs at the beginning of the school year and then they collaborate with their supervisors in order to mould the lessons’ schedule. They also look for emerging problems during the school year and take corrective actions as necessary. Finally, teachers are expected to produce new material they could use in their classes or they might choose to use existed ones (Ministerial Decision, 2008, articles 6, 8).

Method
The survey procedure
The main part of this survey was carried out in three months time, from December 2008 to February 2009. An electronic message was sent by e-mail and teachers submitted their answers on-line.

A first issue of the questionnaire was sent during the preliminary study, to a few experienced teachers of computer science literacy. Those teachers’ remarks about the accuracy and clearance of the questions included were taken into account and the researchers made the appropriate modifications on the questionnaire. It is worthwhile to mention that there was a problematic formation of a specific question which was noticed by a teacher, during the answering process. She informed the researchers about the problem who in turn corrected the error and therefore the expected information was finally obtained.

Replies were sent back to the site where the questionnaire was designed (www.surveymonkey.com) and site’s software prepared the percentage of each question’s alternative answer. We have got an answer rate of 54,4% of Second Chance Schools in Greece. The survey procedure was stopped when the answers became similar and repetitive and the research targets were satisfied.

Our survey was a descriptive study. A brief description of the questionnaire follows:
- Questions about technical aspects of teaching computer science literacy i.e. are there enough computers to satisfy the number of each class’ students?
- Questions about the teaching procedure i.e. what type of teaching techniques are usually used?
- Questions about whether students are able to eventually use computers and I.C.T. unsupervised.
- Some questions concerned the flexibility of the teaching schedules and whether those correspond to each student’s needs and abilities.
- Finally a part of the questionnaire was concerned with whether teachers tend to raise social issues such as the environmental protection and sustainability.

This descriptive study gathered important information that may eventually prompt someone conduct further investigations on subjects raised above (Grawitz, 2006, vol. B, p.101).

The way results were processed
Questions whose answers were a simple choice were processed and analyzed quantitatively (%) (Adamopoulos et al. 1999; Gardikiotis, 2007; Tsantas et al. 1999).

The questionnaire used in our survey allowed us to have a first insight of the procedure generally followed in teaching computer science literacy at S.C.S. However, it was not possible to conclude to some kind of dependence between parameters such as the teachers’ occupational duration and the teaching techniques they use, or their training needs while teaching in S.C.S. (p>0.05).

Where the answer was of text form (open questions) we used qualitative word processing for analysis purpose. At this stage, the method of constant comparison was used and similar answers were coded under the same group (Iosifidis, 2006).

Results
Some demographic information about the teachers and students

Computer science literacy teachers come from the State’s secondary schools and work as fulltime staff in S.C.S. with limited time contracts (which can be renewed if teachers choose to do so). From those who answered our questionnaire, 62.5% is full time teachers and the rest of 37.5% is part time staff. All the above have had a 10 year (more or less) period of occupation in the States’ secondary schools (a relatively short period) and up to 3 years in S.C.S. 60% of those who answered the questionnaire were aged between 23-35 years and 35% of them were from 36 to 45 years old.

Age appeared to be a significant factor as far as the ability and willingness of a teacher concerned to accept new techniques and teaching methods. Therefore teachers of younger age appear to be more eager to adopt new teaching styles and are more flexible with their approach towards their adult students.

The results showed that the teachers usually stay at the same S.C.S. for more than 2 years. This tendency might be supportive to the schools’ everyday running and improvement of the quality of education offered, because the older teachers could explain their teaching approach, that has already been tested, to their new colleagues (especially to those who are occupied part time and could be different every year). Also, the longer a teacher stays with a S.C. S. the better he can serve as a link between the school and the local community. Teachers can be seen as mentors and students can always turn to them for a word of advice even after they have graduated. Teachers could also operate as a pole of communication between graduates and currently active students. They could organize teams of graduates working as volunteers, in order to share their own experience with the active students and support them with the completion of their studies.

Also some demographic information about the adult students emerged, indirectly, through some answered questions: Students between 30 to 50 years old were two times more than those up to 30 years old, during the last school year. Also, it does not seem to have students suffering from any form of disability during the period studied, however non-Greek students reached 38%.

Subjects taught and applied techniques

The computer science offered topics include: word, windows and internet at a percentage of 92-100% of answered questions. Excel and e-mail/communication at a percentage of 86%. Other topics referred to image processing, sound processing, power point etc. It is usual for the teachers and students not to work on all the above mentioned
topics, because the lesson is organized according to the students’ abilities. Thus the Second Chance School’s schedule is fitted to its students’ abilities, needs and susceptibility.

Some additional practical training is also offered to students left behind with their studies to assist them catch up with the rest of the team, or those who wish to participate in further exams like E.C.D.L. Also some interdisciplinary training is offered where teachers allow students to search information on the internet in order to complete case studies given to them.

Teachers declared that they teach adults in a way like the following: they give some theoretical information at the beginning of the lesson and then they distribute the exercise for practice. Most of the teachers mentioned that they usually include in their lessons those topics that are of practical interest for their students’ life (for example they help them learn how to use the A.T.M. at a bank, how to check for tickets via internet, how to complete an application form using the computer). Teachers show students how to browse the internet safely, how to “filter” information using key words and how to think about what they are looking for before they start surfing the “net”. It is worthwhile to mention that teachers pointed out that many adult students suffer from computer anxiety, so they must overcome this fear before they start seeing results from their studies at S.C.S. Teachers (94% of them) answered that they help their students study by teaching them studying strategies or by advising them how to approach an exercise. Students usually cooperate with each other and with their teachers too, as they practice in the class or they work on a project. The teaching techniques that are used include those were students participate (active teaching technique) and those were the teachers played the major role (passive teaching technique). The first type of technique includes: practices such as brain storming, discussion groups, questions-replies, problem solving, practice teams, case studies. Techniques that are always engaged in teaching computer science literacy classes are the exercise solving and the demonstration by the teacher. All the rest are usually used complementary.

**Lab equipment and technical assistance**

Computer science literacy seems to be performed carefully and rather effectively, despite the fact that S.C.S. usually do not possess their own lab (they use labs from the shared lodgings schools), there have no technical assistance and there is not always a work station (P.C.) for every student. There is fast internet, 1-2 Mbps, except S.C.S. operated in prisons where there is not at all. Teachers can use the lab whenever they require to teach their class. The previous two parameters and the goodwill of both teachers and students seemed to result to a descent education in S.C.S. as far as the subjects taught and exercises carried out are concerned.

**The inclusion of the students’ needs, knowledge and skills in the teaching procedure. How effective is the teaching of computer science literacy in S.C.S. according to the teachers’ opinion?**

Teachers care about their students’ needs and they take into account their students’ remarks concerning topics they prefer to study and be trained into.

The expressed desires of each separate student are discussed in the class and teachers try to satisfy them through the lessons offered, as much as possible. Teachers try to diagnose each students’ skills, abilities and knowledge at the beginning of the school year. As the teaching proceeds, teachers make efforts to adjust the level of each class’s difficulty, the topics and exercises to their students’ achievements. It is clear that there
have been opportunities, in the computer science classes, to talk about the environmental pollution and protection and thus help adults become more sensitive and responsible global citizens. Also, teachers mentioned that they are flexible enough to adopt teaching techniques and topics that would match some students’ special needs (students from different countries and cultures). The following are some detailed teaching practices that teachers use:

a) One common practice is for students to work together with students from other classes (interdisciplinary projects) were they can discuss various topics such as discussions about one’s origin country (for example study about the monuments of that country).

b) Teachers use videos concerning the global pollution, they speak about recycling P.C. hardware or how to avoid unnecessary printing and emphasize in I.C.T’s contribution in the environmental protection and sustainable development.

Adults who attend the S.C.S.’ schedule, are qualified enough to participate in exams for computing skills certification, like the E.C.D.L. according to computer science teachers opinion. The evaluation of students’ achievements is based on each ones efforts and progress and sometimes the adult students evaluate themselves. Teachers evaluate a number of projects that the students have prepared (portfolio). At the time this study was carried out, there was no mention of adults facing any type of disability who could attend those schools’ program. Also the S.C.S. did not possess the adequate equipment to educate them.

Adult students and their teachers are sometimes engaged in projects with other European state’s Second Chance Schools via the Grundtvig program. This program offers them the chance to visit or simply communicate with their colleagues at similar schools in Europe and exchange good practices.

Graduates usually keep in touch with their school and/or with their computer science teacher. This practice was mentioned as positive by their teachers, as adults could always seek for advice about their professional career or social life. Also graduates could voluntarily organize teams in order to help active students by sharing with them their personal experiences. So, teachers themselves (especially those who stay for a long period of time with the same Second Chance School) could act as a link between the school and the local community. Finally, teachers pointed out that the adult students are educated and trained in such a way that they could use the knowledge and skills gained during their studies in order to: be innovative in doing business, to study further at other type of schools or to use the computer and internet for lifelong learning as well as for their everyday life’s duties.

The computer science teachers believed that the percentage of their students who could pass exams for a certificate in basic computing skills averaged at 34%. They also mentioned that S.C.S.’ graduates tend to continue their studies at other type of technical schools.

**How I.C.T. teachers are supported in their job**

I.C.T. teachers mentioned that they need “a little” more training in topics of modern computer science and tuition skills of that science. They also answered that they need from “a little” to “a lot” of more training at tuition skills especially for the adults, in order to upgrade the teaching procedure of the computer science literacy. The length of the teachers’ experience of the same occupation, as well as the type of contract they have (full time or part time), could support the answers mentioned above.
The majority of computer science teachers have been working at state secondary schools for up to 10 years and at S.C.S. for up to 3 years. The duration of their previous occupation might explain why they think that they need more training at tuition skills especially for the adults. I.C.T. teachers did not mention any special interest in receiving training on modern peak topics of computer science, probably because they are qualified enough to support the S.C.S.’ schedule. The most experienced and older teachers noticed that they need “quite” more training on peak topics of the computer science as well as on tuition skills, especially for the adults and on informatics too. In general, teachers who were experienced (had been working at S.C.S. for more than two years), felt that they required training in tuition skills at a lower level in contrast with those who lack the experience and replied that they desired to be trained on such skills.

A lot of the I.C.T. teachers (45.2%) answered that they were mainly supported ("a lot"), via the cooperation with teachers from other literacies, in order to improve their tuition skills. Thus they can adjust their teaching techniques and the whole procedure to their students’ needs and abilities. The cooperation between students plays a major part in their teaching and training development and that’s why teachers preferred the same practice for themselves too.

How adult students benefit from attending I.C.T. classes in Second Chance Schools

The citizens, who look for a chance in education during their life, could benefit from studying in S.C.S. as:

- This type of State School provides graduates with a certificate equivalent to the one obtained at state secondary schools.
- Adults who study computer science and I.C.T. at S.C.S. improve their skills enough to pass exams for basic computing skills, according to their teachers’ opinion.
- The adult education program of S.C.S. has been considered as positive for the sustainable development and the protection of the environment, as most teachers have judged.

More questions for further study

Here we present some questions that have emerged from our study’s results. Someone could survey for:

1. Methods or tips to improve the computer science teaching procedure in S.C.S.
2. Ways that teachers could be supported more effectively in their job.
3. The means in which adult students could be encouraged to start and complete their studies at S.C.S. how to improve their knowledge and computing skills for lifelong learning purposes or even simply satisfy their everyday life’s duties.
4. Methods to develop the adults’ innovation-business mind. This approach could improve the local community’s life too.
5. Ways in which education for the sustainable development could become more effective for the people alone and for the global environment too.

References

Handbooks Issues.


**Educator’s role in technological era.**

**Introduction**

According the European Council’s decision in Lisbon, 23-24 March 2000, a new strategic goal for the European Union itself had been set: “to 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” (European Council, 2000). In order this goal to be achieved, an overall strategy have been developed. Main purpose of this strategy is the investment in people through education and life-long learning.

Since 1998, UNESCO (United Nations Education Science Cultural Organisation) through its World Education Report, *Teachers and Teaching in a Changing World*, describes the radical implication ICTs have for conventional teaching and learning. It predicts the transformation of the teaching-learning process and the way teachers and learners gain access to knowledge and information. UNESCOs strategic objective in education is Improving the quality of education through the diversification of contents and methods and promoting experimentation, innovation, the diffusion and sharing of information and best practices as well as policy dialogue (UNESCO, 1998).

We identified that both World and Europe are directing towards an education system change in last decade. Why this change is necessary, what has to do with ICTs, how much and in what way education’s professions will be affected and in what way these people can be helped in this transformation era will be some of this paper’s discussions.

**Transformation Necessity**

In industrial era educational systems were focusing to reduce analphabetism, promote reading and writing skills and specialized knowledge, essential for the industrial labor market. Professions were too demanding in specialized knowledge and skills for operating the machines, replacing most of the rough, hand-made work of farmers. Later on, clerks and office-type workers, the white-collar genre, were gradually occupying the market. Blue-collar workers were more than the old-fashioned white-collar workers since middle of 1950.

Simultaneously, technology, such as telegraph, telephone, radio, television, computers, and last but not least, internet, tried to close the gap distance were building in a human effort for communication. economy growth, commercializing of the societies and mass media invention had prevent for a better educated citizen around the globe. All these media, very quickly, started to serve various aims (Prescott & Conger, 1995). One of them were education. Mail had been used for the first distance course since end of 19th century. Radio in conjunction with mail had also been used in WW II for educating prisoners in German’s prisons during their occupation. USA had been called national conference of how they will use TV and radio for educating purposes in the middle of 50’s (Schramm, 1977). It was the time that every American was afraid that Russians were more clever since they had been leaded the space race.
Even Internet begun from a failure of American DoD. Before it was given to plain
global citizens, it passed through university channels. Education systems were never missing
technology changes and innovations. Instead, most of the times, they were leading them.
One of the most important roles in each and every educational system, worldwide and
despite of the timing we are referring, undoubtfully is the educator’s role. His/her
qualifications are changing, according the era we are referring to, even the way s/he
performs her/his profession or the day-to-day job. But it is obvious to everybody that it
could not be any education, innovation or progress if this profession were missing.

Educator’s mission is to promote the education. S/he performs various roles, as
managing a school, teaching in a class, authoring a book and various others. Each of these
roles is following its own way under certain rules: the methods. Even if a teacher may alter
the teaching procedure somehow, making sometimes even unpredictable for others, s/he
has to follow a method of performing each and every action. It cannot be done without
plan. Same rules apply in each role, like authoring the books or whatever.

Technological era have been altered some of these rules: first of all, distance is not
anymore a constraint. The term “tele” had invaded our life through telegraph, telephone,
television, telebanking, teleworking, telelearning and all these actions somehow a human
being could not perform in other way but being physically present at the right point. Now,
technology and machines are a tool for doing the same actions, faster, easier, sometimes
safer, even without leaving our house. Educators are not leaving out of the society. Despite,
most of the times are leading society to its changes. So, they did not abandoned the term
“tele” and its consequences but they adopted it, researching its best practices, trying to
bring the best results to their clients, whatever their title was, students or adults, pre or in
service, academic or professional sectors. Even if years of research for educator’s physical
presence cannot be used in distance learning, this knowledge can be valuable when
transformed for the new media.

Educations systems need to be changed, if not have changed already due to societal
transformations. Considering the already established and well-working educational system,
we’ll try in the next paragraphs to describe what exactly are the reasons for this
transformation in an effort for a better identification of the problem.

Before paper had been invented, very rare human being were keeping records of
their wisdom. Usually expressing in various formats, as status, monuments, and other
creations dedicated to whoever God they were believing at, they invented writing in early
ages for communication their oral language, first at stones and rocks and then they
invented papyrus. After some years, not too many compared to human being’s age, papyrus
have been industrialized and paper, books, magazines and newspapers became daily used
tools. Last 60-70 years the machine called computer had been invented. In fact, some
thousands years ago, other machines like Chinese abacus or the Greek Antikythera
mechanism had been invented to cover some of their needs but, using electricity as main
power, computers had first appeared in the middle of 40’s.

Despite their hughe size and weight, a race began. Smaller, faster, bigger, cheaper:
smaller in size, faster in speed, bigger in capacity and cheaper in cost. Size is for physical
conditions, so in 70 years they can be hand-held, while in the state-of-the-art edge,
somebody can identify computers in cm or even mm size. Faster is being count through
number of instructions per time unit. First measurement responded a few thousands of
FLOPS (FLoating point Operations per second). Human beings are receiving an operation
which takes less than 0.1 second as instantaneous. Nowadays supercomputers are counting
their performance in PetaFLOPS (1 quadrillion instructions: \(1 \times 10^{15}\)). First computer weighted over 18 tons while nowadays easily somebody can find a computer in market weighting less than a kilogram. Some years ago nobody could even think about buying a computer at home, since their cost was so high that even academic institutions could not afford them. Today, the reducing cost way all producers had followed, led to programs such as the OLPC (Negroponte, 2005) or the equivalent program for 50 $ students laptop in India. Last but not least, the tremendous increase in capacities. People who started using computers in early 90's do remember the vast amount of 640 kbyte in RAM and the 40 MB in HDDs (Hard Disk Drives). Today it is quite reasonable an amount of 1 TB (TerraByte = \(10^{12}\) Bytes) for a personal computer. But if we try to make a comparison, printed data of 1 GB in a hard disk drive equals fourty 18th metres long vehicles, full of books.

Easy file storage, simultaneously with the computer's usage expansion globally, communication and cooperation between computer users and radically changes in the educational community brought a total different point of view to knowledge in the people's mind: “nowadays, knowledge is spread everywhere and it is free. There is no need for chasing after it. What we have to do is to learn the seeking method”.

Educational framework moved from knowledge acquisition, as objective, to seeking method. Each people should know how to search for the knowledge. Where? In the internet, the public domain, bookstore and library for everything, place for any answer, for many people. And what about authenticity? Old-fashioned books had a certain system to be printed: an author, not every educator but some of them, high-skilled usually, were writing their drafts, sending to the editorial companies where they were first scrutinized for their contents and then corrected over and over again from a team of correctors. Finally and after a long time, the book were presented on the bookstore selfes. Nowadays, every person having the basic skills of typing and using the internet can publish her/his own thoughts. How the reader can be sure that these thoughts are valuable? That the knowledge provided here is correct? Nobody can be sure anymore. Reader should judge whatever reads, listens, even sees with her/his own eyes and ears, compare it with her/his beliefs and experiences and, if perceived positively, accept it into his/her own conceptual system. So, with the lack of authenticity in networking period, demand for judging the information appeared.

Last, but not least, demand in the concurrent era is the need for cooperation. Consider the number of authors for each paper in this conference. Compare it with the equivalent number in a conference 10 years ago. By average is more than triple. Same happens for the book author's but also for many professions: it is not anymore the period of the one-man show, teamwork is above everything and, of course, it is a demanded skill for each citizen.

**Educator's Prerequisite Skills and Qualifications**

Educator is a profession like all others but with a small difference: it affects all others (Kozma, 2002). And not only affects the professions, jobs and the market but also the society at all. Educators cannot live out of the society, nor their skills and knowledge can be outdated. If they do not hold what should they pass to others, how they can lead kids or other people to a modernized society, to a progressive future? (Papastergiou & Solomonidou, 2003).

This is the main reason UNESCO started early to publish books and develop educational programs for teachers around the world. Their main objective was not to
integrate ICT in this professional but to assist educators to understand what transformations have been occurred and what methods have to be adopted in their day-to-day performance of their profession. Even the preparation of an educator should be altered in order to implement new methods and techniques, new skills and knowledge, new style and attitude for better, more efficient and effective outcomes. An effort to describe what should be all these new skills and knowledge an educator should occupy in our years follows (Karakirios & Kekkeris, 2008):

- **Subject Matter Expert**: Whatever an educator is teaching, in class or online, should know in depth the curriculum. Students should all the time feel the safety that their educator knows exactly all the answers about the lesson, even if s/he does not provide them in the first question. Educators, even if they do not know something about the lesson, should feel confident and do not express their ignorance to their students.

- **Teamworking**: Educators should not stand against the students but on their side. Teaching is not a race between students and teachers but a team collaborative effort for learning development. Whose learning? Not only student’s but also teacher’s learning. All these people should work collaboratively, bringing the best results in their objectives.

- **Innovator**: In a world which changes radically, educators should be occupied by innovation spirit. By this term we mean that educators should accept and implement the new way of things happening, inventions, new style of thinking, etc. “The most difficult part of putting something in the man’s brain is to pull out what he already has inside” said Aisenhower (1958). That’s not the issue for an innovator who is easily adapted with anything new, accepting that and criticizes it positively, seeking for good and bad angles and ways of use.

- **Constructive**: Educators are not anymore beacons whereas they transmit their knowledge to their auditorium (students) with small or no interaction with them. Why? Most possible because knowledge acquisition is not anymore the education objective. Instead, knowledge creation in every student’s mind is the objective. For that reason educators should be constructive and find ways and methods of how to assist their students in knowledge creation, skill development and attitude change based on what they have heard, viewed or experienced during the educational season, and not solely at that time. Except of their characteristics referred above, some basic skills should be present for every educator: ability to understand, to express him/herself well enough to the others, to communicate efficiently and effectively, to read and write and to use computers and internet efficient and effective for his/her profession.

**Educator’s Training**

Skills and abilities referred at previous chapter may assist an educator in his/her profession. But nobody can become an educator without the appropriate training (Anderson & Elloumi, 2004). Despite of how well somebody knows the subject of Mathematics, Physics, History, Arts or whatever subject, if not study well the educative portion of their profession they will not be able to develop and effective attitude in their job. How ICT (Informations and Communications Technology) can be used as a tool in educationals development, in their day-to-day bussiness and assist in a more productive profession is being described in a series of UNESCO’s publications (UNESCO, 2002). The objective of these publications is not just delivering the essential ICTs skills to students but for giving the essential skills and knowledge to educators of what are the best methods and
tactics of using ICTs in their profession. It is certain that a shift from teaching to learning, from teacher-oriented to learning-oriented have been appeared in education after ICTs became a daily tool for educators and students and nobody can, or wants, to change it back (Swan, 2001). With this shift in mind, how well prepared can be the educators, not only the ones they will be integrate in the system after they finish their studies but also the in-service educators, the ones they perform the educator's profession every day.

Our objective is to create a course not for teaching but for discussing these issues. It will not be a lesson with specific curriculum the participant should learn, with exams for assessment, with procedures for presency identification. Instead it will be an online forum for questions discussions, online exams for presenting the abilities an educator has for student’s assessment, passages for advantages and disadvantages identification, methods for trigger learning and motivation, a sharing community building where every participant will offer equally her/his own experience, skills and knowledge. Main objective of this course will be the educator’s familiarization with online learning, the ICT tools usage for educative purposes and the educator’s motivation growth for better education.

Educator’s roles in online learning, as described by Headley (2005), will be presented and discussed. Space planning, pacesetting, connecting, hosting and mirroring will be analyzed and examined thoroughly, in an effort for in-depth understanding, arguing and knowledge creation through pros and cons identifications, thesis defending and project implementations. Teaching presense (Garrison, Anderson & Archer, 2000) as one of the three critical components in the creation of an effective online educational community will be one of the main tools, and through its implementation in pilotic and secure environments participants will identify best methods but also constraints should have in mind when implement it. Quality’s dilemma, as being identified and/or manuscripted by authorities will be set to participants consenses while appropriate methods for quality promotion and assuring will be discussed. At the course last day, if any, we’ll be happy identifying participants to be motivated in using efficient and effectively ICTs for a better education, despite if it is in-class or by distance.

Conclusions

ICTs integration in our every day life have not only changed the way we are doing some things but also the purpose of others. It is not just typing instead of writing, scrolling the screen instead of turning pages but also the way we learn. Educators are not anymore the knowledge transmitters but student’s facilitators in knowledge creation. Education planning is not anymore teacher-centered but learning-centered, or even learner-centered. Facing these and others radically changes we propose an online course for educators. Its objective will be to familiarize educators with ICTs and their usage in education, skills and abilities an educator needs, best methods and tactics s/he can implement in teaching, quality’s issues in designing, implementing and evaluating courses. This course will not be fixed since each and every discussion participants holds will remain as educational resources for next participants. But since participants will never be blocked and can enter this course, or its free forums, even after the course completion, each of them can have an upgrade to his/her knowledge or even submit his/her experiences helping in course update.

Simultaneously with organizational issues, as roles and qualifications in education, technical as software usage and psychological as online crisis management, among others, we hope that this course will be a valuable tool for every educator in case that better and
more quality education is her/his objective.

References
Quality adult learning in perspective of advancing modern technologies and personal knowledge management.

Introduction

In period of several last decades of previous century till now there can be observed a historic change to the information age. If the previous - industry age was more related with the creation and utilization of material goods then information age is more tied with the creation and consumption of information. The creation and development of the Internet has accelerated these changes. With the help of the Internet and the Web a more intensive creation, sharing and use of information has been done available. That has shifted the way people perceive information. The importance and value of obtaining the right information in the right time has considerably risen. The new ways of acquiring information provides new options of doing business. Information amounts people have to handle have increased dramatically. This has become to be known as the “information overload”. Work environment equipment and systems are becoming more sophisticated. That calls for extra skills and ways to do the job and to handle vast amounts of data that has to be dealt with. This leads to acknowledgment that knowledge has become the most important asset for organizations and for individuals. The increased importance of knowledge has been a reason for appearance of so called “knowledge work”.

The increased value and usage of knowledge in everyday life and in business develops a necessity for well educated individuals. That in turn demands for appropriately well developed education system, which points also to the lifelong learning strategy. The Commission of the European Community has been actively advocating for this since the end of last century. This Commission’s of the European Community (2000) initiative resulted in the Memorandum of Lifelong Learning to prepare the way for objectives to achieve in coming years. In the same time recent Commission’s of the European Community (2007) surveys show that the benchmark indicator rate for adult participation in lifelong learning is stagnating in European Union. Thus there should be found new ideas and ways how to give another momentum to lifelong learning. The bloom of different new technologies including highly popular mobile technologies might promise to provide some clues from the technological perspective. Enhanced ways of teaching and learning such as e-learning and m-learning could cover the gap in education accessibility.

The problem is that many times for an individual or a knowledge worker in an organization further education courses do not provide satisfactory learned education quality growth. Once back in their workplaces individuals realize that again there is something that they do not know or do not know how to do.

The aim is to develop a courses and follow-up management system utilizing a KM (knowledge management) approach using the potential of modern technologies. At this stage of the research a personal-knowledge based worker environment is viewed in the perspective of several-form learning and PKM integration. A partial introduction of the
developed system in the field and its results has been described.

**Qualitative Adult Learning**

Quality assurance is one of the Bologna action lines. One of the aims of regional development is to give possibility to get qualitative education, which means caring about the goals, needs, desires and interests of customers and making sure they are met. This approach is also applicable to distance education where teaching and learning are separated in terms of time, place and space (Cakula & Plesavnieks, 2008). Quality means freedom of deficiencies – freedom from errors that require rework, customer dissatisfaction, customer claims and etc. (Stein, 2003; Teichler, 1996). Educator, learner and administration responsibility are part of a qualitative education. In addition quality assurance undoubtedly is geared towards evaluation of education process; however it is not less important from the student perspective as they are striving to obtain a good education as well.

An individual can be trained as a highly skilled specialist if teaching and training process that increases the potential skill and know how level, also fosters intellectual development broadening cognitive horizon and guiding student towards the lifelong learning approach. This process is connected to objective contradictions:

- between disposition towards independency in the selection of knowledge from one side and the existing forms and methods of professional training from the other,
- between the large amount of information and superficial knowledge from one hand and the quality of practical skills in a definite profession from the other (Cakula, 2006).

As follows nowadays students in study process should develop some key skills which would then serve as a foundation for further learning. Within this skill set are the following skills and abilities:

- to recognize and to solve different type of problems,
- to handle large amounts of information and to find the right one,
- to be familiar with different information and knowledge structures,
- to find the necessary information quickly.

Problem solving ability is vital part of the student’s work as it serves as a test of knowledge and application of learned principles in new situations. That is a moment of truth how students comprehend particular subject.

Creative experience of studies is the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained and assessed by a student in the process of theoretical and practical cognition, which have become a personally important and can be applied in various life situations (Cakula, 2001). Creative experience can be developed in two main ways: in real life situations and in virtual life situations. E-learning is focused on virtual life situations. It means three different directions: learning games, learning by analysis of different situations and research work (Cakula, 2009). Another virtual life situation focused learning approach is m-learning. Also for m-learning applies the same previously mentioned three learning directions.

Learning can be divided in two main categories: formal learning and informal learning. This research paper and the proposed system are more geared toward formal learning. Formal learning can be broadly divided into three categories based on the context of occurrence – regular classroom learning, distance learning and online learning (Seibu & Biju, 2008). Distance learning may involve both a classroom environment and online access to course material or it may involve just one of these approaches. Online learning can include
t-learning (TV-learning), e-learning and m-learning. In e-learning case technology use is brought one step forward as it is in distance learning. During e-learning study process all learning and communication activities take place just by the means of online technologies. Thus the learning approach is rather specific and technology focused if to compare with regular classroom learning. Another online learning approach is m-learning which can be seen as an off-spring of e-learning, but with emphasis on exclusively using mobile devices such as PDAs (personal digital assistants), smart phones, mobile gaming devices, PMPs (portable media players), camera mobile phones and wearable mobile devices as shown in Figure 1 (see below).

![Figure 1](image1.png)

Mobile learning in perspective of e-learning and mobile devices

There are several learning approaches in general which can substantially enhance both e-learning and m-learning thus making them more effective. They are:

- learner centered approach - it builds on the skills and knowledge of students, enabling them to reason from their own experience,
- knowledge centered approach - the curriculum is built from sound foundation of validated knowledge, taught efficiently and with inventive use of concepts and methods,
- assessment centered approach - assessment is matched to the ability of the learners, offering diagnosis and formative guidance that builds on success, and
- community centered approach - successful learners form a mutually promotive community, sharing knowledge and supporting less able students (Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2005).

An important step in learning process is the creation of course content. In business organizations this might be quite a challenging task to do as there might be individuals with different background in terms of skill level, experience and culture. Depending on the type of organization employees' background setting might vary from very similar to very different one. The teaching and learning methods also can vary quite a bit; starting from the traditional till ones enhanced by tutor's own experience and modern technologies. Teaching and learning equipment is closely related with the chosen tutoring methods. In business organization environment for adult learning frequently are used the tools and systems employees must interact with in their daily job activities. Many times that is also the subject of their training.

Another important step is the further follow-up on freshly acquired skills in formal learning process after individuals get back to their workplaces. What is the further follow-
up? It happens that after training or qualification enhancement courses individuals remember something they forgot to ask instructor. Once back in their job environment they remember these questions. Or there might be situation that the question pops up in his or her mind only when trying out just learned new functions of the software they use for doing their job. Or there might be some unexpected situation, or the software they use behaves in an unusual manner - such situations call for help. Of course large organizations have establish special internal helpdesk services, but frequently individuals use the opportunity to contact instructor given that he or she is company’s employee as well. There are number of different ways how instructor can help. That might be just a quick helpful hint over the telephone, or a more detailed one using e-mail or that might involve remotely taking over individual’s computer and showing a solution right in front of his or her eyes. Just mentioned situations are also beneficial for instructor as they provide hints how the training course might be enhanced for the next group of people. There could accumulate quite many such calls for help so that instructor decides to create a brand new more advanced course on a particular topic. The further follow-up also has another side effect. It allows instructor to go over again on some part of taught material. Thus individual can refresh previously acquired skills.

Knowledge Management System and Impact on Course Content

The information age has taken over many areas of our business and personal life. Knowledge has become a valuable asset. From an individual's perspective knowledge is as ones memories and skills, and its physical location is mainly in the brain. Knowledge is rather intangible and that it can not be fully realizable in common with all our human being (Apshwalka, 2004). Thus a considerable role is performed by person's characteristics such as psychological traits, motivation, volition and his or her intelligence. A well known author in KM area Thomas Davenport gives a more specific definition, where knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices, and norms (Davenport & Prusak, 2000). One of the main goals of KM, as pointed out by Tiwana (2002), is to facilitate opportunistic application of fragmented knowledge through integration.

Practices

People know more than they can tell (Polanyi, 1966). That is at the foundation of separating knowledge in two main types – explicit knowledge (written down in different forms) and tacit knowledge which resides in individuals’ heads and minds. KM represents a mix of different areas, tools, practices and strategies combined under one roof. Some of them might be new, others already well known and used by people for centuries. Master and apprentice mentoring relationship, and learning by doing are examples of widely used forms of knowledge transfer and interaction. KM is of multidisciplinary nature as depicted in Figure 2 (see below) and encompasses a plethora of diverse fields.
Not only organization can benefit from KM by utilizing it for quick problem solving, strategy or organization memory building and enabling organization to stay ahead of competition, but also communities of practice and individuals benefit from KM. Within communities of practice KM fosters the development of professional skills and common language, supports and enhances networking and collaboration between community members, and facilitates peer-to-peer skills and knowledge transfer. These should be seen as vital components of the proposed system.

For individuals (i.e. in sense system entities) KM is beneficial as well. A sub-area of KM focusing on an individual level is known as PKM or personal knowledge management. As per Tsui (2002) PKM is a collection of processes that an individual needs to carry out in order to gather, classify, store, search and retrieve knowledge in his/her daily activities. He adds that these activities are not confined to business/work-related tasks but also include personal interests, hobbies, home, family and leisure activities. Barth (2000) puts it even in a more laconic way that in essence PKM is being accountable for what you know, who you know, and what they know. Thus PKM rather heavily involves also a collaborative and cultural side. More than that, PKM is not just pointed to an individual, but it rather encompasses cultural, collaborative and social aspect among knowledge workers. As follows PKM fosters the development of CoPs (communities of practice) which in turn are foundation blocks as a fertile ground for knowledge acquisition, sharing and processing – the three basic elements of KM. Frequently within such environment hatches new ideas thus practically creating a new knowledge.

To sum this up from the perspective of the proposed system and from the perspective of an individual be he or she an instructor or a regular employee looking for an enhancement of knowledge and skills one can point out following PKM practices which should be followed while performing regular job duties or to keep just good relationships with other colleagues. These practices are:

- creation and enhancement of social networks,
- development and acquisition of new information search approaches and technologies,
- improvements in ways to locate an expertise or an expert of particular topic,
- addition of context to content,
PKM enhances the perception of group knowledge importance as opposed to just keeping the knowledge by himself or herself and not sharing with others. PKM practices used by instructors or trainees are also beneficial for both sides to carry out the further follow-up activities thus breathing life into this very important after-training or after-course-taking step.

**Knowledge work**

The notion of PKM is closely tied with the term “knowledge work” and thus also with the term “knowledge worker”. For the first time the term “knowledge worker” has been encountered in a book by Peter Drucker (1959). Davenport (2005) defines a knowledge worker as one who has a high degree of expertise, education, or experience, and the primary purpose for his or her job involves the creation, distribution, and / or application of knowledge. This individual (a member of proposed system) should possess not just technical know-how, but also sure sense of the cultural, political, and personal aspects of knowledge (Davenport, 2005). As follows personality characteristics of knowledge worker are considerable factors in how he or she is at finding, understanding, and making use of organizational knowledge (Dalkir, 2005). A valuable aid for knowledge worker is a PKMS (personal knowledge management system). It is a rather complex system and contains social, psychological, and technological aspects (Apshvalka & Grundspeniks, 2005). Each knowledge worker should make a use of such PKMS and all together thus they contribute to the global organization level KM approach. The performance of PKMS is closely tied with knowledge worker’s perceptions, believes, emotions, surrounding society, environment and objectives. Social aspects of PKMS contain keeping up good relationships with colleagues, establishing in lunch time a casual “brown bag” voluntary meetings where colleagues from the same or different departments share their knowledge in a fun and an open way, playing table tennis in short job breaks which revitalizes both body and mind of a knowledge worker, setting (in an organizational level) that a concrete percentage of knowledge workers office hours are being used to enhance their own skills in the area she or he is most interested in. Technologies have an important role as well. This level of PKMS contains different of the shelf searching, knowledge storing, communication, document management, groupware and similar software. In addition custom technologies such as filtering most accessed knowledge items and accordingly tagging those, developing special automatic rankings for in-house experts of each knowledge area based on knowledge workers activities and feedback in communication channels. Both social and technological aspects and features of PKMS have to be specifically tailored for each particular organization – “one fits all” does not work. This type of system serves as a support for getting done with simple information management tasks as well as a support for much more intellectual activities such as accumulating information, deciding of methods for developing a new course for employees or for improvement of already existing knowledge and skills enhancement training. In the case of using PKMS for creation of training courses it’s cultural and communication practices and technological features come very handy in perspective of different backgrounds and abilities of potential trainees assuming they also use PKMS. Thus an instructor can specifically tailor each course for a specific group on trainees. PKMS also is beneficial in knowledge worker’s (instructor’s, trainees or regular employees) free time frames for learning new skills like a new language which will get handy when meeting colleagues located in a foreign country. Thus PKMS makes working
time much more productive and an individual’s leisure time more rewarding or just more fun.

**Technology Influence in Learning**

Information age besides other matters means also the use of modern technological devices such as PCs, mobile phones or GPS (global position system) to name a few. As a law of thumb many knowledge workers deploy one or another type of technological device in their daily work activities which makes them much more productive and thus also the whole company more competitive. Modern advanced technologies enable and support a processing of large amounts of information in reasonable time. Regular PCs are being used for regular office tasks, for accounting needs, for designing and manufacturing cars. The list goes on. Mobile technologies popularity is soaring in the World level be it business environment or a private sector. Many different mobile devices such as PDAs, regular mobile phones, camera phones, PMPs, or gaming consoles are being widely used. All of them can process some type of data, media or information. Businesses use rugged mobile scanners in their warehouses or smart phones for having a conference call while on the go. Individuals starting from children till grannies use mobile phones for staying in touch with their loved ones. Advanced technologies such communication enablers (chat rooms, electronic message boards, e-mail, voice and video communications, and the new phenomena - twitter), smart boards, different simulation technologies and so on have an influential role in education as well. Knowledge worker’s training can be supported by number of different technologies be it a regular PC based or using some kind of a mobile device. A training course quality can be enhanced by a support of technological solutions. PKM practices go hand in hand with just mentioned advanced devices and technologies. An instructor deploying PKM approaches and using mobile device and/or PC based technologies can create an effective further follow-up system which would support trainees in their work duties after they have left the training department thus helping for just acquired new skills to mature in their heads.

**Study Experiment at Workplace**

Application of previously described PKMS practices in employee training process starting from course creation and teaching till the further follow-up steps were applied in a pan-Baltic retail company in the training department level. This organization has many different size retail stores employing many people with different experience, ages, knowledge background and culture. Many business areas and operations of this company are governed by a large rather recently introduced ERP (enterprise resource planning) system. The basic training was done by the consulting company involving only the “key-users”. Afterwards key-users were supposed to transfer their knowledge to the rest of couple hundreds of colleagues. That was done in a basic level just to make sure that employees in stores can handle the same processes as before just now using a new system. However due to a high number of errors done by store employees within the ERP system it soon was clear that in near future these knowledge workers in stores have to enhance their ERP skills. Several PKM practices were used such as networking, developing and enhancing knowledge searching approaches, and setting up a way of localizing expertise. There was set up a helpdesk service to summarize accounted errors. The information gathered by helpdesk colleagues was analyzed in the training department and used as one of the basic
elements for developing and enhancing custom in-house training courses and for performing a further follow-up steps after a particular training course was already attended by trainees. Employee evaluation tests right after training and monitoring of employees performance in their workplaces served as another resource of knowledge for ERP instructor to enhance training quality. For study experiment purposes accumulated errors were divided in four groups: reports based, stock based, invoice based and other errors. There were involved fifteen employees from five different stores. Among the set tasks of this study experiment was to: summarize employees’ training quality information, and to summarize in helpdesk reported errors before and after employee training within a period of one month. Three indicators of successful achievement of previously set goals were defined as follows:

1. employee is able to explain business processes in relation with the ERP system (based on practical hands-on tasks given to trainee),
2. employee is able to analyze and fix errors in the system (based on ERP systems test results), and
3. number of errors decreases from the employee’s represented store (based on accounted errors in helpdesk).

As the further follow-up methods were used direct conversations with persons over a phone, and usage of e-mails, and connecting to shop employees’ computers remotely, and thus assisting them. Many times employees were afraid of repeating the error on their screens and were expecting that instructor will remotely show how to do all the steps from A to Z. Then they had to be encouraged to do it by themselves (instructor remotely supervised and helped only when employee did the wrong step). That actually was very beneficial to trainees as afterwards they felt more confident about their performance especially because it was the live version of company’s ERP system.

As follows only part of previously described PKMS was introduced in this particular study experiment. More advanced technology and resource requiring features were out of the scope of this field experiment. Acquired study experiment results showed that training course quality has been enhanced; employee skill level and their own performance satisfaction have substantially increased; three groups of overall performance enhancement were observed: “no enhancement” – 13%, “20% enhancement” – 67%, and “40% enhancement” – 20%; number of reported errors has decreased from 46 (per month per all involved stores before study experiment) to 20 (per month per all involved stores afterwards). Overall enhancement based on three previously set indicators was as follows: 1st indicator – increase 20%; 2nd indicator – increase 21%; and 3rd indicator – 57% less reported errors.

Conclusion

The proposed PKM system involves both social and technological aspects. It should be specifically tailored for each particular organization’s case to achieve best results as for enhancing adult training quality and also for establishing PKMS in company’s environment in general. PKMS as part of bigger organization’s KM system helps to avoid expensive reinvention and repeated errors; accumulates individual’s tacit and explicit knowledge thus being beneficial for organization level knowledge acquisition, sharing and processing as well; helps to protect company against loosing knowledge in case an employee decides to leave; fosters employee to become a proactive and social member of established
communities of practice. There still should be done field experiments involving psychological aspects, advanced technology solutions and full incorporation of PKMS in organization's KMS. In addition accordant cost benefit ratios should be calculated.

References


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SECTION 3 e-POSTER PRESENTATIONS
PART 1 | Educating the adult educator: European perspectives

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The profile of Special Education Teachers.

Introduction: Necessity of the survey

Only organizations and systems which have an ability to forecast and adopt innovations with flexibility and effectiveness, are able to survive in an international environment guided by market forces and technical developments (Usher, R & Edwards, R., 1994). The result of this is a review of the traditional social structures and systems. The role of education in light of such radical and immense change is crucial. A model of education that progress along with the current system and incorporates in a practical way many of the theoretical parameters of post modernity is the model of special education.

The system of special education is an education field to which innovative educational methods are applied and contemporary technologies are adopted in a spontaneous and non-bureaucratic way.

Taking into consideration that, over the last decade, production process and the international economic environment have been completely transformed by the revolutionary introduction of digital technology, then the role of special education should be reconsidered. Special education combines the individual programs of education and training, the use of contemporary technology and aims to relate education to production processes and the labor market. Special education can respond to contemporary challenges.

Research Methodology

Empirical research was carried out by questionnaire which was distributed in spring 2008 to teachers who work in the field of special education and serve either in special schools or in integration classes that function inside certain schools. The questionnaire was formulated in the framework of the subject Methodology of Educational Research and carried out by teachers from the INSET college (Didaskalio) “Alexandros Delmouzos” in Rhodes, who are also students in the Department of Special Education and they collected 60% of the total of 277 questionnaires. The remaining 40% were distributed by colleagues.

Demographics of the sample

In table 1 the distribution of the 277 teachers who responded to the research across different population areas is presented.
Table 1. Population of areas where teachers work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inhabitants</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Until 5,000</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,001-10,000</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001-30,000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30,001-50,000</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,001-100,000</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>20.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;100,000</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>19.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 277 teachers 109 were male (39.35%) and 167 female (60.29%), while 9 teachers did not answer the relevant question.

Regarding age and experience (table 2), almost half of the teachers were between 41-50 years of age, 30% were 31-40 years of age and almost 15% were 30 years old and under.

The experience in the field of education did not present any great variation in numbers of teachers over the different categories of years of experience. On the contrary, experience in the field of special education showed some variation. About half (50.54%) of the teachers had worked in the field of special education for more than 5 years, and more than 30% had a working experience of 6-10 years.

Table 2. Age and years of work experience in education and special education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Working experience in education</th>
<th>Working experience in special education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 30 years</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>29.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>47.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;50 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participation of male and female teachers according to the age groups in table 2 is not homogeneous. Therefore in table 3, the rate of male/females participation is presented for each group. It can be seen that in the category of teachers up to 30 years of age four times more women than men work. Also the following two categories (teachers between 31-40 and 41-50 years) include more females.

Table 3. Distribution of teachers in special education according to gender and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Until 30 years</th>
<th>31-40 years</th>
<th>41-50 years</th>
<th>&gt;50 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>33.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20.96</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>29.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As has already been referred, the teachers of special education are mainly distributed in special schools and inclusive classes. As can be seen from table 4 below, these two types are represented almost equally in the research. 125 teachers (45.13%) serve
schools of special education and 117 (42.24%) inclusive classes. A significant number (35 teachers), amounting to approximately one eighth of the total, did not answer this question. The distribution of male and female in these two places of work is similar to the distribution of the two genders in the sample (table 4).

Table 4. Distribution of teachers according to gender and place of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School of S. Education</th>
<th>Inclusive class</th>
<th>Not answer</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>38.46</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>61.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>57.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>39.35</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>60.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While there is not a great difference in the number of teachers working in these two places within any given age group, table 5 does show that considerably more teachers aged up to 30 serve in schools of special education, whereas, relatively more teachers between 31-40 years serve in inclusive classes. In the two older age groups there is not essential difference.

Table 5. Distribution of teachers according to working place and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School of S. Education</th>
<th>Inclusive class</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>until 30 years</td>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>41-50 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.60</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Studies and reason for occupation in special education

The questionnaires also investigated the field of teacher training in the subject of special education. The relevant question allowed the possibility of a multiple answer. More than half of the teachers had attended INSET Colleges (Didaskalia) of special education according to the research. Fifty teachers (18.05%) followed postgraduate studies and thirty seven (13.36%) were graduates for university departments. Finally, 43 teachers (15.52%), declared that they work in this field without having relevant training (table 6).

Table 6. Which Institution of training in Special Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INSET College (Didaskalia)</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate studies</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Department of Special Education</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No training</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons why teachers became active in the field of special education also had a multiple answer possibility (table 7). The reason for this choice, in at least 60% of the cases, was studies in the particular subject. A stronger reason was personal sensitivity (71.48%), while 14.80% of teachers had personal experiences which had led them to their choice. 3.25%
were individuals with special needs. Finally, approximately one third (27.80%) of teachers mentioned the reason as being economic bonus.

Table 7. Reasons for teachers’ occupation with special education (possibility of multiple answers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studies on the subject</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>6.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitization</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>71.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal experience</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a person with special needs</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic bonus</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>27.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The presentation of working environment and teacher cooperation

The function of the Greek school system and the infrastructure of school units as well as their response to the needs of special education were evaluated differently by the teachers in the sample (table 8). The majority of teachers believed that the school system and school units responded averagely to teacher expectations. This was more obvious regarding the school system, a perception which was adopted by almost two thirds of the people questioned. This number was lower regarding the school units, it comprises 43%. The more extreme positive and negative responses were expressed in the evaluation of school units where numbers were higher for the categories satisfactory and not at all. (table 8).

Table 8. Degree of correspondence of school system and of school units to the needs of special education according the teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>School System</th>
<th>School Unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>65.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 9 the cooperation of teachers with their colleagues was estimated at a positive, to a high degree (over 85%). The category on cooperation very good is more frequent than that of good. Regarding assessment of cooperation with parents, good cooperation is about 50%, very good is over one third of cases, while cooperation is referred as average in more than in one out of five cases. Answers which characterize cooperation as bad are very few in both cases.

Table 9. Evaluation of cooperation with colleagues and their students’ parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>With colleagues</th>
<th>With parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>43.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>42.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teachers of special education cooperate in order to accomplish their duties with other people and bodies. In table 10 the groups with whom they cooperate are presented, on a declining scale. Multiple answers were also possible.

Table 10. With whom do teachers of research declare that they cooperate? (multiple answers possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With colleagues</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>89.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With parents</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>83.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Centers of Diagnosis Assessment and Support.</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>61.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With counselors of special education</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>59.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With child-psychologists</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>45.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With social services</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>22.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With volunteers</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of teachers of special education that participated in research

Above we referred to the individual characteristics of teachers and their opinion towards the particularities and the conditions of their work. The answers to these questions are frequently inter-related. The degree of correlation between answers can lead to a proposition of distribution which is based on the finding of common characteristics.

Methods in multi-variable statistical analysis have allowed possibility of correlating all the given variables. Specifically methods of Analysis of Givens can help the formulation of criteria of differentiation or distribution of the people in a sample and the distributional grouping of individuals on the basis of, in both cases, the commonality of characteristics, namely the commonality of answers. For the criteria of differentiation or distribution we used the method of Multi-Analysis of Correspondence (Correspondence Analysis) and for the grouping of teachers the method of Hierarchical Distribution (Cluster Analysis) of the software SPAD.

The results of Multiple Analysis of Correspondence

1\textsuperscript{st} criteria of teacher differentiation (1\textsuperscript{st} factorial axis)

The element which differentiates the teachers participating in the research to a serious degree is age and working experience. There are men who have been trained in INSET Colleges (Didaskalia), at least 40 years old, with a working experience of over 16 years in education and over 5 years in Special Education who claim that the choice of the particular working field was motivated by financial incentive. As regards cooperation they cooperate with Centers of Diagnosis Assessment and Support and school counselors and they have very good cooperation with the students’ parents. These male teachers are differ from their female counterparts who are aged up to 40 years old with little experience in Special Education and in Education, who have been trained in their field, either in university departments or during their post-graduate studies, who judge that their cooperation with students’ parents and their colleagues average.

2\textsuperscript{nd} criteria of teachers’ differentiation (2\textsuperscript{nd} factorial axis)
Participating teachers differ as regards their working environment, cooperation and their evaluation of the infrastructure. The female teachers who work in schools of special education declare that they had been led to their choice by personal sensitivity, the cooperate with social services, child-psychologists, volunteers, and to a very good level with parents of students and their colleagues, they get a great deal of satisfaction from their work. In addition they believe that school system and their working environment respond satisfactorily to the needs of special education. They have been trained in university departments of special education and have been working in this field for more than 10 years and education in general for more than 20 years. The male teachers are between 31-40 years old, they have been working in integration classes 5-10 years, trained in INSET College (Didaskalia), they are satisfied to a low level by their work, they judge their cooperation with the parents of students and their colleagues as average and they believe that the material and the building infrastructure of their school unit and the school system generally do not correspond to the needs of their work at all.

3rd criteria of teachers’ differentiation (3rd factoral axis)

The third factor in the hierarchy that differentiate teachers in the sample is the lack of training in Special Education, particularly men over 50 years old with many years of experience, amongst whom there are also people with special needs with training in INSET Colleges (Didaskalia) or in the framework of post-doctoral studies which concerns women with a working experience of 16-20 years in education. These teachers work in inclusive classes and cooperate with Centres of Diagnosis Assessment and Support, with counsellors of special education, with parents and child-psychologists. The degree of evaluation of the school system, in the unit they work, and their cooperation with parents and colleagues is average and so is their satisfaction from work.

The differentiation between teachers in the combination of particular answers is not unambiguous, on the contrary differentiations are apparent, in an hierarchical order of importance, from the different co-combinations of the characteristics.

The results of Hierarchical Distribution

The Hierarchical Distribution led to the creation seven groups which are presented according the following diagram, which was extracted by the software used in this case. Together with each group the corresponding number of teachers is recorded and the corresponding percentage.

![Diagram of Hierarchical Distribution](image)

The value of variables (namely of answers) that formulate the groups are presented to as follows:
Group 1: 27 teachers (9.75% of the sample)

This group includes teachers who are up to 30 years old and have little working experience in education and special education, for which they have been trained through post-graduate studies. They work in schools of special education in heavily populated. They cooperate, as they claim, with child-psychologists, social services and volunteers. They are satisfied to an average degree by their work and they consider that the school system and material infrastructure of the school corresponds to a certain degree to the needs of special education.

Group 2: 44 teachers (15.88% of the sample)

Teachers of the second group have little working experience in special education, but they have served more years (11-15) in education and they are 31-40 years old.

Group 3: 29 teachers (10.47% of the sample)

The third group consists of female teachers who have been trained in a university, in a department of special education. They have not served for more than 5 years in special education, while in education in general they have not served for more than 10 years, mainly in lesser inhabited areas. They are not older than 40 years and they declare that they are very satisfied by their work.

Group 4: 35 teachers (12.64% of the sample)

The common element of teachers in this group is that they are not trained in special education. Among them there are teachers who work in this field motivated by the fact that they are themselves individuals with special needs.

Group 5: 28 teachers (10.11% of the sample)

The teachers who belong to this group declare that they get a high degree of satisfaction from their work, they judge their cooperation with the parents of their students and colleagues as average and they believe that the material and building infrastructure as well as school system do not correspond at all to their needs. Their occupation in special education is related to their studies in this field. They have serve in education for 11-15 years and special education for 5-10 years.

Group 6: 46 teachers (16.61% of the sample)

This group, as well as the next, includes teachers 41-50 years old. In the sixth group teachers serve in schools of special education. In this particular field they have been working for more than 15 years, they have been trained in INSET Colleges (Didaskalia), and they have been working in education in general for more than 20 years. They declare that they cooperate with child-psychologists, with social services, with volunteers and the parents of students. They gain a great deal of satisfaction from their work, they cooperate very well with their colleagues and they claim that the material and building infrastructure and school system correspond satisfactorily to the needs of special education.

Group 7: 68 teachers (24.55% of the sample)

Finally, teachers of the seventh group are the same age as teachers of the sixth group, age 41-50 years old. They teach in inclusive classes, they have served in the field of special education for 11-15 years and they have been working in education for more than 15 years. They declare that they cooperate well with their colleagues and the parents of students, but they are not particularly satisfied by their work and they believe that building infrastructure of the unit where they work is average to the needs of special education.

In the Hierarchical Distribution the basic criteria of differentiation of teachers of the sample are presented. The last two groups, in spite of their different characteristics, have
their older age in common, and consequently working experience, in relation to teachers of the first five groups.

Discussion and Conclusions
- A large percentage (over 30%) of teachers in special education is male. One third (30%) of teachers are young people, more than 50% are teachers with working experience of up to 5 years and 30% with less than 10 years. Special education was a choice from the beginning of their career and it was a conscious choice, not a chance one.
- Teachers’ studies reveal that more than half of the percentage (57.76%) of teachers has attended INSET in a teachers’ college (Didaskalio).

At the beginning of special education in Greece, through the decades 1980 and 1990 this was the minimum, necessary, formal qualification for the appointment of a teacher in special education units (Bulletin of Information on Special Education, 1994 l.1566/85). A rate of 18% wanted specialization in special education and have attended post-graduate studies. In special education dealing with each student demands individual and specialized approach.

- 13% are graduates from departments of special education who were integrated in educational process.
- 15% who work in special education without relevant training is high for the sensitive field of special education.
- From the 1980s until 2000, the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs legalized the appointment and provision of services in special units by people sensitized and motivated by love and interest (Bulletin of Information on Special Education, 1994) in geographical areas where there were not otherwise teachers with education, training and specialization in special education, Thus 71.4% of teachers consider sensitization as a motivation for vocational choice. This fact makes the degree of personal responsibility towards children and institution of special education high.
- The 27.8% who are motivated by financial incentive is considerable.
- A high percentage (65.7%) of teachers considers the school system average.
- Average is also their satisfaction with the infrastructure of special school units (42.96% of teachers) which may justify the fact that 85% of them turn to cooperation with colleagues in order to confront the needs that comes up at work and fill the gaps of the system. This hypothesis agrees with the results of research carried out on teachers in the special education population over the period 1991-1994. (Syriopoulou, C. 1997).
- The role of parents in special education is important. Parents are obliged to identify possible difficulties in their children at a pre-school age and to choose the appropriate intervention and special staff. In the USA, under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, parents have the right to be informed and to express their objections when they disagree on the special education provision to their children (Tjouriadou, M. 1995 p.36). Most programs of intervention in special education should be implemented during the hours that the child is at home. Parents provide teachers with useful information about their child. Statistical data (Bulletin of Information on Special Education, 1994) reveals that more and more parents trust the institution of special education and accept their children’s participation. Law 3699/2008 recognizes the importance of the role of parents in
Special education in Greece and gives them the right to participate in it. Parents are important collaborators for teachers and the rate of cooperation of 83.75%, shown by research, should be higher.

- Special education demands extrovert management of school units in relation to the system of general education (Syriopoulou, C. 2003). For this reason, as is shown by research there is cooperation of special units with assessment bodies (Centres of Diagnosis Assessment and Support) and social services.
- The high rates (59.57%) of cooperation with school counsellors reveals the potential difficulties that arise during educational work.
- Cooperation with child-psychologists (45.85%) reveals likely difficulties or lack of appropriate training for the confrontation of students’ particular needs.
- The appearance of volunteers (8.3%) is interesting. The enlightenment of general opinion and informing social services are necessary prerequisites for the smooth integration of people with special needs into social and vocational life. In Great Britain volunteer groups over the last decade have participated and facilitated the work of special education bodies by providing people with special needs social and vocational support (Beveridge, 1993).

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Faces of adults’ education in the periphery and especially in the region of Boetia.

Introduction

In the last years, the interest of adult education scholars is mainly focused on the role of the instructor as well as on the quality and effectiveness of the educational programmes for adults (Kokkos, 1999b).

Regarding the role of the instructor, literature review demonstrates the prevalence of a tendency to revise the traditional role of adults’ instructor. The latter is not just the person to communicate knowledge any more, but a counselor, intermediary and animating spirit, facilitator and researcher. He/She promotes cooperation and initiative, and uses active and participating techniques in the learning process. Adult education theorists converge on the view that the role of an instructor of adults is complex and demanding (Kokkos, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005d; Jaques, 2004; Rogers, 1999; Noye & Piveteau 1999; European Commission, 2000; Karalis, 2005b; Freire & Shor, 1987; Freire, 2006).

An instructor of adults has to have increased qualifications in order to meet the requirements of his/her composite role. Although many efforts for the classification of such qualifications have been presented in international literature, the theoretical quest for the qualifications of adults’ instructors has not led to a commonly accepted classification (Kokkos, 2004). A standard classification is that of Mocker and Noble (Mocker & Noble, 1981). Vergidis, summarizing the views of many European scholars, mentions that an instructor of adults has to care about the students, accept them and substantially communicate with them; to coordinate and organize the group, properly define the contents of the instructional units as well as the educational material; to be flexible in applying a quite extended range of educational techniques, have self-knowledge, proceed to self-evaluation and self-evolution (Vergidis, 2002²).

Moreover, the instructor has to be familiar with the new theories of learning and fundamentals of adult education, and to have social skills, which are considered even more important than specialization in the learning field (Rogers, 1999). Furthermore, he/she has to be an expert in his/her field and understand the culture of the organization for which the trainees work (Pasiardis, 2004). Finally, the instructor must associate theory with practice (Freire & Shor, 1987).

Of course, it is impossible for the instructor to have all these qualities at the same time and at high standard. Therefore the need for training as well as for his continuous updating is imperative (Kokkos, 1999a).

Regarding the needs of adults’ instructors, Zioma, Karalis, Kokkos and Chrissaki’s study (2002, p.108) shows that “instructors have deficiencies in most of the areas of their work, and especially in: a) understanding the particular characteristics and needs of the students and developing their active participation, b) developing their social skills, c) using proper and modern educational techniques (including those concerning the inaugural session), d) planning the instructional units and most of all in e) group communication, coordination and encouragement issues”. The aforementioned conclusions have also been confirmed by Dimoula, Karalis, Koulaouzidis and Terlixidou’s study (Kokkos, 2004; Kokkos, 2005).
Regarding the quality of the educational programmes for adults, there is no uniform view on their organizational-administrative character and content. In literature, however, the discussion about the effectiveness of such programmes is focused on two axes: the forms and methods of teaching, and the organizational issues. The indices mainly defining the quality and effectiveness of an educational programme for adults is the identification of trainees’ needs, proper and clear target setting, the planning of the overall programme as well as individual instructional units, the use of active techniques, the selection of the right people, methods and tools, and the management of several organizational issues, as well as evaluation (Pasiardis, 2004; Vergidis & Karalis, 1999, 2005b; Giannakopoulou, 2003; Hasapis, 2000; Rogers, 1999; Brown, 2005).

Moreover, it is asserted that Education contributes to regional and local development. In other words, it plays leading role in the development of human resources, especially in the Greek countryside and by extension in the whole country. Therefore it must meet the needs of several groups at local level (Vazos, 1986; Dimakos, 2004).

Since education contributes to the overall development of an area (Dimakos, 2004) and there is no study carried out until now focusing on the prefecture of Boeotia, it has been considered particularly interesting to examine the educational programmes for adults implemented in a regional prefecture where there is intense activity concerning lifelong learning, a fact proven not only by the existence of a Center for Adult Education, a Second Opportunity School, but also by the intention of establishing a National Museum of Lifelong Learning.

Therefore, through this study, it has been considered worthwhile to look into the following issues: (a) were there any possible gaps in trainers in terms of knowledge and skills? (b) Which factors influence the realisation of such adult educational programs in the region of Boeotia? (c) To what degree adult educational programs that take place in Boeotia correspond to local needs?

The study aspires to constructively enrich the relevant discussions and highlight certain aspects of adult education which are useful in the evaluation of programmes carried out in the past as well as in planning future programmes. It is expected that this study will help to get better understanding of the institution of adult education and its function, especially at local level.

**Methodology**

The object of this study has been the institution of Adult Education in the prefecture of Boeotia, and, in particular, adult education activities carried out by the Prefectural Committee for Popular Training of Local Government of the Prefecture of Boeotia and the Center for Adult Education of Boeotia.

The study was carried out in April – May 2007. A multi-methodical approach has been adopted for data collection (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Methodological “triangularization” has been obtained by using two methods for data collection and processing: the qualitative method (using semi-structured interviews) (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Kvale, 1996), and the quantitative method (using questionnaires).

Data processing was performed by the “content analysis” method and by their quantitative analysis (Cohen & Manion, 1994).
Regarding the qualitative research, the interviews were taken with participation of all the Managers (7 women and 3 men) of the programmes constituting the subject of this study.

Empirical sampling has been followed for instructors (Vamvoukas, 2000). We chose 20 out of 100 instructors teaching in the educational programmes for adults carried out by the Committee for People’s Further Education of the Prefecture of Boeotia, the Center for Adult Education, and the independent programmes carried out in the prefecture of Boeotia by the Institute of Adult Continuous Education, in the period from April – May 2007. 9 (45%) of them were male and 11 of them were female (55%). There was an effort made in order to choose instructors teaching in different programmes, towns and villages, and having several specialties.

Regarding the quantitative research, empirical sampling (Vamvoukas, 2000) was used to select trainees of the programmes carried out in April and May 2007. There was an effort made in order to have a sample consisting of trainees participating in the programmes carried out in the whole area of the Prefecture of Boeotia. The total number of the questionnaires given was 105. The questionnaires were handed to the trainees by the researchers during their lessons. 88 (83.8%) of the trainees answered. The structure of the questionnaire, which was made for the specific purpose of this research, was based on the study of the relevant literature to draw the main issues of the questions. The questionnaire has been subjected to test cases before getting its final form. The final written questionnaire used consisted of two parts. The first part contained closed questions for the collection of personal information, while the second part contained eleven (six closed and five open) questions.

80 (92%) out of the 88 trainees who answered the questionnaire of this research were female and 7 (8%) of them were male. The majority (44.3%) of them was Senior High School graduates, 17% were Elementary School graduates and 11% were Junior High School graduates.

Results

The comparison between the results of qualitative and quantitative research showed that:

**Needs of Adults’ Instructors**

Adults’ instructors in the prefecture of Boeotia have deficiencies in certain areas:

- They do not have a comprehensive view on the organization of an educational programme for adults.
- They do not identify the needs of the trainees.
- Although the trainees asserted that the instructors during their lessons follow a particular educational plan “to a great extent”, the instructors’ answers during the interviews show that the instructors have quite a few deficiencies in planning the instructional units.
- The instructors have deficiencies in their “inaugural session” too. In particular, the majority of the instructors (50.9%) confine themselves to introducing each other and use techniques to know each other better during the inaugural session. Only a few of them present their targets or form an educational contract. These data fully conform to the results of the research conducted by Dimoulas, Karalis, Koulaouzidis and Terlixidou (Kokkos, 2004, 2005) and confirm Kokkos’ references (2004, p.17), that instructors “in their
majority work on an empirical basis and confine themselves to introducing each other and presenting targets. They do not know how to apply the methodology of coordination and inaugural session resulting from literature as well as the good practices of Adult Education”.

- Quite a few instructors (35%) use alternatively group and frontal teaching, 25% “mostly group teaching” and 20% “mostly frontal teaching”.
- Regarding educational techniques, the instructors use various educational techniques and they are competent in using them. In particular, they use group discussion (50%), practice (40%), introduction (35%), question-answer (35%), work in groups (15%), demonstration-observation (15%), problem solving (5%). In addition, instructors report that they also know other techniques: role playing (10%), simulation (5%) and brainstorming (5%). Quite a few instructors (20%) confuse educational techniques with the use of teaching aids. The said recordings show that instructors know techniques that fit with adult education, but they do not use them.
- Regarding teaching aids, the majority use printed material (78.4%) and the blackboard/whiteboard (59.1%). More than half of them (51.1%) use computers. This can be explained, if we consider that most of the educational programmes for adults carried out concern computer science or include in their curriculum some hours on Computer Science.
- The instructors have also deficiencies in the area of trainees’ evaluation. Their answers show that they do not have an integrated view of the evaluation mode.
- Regarding the learning atmosphere, interviews’ content analysis shows that in spite of the fact that the instructors have deficiencies in knowledge concerning group dynamics, they are interested in the relations developed and formed in the framework of their groups.
- Finally, all the instructors participating in interview process wish to receive further training in issues concerning adult training. In particular, they referred to the following training issues:
  - Group dynamics (5 references)
  - Educational techniques for adults (5 references)
  - Adult psychology (5 references)
  - Adult learning theories (1 reference)
  - Characteristics of vulnerable groups (1 reference)
  - Any issue concerning adult education (7 references)

Therefore it is noticed that the issue preferences of these particular instructors coincide with the weaknesses detected by the research.

Programmes quality

The main factors affecting the implementation of educational programmes according to a common estimate by trainees, instructors and managers are:

- lack of time, mostly concerning trainees but also instructors
- lack of infrastructure, such as the non-functional training area
- lack of supportive material
- insufficient organization and, in particular, the lack of management ability of the competent bodies, bureaucracy, fragmentation, absence of planning and improvisation
- lack of flexibility and the failure to take initiative concerning the executives of adult education structures due to centralization and strict central planning.
- non-use of proper educational methods concerning the instructors, inadequate knowledge, inadequate communication with other instructors and trainees.
• problems encountered by the instructors in their cooperation with the competent bodies
• lack of money
• lack of homogeneity within trainees’ classes
• low trainee participation
• the particular characteristics of adult trainees (they get easily tired and bored, their mentality and outlook)
• poor relations among trainees
• the differentiation between theory and practice
• the absence of motives for he trainees (money, certification)
• lack of flexibility in instructor selection
• inadequate cooperation and coordination between central bodies and Local government
• the quite few meetings between the instructors and government bodies resulting in lack of views and suggestions made by the instructors

Programme contribution to local development

Regarding the contribution of adult education programmes to the local society and their connection to the local needs we quote the following results:

- The majority of the trainees (52.3%) and instructors (70%) finds that such programmes meet the needs of the prefecture’ population. 70% of the instructors find that the programmes conducted in the prefecture contribute to dealing with problems, while 20% did not answer the relevant question. 40% of the managers find that the programmes help, while 60% of them were not able to express an opinion, possibly due to the fact that no research has been conducted to assess the effectiveness of such programmes.

- The overwhelming majority of the trainees (53.4%) asserted that they attend such programmes for personal improvement and information, and a lower percentage of them asserted that they attend such programmes in order to find a job (14.8%) or for professional development (5.7%). The programme managers report additional reasons for programme attendance such as trainees’ need to help their children (1 reference) women’s need to get out of the house and communicate (one reference) and immigrants’ need for social integration (1 reference).

- All managers declare their satisfaction with the activities of adult education carried out in the prefecture and find (percentage 70%) that the future of adult education in the prefecture of Viotia will be even better and they expect more educational programmes due to financing from the National Strategic Reference Framework.

- In conclusion, the issues to be covered by future adult education programmes in this prefecture, will refer to employment, cultural heritage, health-nutrition and nursing, Computer Science, Foreign Languages, European and domestic policy and administration, the environment, teaching Greek to immigrants, Parent Counselling and art issues.

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Conclusions and discussion

This research shows that adults’ instructors in the Prefecture of Boeotia have deficiencies concerning their knowledge and skills in the following areas: proper structure and organization of an educational programme for adults and planning of instructional units, inaugural session, in which they confine themselves to introducing each other and presenting targets, use of active educational techniques and ability to form proper learning atmosphere. Although the overwhelming majority of the instructors (90%) evaluate teaching work, the evaluation modes they use show that they do not have an integrated view on the issue of evaluation.

Such deficiencies are justified, due to the fact that instructors do not have a lot of professional or teaching experience in adult education. 30% of the instructors participating in the qualitative research were from 26 to 30 years old, 80% of the instructors are from 26 to 45 years old and 10% of the instructors are over 56 years of age. 20% of the instructors have an educational experience of 1 year and 50% of the instructors have an educational experience of 2 years. In total, 70% of the instructors have 1-2 years experience in adult education, while only 30% have an experience from 3-8 years. Another research showed that the majority of the instructors employed by the Centers for Adult Education do not have a lot of experience in adult education and the educational philosophy pertaining to it (Arvaniti, 2006), which is not random. We estimate that such deficiency is due to a) the fact that programme implementation by the General Secretariat of Lifelong Learning and Institute of Adult Continuous Education started in 2004 contrary to the programmes of the Prefecture Committees for People’s Further Education which are carried out for some decades now, b) the fact that many instructors are teachers who just got their first appointment, temporarily serving the prefecture, and they are often transferred, taking the experience they get with them, to another area, and c) the fact that permanent teachers usually do not wish to teach in such programmes.

Moreover, it is shown that the effectiveness of the educational programmes is affected by the qualitative features of instructors and trainees, the management ability of the competent body (expert executives, infrastructure), but also by external factors (cooperation with other bodies, political conjunctures). These data are in conformity with literature (Katsaros, Dokos, & Kaloyianni-Lola, 2006).

Furthermore, we can see that trainees attend such programmes for personal improvement and information, to acquire “intellectual equipment” (culture), and due to a need to communicate with their “neighbours”.

The low percentage of the men participating in such educational programmes was also demonstrated in the empirical research conducted in the Schools for Parents of the Prefecture of Pella (Kiourtis, 2006; Manesis & Psarrakou, 2006) as well as in a research conducted in the prefecture of Trikala, “HERON” Programme (Balafa & Balafas, 2006).
find that young people, especially men, prefer subsidized programmes of vocational training.

Contrary to the results of other researches (Kokkos, 2004), the interviews of managers and instructors show that no particular questioning has been developed concerning the role of the educational programmes for adults in promoting trainees to employment. All these facts show, on the one hand, the necessity of multilateral support and training for adults’ instructors and, on the other hand, the necessity to make a coordinated effort at planning, organizing and implementing educational programmes for adults in regional prefectures as well as in the whole country in general.

In conclusion, we think there is a need for further study and research of the precise specification of instructors needs, factors affecting the quality and effectiveness of the programmes, and their contribution to local development in general.

References


Specifics of evaluation in adult education.

Introduction

Instructive-educative activity of adults is very complex, however, for the time, just a little known by students and those that have straight responsibilities in formation of this social segment. The causes that have determined such situation are various. On the one hand, when is about didactic process, literature of specialty concentrates – most of the time – on youth that frequent at most high school. On the other hand, material and human resources involved in adults’ education are insufficient developed and used.

In adults’ educational process, the evaluation represents one of the most important components, because it offers the possibility to see the level of theoretic knowledge and practic skills learned by students. If we accept that adults learn in a different way comparing to young pupils, we also understand that the process of evaluation is designed to be different as well.

This way, the main difference between these two types of evaluation (for young pupils from schools and adult learners) is represented by the methods that are used by teachers usually. Teachers evaluate pupils in a strict way (using oral, written or practic items/tests), but we can notice that they are more permissive in adults’ evaluation (using complementary items such as: project, portofolios, investigations and so on).

Therefore, in this paper, we propose a theoretic vision regarding educational phenomenon when adults are the beneficiaries, also radiography of the most important evaluation modalities that can be used in this direction.

The role of the educational system is that of transmit moral values, of behavioral shifting, skills, mentalities. The education is a permanent duty of man; it is an adaptation process in the world he lives in. The education is hard to define. For instance, Piaget defines it as “a transformation of psychological knowledge of the individual”, I. Cergihat “for the modification of the positive value in the rational human behavior” and Nicolae Vințanu calls the education “a process of assimilation and practice of information, values and human specifical activities” (D. Salade, 1997).

One of the principal axioms, which characterize educational practice, is represented on its developing in courses rooms and its target group is represented by children and adolescents. Therefore, this hypothesis is sustained by one of many definitions given to education that Berger sees as a complex and systematic action, which adult generations have on those they must prepare to integrate themselves into social life (Salade, 1997).

However, challenges of contemporary world claim major changes of educational paradigm on changing direction from informative on formative, from transmitting/acquisition of knowledge, from formation of skills, attitudes, values, styles of life so on. In these conditions, axioms, which attest that education regards only children or younger, is no more as actual as it was some decades in the past, process incumbers various categories of persons and it is developing under “life long learning” slogan. Today, adult’s implication as beneficiaries of educational phenomenon have a lot of forms, from attending courses of one faculty “every day” to thoroughgoing study and specialization on post-academic courses, master or doctoral studies, another formation programs. A different thing in children’s
education is that adults focus on accumulating some behavior models, which aloud them a better adaptation in social life (Neculau, 2004).

Although it is known his importance, a few authors have focused their entire attention on adults’ education problematic and this is why they consider that process could be realized by similar modalities with those of children education. However, R. Kidd contradicts this point of view and gives us some characteristic of adult education:

- adults’ education became fast a central preoccupation and an essential need of contemporary civilization;
- adults’ education unregistered an enormous rise regarding humans member as well involved institutions;
- adults’ education is different of children education from their age point of view, or their experience, or adults’ personality, but also of aims, which they follow, as well their strategies they can be accomplish.

Starting from these considerations, we propose identification of few steps, which should be considered regarding education of adult population. For a better understanding of this phenomenon, we propose our vision through Figure 1, which will be developed in following pages.

Analyzing this Figure 1, we can observe that its central element is the person – adult. As actual laws, the adult is any person who has 16 years old. From biologic, intellectual, moral, emotional or social point of view, this problem is more complex and it is necessary to develop “maturate” notion. This term is frequent used, but it has not a precisely signification. However, R. Kidd (1981, p. 46) says that a maturated person has developed, in a considerable measure, his abilities of leadership, self-regulation, autonomy, and the other hand, he is capable to be free of influences of external forces, being prepared to do some responsibilities. The same author identifies a lot of characteristics of this social maturated guy (idem, p. 43):

- the adolescent is emancipated by doing some responsibilities;
- developing a successfully professional career;
- formation of own family who assure him a balance between professional and affective life;
- realization of satisfactory relation with social company;
- successfully implication in social life of community.

For an optimal accomplish of those roles (as a member of family or social groups, worker, and citizen, so on), the adult must always build his developing, and his implication in different educational programs can offer him a precious help in this sense. His aims as adult are strongly related to his individual formation needs.

We have two characteristics in mind, when we accomplish formation of adults: personal ones and social ones. From first category of aims are those related to age, sex, accumulated experience, physical, psychical and personality particularities and second category refers to status and social role of adult, which influences and it is influenced by its evolution in society.

In this context, for optimization of instructive-educative process, were discussed differences in realization of learning at adults and children. Making some referees from Knowles (1970), A. Neculau (2004, p. 47) observes a first characteristic of adult as his tendency to become independent, as well his need to be treated with respect, in the mean time a child is dependent to adult and he assumes freely this role. Therefore, inside didactic process, pupils-adults will be treated as equal partners of teacher/professor, knowing their
desires and daily problems. In the other hand, learning at adults is a contextual process which starts from concrete situations and its finality is solving some real problems of life. Practice experience shows us that many participant adults at continue formation courses are preoccupied on abordation of concrete cases than theorization some abstract subjects. So we understand practice-applicative character of learning at adults, and their mobile to be implicated in such activity is their need to solve some important problem related to their careers, family, social or personal life (Fry, Ketteridge, & Marshall, 2003).

For understanding modality in which is realized instructive-educative process at adults, Neculau (2004, p. 44) does a distinction between education and formation. Education is a process which has not a limited aim, it is addressed to hole personality and it wants to enlarging cultural horizon of individe, and his competences which aloud him to choose from many choises the optimum the optimum variant, knowing its implications. In these conditions, adult's education referees to that complex process which supposes accomplish needs of person to accumulate knowledge on its entire life, but also some useful behavior comportments in concrete situations of life. On the other hand, formation represents an activity which follows developing some precisely and limited competences of human being in a field. Trying to establish a correlation between education and formation concepts and proceed from anterior paragraphs, we can say, first of all, adults are extrinsic motivated to participate at formation programs and that can enlarges their cultural horizon and guide them to participate to superior forms of perfecting. All depends on way that formatting programs can respond their needs, also on used didactic strategies which must accentuate formative dimension of didactic courses.

Finally, resulted behavior of adults’ education could be represented, on a hand, by
theoretic knowledge and obtained practical skills, and the other hand, behavior models, as formed life style based on learning of authentic values. Of course, those two last complete each other, in the way that knowledge and acquired skills will be incorporated in subject behavior. Having such a responsible compartment, adult will provide to develop, investing for it in education and creating in this sense a “spiral” with ascendant evolution.

One of the most important sections of instructional process is the evaluation, because it offers us some relevant information regarding the level of theoretic knowledges or practic skills of adults. Therefore, we can define didactic evaluation realized in adults’ education as been a didactic activity through professors verify, measure or give value judgments regarding students’ academic behaviors, reporting those at established educational objectives. Through academic behaviors we understand an ensemble of theoretic knowledge learned by students, of abilities, which help them to practice, or maybe of students attitudes regarding a situation. As didactic evaluation practiced in adults’ education is not so different (theoretically speaking) from preacademic education, we not present their general aspects (definitions, functions, forms, subjective factors that have an influence on it), and we consider that pedagogic literature is quite rich in explanation of this nature.

The main traditional strategies, which can be used in academic evaluation of students there are (V. Blândul, 2007, C. Cucogă, 2008):

**Oral examinations** – represent a kind of conversation, which has in view volume and quality of acquired knowledge, abilities and skills also student’s capacity to put them into practice. Questionnaire might be individual and frontal; first been preferable, questions could be memory-ones (following accuracy of knowledge reproduction) and thinking-ones (following capacity of knowledge processing), but combination of these two type of questions been favorite. The advantage is that of relative simplicity and of fact that it let students with difficulties to evaluate their creativity through supplementary questions, while limits are required by time and hardness of teachers in objective evaluation of answers.

**Test papers** – the advantage of these tests is a large number of student’s evaluation in the same time, they are more objective and stimulate timid students with communication difficulties, giving all possibility of free expression of their ideas and develop their cognitive abilities. Elaboration of these tests require a great attention of teachers in importance of items, which might content hole discipline of study and been representative from pedagogy side.

**Practice examinations** – suppose application in concrete situations of learned theoretic knowledge, formed abilities and skills. For example, a building of some objects or apparatus, execution of some laboratory experiments, maps, microscopic observations, discutions, realization of physical exercises so on.

Some of the most relevant complementary used strategies in didactic evaluation of students are (A. Stoica, 2003, V. Blandul, 2007):

**Observation** – this suppose a careful following of way in which students take their courses, seminars or practice work in different moments and also they accomplish their different tasks addressed by their teachers (independent work, way of their implication in didactic activities so on). On generally, this method is used for surprising hard measured aspects from student’s behavior and it ends by oral or writes appreciations. Teachers can appelle to this method when they desire to determine student’s “reaction” regarding new transmitted information, regarding methods that they use in teaching; findings can be communicate orally or written in observation notebook.
Investigation – offers one possibility to students in applying creatively their learned knowledge, in new and various situations on determined period of time. On the other hand, offers possibility to students to actively implication in learning process, with opportunity to apply theoretic knowledge from courses. Investigation supposes some essential elements: understanding and task’s elucidation, identification of necessary information, collection and organization of facts, formulation and testing the ipothesis, reviewing action plan by necessities, argumentation of own option for choosing a solution or another, presentation of results in an interesting way. Making a resume of these, the investigative way might be related to three essential stages: defining the matter, choosing adequate methodology and identification of solutions. Knowing formative value of this investigative method, students must be habituated most frequently with such kind of work.

Evaluation by projects – this is a method with a special formative value because it let a large possibility to students to put into practice their creative potential. Project is a theme of research with a precise goal, which is realized by theoretic and practice knowledge combination. Works, dispositions so on, and they might concretize projects and could be presented to different sessions or symposiums. The project’s themes variety consists in complexity of “learning-projection-research” relationship. For example, they are known as Students Communication Session, in which they present their anterior researches results, or maybe some new projects for investigative intentions.

Portfolio – is represented by “visit card” or “pedagogic profile” of students. Inside of it are written all students’ achievements, which might exemplify their scientific activity, aspect that will determine his structure. Most important are also context and modality of portfolio presentation.

Conceptual map – encourages free and opened mind of students, been itself a kind of brainstorming, which stimulate discovery of relations, associations or different connections between notions and ideas. This method consists in writing a word on centre of blackboard or of paper by teacher also wording an addressed request to students to write syntagmus or concepts they are thinking of theme and to establish relations among central-notion and the others words or among others words. Work time is until all ideas are finished. It is very important that each student say freely his opinion. Used like an evaluation method, it will be solicited to students respect a minimal logic in structuring of notions (for example, deductive way – from general to particular assures a direct connection between genre and species and conceptual map - cluster technique – has compulsory a minimal established number of words). Conceptual map (cluster technique) might be used like an independent evaluation method in-group or in frontal classes of students.

Finally, in conclusion, we can quote R. Kidd (1981) and A. Neculau (2004). First of all, syntagm “men learn as they live“ has an important meaning, especially in context of contemporary society, and effects are showed in changing of his attitudes and role of adult and lead to professional and social progress. Received education contributes to intellectual and emotional maturation of adult, fact that allows self-determination and an efficient personal management (it is known that persons with below education have limitated options, and also a rudimentary behavior). As adult accumulates his life experience, he can get a plus for his own education and he can became self-educated man. There are some motives which make us believe that man assumes this quality, and education on his life can contribute in a great deal on it.

References
Masters’ research abilities: the theory and practice of formation.

Introduction

Sociocultural and socioeconomic changes occurring in the country actualize a task of research skills development allowing the subject to adapt to varied conditions in a short period of time, to be popular and competitive. One of the possible variants of solving the given task is Master’s program training.

The magistracy provides: inclusion of the student in research activity of search scientifical-and-project character, aimed on an explanation of the phenomena, processes, an establishment of their communications and relations; a theoretical and experimental substantiation of the facts therefore the subject character of the «discovery» provides better level of self-educational activity. The content of magistrand self-educational activity increases becomes the one of the most important that has found acknowledgement in results of experimental work. Thus, the magistracy creates a rough basis for formation of magistrand research abilities.

In the majority the trainee have practical experience, are sociable, aspire to self-development, have steady motivation. Such characteristics unequivocally allow to relate the individual to a category of the adult man and the magistracy to the sphere of adults education. An orientation to labour market requirements, development of Bolonsky process have led the higher school to the statement of new generation standards focused on strengthening of attention to self-educational activity of the master. There is a necessity of other methodological approaches to training and development, rather than used in a comprehensive school and a bachelor degree, namely pragmatic approach as one of the strategies of master preparation. In these standards the problems for masters are defined which are solved in the field of research activity. Self-educational activity assumes the presence of following abilities: to formulate problems and programs of research projects; to develop techniques of theoretical researches; to spend them, to process and generalize results; to develop new methods of theoretical and experimental researches.

In science the abilities are defined as «the generalized ways of the action allowing the subject to carry out action with set result in a wide spectrum of different, varying conditions» (B.M.Igoshev). Abilities are more universal and are steady against change of activity conditions. Ability is based, as a rule, on the generalized figurative-conceptual models of a problem, or «on the generalized rough basis» (P.J.Galperin). Unlike abilities, private «skill» is closely connected with certain conditions and at their violation can quickly collapse.

Research abilities take a special place in classification. They are classified depending on a character of research activity:

- Intellectual-and-research: skills to analyze, to correlate and to compare the facts, phenomenon, concept, points of view; a skill to see a problem, to point out the main; to allocate the contradiction and to formulate a problem; to lay down an aim, the task of work; to analyze the information critically, to give it an estimation; to give reason for the attitude to an investigated question; to define the methodological approaches to the research;
Informational-and-reception: skills to observe, to collect and to process the data; to systematize and to classify the facts and phenomena, to interpret the information, to work with the scientific information;

Productive: skills to carry out an experiment, in the certain sequence to carry out a practical part of research; to use various methods of empirical and theoretical research; to carry out bibliographic search and to generalize the information; to state a course and results of research; to protect the received results during the performance; to make the theses, to write an article, an abstract, a report, a message, to act with the results of research.

The pedagogical essence of the term «research abilities» is stated in S.S.Akimova, S.I.Bryzgalova, G.V.Nikitina, A.P.Trjapitsyna, I.A.Zimnyaya, and E.A.Shashenkov's works. The most general research abilities are:
- to see a problem;
- to carry out the search of idea of an investigated problem decision;
- to realize the developed strategy of a problem decision;
- to issue the results of creative achievements scientifically;
- to get into a reflective position at all stages of research activity;
- to use general scientific and private science methods (i.e. Klimov, 2001).

Considering all mentioned above, we have made the definition of research abilities taking into account the contextual character of their formation in the course of Master's preparation. Research abilities of the master are such abilities which allow him to develop new scientific knowledge, and represent the generalized ways of action depending on methods of scientific research: ability to reveal the contradiction, to formulate a problem, to define an aim, to put forward and check hypotheses; ability to observe, compare, measure, make experiment; abstraction, the analysis and synthesis, an induction and deduction, modeling.

A unit of ability is an action – «an act of purposeful human activity (theoretical or practical), aimed at an intermediate purpose achievement, subordinated to the general plan and regulated by the representation of its result, conditions and ways of achievement» (V.V. Davydov, 1993).

In research abilities this sequence is the following:
- Definition of a problem relevancy on the basis of the basic literature primary analysis (information materials, bibliographic, encyclopedias), i.e. fast orientation in the scientific information;
- Emphasizing the basic ideas necessary for studying of the research object;
- A composition of the basic information in the form of the concept or model;
- Definition of the purposes and problems of scientific search taking into account a condition of a science and requirements of practice (O.S.Gazman, 1989);
- Promotion of a current hypothesis where the leading direction of a problem research is defined and possible optimum variants of its decision are offered;
- Planning of practice or experimental work;
- Allocation of criteria for diagnostic techniques due to which the efficiency of a problem decision will be defined experimentally (N.V.Kuzmin, 1970);
- The analysis of an initial actual material by the specified criteria;
- Construction of a facts description algorithm received in research;
- Formation of conclusions, introduction of new concepts (A.K.Markova, 1983);
- Conceptual construction of the received information of an object and an object of research;
- Correlation of factology with the hypothesis;
- Theory description culture from a position of scientific logic;
- A full theory exposition from a position of a science methodology, methods of scientific knowledge, the scientific logic;
- Definition of an application sphere of scientific conclusions in practice (A.A.Rean, 2002).

In other words, the research abilities of the master is the system of the interconnected elements representing the sequence of actions which content varies depending on a method of scientific research.

Studying the research abilities as an object of a pedagogical science, we considered the various approaches offered by the research workers of a given sphere. According to N.M.Borytko, «the most widespread in a pedagogical science are system-structural and pragmatic approaches» which application causes integrity of the scientific theory, its optimality and the practical importance.

The system-structural approach allows to display the general coherence and interdependence of actions and processes in abilities. It confirms the necessity to approach to them as to the systems having a certain structure and the laws of functioning. The system approach gives the chance to reflect the sequence of actions in their development, providing complete perception of research abilities. It promotes an explanation of the integration mechanisms components entering into abilities, revealing between them the stable relations and relations providing the internal organization, functioning and object development, and also the connections which carry out its organic inclusion in environment. It is possible to state that research abilities are a system with the set of the interconnected structural components functioning in a complete process. The system structure (research abilities) is characterized by the presence of stable relations between its elements: functional, structural, cause-and-effect. Functional communications are such communications when the changes of one object are accompanied by the changes of another. Structural communications (which are rather steady) characterize the interaction of the system elements as a single whole. Cause-and-effect object relations are such relations in which one of them is necessarily the leading one. The structure of research abilities is resulted in a figure 1.

In turn, each element of structure can be structured too, presented in the form of the elementary actions which are interconnected. We name this process the detailed elaboration of research abilities.

Any activity including pedagogical, includes the statement of the activity purpose as a defining component. It is determined by the activity content, and also by methods, forms, means, ways and the received result.

Considering a subject of our research, the purpose of pedagogical activity is a formation of masters’ research abilities. Formation of person’s qualities is connected with the change of psychological dynamic functional structure of the person, but mainly its maintenance under the influence of external forces. Therefore while the master’s research abilities are forming, the basic attention is given to means of education, methods and forms.

The analysis of the scientific and pedagogical literature and pedagogical experience shows
that one of the effective approaches of research abilities formation in training is the problem set approach.

![Diagram of research abilities structure]

**Figure 1**
*The generalized structure of research abilities*

The solution of a problem demands the analysis of the content and definition of the purpose of actions, search of the solution plan, realization of the found plan, actions correctness control and the validity of the answer. The analysis of other variants of decisions, proofs, variants of actions and their comparison with the first are possible. And the solution of information problems is connected with the possession of technical means of information and an information technology, therefore magistrand, first of all, should possess the knowledge of computer science and certain level of an information culture. For example, while solving the problems of an engineering graphics, magistrands develop the spatial thinking. They master the abilities to synthesize from simple geometrical figures some difficult constructions, to build the intersecting lines and surfaces limiting a detail as well as to project mechanisms and assembly units of various complexities, to define the structure of assembly units, to apply various projections to representation of details. The usage of an information technology promotes the formation of magistrands’ research abilities in process of:

- Working with the information with the help of computer (while working with information retrieval systems and with training programs);
- Carrying out the tasks of research character and solving of creative problems within the intellectual training systems and modeling programs;
- Carrying out the joint projects (communicative research abilities);
- Computer experiments on the basis of modeling programs and business games;
- Information processing (at use of text, graphic and tabular editors, local and network databases);
- Usage of modern means of information processing while solving the problems concerning various subjects (computer modeling, local and network databases etc.)

An ability to work with the information while solving the information problem or carrying out a scientific research is shown in the course of information processing. An information processing procedure consists of a number of consecutive or parallel stages in time, each of them fulfills the specific operations concerning the transformation of an information (the
analysis, synthesis, allocation of the main thought, recognition, apprehension, generalization, decision development, a result estimation) with the help of which magistrands acquire the research abilities. Thus educational process is the channel of an information transfer from a certain source (the book, the manuals, the automated complex, a computer network, reference and expert systems, etc.) to the trainee, being the consumer of this information.

Working with the information is one of the conditions of magistrands’ necessary research abilities formation. In a process of computing and telecommunication techniques development and their wide application first in the sphere of science, then in the management sphere. There appeared a concept of an information technology as sets of methods and program-and-technical means united in a technological chain, providing gathering, processing, storage, distribution and display of the information in order to decrease the labour input of the processes of usage of information resources. Leaning against M.V.Klarin’s conclusions, we have selected the following definition of pedagogical information technology. It is a sequence of actions of a teacher and a magistrand (M.V.Klarin, 1997), consisting in the aim defining, the analysis and selection of the information content; in a choice of a way of activity and toolkit (program-and-technical means) for realization of actions; In the analysis of result and a formulation of conclusions in a work with the information for the solving of a specific problem.

In order to form the research abilities of the master it is necessary to create the following pedagogical conditions, whereby: 1) a magistrand consciously realizes the available possibilities of his own development; 2) mastering the research abilities should pass gradually during all the process of training; 3) specificity of the research activity demands independent cogitative activity of a magistrand and continuous development. The allocated pedagogical conditions, on the one hand, are rather independent, on the other hand – they are interconnected and supplement each other, forming a single complex.

The research abilities of the master are formed stage by stage. Taking into account the allocated pedagogical conditions the technique of effective research abilities formation was developed for each stage. Means of formation of master’s research abilities are specially picked up problems and tasks containing elements of research activity.

At an adaptable stage of research abilities formation with the purpose of activation of educational-and-informative activity and stimulation of magistrands’ motivation we offered the problems and tasks of following types:

- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to analyze;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to compare;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to classify;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to generalize.

The future masters adapt to new conditions of training, their interests and requirements to independent activity develop, and the positive attitude to research activity is forming. The reproductive methods of training which allow to increase the degree of masters’ activity at the subsequent stages of research abilities formation are used. While solving any problem or task, all the masters’ research abilities which were named are gradually forming, however in different tasks this process is shown in various degrees. At the given stage the following means and forms of the educational activity organization were used: the tasks of dynamic character, tests, heuristic questions, educational discussion.
At the following stage of research abilities formation the training process is organized so that the future masters could conduct active educational-and-research activity, extract the knowledge independently, could formulate their own point of view on an investigated problem and were able to protect it. For this purpose we have provided the educational process with the elements of research activity, independent work and situational problems:

- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to be guided in variety of information resources with the help of new information;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to define the most effective methods of gathering and information processing;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to develop one’s own problem solving method;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to prove the correctness of the choice of decision;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to estimate the result of decision;
- Problems and tasks concerning the ability to plan an experiment and to make the experimental data processing.

Solving the similar problems in educational process allows: to activate the magistrands’ thinking; to use their knowledge and practical experience at training; to disclose the participants potential; to estimate the degree of mastering the teaching material.

In order to give such lessons a teacher should be scientifically and methodically prepared, possess the culture of pedagogical activity (L.B. Sokolova, 2007) and professional mobility. Professional mobility in formation of research abilities provides readiness of the teacher for the change of professional problems and is caused by presence of such personal qualities and abilities as: the activity which is expressed in participating in projects of different substantial orientation; high adaptability to the various kinds of activity; creative transformation of any situation (I.A. Stepanova, 2009). As the criteria for a mobility estimation of the teacher at formation of research abilities we have outlined: flexibility, efficiency, critical thinking; such skills as: aim defining, reflexion, self-control, self-determination; and abilities: to see contradictions and to problematize the situations. Diagnostics shows that the set of certain pedagogical conditions, the content of training process and the joint activity of a teacher and a magistrand as a result lead the magistrands’ research abilities to the higher level.

References


Understanding the Adult Learners’ Motivation and Barriers to Learning.

Introduction
With the changing demographic situation of the developed world, there has been a focus on the concept of lifelong learning, where people learning throughout their lives. The emergence of the knowledge society, rapid introduction of new technology and the changing work place increases the importance of adult learning. Understanding motivation and barriers to adult learning is therefore a highly relevant issue to the current situation of the world and not only in the field of education.

To facilitate learning in adult learners, a thorough understanding of how they are motivated to learn, what and how barriers to learning are formed. Adult learners have their own personal biography, view of the world, what is needed to survive and succeed in their personal endeavors and they even have their own personal view of success. Internal and external influences on the adult learner both in their past and present experiences form these views. These views in turn form the adult learners’ motivation and barriers to learning. With this in mind, the need to create a tool to help teachers of adult learners understanding the adult learners’ motivation and the barriers to learning is of great importance and the reason for this particular paper.

Motivation and Barriers to learning are created, formed and changed in two spaces; the individual learner and the socio-environment and this requires a comprehensive understanding of learning and the two spaces. Understanding which are the intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting motivation and creating barriers to learning enables us to focus our efforts on the root cause of the problem. It further allows the facilitators of learning, the teachers of adult learners, to gain a better understanding of the adult learner and find ways how to motivate them and break down their barriers to learning.

Initially, this paper will define an adult learner and its different stages in life using Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and the ERG theory and the theory of margins. Knud Illeris’ 3 dimensions of learning will then be introduced and discussed to facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of the adult learner and learning. Motivation and barriers to adult learning will then be discussed and an attempt towards a categorical typology of motivation and barriers is made to show that they affect different dimensions of an adult learner. A model “The Decision Funnel” will then be introduced to explain the dynamic interaction between the various variables affecting participation to adult learning to understand how adult learners’ motivation and barriers influence participation to adult learning.

The Adult and Adult Learning
Adults learners can be defined either based on age, cognitive maturity or a nontraditional learner. Each definition has his/her own strong points however it is much more pragmatic to define an adult learner based on age. Various international organizations such as the OECD, EC and UNESCO have referred to adult learners in various documents within the age group of 24 to 65. Furthermore the selection, evaluation and classification of an adult learner become a lot simpler if it were based on age. A growing number of retired
persons have also been engaging in adult learning so it is only pragmatic to change the age grouping to 24 years and above. To further breakdown, adult learners consideration has to be made that some are employed and some are unemployed thus a categorization of adult learners can be made into employed, unemployed and retired adult learners.

According to Knowles (1973, 1980, 1984), adults are distinct as learners in terms of self-direction, experience, readiness to learn, problem oriented and motivation to learn. To come up with a definition of an adult learner, certain assumptions about the adult learner published by Malcolm Knowles, the founder of andragogy, should be considered. Knowles (1973, 1980, 1984, p 12) assumptions listed below although criticized by some academics that it does not hold true for every situation and is more Eurocentric still is widely used and is a general description of an adult learners characteristics.

1. As a person matures, his or her self concept moves from that of a dependent personality towards one of a self-directing human being.
2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for learning
3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role.
4. There is a chance in time perspective as people mature – from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application.
5. The most potent motivations are internal rather than external
6. Adults need to know why they need to learn something

Knowles assumptions have been highly criticized that it does not hold true for all and that it is Eurocentric however it serves as a good starting point towards understanding an adult learner aside from the fact that his assumptions are still being used in the field of adult education today.

Based on Knowles assumptions and this papers decision to use age as a key determinant of the term adult, an adult learner is a self directed person, 24 years of age and above whose engagement and readiness to learn is based on the immediate applicability to the development tasks of his/her social role incorporating his/her reservoir of experience.

Learning is defined by Illeris (2006, p 3) as “any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing”. This his paper defines “learning as any process leading to a change in efficiency or use of conscious and unconscious cognitive processes that lead to a permanent capacity change not solely caused by biological maturation or ageing” (Chao, 2009) considering that learning is both a conscious and unconscious cognitive process influenced by the interaction between either both or all of the 3 dimensions of learning. Adult learning is therefore defined as any process of an adult learner that leads to learning as defined above.

Stages in an adult learner life and the Theory of Margins

Learning is a complicated process notwithstanding the fact that the individual learners particularly adults learners are complicated beings. The adult learner is a social being who in relation to learning has to contend with his individual person and the social and societal environment he belongs to. As an individual, the adult learner would have his individual priorities and value system in life which is a product of previous years experience or life, influence by his environment and his individual preference and priorities. Furthermore, the adult learners’ interaction with social and societal forces also influences his value system, priorities and views about life and learning in this particular context.
A number of theories regarding a person's life stages are been developed over the years, however this paper will only be looking into the works of Abraham Maslow and Clayton Alderfer regarding the different life stages one undergoes.

Abraham Maslow (1943) in his paper “A Theory of Human Motivation“ proposed a hierarchy of needs, depicted as a pyramid with 5 levels. The lower 4 levels physiological, security, love/belonging and esteem (arranged from the lowest) are what he calls deficiency needs, while the highest level is self actualization. According to Maslow, deficiency needs must be met first and that once the lower need is met the individual moves upward to the next level. However, should the lower level need is no longer being satisfied the individual will temporarily re-prioritize the lower set of needs no longer being met.

Clayton Alderfer, an American Psychologist, came up with the ERG Theory which expanded Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs and reclassified it into Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The lower order needs (Physiological and Safety), love and esteem was reclassified into the Existence and Relatedness category respectively. Self esteem and self actualization needs were classified into the growth category (Alderfer, 1972).

Understanding where a person is in their life stage gives an understanding of one’s motivation for learning. A person in the existence category may be benefitted by the increased economic benefits of adult learning rather than someone in the growth category, who would be more interested in getting more self esteem and connected with their higher focus in life. People in the relatedness category most probably are interested in the social aspect of adult learning. Take caution though that this is not a generalization but a tendency. Furthermore, it is impossible to truly categorize a person into life stages as often times the needs of a person would be dynamic and falls within more than one of the categories.

McClusky's theory of margins is grounded in the notion that adulthood is a time of growth, change, and integration in which one constantly seeks balance between the amount of energy needed (Load) and the amount available (Power) (Merriam 2007,p 93). Both load and power consists of both internal and external factors. External load consists of tasks involved in normal life requirements (such as family, work and community responsibilities) while internal load consists of life expectancies developed by people (such as aspirations, desires, and future expectations). Power consists of a combination of such external resources (family support, social abilities, and economic abilities). It also includes internally acquired or accumulated skills and experiences contributing to effective performance such as resilience, coping skills and personality (Merriam 2007, pp. 93-94)

McClusky (1970 cited by Merriam et al 2007, p. 94) says that Margin may be increased either by reducing load or increasing power. When load continually matches or exceeds power and if both are fixed the situation becomes highly vulnerable and susceptible to breakdown. If load and power can be controlled and if a person is able to lay a hold of a reserve (Margin) of power, he/she is better equipped to meet unforeseen emergencies and better positioned to take risks, engage in exploratory, creative activities and more likely to learn.

Even though formulated in the 1970s, the theory of margins is still highly relevant towards understanding the balance between motivation and barriers to adult learning participation. A simple metaphor illustrates this. When a person is hungry and tired, often times he has to make a choice of either getting some rest or eating. If it takes more energy to cook then most of the time he/she might just go to sleep ignoring the need to feed the
hunger. A person balances his power and load rationally (with some exceptions) based on the individual’s perceived value placed in their participation in adult learning.

Cognition, Emotion and the Environment in Learning

Knud Illeis (2007, p. 25) in his book ‘how to learn’ introduced a model called ‘the 3 dimensions of learning’, which takes incorporates both the internal and external processes of learning. To understand the entire learning process one has to understand the internal knowledge acquisition process and the external interaction between the learner and his environment. The knowledge acquisition learning process is divided into the cognitive and the psychodynamic (emotion) function. The learning content is in the cognitive dimension while the provision of the mental energy necessary involves the psychodynamic function. Illeis’ 3 dimensions of learning (Figure 1) shows the 3 dimensions namely the cognitive, emotive or psychodynamic and the social dimension of learning.

Learning content (knowledge or skills), which builds up the learners understanding and abilities are the core of the cognitive dimension. Meaning construction and ability is the key word in the cognitive dimension. The emotive or psychodynamic dimensions’ function is to secure the mental balance of the learner and involves the encompassing feelings, motivations and mental energy of the learner. Finally, the social dimension is related to the external interaction and serves the learners interaction in society.
Furthermore, Illeris sees the learning process as 5 stages: perception, transmission, experience, imitation and activity/participation. Perception is a totally unmediated sense impression of the surrounding world, transmission is when someone transmits specific sense impressions or messages, experience may include both perception and transmission where the learner also acts in order to benefit from the interaction. Imitation is when the learner attempts to copy or model another’s action and activity/participation is when there is engagement in a goal directed activity or even participating in a community of practice. (Illeris 2007, pp. 100-101).

**Motivation and Barriers to Adult Learning**

Dr. Karen Thoms (2001, pp. 5-6) characterized adult learners as having set habits and strong taste, a great deal of pride, a rational framework (values, attitudes etc) by which they make decisions and have developed group behavior consistent with their needs and have a strong need to apply what is learned and apply it now. Taking into consideration these characteristics, the adult learners’ motivation to learn would be different from those of children. To further complicate the adult learners’ situation, they also have to perform their individual culturally associated roles as husband/wife, worker and citizen and perceive themselves as responsible for his/her own individual life (Wlodkowski 1993, p. 5 cited by Merriam 2007).

Individual adults learn differently depending upon their experience, aptitude and attitude (O’Conner et al quoted by Thoms 2001, p. 4), an adult learners’ motivation to learn would also differ based on their individual experience, aptitude and attitude. This would include individual characteristics of the learner, the perceived value of the learning task and how much experience the adult learner had with the topic.

Reasons and purposes why adults learn are varied especially at different stages in the adult learner’s life. To fill in educational gaps, to develop personally, to perform a job better, enhance employment opportunities, or simply to join the job market are just some of the reasons but whatever the reason it can be classified as intrinsic, extrinsic or a combination of both. The adult learners’ reason and purpose for learning creates the motivation to engage in adult learning therefore one has to understand why and what is the reason and purpose for engaging in adult learning.

Adult learners can be segregated into 3 groups namely employed, unemployed and retired people. Each of these groups has both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations towards participating in adult learning also taking into consideration their individual personal and social life.

An employed adult can engage in adult learning out of his own initiative or through the initiative of his employer. Unemployed adults either engage in learning to gain new competences to participate in the job market and is motivated by their own desire or coerced by society thru the punitive act of the withdrawal of unemployment benefits for non-participation in adult learning for the case of most welfare states. New immigrants can engage in adult learning through extrinsic pressures of the government to integrate by learning their host countries culture, language and etc or for their own personal development. Retired adults, however, have a different reason for engaging such as finding something to do in their retirement age, personal fulfillment or simply the quest for knowledge. Each and every stage of life and every individual will have their own reason and purpose for engaging in adult learning and it will be almost impossible to list all the reasons
down. It is only appropriate to come up with a typology of reasons for each group of adults to analyze barriers to learning associated with each reason.

Research into why adult learn has uncovered a range of factors, including communication improvement, social contact, educational preparation, professional advancement, family togetherness, social stimulation and cognitive interest and that there are many complex (Boshier, 1977; Fujita-Starck, 1996 cited in Dymock, 2007). Dymock (2007, pp 6-7) stated that the main reason perceived by providers for learners coming to adult language, literacy and numeracy programs was to improve their language, literacy and numeracy for everyday living followed by employment or training reasons. He also pointed out that there are many complex reasons for learner’s participation in adult learning, which are also subject to change and that Barriers to learning can be in the form of lack of confidence and identity.


- Social Relationships: make friends and meet others.
- External Expectations: complying with the wishes of someone else with authority.
- Social Welfare: desire to serve others and/or community.
- Professional Advancement: desire for job enhancement or professional advancement.
- Escape/Stimulation: to alleviate boredom and/or to escape home or work routine.
- Cognitive Interest: learning for the sake of learning itself.

Motivation towards adult learning can be categorized into work/economic (higher earning potential, professional advancement and work retention), personal (cognitive interest, family togetherness) and social.

Merriam & Caffarella (1991, pp 86-90) stated that studies focusing on the psychological perspective have categorized barriers to participation to adult learning into situational (depending on a person’s situation at a given time), institutional (all practices and procedures that discourage adults from participation), dispositional or psychosocial (person’s attitudes about self and learning) and informational (person is not aware of educational activities available). Further categorizations based on the social structure were namely geographic conditions, demographic factors, socio-economic conditions and education and cultural determinants.

Geographic conditions deals with the division between urban, suburban and rural settings in relation to educational opportunities. Demographic factors include age and sex, which influences who participates and does not participate in adult learning. Socioeconomic conditions and education relates to a person’s background and place in society. Less wealthy people oftentimes participate less due to their socioeconomic situation and prior education. The degree of this happening in welfare state countries, where education is free or highly subsidized is potentially lesser than in developing and non-welfare state countries. Cultural determinants usually deter minority groups to participate less than majority groups in adult learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, pp 86-90).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational Factors</th>
<th>Maslow’s Heirarchy</th>
<th>ERG Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Relationships</td>
<td>Belonging / Esteem</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Expectations</td>
<td>Belonging / Esteem</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Welfare</td>
<td>Self Esteem / Actualization</td>
<td>Growth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Barriers and Resistance to learning are also an interaction between the 3 dimensions of learning (Ileris, 2007). In a previously written paper, I have categorized various resistance to mathematics learning into the 3 dimensions namely cognitive, emotive and environmental (Chao, 2009). Even though this categorization was mainly for mathematics learning, the same categorization can be made for barriers to adult learning. The Barriers to adult learning would be the interplay between the internal factors (both cognitive and emotive) and the external factors (environment).

Table 2: Motivational Factors and the Dimensions of Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational Factors</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Emotive</th>
<th>Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sociological Relationships</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Expectations</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Welfare</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Advancement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape/ Stimulation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Interest</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: x marks the dimension affected or involved in the various barriers to learning.

Table 3: Barriers to Participation and Life Stages/Needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers to Participation</th>
<th>Maslow’s Hierarch</th>
<th>ERG Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Situational</td>
<td>Physiological / Security</td>
<td>Existence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>Belonging / Esteem</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispositional</td>
<td>Self Esteem &amp; Actualization</td>
<td>Growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td>Belonging / Esteem</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic</td>
<td>Physiological / Security</td>
<td>Existence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic</td>
<td>Belonging / Esteem</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomic &amp; Education</td>
<td>Physiological / Security</td>
<td>Existence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Determinants</td>
<td>Belonging</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 above attempts to place the various categories of barriers towards participation to adult learning into the different needs/stages of life based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and Alderfer’s ERG Theory. This categorization is useful in giving the users a better understanding of the adult learning in relation to where they are in their life stage and the barriers that they face.

The classification of Situational, Geographic and Socioeconomic & Education to Physiological / Security needs under Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is based on the fact that a person’s situation, geographical location and socioeconomic and educational status is highly affected by their economic needs (which includes security) and is a choice between their existence or participation in adult learning. This also is the basis for placing them under the Existence category under the ERG theory.

Institutional, informational and Demographic barriers are classified in belonging and esteem (Relatedness) as these barriers can be reduced or negated with a stronger sense of belonging or esteem in relation to the institution, groups and society.

Dispositional barriers are classified into the self esteem and actualization because it is highly related to the person’s individual perception of themselves in relation to the social environment. Their own perception (usually influenced by society) of their competencies
and abilities highly affects their disposition, growth as an individual and their value system in relation towards participation in adult learning.

In an attempt to see which dimensions are involved in the different categories of barriers to adult learning participation, one fact seems to be undeniable. The environmental dimension is affected in all the categories of barriers (see table 4). It is also noticeable that both the emotive and environment are mostly affected by the different barriers.

This paper is not suggesting that the cognitive dimension is irrelevant but suggesting that in relation to motivation and barriers to adult learning both the emotive and environmental dimension seems to play a more important role.

### Table 4. Barriers to Participation and the 3 Dimensions of Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers to Participation</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Emotive</th>
<th>Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Situational</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<td>X</td>
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</tr>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Determinants</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: X marks the dimension affected or involved in the various barriers to learning*

### The Margin in Adult Learning

Using the various tables above (Tables 1 to 4), identification of an adult learners life stage/needs and which particular dimensions are involved in various motivational factors and barriers to adult learning becomes more visible. The simplification of the identification process (though an oversimplification of a rather complex process) enable the various stakeholders to focus on the motivational aspects necessary for an adult to participate in learning. McClusky’s theory of margin gives a general perspective towards the concept of motivation and when used with the above mentioned tables should prove to be useful looking at the challenges within adult learning.

According to McClusky, power should equal or exceed load. This means that somehow a person’s motivation to participate should exceed the barriers towards non-participation in adult learning. In relation to the cognitive dimension, power can be seen in one’s cognitive abilities, while load is in the form of academic or learning requirements set by the learning institutions. If one’s ability falls short of the requirement then there would be a negative margin for lack of a better word in various forms such as anxiety, stress or resistance to learning. In the emotion dimension, power is in the form of a person’s energy and motivation towards learning, which varies individually based on their own value system particularly those related to learning, and load would be in the various work load in the person’s personal, professional and academic life. With the environmental dimension, power and load can be seen in how supportive or restrictive the environment is towards a person’s participation in adult learning. By environment, it does not only refer to the institutions of learning but also the family, work place, society including the culture of the person’s community.

Motivation and Barriers (being power and load) are two opposing forces which is greatly involved adult learning participation. Motivation gives the energy towards participation in adult learning while the barriers drain the energy. A margin of reserve is
necessary to ensure continuous participation in adult learning. With this theoretical underpinning, a model to understand the dynamics between life stages, motivational factors and barriers to adult learning becomes necessary.

![The Adult Learning Funnel](image)

**Figure 2**

*The Adult Learning Funnel*

The Adult Learning Funnel (figure 2) takes the adult learners experience as a starting point. Experience includes his/her value system, cultural heritage, personal and social maturity including the skills and competences of the individual learner. The learner's experience also determines one’s life stage/needs (Maslow’s Hierarchy and ERG Theory). Various motivational factors and barriers to participation to adult learning (opposing forces) interacts with the different dimensions of a person (cognitive, emotive and environment) adding power and load. The accumulation of power and load within the different dimensions are funneled based on the learner's value placed on the different aspects of his/her life namely personal, professional and social. This would result to a margin (or a negative margin) which gives the learner the energy to pursue and participate in adult learning.

**The complexities of understanding an adult learner**

Further research is needed to fully comprehend the complex nature of an adult learner. Knowles assumptions of an adult’s self-direction, experience, readiness to learn and immediacy of application cannot fully explain such complexities. Somehow, he forgot to take into consideration the multi-faceted life of an adult involving not only the professional life but also the family, personal, social and cultural aspects of their life. Furthermore, his assumptions that the most potent motivations are internal rather than external could be
challenged taking into consideration that internal motivation is formed by external and internal forces. It is almost impossible to determine the real distinction between internal and external motivation.

The life stage/needs of an adult learner also determine his/her value system be it existence, relatedness or growth needs. It also has a significant influence on the adult learner's decision to participate in adult learning as it affects one or even all of the 3 dimensions of learning (cognition, emotion or environment). This decision can be seen in line with the theory of margins (McClusky) where the dynamic interaction between power and load defines the energy available to participate in adult learning.

The varied motivations of adult learners, which change during the different stages/needs in their live, add to the complexity of their nature. Motivational factors to participate in adult learning as social relationships, external expectations, social welfare, professional advancement, escape/stimulation and cognitive interest dynamically changes (Dymock 2007) based on one's self direction, experience, readiness to learn and immediacy of application aside from which stages of life/needs they are in.

The different categories of barriers towards participation to adult learning can be seen affecting a person in their different life stages/needs and in different dimensions of learning. Most importantly the emotion and environment dimension seems to be mostly affected by the different barriers and as such it needs a high degree of attention.

What this paper succeeded in pointing out is that barriers to learning can be understood in terms of adult learners’ life stages/needs and that certain dimensions of learning is involved in different barriers. The adult learning funnel serves as a tool (though it still needs further refinement) to understand the dynamic interaction between the adult learners experience (including life stage), motivational factors, barriers to adult learning with the multi-faceted life (personal, professional and social) of an adult learner.

However, there is much to be researched in the various aspects of the model. Experience and how an adult learner actually values education in relation to their life stages need to be further studied. How motivational factors and barriers to adult learning affect the different dimensions of learning and how the different dimensions actually interact together and forms the decision to participate in adult learning especially in an adult learner's multi-faceted life.

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**Historical background on special education in Romania**

In Romania, the interest in the education, socio-professional and school integration of people with special needs materialized in measures that were taken a few decades ago. When analyzing this issue from a Romanian perspective, the following are worth mentioning:

- The first institutions meant for the education of disabled children go back to the 19th century (1864 – Focsani School for Deaf Children) and the beginning of the 20th century (1900 – Cluj Napoca School for Blind Children, 1918 - Cluj Napoca School for the Mentally Disabled);

- Educating children with special needs in an environment as similar as possible to the general education system and their inclusion in activities alongside with normal children have been thoroughly analyzed by Romanian specialists for a long time. Thus, the Education Law in 1924 stipulated the possibility of founding differentiated classes within normal schools, for children with mental disabilities, health problems, and for deaf and blind children. This is the first time when an official document referred to the organization of differentiated school structures (Classes) within normal schools, specially aimed at educating children with various problems; in other words, this was the first mentioning of an integrated education method (which, at the time, bore a different name).

- After the 60s, both the interest in the special education of disabled children has increased, and also the number of institutions that dealt with their problems.

- After the fall of the communist regime (1990), in Romania, the social assistance and education of people with special needs went through some changes, according to the new protection and education measures taken worldwide.

When the Romanian Education System joined the “The standard rules for equal chances of disabled people” (UNO resolution, signed in 1993), “Salamanca Declaration” (1994), and “Special education framework” (UNESCO Resolution signed in 1994), it became compulsory for our country to set its own education policy and to find solutions in order to improve education structures at all levels, and in order to meet a wide range of educational demands.

According to the principles and objectives stipulated in international documents, regarding the respect and fight for children’s rights (including the ones with special needs), the Romanian Education System increasingly focuses on the following issues:

- The integration of the child/ student with disabilities in society/ school;
- Free access of students with disabilities to any form of education;
- Equal chances for all children.

Since the mid 90s, the Romanian Government has issued laws in accordance with the international legislation on the education of children with special needs.

In this respect, the Romanian Ministry of Education and Research endorsed a few basic principles, as follows:

- A child / person with disabilities is a full member of society and **must remain within**
his/her community;

- Schools must include all children in the educational process, irrespective of their physical, intellectual, linguistic, ethnic or of any other nature features;
- It is the education system that shall meet the child’s demands, not vice versa, especially when school does not fit his/her needs;
- Children shall have psycho-pedagogical support and assistance, so that they can grow up at their full potential;
- The education system must include all disabled children, in one education structure or another, according to their educational needs;
- In order to render disabled children’s integration in the mass education more efficient, the Romanian Ministry of Education and Research suggested, as a means of assistance, the so called support teachers.

A theoretical approach to Romanian Special Education

In Romania, many phrases are used to define disabled people, such as: Deficiency, incapacity, handicap, disability and special needs.

✓ **Deficiency** means the lack, loss or alteration of a person’s structure or function (anatomical, physiological or psychological), genetically inherited or generated by an accident, disease, or negative conditions in the child’s environment (especially by psychological or emotional factors).

✓ **Incapacity** means a functional limitation due to a physical, intellectual or sensory deficiency caused by environment or health conditions or due to neuro-psychic malfunction. These limitations may be permanent, progressive or regressive.

✓ **Handicap** – refers to the absence of a social advantage and it is connected to the loss or limitation of a person’s opportunities, a person who cannot enjoy social life like the others. A handicap occurs when a disabled person faces cultural, physical, social barriers that hinder his/her access to various social systems that other people have access to.

✓ **Disability** – refers to the outcome of a complex relationship between a person’s state of health, internal and external factors. Owing to this relationship, the impact of different environments on the same person, given a certain state of health, may vary substantially.

✓ **Special Education Needs (SED)** – This concept means additional educational needs, besides the general educational aims; these must fit individual features, learning peculiarities or deficiency. SED involves complex assistance, medical, social and educational aspects included.

Since 1995, SED as a concept has been encompassed by The Romanian Education Law. SED aims at overcoming the traditional barriers that make children fall into categories and it also focuses on the compulsory appropriation of evaluation and educational itinerary, on the thorough and dynamic analysis of all factors that lead to school failure. SED includes a wide range of categories, such as: emotional and behavioral alterations, mental deficiency/retard, physical deficiency, visual deficiency, auditory deficiency, language problems, and learning disabilities. Without an appropriate approach to these special needs, we can actually neither speak about equal chances nor about school participation or social inclusion.

These categories of children have the same basic needs as all other children as far as their growth and development are concerned – the need for security and affection, for appreciation and acceptance, for self esteem, responsibility, independence and so on. It is
important for them to grow up and evolve together, without turning their being different into barriers.

The Romanian Education Law (84/1995) and the subsequent amendments deal with SED concept, as an alternative/equivalent to deficiency and handicap.

- Traditionally, special education in Romania was seen as a section of public education dealing with the education of children with deficiencies, by means of special school institutions, different from other Romanian schools.

  After the 90’s it became a necessity to replace the concept of special schools with that of special education, and the phrase a deficient child/student became a child/student with growing/learning difficulties or a child with special education needs.

At present, in Romania there are two approaches of special education: an individual approach of the child and the curricular approach, in other words, there are two perspectives on this issue:

- **stricto senso**, special education partially overlaps the special education system, which is organized in special institutions and aims at a type of education specialized on people/children with various types of deficiencies.

  From this point of view, education is based on labeling and segregation. The new trends try to abolish these types of stiff labels that have negative consequences on the future development of children.

- **largo senso**, special education encompasses a wider range of pupils, namely those with leaning/growing difficulties; in this respect, we also refer to a type of education adjusted to and aimed at people who fail to achieve an educational level proper to their age independently.

  At the beginning, special education fell solely into the responsibility of special schools, yet, at present it has become the duty of normal schools, by raising awareness of the fact that every child/pupil may have learning difficulties at one point throughout their school itinerary.

  The Romanian legal framework for special education focuses on two main leads:

  ➢ The thorough activity evaluation in special education institutions and their reorganization process concerning both activities and education aims.

  ➢ The breakout of a wide process, that is, the inclusion of special education in the public education system by creating expertise, early diagnosis and evaluation of children deficiencies, with a view to an early, timely and efficient intervention; the inclusion of children diagnosed with the so called problems in normal kindergartens; school attendance in the proximity of their homes; the transfer of children with minor up to medium problems from special to normal public schools; providing education assistance throughout their school adjustment period and their social inclusion; the transformation of special schools into schools open to all children of that particular community.

At present the Romanian special Education system is on its way to modernization and restructuring, by creating integrated classrooms in normal schools, by allotting support means (teachers and instructors included) to normal schools and by encouraging mutual cooperation (in point of organization, standards and education quality in general).

Special schools still have an educational purpose, yet, for a small number of children, who cannot be included in normal classrooms. Special schools have acquired new roles in their evolution, since they are a valuable resource for inclusive schools:

- The personnel of these special institutions are experienced in early diagnosis,
identification and evaluation of children with disabilities;
• Special schools can also become instruction centers and instructors source for ordinary schools. The expertise of special schools instructors can be useful for the curriculum improvement and the adjustment of didactic methods that fit children learning peculiarities.

**Distinctive features of the Romanian Special Education System**

The *Special Education Regulation for the Organization and Functioning* (SEROF) and *Special Education Framework* (SEF) connect this type of education to the reform of the whole Romanian Education System and also shapes the legal framework, which will be subsequently referred to.

• The Special Education System, subordinated to the Ministry of Education and Research, is part of the Romanian Education System and it provides instruction programs for all children, according to their needs. Special education falls into the responsibility of all schools employees and it is flexible and all embracing.
• In Romania, children with disabilities have access to different types of education and can attend, according to their disability either special schools or mass schools.
• Special education is organizes according to the deficiency type and degree: special schools deal with children with severe and joint mental deficiency and in some cases, children with medium deficiency. All other children attend ordinary education institutions.
• A special category is represented by children with sense perception deficiency or movement deficiency; although they benefit by special schools assistance for their problems, they study according to normal schools curriculum. The difference between these two types of institutions lies in the physical and methodological facilities fit for every type of deficiency.
• Children with medium deficiency, learning and language problems, emotional and social problems, or behavior problems attend mass instruction institutions where education assistance is available.
• The identification of the deficiency type and degree is the responsibility of the Child Protection Commission, which is subordinated to the County Council.
• Children from the special education system can follow the curriculum of mass schools, the adjusted curriculum of mass schools or the special schools curriculum.
• The school attendance period may vary. For instance, children with severe mental deficiency may attend primary and secondary school for a 9-10 years’ period, which means 1-2 years more than the 8 years’ period of the mass education system.
• Throughout the school attendance period children with special education needs have access to psycho-pedagogical resources for their medical and social recovery, and also to other specific means of assistance available in the community and in specialized institutions, special schools included.
• The special education system is organized at all levels of pre - universitary education, including kindergartens, secondary schools (Forms 1-8, primary school and secondary school), art and craft schools, high schools, education centers, day centers and curative pedagogy centers. In some cases schools cover several levels of education within the same special education institution.
• The education of children with special needs is organized within groups or special forms, and in some cases, individually, usually smaller than those in normal schools. The number of
pupils differs according to the deficiency degree: 8-12 pupils with medium deficiency, or 4-6 pupils with severe, joint deficiency.

- Law no.128 / 1997 on the Status of the Didactic Personnel stipulates a few specific responsibilities for special education institutions: itinerary teachers, special education teachers, psycho-pedagogy teachers, logoped, therapists, kindergarten instructors;
- In special schools there are three types of compulsory activities: teaching – learning activities (performed by special education teachers at the beginning of the day), specific therapies of compensation and recovery (performed by psycho-pedagogy teachers, logoped and therapists), and educational activities (performed by kindergarten instructors in the afternoon).
- Some special schools provide education in the native language of minorities;
- School Syllabi for special education system have been revised and simplified, according to the contents and criteria existing in normal schools. For pupils with disabilities, the use of several types of curriculum has been suggested, according to the type of deficiency, as a proof for the ability to meet the demands of ordinary schools for the necessity to continue and expand the integration process.
- Pupils with disabilities that follow the normal schools curriculum will be supported by psycho-pedagogical assistance and special assistance, by recovery and compensation therapies, by school and professional orientation provided by the itinerary teacher, by resource centers specialists and by inclusive schools employees. Furthermore, there is also a curriculum adjusted to educational alternatives.

**Inclusive Education Strategies in Romania**

_Inclusive education (in UNESCO definition) is a type of education that is adjusted and individualized according to the needs of all children within groups and classes equivalent in age, where there are children with very different needs, abilities and competence levels. Through inclusive education assistance is provided in mass schools and normal classrooms, for children with learning difficulties, whatever their social origin or their problems, accepted alongside with their “normal” classmates._

Inclusive schools/ education also involves the idea of school and society reform, with a view to meeting the demand of a society for all, (i.e. comprehensive and integrative in itself). This must also meet the needs, potential and aspirations of all children, including those with special education needs. They have reached the conclusion that the education of these special children cannot be done in special centers and schools, because it sometimes triggers a syndrome of discrimination and segregation. It has become a necessity for public schools to have a wider range of pupils than it has nowadays and to allow the inclusion of children with special education needs in the general education system.

In order to achieve the basic aim of special education – the integration/inclusion of deficient children in ordinary schools, transforming public schools into inclusive schools – after the 90s, The Ministry of Education and Research has issued a strategy that is implemented through national programs.

**Main trends in the integration of SED children strategy**

- To guarantee equal chances to education in normal schools, for all children of school age, whatever their capacity of learning, participation or development;
- To prepare normal schools ( from manager to children’s parents) to accept children/
pupils with disabilities in normal classrooms, so that schools may actually become inclusive;
- To create proper conditions for the physical, intellectual, psychic, and behavioral
development of deficient children by:
- professional psycho – pedagogical assistance in normal schools;
- specialized assistance within the family;
- professional social assistance given to children, especially to their family, from authorities;
All these trends were meant to guarantee a future pro - active participation in the life of the
community of the people with disabilities (both children and grown –ups), and their
continuous assistance to a greater independence and autonomy.

The aims of the SED Children Integration Strategy
- To guarantee a full pro-active participation in the life of the community, both for
adults and young people, who are pupils at present.
- To assist them to an independent life, according to their own wishes, aspiration and
capacity;
- To abolish the causes that generate deficiencies, to prevent them from worsening,
and to decrease the consequences on children;
- To avoid and eliminate any kind of discrimination on people with such deficiencies or
handicaps.

The principles of the SED Children Integration Strategy
This inclusion strategy was based on the following principles:
- Schools must include all children, whatever their qualities (whether physical, intellectual,
linguistic or of any other nature;
- Special education also relies on the principles of a healthy pedagogy, which is only to
the children’s benefit; this healthy pedagogy accepts the idea that there are major
differences among people and the education system must fit the child’s needs, not the
other way round;
- In normal schools, children shall learn together; the normal /inclusive school must
acknowledge and react to children’s various needs, by smoothly mixing different types of
learning, and different degrees of educational success; it shall provide the quality of
education by: appropriate curriculum, efficient organization, coherent didactic strategies,
proper use of resources, and partnerships with other institutions;
- In normal schools, children with disabilities shall receive full additional support to as
successful as they are able to.
- Special schools may serve as: valuable resource for inclusive schools development,
instruction centers and resources for inclusive schools personnel, centers that can instruct
and educate a smaller number of children that cannot be included in the normal education
system.

The aims of the SED Children Integration Strategy
The inclusion and integration activities aimed at:
- the abolition of future labeling, discrimination and segregation of children with
deficiencies;
- the abolition of standardization in the education of children with deficiencies;
- The positive perception on children with deficiencies by the other normal children;
- Major changes within ordinary schools:
  ▪ changing the attitude towards the children with deficiencies;
  ▪ methodical and professional improvement;
  ▪ changing the teaching habits;
- Changing the mentality and the methods of interaction with children with deficiencies;
The inclusion process necessarily depend on the joint efforts of all interested factors (national or local authorities involved in this matter, interested non governmental organizations, parents, children, society on the whole).
Considering that the local community level of awareness is essential to the success of these undertaking, specialists have focused on the following:
  ✓ Creating a partnership with main institutions, that shall raise the awareness of the community on the future integration;
  ✓ The concrete training of the community in order to accept the integration of people with deficiencies;
  ✓ Issuing programs of community information and education, in order to change the mentality and break social barriers:
    ▪ The information and education of the deficient children’s parents;
    ▪ The information and education of the deficient children’s natural or adoptive family;
    ▪ The information and education of the normal children’s parents in the ordinary school;
    ▪ The information and education of the local authorities representatives;
  ✓ The involvement of local churches in the community information and education;
  ✓ Issuing programs of information and education, in order to temper the mal functions inherent to switching from the institutionalized to the deinstitutionalized;
  ✓ Education programs promoted by local and national mass media;
  ✓ Drawing volunteers in the community information and education;

Actions and steps of the SED Children Integration Strategy

    Romania has had a long history of special education based on segregation and now it endeavors to take to modern trends in inclusive and integrated education. The activities implementing the SED Children Integration Strategy are:
  ➢ Community reintegation of disabled people from residential institutions or families that lack financial resources;
  ➢ Promoting a pro active participation of disabled people in society, at all levels and all domains of activities;
  ➢ Creating a system of community social assistance based on standards and legislation that allow them to have an independent life and creating a network of professionals to assist them in need;
The stages in the SED Children Integration were:
  a) From 1993-1994, a pilot program was implemented for three years in Iasi, Cluj, Timis si Bucuresti, addressed to the integration of children with minor and medium deficiency in normal schools;
  b) After the encouraging results of the project, in 1997 they decided to expand it on a national level;
  c) All children from forms 1-4 in special schools and kindergartens were re - diagnosed;
  d) In 2000, boarding schools were taken over by Local Councils;
  e) In 2001, children with deficiencies within special education institutions were evaluated
and some children were included from 2001-2002 in normal schools;

Gradually, schools continued to open up and adjust their educational offer in accordance with the new trends; they created partnerships with special schools, reached information sources and instruction programs for the personnel continuous education, in order to meet the strict needs and challenges of inclusive schools.

Nevertheless, it has become obvious that the process of switching from inclusive schools to normal schools was a long and difficult one. It is believed that the reason for this was the lack of consistent and efficient special education training of the mass schools teachers and also the small number of specialized itinerary teachers within the existing inclusive schools.

**Concepts of the developing didactic competences program in inclusive education**

The Teachers’ Training Department within the University of Pitesti has a strategy on the continuous training of pre university teachers that is based on the quality development of education, in accordance with the educational standards established by specialized commissions and also in accordance with the general objectives of permanent education, which are:

- rendering teaching career more professional;
- creating an education market for programs of permanent education, based on competition, which allows teachers to benefit by a wide offer from suppliers of permanent education programs;
- the interrelation between the teaching career and European standards; professional dynamics by using transferable credits;
- Connection to major European reforms in education.

One of the major trends in curriculum European reforms consists of: the integration of children with deficiencies in mass schools, in order to give those equal chances by promoting inclusive education policies.

The Teachers’ Training Department within the University of Pitesti has done research in order to reveal new needs for inclusive education training. Subsequently, the survey emphasized the necessity to implement new training programs on inclusive education, considering the following:

- Many teachers or instructors deal with SED Children, although they have never attended a systematic training to give them or check they competences on special education; in most of the cases they act empirically.
- A big number of teachers are highly motivated to take active part in a training program if they have the chance to define the problems they face in their own school.

The permanent education program is a concrete initiative to support the professional development of teachers in the inclusive education domain. The program is based on the following principles:

- Turning schools into inclusive schools is a wide process that involves changes in principles, values, attitude, and mentality, usage, at the level of both school management and classroom.
- The change is a long process because it also means developing competences that must be acquired;
- This process is similar to the creation process, because inclusive schools are the result of teachers’ creative work and efforts;
Knowing the competences is not enough, these competences must be constructed and developed;

Teachers can become competent through permanent education programs. A successful program of this kind teaches them not only to use new techniques, but also to share them with the others.

A permanent education program addressed to teachers in inclusive schools starts from:

- The reality (the school reality);
- The reality we aim at (the teacher’s profile);

The competence profile of the teacher who performs inclusive education was established from theoretical, psychological and pedagogical landmarks, from the existing inclusive education usage, as follows:

✓ **Instrumental Competences**
- the acquisition of special psycho - pedagogy theories, of child psychology and education techniques in order to develop competences necessary to dealing with SED Children in inclusive schools;
- creating abilities to make use of compensation and recovery programs in order to obtain best results from integrated SED children;
- creating the ability to project an inclusion program, fit for the schools, classroom and community they work in;

✓ **Competences for planning and differentiated organization of didactic activities**
- developing the ability to issue and use didactic projects according to the needs of inclusive schools;
- developing the ability to issue and use didactic projects according to children learning peculiarities;
- developing the ability to give students strategies of teaching and learning, whatever their social background, so that all children have equal chances to learn;

✓ **Competences for interaction:**
- developing the ability to sympathize, tolerate, respect, understand and value children in general, SED children in particular, as the foundation of the education relation;
- developing the ability to communicate and relate, including specific language or communication means for some people with handicap;
- developing the ability to accept a unitary diversity and to create specific interrelation means, according to their personality;
- developing the ability to adjust to present education and social policies that protect children and people with handicap, in order to avoid abandon, domestic violence, school failure and chills abuse;
- Developing the ability to understand inclusive schools from an integrating and interdisciplinary perspective.

✓ **Evaluation competences**
- Acquiring expertise in the evaluation of etiological, social, and family factors with an impact on SED Children learning and integration;
- Developing competences for a many faceted evaluation of SED children;

✓ **Counseling competences**
- Acquiring the ability to adjust to existent education conditions or unprecedented education conditions, to the challenges of society that require counseling, individual or group therapy, proper support and interventions;
- Acquiring the ability to adopt present education and social policies in order to develop strategies that hinder abandon, domestic violence, school failure, child abuse etc.

In conclusion, inclusive education is possible only if teachers understand the concept and act deliberately to attain it. When the mutual adjustment between normal and SED children improves, when the programs become more appropriate to the needs of SED children, when the assistant teachers reach their due place in schools, the efficiency of integration activities will increase and Romanian inclusive schools will most probably become reality.
Primary School Teachers’ Training in ICT.

Introduction

The Development of ICT

The development of ICT (Information Communication Technologies) has brought not only important changes in different forms of work, individuals’ integration in their professional life, and in communication, but also in economical activities that take place within a milieu in which the meaning of place and time has acquired a different meaning (ACM, 2001; Noss & Hoyles, 1996). ICT is an essential tool for open and effective governance, democratic participation of all citizens in social happenings and for the enhancement of public services, without social, economic and class distinctions (Raptis & Rapti, 2006). ICT puts special emphasis on information and its management (Rifkin, 1996), something that makes new citizens – that is, pupils (and students later on) – be able to operate effectively within this new shaped framework and be creative based on the assessment of the information data they are provided with by the expanded environment (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Jonassen, 2000).

School and ICT

This innovative technological and social framework both influences Education and makes the traditional school to change into a school where critical thinking, creativity and adjustment to the modern environment play a crucial role. Education is forced to change methods and methodologies as well as teaching techniques that has been using up to now so that pupils acquire these cognitive tools which are compatible with the demands of our post-modern era.

During the first years of the introduction of new technologies to Education in Greece, those technologies were being integrated with an operational, mechanistic way, and the pupils were taught only the basic operations of a computer, without having been connected with the school subjects and social reality (Komis, 2005). Of course, ICT provides strong tools that can help pupils develop skills and acquire new knowledge. Nevertheless, the use of ICT as such leads neither to advanced skills transference nor to the development of critical thinking of future citizens (Cuban, 2001). The success of an activity based on ICT depends on its educational design - that is, which learning objectives it has, which learning strategies and methodologies it uses, what kind of pupils’ activities it uses and the degree of pupils’ motivation, which the teacher’s role is etc (Kordaki, 2001; Raptis & Rapti, 2006).

As a secondary agent of socialization, school helps pupils absorb mainstream social values and models, acquire knowledge and skills – which are included in the analytical syllabus that is in effect and are believed to be crucial for pupils’ future adult life. School also helps pupils show their individual skills and competences (Kelpsidis, 2002).

Teachers and ICT

Thus, it is conspicuous that there is a direct correlation between social and historical transformations and priorities as well as the methodology that each educational system
promotes. Basically, each educational system reflects upon it not only social changes but also class distinction itself, depending on the historical framework (Aviram, 1996; Fischer, 2003). However, any changes occurring in Education seem to go through the change of teachers’ perceptions (Kolias, 1999; Vakaloudi, 2003). Teachers’ training and their active participation in processes of introduction of innovations - combined with the encouragement of self-reflection on teaching practice – seem to be important tools for their perceptions to change (Eatona & Carboneb, 2008; McIntyre & Byrd, 1998).

In addition, teachers need continuous training to renew their cognitive faculties and cope with new demands (Borko, 2004; Duncombe & Armour, 2004). Nowadays, teachers’ training is considered not only one of the primary parameters of the school effectiveness but also the leverage of renewal and modernisation of educational systems (Papanaoum, 2005; Xochellis and Papanaoum, 2000). The scientific community and educational circles are very well convinced that training contributes both to upgrading the teacher’s prestige and consolidating his / her professional sufficiency and autonomy, by complementing or renewing his / her initial preparation (Bagakis, 2005; Lieberman, 1994; Matsaggouras, 2005).

Thus, a crucial point of ICT application to education is teachers’ training, which should be mentioned both to teachers and to education executives. An important requirement for successful aiming is the generation, development and expansion of mechanisms of educational training so much at the level of school unit as at the level of prefecture or / and at a national level (Xochellis & Papanaoum, 2000).

ICT and Primary School Teachers in Greece

*Teachers’ Training and First Conclusions*

Up to now, many wide-scale efforts of teachers’ training in ICT have already been made in Greece. The first effort of teachers’ training in ICT was made through Regional Training Centres (PEK in Greek),7 which were established in 1992. Between 1995 and 1999, a good number of training seminars was organised either by different agencies - such as the Greek Mathematical Association, Association of Greek Physicists etc – or through European research projects – such as the project ODYSSEY, the European project TRENDS, Web for Schools, Education Multimedia) (Kynigos & Xenou, 2000).

Part of ICT courses were provided to primary school teachers from 1997 to 2000 through the project “Academic and Professional Upgrading of Primary School Teachers”.

Nowadays, the project “The Teacher’s Preparation for Information Society (IS) / Initial training of all Teachers in ICT” in is in progress. Its aim is for teachers to acquire basic skills in ICT for educational purposes, according to the educational aims and objectives as identified by the initiative eEurope (YPEPTH/PI, 2000).

From research carried out in Greece (Karakasidis, 2005; Kokkinopoulos, 2006; Kynigos, et al. 2000; Tzimopoulos, 2003) some conclusions can be drawn out: (a) Those teachers who participated in the training project expressed a positive attitude towards training, whereas as a whole they stated that training seminars, as an institution, should continue existing; (b) the duration of seminars is considered very short compared to their content; (c) trainers do not seem to know the techniques being used in Adult Education, thus using traditional techniques; (d) trainees are required get further training per specialty as well as to have an access to PC for practice; (e) it is thus concluded that there has been a

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7 Henceforth, the Regional Training Centres will be mentioned with their Greek initials; that is, PEK.
great change in knowledge, whereas –as far as skills are concerned – a good amount of trained teachers claims that they can use a PC to carry out some tasks but not to the degree that they wished to; (f) there was not homogeneity in teachers’ previous knowledge of how to a PC; (g) as far as the topic of the training is concerned, teachers claim that they have improved their knowledge about the topic of the project and, more particularly, about software packages such as Windows, Word and Excel.

**The present research: Its Method and Finds**

The aim of the present paper is to present teachers’ views on their training in ICT. This research is part of a wider research that aimed to explore both teachers’ training needs and ICT application to Primary schools and their effect on pupils’ teaching, learning and cognitive process and behavioural adaptation.

**Method**

**Sample**

The sample of the present research consists of 118 teachers of Primary Education of the Prefecture of Lesvos. Of them, 36 (30.5%) are men and 82 (69.5%) are women. Moreover, 25 teachers (21.2%) are under the age of 30 years, 40 teachers (33.9%) are between 30 and 40 years, 45 teachers (38.1%) are between 41 and 50 years and 8 teachers (6.8%) are between 51 and 60 years. Finally, 94 teachers (80.34%) have not got any post-graduate degree, while only 24 teachers (19.66%) have got a kind of further training. As far as their attendance or not of training programmes related to ICT, 37.61% of the teachers have not participated in this kind of training programmes, whereas 62.39% of them have.

**Physchometrics**

The Teachers’ Questionnaire about ICT consists of seven thematic units and includes closed questions. The first thematic unit refers to the usability and the use of ICT in the educational system (teachers, pupils and school units). The second thematic unit refers to the role of the teacher’s role in the modern school. The third thematic unit consists of questions about pupils’ acquisition of basic computer skills and corresponds to Pupils’ Questionnaire about ICT. The fourth unit refers to factors that impede the introduction of ICT to the Primary School. The fifth unit is about questions relevant to teachers’ knowledge about educational legislation, guidelines and circulars that regulate teaching practice and the introduction of ICT to school. In the sixth thematic unit there are questions about teachers’ training issues on ICT. In the seventh thematic unit sociological issues are raised, concerning with the positioning of the school in contemporary society. In the beginning of the questionnaire there are demographic items referring to sex, age, teachers’ specialty, if they have been awarded with an MA / MSc and / or a PhD, their official status and their seniority. Respondents’ answers to the questionnaire were given with the aid of four-point of the Likert-type scale, where 1=None and 4=Very Much – except for the questions of the third and fourth unit, where the questions are answered with the bipolar 1=No – 2=Yes. Furthermore, the answers to the fourth-unit questions are given in a multiple choice selection. Finally, the scale of the questions of the seventh unit is three-point: 1=Disagree, 2=Agree and 3=I do not know / I do not answer.

**Findings**
On the one hand, in Table 1, we can notice that – according to teachers’ opinions on their training in ICT - a small percentage of teachers (5.56%) believes that the training they went through was very successful or considers that it was suitable (4.48%). Most teachers believe that the training they got during their professional career related to the introduction of Information Technology (IT) in the Primary School was successful or suitable from “little” to “enough”. The differences in teachers’ views were examined with criterion $\chi^2$ and then it was found that the differentiation observed in percentages is statistically important.

Table 1. Absolute and Relative Frequencies (A.F. and R.F. respectively) and the criterion $\chi^2$ of the questions “Do you consider that the training you got was successful?” “Do you consider that the training you got was suitable” of Teachers’ Questionnaire about ICT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Not All</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>Enough</th>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you consider that the training you got was successful?</td>
<td>A.F.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>30.11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R.F.</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>41.67</td>
<td>40.28</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you consider that the training you got was suitable?</td>
<td>A.F.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>32.04</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R.F.</td>
<td>11.94</td>
<td>46.27</td>
<td>37.31</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, in Figure 1 we can observe that there is an important percentage of teachers that believes that there is insufficient teachers’ information about and training in the possibilities that ICT offers to teaching; this belief ranges from “enough” (42.61%) to “very much” (29.57%). Moreover, a small percentage of teachers (4.35%) believe that teachers’ information about and training in the possibilities that ICT offers to teaching is sufficient. Furthermore, 23.48% of teachers believe very little in the preceding view. Differences in teachers’ views were examined with the criterion $\chi^2$, and it is found that the differentiation observed in the percentages is statistically important ($\chi^2 (3)= 34.948$, p=0.000).

Figure 1

Graphic representation of the percentage of the question “there is insufficient teachers’ information about and training in the possibilities that ICT offers to teaching” of Teachers’ Questionnaire about ICT.

With the “Multiple Response” method, we analysed teachers’ responses to software packages they used in their teaching context. According to their responses, they most often
use Internet Explorer, Microsoft Office Word and “Paint”. They use: Microsoft Office Power Point less than the preceding software packages, Microsoft Office Excel and Microsoft Office Outlook very little, whereas they do not use the teaching software package “Logo” (Figure 2) almost at all. It is worth noticing that only 63.64% of the teachers use electronic mail.

An important percentage of teachers is informed about educational issues electronically through the formal website of Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Matters (or YPEPTH; see http://www.ypepth.gr), as illustrated in Figure 3.

**Figure 2**
Graphic representation of teachers’ multiple responses to the question “Which software packages do you use in the classroom?” of Teachers’ Questionnaire about ICT

**Figure 3**
Graphic representation of the percentage of teachers’ positive responses to questions “Do you use electronic mail?” “Do you visit the website of Pedagogical Institute?” and “Do you visit the educational portal of YPEPTH?” of Teachers’ Questionnaire about ICT
It is also important the fact that only a small percentage of teachers (1.74%) know the guidelines of the YPEPTH – Pedagogical Institute on ICT, whereas 20.87% of the teachers do not know them at all. Most teachers know the particular guidelines on ICT from “little” (51.30%) to “enough” (26.09%), as shown in Figure 4.

Concluding Remarks

A crucial point for the integration of ICT in the educational system is the teacher himself/herself. Education and training in new technologies is something more than necessary, because the teacher very often does not know how to use new technologies either due to insufficient training or due to lack of renewal of his/her knowledge acquired during his/her first degree. The rapid developments in the technological, social as well as in educational and teaching sectors force the teacher to be trained continuously in order to be able to cope with his/her teaching work effectively.

From the results of our research, it is conspicuous that, although most teachers realized that there are drawbacks in the training programmes, they still thought that what they got from the programmes themselves could have a positive impact on their teaching. The same results were also drawn from other research in Greece (Karakasidis, 2005; Kokkinopoulos, 2006; Kynigos, et al. 2000; Tzimopoulos, 2003). The importance of our research lies in the fact that, although most teachers realise enough positive aspects of their training, they nevertheless point out that it could have been more effective. Furthermore and, despite the positive comments they made on their training, teachers expressed the view that it did not become clear how new technologies could support better their teaching. It seems that this blurring about the functionality of new technologies is believed to be one of the drawbacks of teachers’ training in ICT, since teaching in these programmes cannot link theory and teaching practice effectively (Politis, et al. 2000; Polymeri, 2005; Tzimopoulos, 2003). Teachers consider that the use of ICT in these training programmes is more mechanistic, and it meets the needs neither of the modern school nor of the teacher, who should form a citizen with critical thought through educational procedures and processes, a citizen who can use and manage the cognitive tools of modern era.
Finally, it is also evident that only a small percentage of teachers do not believe in the suitability and the success of training they got related to informatics.

In our research it becomes conspicuous that, as a result of their training in or pastime with ICT, teachers make use mainly of basic computer programs and almost no programs that have been designed for the use in educational frameworks. The preceding find is similar to the outcomes of another research (Politis, et al. 2000; Polymeri, 2005; Tzimopoulos, 2003). We see that teachers’ networking so much among themselves as among other school units is impeded by the fact that about 2/5 of teachers do not use electronic mail. The use of the Internet applications facilitates many times the transmission of information and problem solving as well as the direct / immediate information of the teachers and the school units about what is going on in education. Of course, in this context it is important to notice that most of the teachers are informed about teaching issues electronically through the official website of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs (YPEPETH) and its agencies. The sad thing is that the portal of this Ministry is neither as informed as it should about issues concerning the teacher’s routine in school and the operation of the school units nor as informed as it should about the administrative and legislative framework that governs Education, a fact that many times creates misunderstandings and confusion in solving problems that emerge in the regional structures of the educational system.

At the same time, only one very small percentage of teachers knows the guidelines of the YPEPETH and the Pedagogical Institute on ICT, whereas the rest of the teachers either do not know at all or know the least about the guidelines on ICT. The use of the minimum or basic computer programs as well as teachers’ insufficient information about the introduction of new technologies to education impedes not only their application but also teachers’ attitude toward a dynamic and flexible cognitive tool.

Teachers’ training in ICT should overcome the obstacles at the initial stage of the introduction of new technologies to education and put emphasis on the connection of theory with teaching practice and the use of ICT as a helping and supportive tool, which can approach knowledge from different angles. Teachers’ training seminars shouldn’t be based any more on teaching of basic computer skills but on designing and constructing of teaching programs which will concern all fields of education. Teachers’ incomplete training in this matter creates problems with the organization and operation of the educational system. The educational system should meet the increasing demands of Information Society. On the one hand, the pupil should know not only how to handle new technologies with dexterity but also how to deal efficiently with the data these technologies provide him/her with as a thinking citizen. On the other hand, the teacher should understand that traditional models of education cannot meet the needs of social milieu and cultural environment. It is the teacher who with his/her handling various issues, giving ideas and encouragement, making pupils motivated, asking questions, co-ordinating in-class discussion and helping those children who have difficulties will manage to transform an inanimate machine not only into a tool-extension of pupils’ capabilities and potentialities but also into a helper of cognitive development.

Concluding, training should lead to teachers’ motivation, and the development of their skills and competences so that teachers are able to support the implementation of innovative projects and teaching techniques, whose ultimate objective would be the cultivation of cognitive structures which make up critical thinking and the holistic formation of free and modern citizens.
References


**Innovative primary school Teachers’ In-service Training for Improving Mathematics Constructivist Learning.**

**Introduction**

The learning of basic mathematics principles in high school and universities is generally an educational priority in all developed societies. The substantial advances, in the last decades, in the comprehension of the learning of mathematics, have led to the development of curricular material scientifically designed to improve mathematics learning at the different levels of the school and university systems. Research in understanding the learning difficulties of mathematics at different educational levels and the consequent development of curricular material, has given rise to a new, fast growing, field of research generally known as Mathematics Educational Research (hereafter MER). While new curricular developments continue to appear and different experimental applications show that the learning of mathematics can be significantly improved (Bartolini Bussi & Bazzini, 2003; Brousseau, 1997; Davidson & Kroll, 1991) with the new methodologies that foster active learning, it can be safely said that, in the classrooms of the majority of educational systems, there has been little, if any change. Different factors are contributing to this state of affairs. One of which being lack of appropriate teacher training (Andrew, 2007) and in this paper we propose to deal with a fundamental condition for change: teacher preparation for the new methodological approaches.

In this regard, there have recently been reports in the literature about comprehensive initiatives for re-preparing primary education teachers with the aim of changing local school systems (Goldin, 2003) or even multinational programs for teacher education (Clarke, Emanuelsson, & Jablonka, 2006). These extensive programs are indeed a very appropriate way to prepare teachers to change mathematics teaching. They involve the availability of substantial resources, the need for getting together teachers from different places for extended periods of time, a political decision about the characteristics of the school system and so on. In many places these conditions are very difficult to meet and a strategy of short teacher development courses is more feasible. With the aim of contributing to the latter teacher preparation strategy, we present in this paper the objectives and characteristics of a professional development short course for in-service primary teachers.

The general approach underlying this course is to consider teacher education in the general context of constructivist learning, laying the foundations for an action-research oriented teaching practice. In other words, constructivism is seen not only as a theoretical framework to understand how pupils learn mathematics, but also how teachers, building on their own experiences as teachers, actively construct their new knowledge about mathematics teaching.

Consequently the central objective of this professional development course was neither to stress rigorous mathematics treatment nor general pedagogic approaches, but rather to develop critical teachers who, reflecting on their own teaching and profiting from the curricular advances provided by MER, are prepared to implement in their courses an iterative virtuous cycle of planning and executing instruction complemented with the
formative evaluation necessary to provide the positive feedback for the next course implementation.

Within this framework, the course was designed to provide in-service teachers with first-hand knowledge of a teaching methodology that favours a deep conceptual learning of mathematics constructivist approach through their active participation in constructing their own knowledge. The course therefore followed the recommendation of the new Greek National Curriculum guides (2003) in the sense that professional development training of teachers “requires building understanding and ability for lifelong learning and should provide teachers the opportunity to learn and use the skills of research to generate new knowledge about mathematics and the teaching and learning mathematics”. Therefore, the following basic features were included in the course:

i. Participants reflect on their own experiences as teachers, pointing out the more common students’ difficulties with the subject matter of each activity.

ii. The teaching strategy presented (Teaching Mathematics Developmentally (Van-De-Walle, 1991; Bartolini Bussi & Bazzini, 2003; Goldin, 2003; Monteiro & Ainley, 2004; Steinbring, 2005; Van Amerom, 2003)) is a product of more than two decades of research in the teaching and learning of mathematics.

iii. Participants have to reflect on their own teaching experiences, comparing them with the learning model proposed.

iv. Participants have to read and discuss literature reports relevant to the learning of the subject matter of each in-service training course activity.

v. The basic features of collaborative learning were introduced and practiced by the participants in small groups. The idea behind this course structure is that the use of the results, techniques and language of educational research should prepare teachers to establish themselves as researchers, developing a critical view of their teaching, as a mandatory first step to improving their instruction (Bartolini Bussi & Bazzini, 2003). In that regard the aim of the reflection and discussion about students’ learning difficulties and teaching practices section is to help teachers to shift their focus away from themselves as teachers toward their students as learners (Kennedy, 2008). This discussion about learning difficulties also serves to elicit the knowledge that participants bring to a development course on methods of teaching mathematics.

Our position is that this “prior knowledge” should be taken into account as the starting point of any teacher development course if the active learning of mathematics teaching, based on the general principles of constructivism, is a central course premise.

Training Course Description

To investigate the issues outlined above, a team of four trainers initiated the “Innovative Primary School Teachers’ In-Service Training project” (IPST-INSET). The project started on 2007 with twenty one primary schools of the 3rd Educational region of Imathia in Northern Greece. The IPST project is coordinated by the authors of this paper, who took the initiative to launch it. A total of 250 teachers of all classes joined the project when it started, in 2007. Information about the project was given regularly at staff meetings and the project material was available on the web page of the 3rd educational region.

The course was implemented in two stages. Stage one started in September 2007 and stage two in December 2007. According to the course objectives, we arranged all course activities, in a tight 3-day schedule, under the following scheme:
In stage 1 the course started with the presentation of the constructivist approach of a mathematics lesson. One lesson of the text book was presented and analysed by the trainers according to the model (Table 1) and the teachers working in small groups, chose, analysed and presented another lesson from the textbook. The first stage finished with the whole group discussion of the proposed active learning methodology, teacher practices and models of learning.

### Table 1. A mathematics constructivist approach model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td>Memory review.</td>
<td>Mental math, written practice activities, drill work, games, daily oral math problems, problem of the day or week, warm-up activities. Immediate and meaningful feedback on previously assigned homework (or portions of it) in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction of Daily Objective</td>
<td>Preview lesson agenda. State and write mathematics objectives.</td>
<td>“We’re doing this today to learn....” “When we complete ... you will be able to...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept development and skill attainment through activities</td>
<td>Presentation Techniques: Different learning styles of students. Students need to see it, hear it, say it, do it. Opportunities to develop a variety of strategies through: problem solving, reasoning, communication, connections / linkages. Using and learning vocabulary and notation. Developing concepts appropriately with the use of linkages. Provide the “why” for rules and algorithms. Provide linkages (connections).</td>
<td>Hands-on materials, tools, technology, paper-and-pencil, mathematics notebooks and own language. Using related vocabulary in context. Connecting students’ informal language to mathematical terms and vocabulary. Developing concepts / extending skills through individual, group activities, tasks, or problems. Generating new questions and make linkages to previously learned material. Linkage applications to real-life situations. Opportunities for students to practice problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In stage 2 teachers had to work constructively in small groups, planning a mathematics lesson according to the model (see tale 1), by setting objectives, designing activities to develop new concept(s) and attain new skills, setting assessment procedures and prepare homework for the students. They all worked on the same mathematical concept designing material they thought that was appropriate for their students’ age, experience and competence regardless of the contents of the textbook.

For the planning of the lesson they were introduced to the “lesson planning template”.

The template is designed to scaffold the thinking, skills and attitudes of in-service teachers and proved to be an essential tool to train teachers how to think about the relationship between educational theories, lesson planning, instructional strategies, students and learning. It is at this point when theory intersects with practice. Using the template, teachers focus on who their students are, consider students with disabilities, think how this lesson fits into the larger sequence of lessons and the background knowledge students have on the topic. In this current standards-based era, it is expected that teachers set objectives for a lesson that are connected to national and local standards, think creatively about the lesson process and how to differentiate the process to meet individual student needs, consider how the students will engage in learning and how they as teachers will present information.

The ultimate goal is that, with the assist of the lesson plan template, the process of lesson planning will become automatic as teachers approach lesson design.

At this stage of the INSET training, the researchers regarded as very important that teachers went through the constructivist approach in the same way as regular students are supposed to do. This process not only assures teacher knowledge of the subject matter (Maths) and pedagogical activities, but it also gives them the possibility of anticipating students’ learning difficulties and preparing questions to guide that learning through an inquiry process.

The Reflection on Students’ Difficulties section was included in order to identify such difficulties from the participants’ teaching experience. It also helps participants to understand the kind of questions and problems that can be used to guide students’ learning and to evaluate students’ conceptual comprehension. Participants’ contributions on the subject were compared and discussed against the results of educational research in the Analysis of MER Results section that ended each stage. This latter section was included in
order to make the in-service teachers aware of the kind of information that can be obtained from MER literature (Beishuizen, 2001; Da Rocha Falcao, 1995; Streefland, 1993; Walbert, 2001; Wilson & Naiman, 2004). It seems clear that putting together that information with the knowledge and experience that the in-service teachers have about their own students is a necessary and fundamental step to improve instruction.

The final discussion was held just after the questionnaire was administered again as a post-instruction test and included not only an analysis of the main objectives and pedagogical approach of course, but also the value of teaching under a controlled atmosphere of formative evaluation.

The course training strategy

As stated above, a main objective of this course was to introduce in-service teachers to a different environment of student learning. In general these teachers have experienced as (successful) students and then practiced as teachers, a traditional model of teaching and learning in which the professor irradiates knowledge and where the students have a mostly passive role, listening to lectures, solving numerical, end-of-chapter problems and following a detailed instruction guide in the course curriculum.

Results of different MER groups in the last two decades show that more effective learning is obtained through teaching strategies that favour active learning, i.e. the active participation of students in their own learning process. Specifically, regarding the teaching of Mathematics at the high school and introductory university levels, data gathered by NCTM (NCTM, 1989) show a marked difference in performance between students subjected to active learning methodologies as compared to those students that followed traditional learning. This conclusion has been confirmed in different educational systems and for different subjects of basic Mathematics (Goldin, 2003; Johnson, 2005; Romberg, 2001; Van den Heuvel-Panhuizen, 2001). These data make evident the convenience of changing the traditional teaching approach and embracing the new methodologies.

A first step in that direction requires in-service teachers to break the “teach as I have been taught” vicious circle (Andrew, 2007). It seems therefore mandatory that in-service teachers experience (as students) active learning methodologies. In that regard and among the several active learning methodologies that have been developed in the last decade as a practical result of MER, in-service training courses in Mathematics (Brousseau, 1997) shows two distinct advantages: (a) it can easily be adapted to almost any kind of course structure or activities, since it covers the usual curriculum of basic mathematics, (b) it is very low demanding on classroom time, material and human resources.

Course Participants

The development course was attended by 250 in-service teachers: Their teaching experience ranged between 1 and 30 years, while their ages ranged between 25 and 60 years old. None of the attendants hold Ph.D. M.Sc. or B.Sc. degrees.

Evaluation

In this teacher development course a central issue was the use of evaluation to improve instruction. We strongly advocate throughout evaluation of course procedures and results in a cyclic process of planning, executing and evaluating instruction in order to improve teaching and learning.
Systematic results in the field of MER have shown that a test administered before (pre-test) and after instruction (post-test) provides an objective measurement of the impact of a teaching strategy in the conceptual learning of mathematics. It also allows for important comparisons of different student populations (Clarke et al. 2006)

As a rather new research field Mathematics Education Research has been born and it is growing with the active participation of researchers from other areas of Mathematics and Education, as well as with highly motivated and critical teachers. Reflection and Discussion of Students’ Difficulties and Analysis of MER Results In the final activity at each in-service training course cycle, participants have to reflect upon the most common learning difficulties that their own students have on the mathematics concepts covered by the respective in-service training course and later read and discuss literature reports relevant to it.

The activities were structured as follows:

• Discussion in the small in-service training course group. In each small group the participants discussed their students’ misconceptions and learning difficulties, writing on a whiteboard a list of those learning obstacles they considered most relevant.

• General discussion. The small group activity was immediately followed by a general discussion, in which each group presented the list they had agreed upon. All participants and instructors freely participated in these discussions, commenting on similar difficulties or expanding the presentation.

• Reading Mathematics Education Research literature. Participants read one relevant piece of MER literature on the topic (for instance Van de Walle 1991). In that way they obtained a first-hand contact with the results of educational research, comparing students’ learning difficulties reported by reputed researchers with what they have just discussed in the small groups.

• Closure by an instructor. General group discussion was always closed by a brief summary given by one of the instructors, with the further objective of informing about the state of the art on research and curriculum development on the subject.

Results

We will next summarize the results of the following main features of the course:

(i) teaching and learning using in-service training courses for Mathematics,

(ii) analysis of the conceptual difficulties and alternative conceptions that participants and their own students show regarding mathematics.

As noted before, we consider a fundamental characteristic of any INSET course that all participants practice the new teaching methodology exactly in the same way as students are supposed to. Even though in-service training courses are not intended for individuals who already understand the underlying mathematical concepts, it is noteworthy that all participants worked actively, with enthusiasm and dedication through all in-service training course activities. The inherent inquiry format of in-service training course activities very often promoted lively discussions in all groups. When participants (re)discovered concepts or ideas which they had not thought about, for a long time, they felt excited and this fact promoted even more discussions. For that reason, even though each activity had been planned as an hour-long activity, in the present application it took generally longer, for all groups and for every activity. The in-depth conceptual discussions promoted by the activity worksheets provided vivid moments of second time learning. We believe that this type of “second time” learning increases the credibility of the teaching strategy among experienced
teachers and therefore its possibilities of being adopted for classroom use. In order to exercise formative assessment and to practice instruction as close as possible to a well-controlled mathematics course, two questionnaires were administered as a pre-instruction test at the beginning of the course and as a post-instruction test just after finishing all in-service training course activities. A simple Excel file permitted a fast analysis of individual and group data. In this way the discussion of results and their use in programming and assessing instruction were carried out just after the post-test was administered.

The main results from the final general discussion on the main characteristics, use and results of questionnaire were the following: (a) Participants were particularly interested in their “weak” points in mathematics concepts. (b) Participants realized that their own misconceptions were not usually tested in their own courses. They agreed on the necessity to include appropriate conceptual questions in future evaluations. The vivid discussions generated by the above results alerted the participants about the importance of teaching for conceptual learning. The reflection and discussion about student learning difficulties section was very significant for teachers. In their own discussions, they found many of the learning difficulties that MER has investigated together with some others. They realized that no matter what the educational level or where the class is held, students have similar learning difficulties, which usually come from everyday experience.

Conclusions

The aim of this paper has been to describe the main features and objectives of a short professional development course for in-service teachers working in Greek primary schools. The course has been modelled under the constructivist theory of active learning and consisted of 3 daily meetings where the participants worked intensively through three examples of the research-based teaching strategy “in-service training courses in Introductory Mathematics”. The main objective of this training course was to provide the participants with a first hand, practical contact with an active learning teaching strategy in order to break the close cycle of “teaching as I have been taught”. The course was designed to allow the participants to experience active learning as learners, so they followed the in-service training course materials as if they were regular college or high school students. This work set their minds for the next step, where they discussed and elaborated as reflective teachers about the teaching material and about their students’ difficulties in learning the subject matter.

Next, participants compared their observations with the main findings of Mathematics Education Research and reflected on how each in-service training course addressed those learning difficulties. To that end the sequence proposed in this course: working through the whole in-service training course material first, elaborating and discussing their own students’ difficulties on the subject and finally reading and discussing a scientific paper relevant to the teaching and learning of the topic, proved very efficient (and motivating) in eliciting teacher’s previous ideas about the learning difficulties of their students and how their teaching practices affect this learning. In this way the participants had a further chance to understand the objectives and value of the extensive research, with its cycle of implementation and testing, inherent in the development of each in-service training course.

A second objective of the course was to provide the participants with the experience on how to design their own material to improve the quality of teaching.
Although it must be emphasized that the aim of introducing a pre-test and post-test questionnaires was neither to determine teachers’ prior knowledge nor the degree of improvement (if any) in their mathematics conceptual knowledge after this short development course, it is interesting to note the overall group improvement in those questions related to the material covered by the in-service training courses practiced in this project. Although this gain could be attributed to other factors, besides the “in-service training courses” instruction undergone in this course, the effect of just a pair of in-service training courses on the conceptual comprehension of a specific subject has been previously pointed out by several researches (DfES, 2007; Grouws & Cebulla, 2000; Pressick-Kilborn, Sainsbury, & Walker, 2005).

Overall, we think that the objectives chosen for this course were realized. In that regard it seems important to note that as a practical result of this teacher development course, most educational prefectures throughout northern Greece decided to implement the in-service training courses in all elementary mathematics courses (around 15000 in-service teachers) and a similar project is underway in a net of four local high schools.

References


The case of foreign language learning in adult education.

Introduction

We have written this paper with two objectives in mind. First, we tried to present the influence that the university has as a wheel for continuous learning and second, we tried to emphasize the role of foreign language accuracy as the key to grant easy access to the opportunities offered by the labour market. How are these two issues related to each other in order for everyone to benefit in the long term? We are bringing the example of “Eqrem Çabej” university of Gjirokastër which is situated in the main centre of the southern region of Albania. It welcomes the most contemporaneous ideas, the progressive curricula for the development of our society, the professional ambitions and all tangible pedagogical and scientific work. In the university, different cultures and trends always meet and get perfected, always respecting historical individualities as well as the present and future of everyone.

University is considered to be the centre for the continuous education. The relation between the University and the labour market is tangible. It applies policies which are market oriented and it functions the role of being the supplier for the market in the southern region of Albania. This is the case with foreign language learners. Foreign language learning is due to the economic and cultural bonds which historically have tied the southern region of Albania and the northern region of Greece. We will bring the example of the Greek language course held in the University of Gjirokastër; the influence of the neighbourhood approaches, culture and its relation to the method used, after all the crucial and the central component of any language teaching method is the input that is understood.

Labour market and the need of the foreign language

One starting-point for the analysis of the issue is that more and more citizens come to terms with a world of flows and transnational connections (Anderson, Brook, & Cochrane, 1995); it is the influence of commerce and neighbourhood exchanges. It is obvious that there are taken economic actions of mutual interest which have strengthened the bilateral collaboration between Albania and Greece. There are about 300 – 400 people who cross the southern border of Albania every day. A considerable number of them are employed or live on the other side of the border. We have to mention that the cultural and economic affiliation especially of the southern region of Albania to Greece was a natural flow of the process after the 1990 and of course it developed new frames which led to requirements that needed to be met. It was the case of the language gap. This new regional labour market was more and more interested in finding interpreters of both languages (a phenomenon found in big companies) while for the owners who run smaller businesses a satisfactory command of the Greek language was a necessity. We bear in mind waiters, shop assistants, taxi-drivers, etc. who consider the fluency in speaking the Greek language as an important means for the everyday maintenance of their business.
The attitude of the employers towards the graduates

The employers and mainly the ones of the private sector are hesitating to charge on the graduated students job positions which require a specific experience and a professional commitment. It is here that they interact most clearly to produce their own interpretations of the world and the rules by which they operate within it. They play a key part in the operationalisation and the definition of power relations. (Anderson, Brook, & Cochrane, 1995)

Several employers of the region of Gjirokastra are interviewed questioning them about their attitude towards the recently graduated employees. Most of the companies employ students who have graduated from “Eqrem Çabej” University of Gjirokastra. The university is the main source for the labour force in the southern region of Albania, but is it enough market oriented as to supply the demands of the employers? The employers consider the 3-year system offered by the university as insufficient to meet the requirements for several job positions. In order to supply their demands there are required specialisations and further qualifications. Also according to them the university is not considered enough market oriented since it is mainly focused on the didactic aspect rather than the necessities of the region in general.

But what about the university rating system? In order to develop a favourable rating there were taken several initiatives. One of them consisted in the opening of the Greek language and culture course in the University of Gjirokastra. It was a complementary course considered to be a short term specialisation in Greek language and culture. The opening of this course raised the awareness of many interested persons. Since from the beginning of this course the number of the applicants was surprising; there were 90 persons admitted in the course dividing them in the advanced and beginner’s level. The acquisition of Greek language for them was both necessary and sufficient in order for them to be competitive in the regional labour market. The course included also summer school programme in collaboration with Greek language centres. That regular contact with second language learners will provide the opportunity to observe persons engaged in the process of second language learning in a real situation and put certain principles into practice (Brown, 1987).

The research

The aim of this research was to gather some data concerning the level of language proficiency and the need of the foreign language for the labour force in the region of Gjirokastra. We considered it as an important issue to focus on the need to learn the Greek language due to the geographical position. Accordingly, this research was mainly based on the students attending the course of Greek language and culture in “Eqrem Çabej” University of Gjirokastra. There were delivered questionnaires and face – to – face interviews in order to obtain the necessary information.

The participants

The research was conducted to 90 students attending the course in the University of Gjirokastra. They are divided in two groups due to the level of the language proficiency. The participants in the courses are graduated students, employers, employees working in the public and private sector in the region of Gjirokastra. There are distributed two samples of
questionnaires to the students attending the groups of advanced level and to the ones attending the beginner groups.

The results

![Bar chart showing employment status](image)

**Figure 1**
*What is your status?*

It was very important for us to know whether the adults attending the course were employed or unemployed. It resulted that 63% of them were employed. A considerable number of them were working in the private sector (banks, companies and small businesses) but also there were many of them who were working in the public sector. The unemployed persons (37%) were mainly students who had already graduated from the university. The course attracted many participants because of the possibility it gave to them to acquire the Greek language and because of the receiving of a certified degree from a university.

![Bar chart showing reasons for choosing the course](image)

**Figure 2**
*Why have you chosen this course?*

It was more than expected for us the result given in Figure 2. 87% of the persons filling the questionnaire admitted that they attended the course for reasons related to job requirement. They also stressed the point that it is important to develop the communicative ability because they mostly need to acquire the language and the opportunity to use the language they study for real communicative purposes. The reduction of the dominance of grammar based methods will improve language acquisition.
It is obvious that no matter what job requirement is concerned there are always taken actions to stimulate foreign language learning. A certain priority is given to those who have a satisfactory command of the Greek language. Judging from the results given in Figure 3 the speaking fluency is more required from the employees than the writing proficiency. Of course it was related with the nature of the job they did. It was obvious that for the shop assistants, taxi-drivers and self-employed persons in general who consisted of the majority of the persons that attended the course would focus on the communicative ability and on the everyday vocabulary of the language. On the other hand there were a minor number of persons who were interested in both skills since their job consisted mainly in translating from both languages.

When students were asked about their opinion on the course taken in the university they were all very optimistic about it. They considered it as an innovative idea and quite different form the other courses they had taken so far. As we have mentioned before a considerable number of the participants were recently graduated students who after majoring in a certain discipline decided to deepen their knowledge by taking this course. As far as the employed students were concerned they were encouraged by the employers to attend the course and the main reason was that the course was taken in the University. The students appreciated the fact that the lessons were taught by lecturers of Greek language, literature and Greek civilisation Department in the University of Gjirokastra. That is why 63% of the students evaluated the course as satisfactory and 30% of them considered it a very good one. According to the questionnaire 7% of them thought that the course was a good one but it was not satisfactory enough to meet their demands since it was too didactic and did not focus on more practical methods of teaching.

Conclusions
Communication is a two-way street and foreign languages act as a vehicle for understanding other people and appreciating the rich cultural diversity of our planet (Brown, 1991). It is very important for everyone the knowledge of the foreign languages regarding their future or current job and the knowledge of foreign language will play or already plays a substantial role in their recruitment. As far as the region of Gjirokastra is concerned, a considerable number of people consider learning the Greek language in order for them to accomplish the needs of the employ. The opening of the Greek language and culture course in the University of Gjirokastra was considered to be a very fruitful initiative which filled the gap for the qualified knowledge in the relevant language. But this was not the only reason it was appreciated. We bear in mind that university is the centre for the continuous education and it’s high time it reduces the didactic nature and focus more on the practical issues with regard to these courses. This will be the only way for it to have a strong bond between the academic level and the labour market. The university functions the role of being closer to every learner who tomorrow will be competitive in the regional labour market. We also should bear in mind that no single formula works equally well for all people. Brown (1991) says that by understanding your own strengths and abilities, you can develop pathways to success. Those pathways may turn out to be unique networks of intellectual and emotional routes.

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Co-funded programs in quality lifelong learning: the example of Greece.

Introduction

Any citizen, regardless of age, level of formal education completed, socioeconomic status or place of residence, would find very beneficial to continuously acquire new knowledge and skills or to upgrade and update pre-existing ones in order not to act as a passive spectator of developments in our society but to be part of them.

It is known that the production, accumulation and dissemination of knowledge and skills occurs primarily throughout all three levels of the formal education system and their implications and hence in the scope of lifelong learning.

In our country, there has recently been a systematic effort to cover institutional, structural, operational and financial deficits in the field of lifelong learning. The attempt gave quantitatively and qualitatively significant results.

People respond with high interest to the new services. The culture surrounding lifelong learning is changing in our country.

With the agreement of ORTHOLOGISMOS SA and IDEKE, this document will present an assessment of lifelong learning programs in KEE and K.E.E.EN.AP. implemented from IDEKE.

Purpose

The aim of the research is to present the results of the external evaluation of the project considering the part of learners.

This research should identify the determinants/defining factors of the outcomes concerning the individual activities carried out. It refers both to support activities (information, awareness, training managers, training materials, etc.) and to the produced educational work.

Objective

The objective of this research is to identify:

1. Basic data on the target population, namely: socio-economic status, education level, problems and difficulties in social integration and the contribution of lifelong learning programs in meeting the needs of adult learners.

2. Implementation of the Project: use of human resources, preparation of project implementation, organization of lifelong learning programs in KEE and quality of educational materials, teaching methodology, operation and organization of dissemination activities.

3. Results and impact: the contribution of the project to addressing the needs of the target population, contribution of training to achieving the aim and objectives of the project, compliance with the schedule, educational material contribution to achieving the aim and objectives of the project, promoting the dissemination of project products, broader educational and social impacts.

4. Conclusions and recommendations: on the results and impacts of the project.
Data
The monitoring of the project involved the design and implementation of lifelong learning programs that worked in KEE in the prefectures – areas of:

- Athens
- Aitoloakarnania
- Eastern Attica
- Gujarat,
- Arcadia,
- Arta,
- Ahaia,
- Viotia,
- Grevena,
- Drama,
- WestDelhi (Egaleo)
- Dodecanese
- Ebro
- Evia,
- Euritania,
- Ilia,
- Imathia,
- Heraklion,
- Thesprotia,
- Thessaloniki
- Ioannina,
- Kavala,
- Karditsa,
- Kastoria,
- Corfu
- Cephalonia,
- Kilkis,
- Kozani
- Corinth,
- Cyclades
- Laconia
- Larissa,
- Lassithi,
- Lesbos,
- Lefkadas
- Magnesia
- Messinia,
- Xanthi,
- Piraeus,
- Pella,
- Pieria
- Preveza
- Rethymno,
- Rodopi,
- Serres
- Trikala.
- Fthiotida,
- Florina,
- Fokida,
- Halkidiki,
- Chania and
- Chios.

The Sample
The monitoring of the project design and implementation of lifelong learning programs that worked in the Departments of KEE:

- Heraklion
- Rhodes
- Ahaia
- Thessaloniki
- Rodopi
- Kozani
- Larissa
- Arcadia
- Lesbos
- Ioannina
- Fthiotida
- Corfu
- Syros
- Xanthi
- Serres
- Grevena
- Arta
- Ilia
- Messinia
- Kefalonia
- Chania
- Chios
- Gujarath
- Eastern Attica
- WestDelhi (Egaleo),
- Trikala.

The above KEE formed Group A of the project.

Group B was formed by the KEE and K.E.E.EN.AP. located in the capitals of prefectures of each region of our country. More specifically:

- Athens (periphery of Attica)
- Arcadia (Peloponnesse)
- Ahaia (Western Greece)
- Delhi (Southern Aegean)
- Heraklion (Crete)
- Thessaloniki (Central Macedonia)
- Ioannina (Epirus)
- Corfu (Ionian Islands)
- Kozani (West Macedonina)
- Larissa (Thessaly)
- Lesbos (North Aegean)
- Rodopi (Eastern Macedonina and Thrace)
- Fthiotida (Central Greece)

All members of Group A received questionnaires evaluating the program and more tools were used for the evaluation of the program by Group B.

Data Collection
The tools used for data collection are:
• questionnaires: after successive meetings between ORTHOLOGISMOS SA and IDEKE, 5 types of questionnaires were created and then supplemented by: trainers, trainees, training consultants, training managers, technical support specialists, each KEE and K.E.E.EN.AP. of the sample. Questionnaires were also completed by the contractor concerning the above rates during the fieldwork,
• the accompanying texts of each questionnaire which gave both instructions for completing and the incentive to complete, recording the importance and objectives of the evaluation,
• interviews, which covered «empty» spaces of the questionnaires as well as the entire study
• remarks, which were made either while spot checking during the implementation of programs in KEE and K.E.E.EN.AP. in order to determine the function of the program under real circumstances, or through scheduled appointments with the promoters and the contributors of the program,
• case studies, which were the complete and main guide to registrate an integrated study.
• the specific software used, which upheld all the data of the questionnaires so as to give the results of the survey.

To carry out the survey questionnaires were sent to KEE as suggested by the operator (IDEKE) in 4 different dates (06.11.2007, 03.01.2007, 18.01.2008 and 15.02.2008). These, having been answered, were returned to the promoter and they were uploaded into a database which infered the required findings of the study.

Below we present the general panel of participation in all four shipments made on the above dates. The table describes the number of questionnaires sent (in brackets), the subject of education the K.E.E. or K.E.E.EN.AP were implementing and the number of answered questionnaires returned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Trainees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology - Communications (31 KEE)</td>
<td>409/734 56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics - Management - Business (30 KEE)</td>
<td>345/699 49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Economy and Social Entrepreneurship (11 KEE)</td>
<td>140/192 73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing social skills in the workplace (14 KEE)</td>
<td>195/258 76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk and crisis management. Addressing Emergencies (15 KEE)</td>
<td>208/291 71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training of trainers in adult education (15 KEE)</td>
<td>562/648 87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (116 KEE)</td>
<td>1859/2822 66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Participation in the evaluation (questionnaires on all four dates) - Overall Results

As mentioned above, personal interviews were conducted and recorded in two K.E.E.EN.AP. in Athens and Thessaloniki.

These data were worked out by the promoter’s group and they were presented
Methodology

During the implementation of the evaluation plan, the strategy of systematic approach is followed, based on the following points:

- Aim - setting / targeting (setting goals, objectives and targets).
- Assessing the achievement of the objectives of the training program.
- Appropriateness of training materials.
- Methodology (selection of model and techniques at the level of application by the educators and acceptance by the learners).
- Content (assessment, teaching, educators, learners, program effectiveness, relevance of methods)
- Approach (qualitative - quantitative).
- Learner participation.
- Usefulness of the service provided (learner satisfaction).
- Space, time, duration (choice of space, time and duration).
- Cooperation among trainers, directors of KKE and the Project Team.
- Assessment of the organization of the program.
- Propagation of the results (acceptance of Project activities at local community level).
- Project efficiency (cost – benefit relation).

As a first step we decided to set up questions concerning issues that must be borne in mind when implementing programs of this type, in a questionnaire that was used as a tool in this assessment.

Result Analysis

Basic data on the target population of the project

The target group is active citizens throughout Greece, regardless of the economic-professional status, who want to continue their training.

Students attended programs expecting mainly to acquire more qualifications, to improve existing knowledge and skills, to expertise in the subject of the training course, to develop and improve professional experience, to exploit their leisure time, but mainly to get certification of knowledge, which is to provide power and credit recognized by public institutions and also points in competitions (ASEP), a pursuit primarily stated in personal interviews.

All these data lead us to conclude that the target group has high expectations for Lifelong Learning, which as a conception is something new but very pleasant and interesting.

Socioeconomic status

Thus, during the evaluation of this effort by IDEKE, the target group included active citizens of all ages regardless of social, educational and even financial status, which aimed to expand knowledge, to acquire more qualifications, abilities and skills. Indeed, through data-processing, we did come to that conclusion.

Among trainees, there were people of all ages (of course there were some concentrations of age), of every professional state (again, there were few majorities) and of every educational level.
The program which employed the largest number of trainees who participated in the evaluation process was the «Training of trainers» with 566 people, next came the «Information Communications Technologies» with 409 people, followed by «Business Management» with 345 people. The fourth was «Risk and Crisis Management-against emergencies» with 208 people, the “Development of Social Skills in the Workplace «came next with 193 learners and finally the program «Social Economy - Social Entrepreneurship» was attended by 154 people.

The age of trainees is mainly at the level of 26-30 years (483 people). The age range 31-35 years comes next with 428 people, and 304 people were 36-40 years of age. 241 people were below the age of 25, 168 people were aged 41-45 and as sixth in place followed the age range 46-50 with 111 people. In the 7th place comes the age of 51-55 with 64 people, in the 8th place there are 20 people aged 56-60 and 13 people over the age of 60 come in the last position.

304 people were 36-40 years of age. Below the age of 25 were 241 people, 168 people aged 41-45 and as sixth followed the age range 46-50 with 111 people. In the 7th place is the age of 51-55 with 64 people, in 8th place there are 20 people aged 56-60 and 13 people at the age of 60 come in the last position.

It is noted that according to the data from the final evaluation, the majority, 696 people, have Internet access from home. The next category (2nd) has access from both home and work. The 3rd category has access from work (277 persons). Next come people who have no Internet access (258). The remaining categories are negligible. Most of the students were highly aware about what we had to do and the facilities demanded and they made sure to have access to the Internet in some way.

Finally, the majority are civil servants (609 people) and in the second place there were private employees (446 people). 238 people (3rd placed) have defined their profession as a different one. 179 people have defined themselves as self-employed (4 position). The next category is that of the underemployed (173 people). 113 people are involved in household (6 position) and 38 people were reported as businessmen.

Level of education

As to the level of education, it is concluded that the majority of trainees (931 people) are University graduates. The next group (382 individuals) had completed secondary education. Third most populous group by far was the one with 261 people holding a master’s degree. 175 people follow in the fourth category as post-secondary education graduates. Next comes the category of elementary education (67 people). There are 67 Doctrate holders who form the last category.

It would be useful to stress that some programs were attended with great interest (Economy Business Administration, Information Technology and Communications) because of their content, but mainly because of their practical application in the workplace of many trainees, regardless of whether they worked in a private institution or a public one, or if they were self-employed – businessmen, mostly because the academic field itself is a great asset for those who are not employed yet.

It should be noted that the instructors’ level, which is considered high enough or very high since the vast majority are University graduates and also have a Masters degree, plays a very positive role in the formulation of standards in classes during the educational process. According to the above, it is understood that the LLL programs offer a high level of education because of the program content, and also because of the educational level of trainees who are mostly University graduates.
Problems and difficulties of integration

Students have not experienced very high rates of overall problems. However, by the positive answers given, it is found that the main problem was that of time and dealing with professional problems. The rest are giving the impression of tiny problems that occur on a personal level.

Implementation of the project

Exploiting Human Resources

Trainees (self-assessment)

Concerning the interest in the object, the active participation in the educational process, the participation in group work, the response to exercises and projects, the capacity to absorb the material, the trainees’ response was very positive. However, they seem to fall short as to the compliance to the timetable and contractual obligations, and as far as communication outside the classroom is concerned. There were also few conflicts among them (of course there should be no conflict between trainees so this is a positive remark).

Supervisor

The trainees evaluated the supervisors of education on meeting contractual obligations, providing information on operational issues, their concern for the learners’ needs and their interest in the trainees’ needs, as being from quite to very satisfactory. However, in matters as the ability to face administrative issues, response to unforeseen administrative issues, regularity of meetings, usefulness / effectiveness of meetings, behaviour within the area of SPS and KEEENAP, their performance was regarded as quite satisfactory, with room for improvement.

Secretaries

The Secretariat was evaluated as performing quite well on providing information on technical operation issues of LLL programs. As far as compliance with contractual obligations, ability to cover secretarial matters (promoting materials, tracking forms/graphics, etc.), response to unforeseen circumstances, regularity of keeping documents - files were concerned, the secretariat’s performance is considered quite satisfactory with room for improvement.

Manager

For the person in charge, the trainees evaluated respectively the keeping of contractual obligations, information on educational topics, interest in the learners’ needs, interest in the trainees’ needs, response to suggestions / requests, support against unforeseen issues, general behavior, as quite satisfactory 23. On the other hand, regarding the successful selection of trainees and regularity of visits - contacts, it was esteemed that there was room for improvement.

Preparation of project implementation

Trainers

Trainees evaluated their trainers on adaptation, responsibility, knowledge, teaching preparation, communicability, collaboration, system, organization of teaching, attendance accuracy, compliance with the curriculum, meeting contractual obligations, as being very good. In addition, on responding to the learners’ needs - (course quality, full coverage of the
solving, equally handling, adequacy from material, linking trainees of their formal obligations, supportive teaching before or after team meeting, team handling, communication skills and motivation for learners’ participation, group problem solving, use of alternative assessment methods), the students refered to the trainers’ performance as very satisfactory.

Organization of lifelong learning programs in KEE

Trainees

Infrastructure, adequate space, cleanliness and appropriateness, were judged by the trainees as satisfactory enough. However, heating, adequacy and appropriateness of equipment (computers, head projectors, tables, etc.), quality and utility of equipment, adequacy of training resources and also manageability, were considered as rather satisfactory with room for improvement.

In the self-assessment, the students felt that their number by section was limited. Consistency was considered quite good with room for improvement.

The trainees were involved in studying and preparing for their lessons for about 6 to 15 hours per week. The hours of study spent are enough if you take into consideration that LLL is not regular schooling and it involves adult trainees who have not come into contact with the learning process for quite some time.

Quality of training materials

According to learners, learning materials (books, CD, notes) as far as adequacy, delivery on time, thoroughness, extent, usefulness, appropriateness, quality, comprehensiveness, manageability, aesthetics, clarity of basic concepts, explicitness, linking between theory and practice, group meetings, additional material and bibliography were concerned, were quite satisfactory, with big room for improvement.

Some of the things particularly mentioned were the CDs accompanying the material, many mistakes in the additional material (spelling, forms etc) and the lack of a textbook, something which was especially highlighted.

Telematics Networking is thought to be very easy for the majority of learners as far as the ability for proper connection is concerned, while for another big part of the population it is not so. Regarding manageability / friendliness, for most of the people the system ranges from user-friendly enough to very user-friendly, while for a significant part of the population the system does not seem as friendly and easy to use. The response speed is from satisfactory enough to very satisfactory for a great number of trainees while for an equally great number it is not. Interaction is presented from quite to very satisfactory but a fairly large part of the learners considered it as moderate or below average. Judging from the above, it is concluded that telematics networking offers much room for improvement, although the trainees evaluated it as rather good.

Educational methodology

The teaching methodology developed was designed for and oriented towards adults. There was a mix of educational methods in order to fully meet the needs of adult education. As mentioned before, the only problem presented here is the inappropriateness
and sometimes the lack of appropriate educational tools necessary for the educational process.

Implementation and organization of dissemination activities

Informing learners (and those interested) about the programs, their content, objectives and strategy, the educational process, trainers, utility of the program, the program rules (rights - obligations), usefulness, acquisition of specific knowledge, developing specific skills, existence of sufficient time to develop allocated thematic units, successiveness, ranking and connection of thematic units, connection to other training methods, covering educational needs, meeting the trainees' professional needs, was quite satisfactory. The exception is the rational classification of students in classes, which was referred to as unsatisfactory in several answers.

Impacts

Contribution of the project in meet the needs of the population - target

Target Group

All adult citizens of the country regardless of age, sex, religion, origin, etc. have the right to participate in Lifelong Learning Programs either in person or through distance learning courses. Registration and evaluation of their previous educational, personal, social experience, professional status and expectations, and also the availability of the candidates determine their inclusion in Lifelong Learning schemes.

According to what mentioned above, we can only conclude that it is not so much the unemployment which comes as the main reason for attending these programs, as it is people’s desire to enrich their knowledge and gain more qualifications, improve existing knowledge, abilities and skills, gain expertise in each subject of training, evolve their professional experience, develop their leisure time and also enrich their social acquaintances. No one should underestimate the human desire to learn something that will make one feel more confident to deal with several situations not only professionally but also and in one’s private life.

From the questionnaire responses and charts derived from them which discuss the assessment of infrastructure and education process (level of trainers, training resources), it is observed that the programs of LLL, provided high standards of education leading to coverage of almost all trainees’ expectations, as they were recorded in the above diagrams.

Contribution of training in achieving the aim and objectives of the project

The main purpose of the project «Lifelong Education in Adult Education Centers and in the Training Center for Adult Distance Education» is the ability of participation of adult citizens of the country in Continuing Education Programs, which provide opportunities to acquire, modernize and upgrade knowledge, abilities and skills, complementary to formal education and their initial vocational training and previous personal, social and professional experience. They also provide potential certification of the knowledge acquired by attending the specific programs.

Aim

Modern Lifelong Learning Programs aim to:

a) personality development, employability improvement and active participation in economic, social and cultural life
b) promotion of growth, employment and social cohesion
According to the above, the purpose of the programs is covered even only by their implementation. The students profit the benefits of lifelong education through the educational process (teachers, infrastructure, human resources). On the whole, 1859 people attended the programs. Bearing in mind that the evaluation process was held on some of the implemented programs taken as samples, we observe a high demand which leads us to the conclusion that training is effective and contributes to citizens taking part in the process of LLL.

**Contribution of educational material to achieving the aim and objectives of the project**

As stated above, the objectives are:

a) personality development, employability improvement and active participation in economic, social and cultural life

b) promotion of growth, employment and social cohesion

According to the trainees both the content and the manner of use of educational material were considered to be sufficient, delivered on time, complete, comprehensive, useful, appropriate, of good quality, comprehensive, elegant, clear and easy to use, guaranteeing a link between theory and practice. Group meetings were efficient, the notes were concise and the bibliography rather extensive, although there was room for improvement.

Therefore, we conclude that the extensive, of good quality, understandable, etc. educational material offered to learners of LLL, contributed to the achievement of its objectives.

**Promotion of dissemination of project products**

The LLL became widely known through the media (television, radio, newspapers) and through the Internet. According to trainees, information was evaluated in connection to the programs, their content, objectives and strategy, educational process, trainers, utility of the program, in terms of the program rules (rights - obligations), usefulness, acquisition of specific knowledge, development of specific skills, time sufficiency for developing thematic units, successiveness, ranking and connection through thematic units, connection to other training methods, covering of the learners’ educational and professional needs. Concerning the above it was judged as fairly satisfactory.

Thus, it is understood that it would be the best for the promoter to maintain the level of awareness of citizens as such, and also to insist even more. The need for greater awareness is also evident from the trainees’ age and professional distribution. We see that although the program is targeted to older unemployed people, the courses were attended by younger people who are already employed. Therefore, we are driven into the conclusion that the target group should be aimed more effectively through advertising in the media.

**Contribution (contribution of Lifelong Education programs to covering the needs of adult learners)**

One could say that the LLL programs would aim specifically at those who want to remain active in the production process. And it is true. However, it was observed that the majority of learners belonged to another population group and a different employment status.

Additionally, recently in our country, issues such as crisis management and dealing with emergencies have become a high priority in the field of lifelong learning. So have issues like facing natural disasters in the sense of volunteerism, social economy and social
enterprises, environment and sustainable development, local development, education of farmers, social integration, prevention of social inequalities, strengthening the social web and strengthening the social capital, the development of democratic and participatory structures and the development of cooperations managed by women and people with disabilities.

Ultimately, all these training programs, aim at educating people in order to create citizens whose knowledge will have practical application in their workplace, and will also help them become self-employed in order to reduce unemployment and stimulate national economy and consequently that of the EU.

It seems that on the training part the program meets the precondition of its creation. As far as the stimulation of the economy through learners’ acquired capacities is concerned, it remains to be seen.

Conclusions and Recommendations

According to the whole of our research, the problems often experienced in the implementation of educational programs IDEKE were the following:

According to the trainees

The students felt there is an immediate need for buildings privately owned by KKE and KEEENAP and also a need for infrastructure such as projectors, laptops, PCs etc. There is also a need for a book and bibliography. As for the notes, the errors found in them should be corrected. It would also be good to supply extensive bibliography. Another request made by many people was that of improving the platform, since it was mentioned that it blocked in times of heavy traffic, and also that it is rather hard to use for those not very familiar with the PCs. Finally, it should be noted that almost all trainees asked to have something like a canteen, or otherwise the school (which is usually) provided to operate as a usual place of education because there was even no toilet during the project implementation.

They also asked to have flexibility in absences. Projects should be less and related to what had been learned up to that time. Dates of delivery should not change at the last minute. The trainees also asked for a better schedule and avoidance of holidays or holiday eves. The course should begin in September or October. Additionally, more practical training was asked for in public offices and more practical exercises. They also asked the total length of the program to be smaller and they stated that they would not mind more meetings, but with fewer hours. They thought it would be better if the trainees’ learning level was more homogeneous, and the classes should probably hold less students.

Students also requested more contact with the IDEKE staff.

Naturally, they seek recognition of their diploma from the state and in national contests.

The students of distance learning courses asked for the lessons to take place not only in regional offices, but also in offices in prefectures.

It should be noted that despite the problems, all people involved enthusiastically seek the continuation of this training organization and its further enrichment.

From the Field Studies - Interviews

During this period there were 3 field investigations and interviews were taken by everybody involved in the 2 KEE in Thessaloniki and 1 KEE in Athens.
However, we can briefly mention the following key findings reported in almost every program and every KEE:

- Both the students and the supervisors and instructors of the programs asked for the best possible coordination with the managers of the buildings occupied by KEE in the first place and if possible the future creation of autonomous functional buildings fully addressed to the aim of the LLL programs.
- From programs such as ICT and “Training the Trainers” there was a keen interest in helping those completing their courses successfully with the recognition of their effort in some way – some kind of certification. It was something requested both by trainees and the other stakeholders in these programs.
- More flexibility on the issue of absences was also requested. Family problems, problems due to distance or weather conditions were all reported to contribute to a slight delay on their arrival. So they asked for further flexibility.
- Some disadvantages of the platform were reported by all, learners and educators and the heads of programs. Specifically, the platform was evaluated as not easy to use and with reduced communication capacity, and since many trainees communicate with their instructors via e-mail they called for an improvement of the potential of the platform.
- It was asked that the material should be given in paper form too, and should be available from the beginning as a whole and not piece by piece.
- Lack or poor quality of visual aids (projector, laptop, etc.) and the general lack of infrastructure in the classroom was reported by trainees, trainers and supervisors, too.
- The instructors noted the large number of people in each class, and asked to reduce it.
- Students asked for catering during classes.

Summary of problems

Clearly, problems exist. We report the ones that are considered the most important as shown by the updated charts on the Annex and the detailed tables and interviews and also the field surveys:

Infrastructure: The main problem for all, educators, learners and managers are the standard materials and the lack of appropriate premises (buildings are usually granted by the Secondary Education Department). The problems are mainly focused on certain KEE and relate to: a) cooperation with their counterparts who have primary custody and grant the area to the KEE. b) heating of the place (several comments were made on malfunctioning of the central heating system), c) the existence or not of visual and other aids used as teaching resources (it was referred that the trainers themselves often carry their own equipment in order to implement the training programs in the best possible way).

Certification: Points awarded - recognition of certification by the state. Many trainees and trainers stated that the problem affects the trainees and it is about the certification of knowledge they will have acquired since they successfully complete these programs. We refer mainly to ICT courses and that of Adult Educators.

Less important are:

Participation: we cannot speak with certainty, but by the degree of completion of the questionnaires shows a possible withdrawal or non-participation of learners in the programs. If this is true (the promoter can keep track of that from the attendance of learners), then the problems raised by the trainees and particularly timetable flexibility, family problems, the selection of trainers should be more closely investigated.
Printed Material - online access: it should be noted that many of the trainees required to be given all the educational material from the beginning of the course and not only online but also in print. This request is very important when seen in comparison with the number of students who say they do not have any Internet access at all. The same requirement though, is also made by the ones who do have access both from their workplace and their home. They say that it is difficult the whole material to be electronic (non-flexible way of reading) and also that to print it themselves (the part that was allowed) is a cost for them. Those who had attended the training of trainers offered by EKEPIS refer to that way of delivery of the material (all material was given to each student by the beginning of the course and also CDs were supplied which included the rest of the educational Monitoring material) as being better.

Particular problems are detected on:
- The demand for a book.
- Better organization and distribution of trainees per section.
- Improvement of program chedule, reduction of hours and lessons becoming more practical and less theoretical.
- Better organization of the curriculum in order to avoid holidays and national celebrations (e.g., 25 March, Palm Sunday, etc.).
- Better staffing of EPS, mainly those located in county towns.
- Earlier beginning of the course in September or October, but in places with many tourists (as in Dodecanese) courses should start after the end of the tourist season.
- Through oral interviews, the students asked for the educational materials to be distributed from the beginning of the program and not in sections.
- Finally, all students suggested there should be a canteen or some catering during the seminars.
- Despite the problems mentioned above, it should be mentioned that the whole issue of LLL is considered very positive by everyone and it is asked to continue and be enriched, with enthusiasm and persistence.

Proposals
Throughout the whole study, the questionnaires, interviews, field observations and general cooperation we had during this time with all IDEKE managers and staff, we have conclude the suggestions listed below.

To enable these programs evolve in the future, we should first focus on infrastructure. There should clearly be a bigger budget to cover this need. Programs should take place in places like universities or institutions that exist in many parts of the country. This would give even more prestige and recognition to these programs. Furthermore, they are more appropriate for adult education as places. An alternative solution could be to sublet other adult education premises such as those of KEKs. Finally, another option is for the LLL institutions to keep their own premises, if and when these programs are officially established.

Another important thing for the development of these programs is the existence of a form of certification for the trainees. It was mentioned as a problem mainly by the trainees. We think that one should feel sure that this sacrifice leads, in addition to knowledge, to an asset that can be meaningful in one’s future. Statutory recognition should be instituted and
a system of points awarded to those who succeed in public contests. The rest of the participants should receive a simple certificate of attendance.

Finally, the follow up is equally important (free of charge). Many of the trainees and trainers wanted these programs not to stop there, but to have some development. Only then, according to not only with their claim, but also the scientific sense, can we refer to and use the term Lifelong Education. Otherwise we are talking about something fragmentary.

More specific proposals:
- In certain programs (e.g., Risk Management and Managing Emergencies) an institutional role of learners in the community might be helpful.
- Better time management during implementation.
- Better / homogeneous distribution of trainees in courses.

References
ORTHOLOGISMOS S.A. (2008), Final Evaluation, for external evaluation of the project within the project «Lifelong Education in KEE and K.E.E.EN.AP.», Project 8, «External Evaluation Project», Athens: General Secretariat for Adult Education
Training Mathematics Teachers in IT software (Math Type and Cabri Geometry II).

Theoretical Framework (Introduction)

Adult education programs do not usually refer to teachers in service. But continuing education and training in Secondary Education are closely related to in-service training and Professional Development seminars for the teaching staff. These seminars offer the opportunity to teachers to keep up with the latest pedagogical theories and findings of research in Education. In Greece, this training is mainly offered by State Institutions like Pedagogical Institute or Ε.Κ.Δ.Α (Εθνικό Κέντρο Δημόσιας Διοίκησης και Αυτοδιοίκησης — National Centre of Public Administration and Self-government) or by tertiary Education Institutions (Universities, etc.). The trainers involved in this process, are School Advisors, but also they can be experienced teachers.

Teacher training complies with EU’s description for Lifelong Learning (LLL): “Lifelong Learning refers to all general education, vocational education and training, non-formal education and informal learning undertaken throughout life, resulting in an improvement in knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective. It includes the provision of counseling and guidance services.” (EU, Education and Training, 2007).

The improvement of teacher training constitutes basic priority for the improvement of quality and efficiency of education (ΥΠ.Ε.Π.Θ.-Π.Ι. – Ministry of Education and Religions – Pedagogical Institute, 2008). The aim of such training is to help teachers to improve their teaching practices in the classroom and, hopefully, leads to their professional development. Teachers should continue to learn, to keep up and to adapt to change. It is never too late to learn (European Commission’s Communication, October 2006). The necessity of life-long teacher training is reinforced by the fact of the continuous change in our society and, therefore, in the area of Education. Teachers should acquire skills which could permit them to play a new role in today’s schools in which students participate actively in the process of learning. So, teachers should be considered as life long trainees and reflective practitioners (Schon, 1983).

Teacher training in ICT (Information and Communications Technology) is considered of vital importance, because in our rapidly changing technological society the use of ICT in Education is growing day by day. Many research projects have been developed on teacher training in ICT. Kirschner, Wubbels and Brekelmans (2008) presented benchmarks for both pre- and in-service teacher education programs in ICT and advocate that a teacher training priority should be in the basic skills of ICT and the use of computer in the classroom, as a teaching tool.

In Greece, after the massive program of “In-Service Teacher Training for ICT Basic Skills in Education” in the period 2002 – 2007 (more than 75,000 teachers participated acquiring basic skills in using computers), a second level of training began, called “Implementing ICT in teaching different subjects in Schools”. Its purpose was to provide
teachers of Primary and Secondary Education with skills, necessary to teach different subjects using ICT in the classroom. Some teachers of Mathematics in the schools of the area of Serres participated in the two periods of training, described above, but from their first reaction it was well understood that it was a rather difficult and tiring experience, because someone has to do so many things in a very short period of time. And the number of participants was limited.

Therefore, there was a need for the majority of the teachers of Mathematics for some kind of training in more useful situations. In Education there are teachers who are aware of the fact that contemporary teaching techniques require not only new kind of knowledge (based on innovation and information) but also a lot of practical things. These things help them to cope with their everyday school duties and they are of vital importance. They are teachers who are not satisfied only from “what they have to do“ but there are mainly interested in “how they can do it better“. They cannot wait for others to call them for training seminars. They have particular needs in preparing a lesson, as well as, in teaching it and these needs are of great importance. They want to do something immediately, to face the problem.

An aspect which was pointed out in various meetings was that many teachers of Mathematics often would find difficulties in typing mathematical expressions and Algebra formulae, as well as in drawing and sketching geometrical figures. These preoccupations were expressed early in September 2007, during another seminar about the new textbooks of Mathematics for the Junior High School.

The authors of this paper thought that they had to do something. To act so that the problem could be solved and the teachers could be capable of doing their job better. So they decided to:
- Plan an in service training program for secondary education teachers of Mathematics, which could be of their interest, simple, easy, short, with no expenses and offered right to their next door.
- Carry out this program in the evenings and when they would have finished their duties in school.
- Reflect, in the end, on its outcomes and if it was successful, it could be offered for other teachers, the following school year.

In other words, an action research project could be implemented.

**Action Research**

Action research is a form of teacher development (Stenhouse, 1975; Elliott, 1991) and its aims are to try to improve professional practices and effectiveness and consequently students’ learning experiences (Elliott 1991).

Action research involves a systematic procedure in which the teacher identifies a problem, collect some data and then devise, implement and evaluate a solution to this problem (Kyriacou, 1998). This problem is usually associated with teaching strategies but it could be very well a problem of discipline, of communication, etc. Action research is a process in which teachers do research (mainly in their classroom) for their own practice and become more actively and personally involved in their own professional development. Stenhouse (1975), one of the first advocates of action research, points out: «In short the outstanding characteristics of the extended professional (teacher) are a capacity for autonomous professional self-development through systematic self-study, through the study
of work of other teachers and through the testing of ideas by classroom research procedures». (p144)

Hopkins (1985) goes further on by stating: «if teachers undertake research in their own classrooms then they take increased responsibility of their actions and create a more energetic and dynamic environment in which teaching and learning can occur». (pp 2, 3)

P. Foster, senior lecturer in Crewe+Alsager Faculty of Manchester Metropolitan University, UK, claimed that there are three models of approach to action research (lecture, May 1993):

1st Model

Action research is usually initiated outside the school by academics and professional researchers, that is, by people in the universities who are interested in changing teaching methods and procedures in the classroom. The research project in this case is designed and written up by academics and professional researchers, but teachers in school are becoming involved by collecting the data and analyzing them.

2nd Model

This is the «teacher as a researcher» model with key advocate of this approach Stenhouse (1975). Here the teacher himself has got to apply a research to his work trying to evaluating it. The process of evaluating his/her work is being by a small scale study in the classroom aiming at changing his teaching practices. Sometimes it is difficult for a teacher to identify the problem of his teaching practice in order to have the initial idea of his research. But it is always possible to allow the general (initial) idea to be changed (Elliott, 1993; Griffiths & Davies, 1993) and re-assessed as the project goes along, instead of sticking to predetermined aims and objectives. The teacher adopting this kind of reflective research for his own sake improves and evaluates himself on a continuous basis.

3rd Model

The last model is referred to the collaborative work among teachers and academic professional researchers. It suggests that teachers can work alongside in consultancy with a professional researcher developing a theory. The role of the researcher is to facilitate the teacher in his research.

From these three models the 2nd model is the one that is used more often nowadays. Nevertheless, the 3rd model has its place in the preferences of some teachers and sometimes the external researcher is replaced by another teacher of the same school.

Kemmis and McTaggart (1981) introduced a self – reflecting spiral of planning and acting, observing and reflecting, stating the steps by which action research can be organized. These steps are:
1) To develop a plan of action to improve what is already happening;
2) To act to implement the plan;
3) To observe the effects of action in the context in which it occurs;
4) To reflect on these effects as a basis for further planning, subsequent action and so on, through a succession of cycles.

Action research is not trying to identify large scale causal laws. Instead it focuses on the rigorous examination of a single situation, using knowledge drawn from experience and research findings to illuminate it, in order to improve it. Information about the techniques one can use in an action research project could be found in Hopkins (1985) and Bell (1987).
The Planning

Most of the teachers of Mathematics in the prefecture of Serres had acquired the skills to use word processing during the training program of the Pedagogical Institute of Greece: Acquiring Basic Skills of ICT. But there was a continuous demand to have a short period of training in the use of software which would permit them to write mathematical expressions and draw basic geometrical figures in a text. This demand was put through to the School and Teachers Advisor of Mathematics in October 2007. He accepted the challenge and started planning a training program for them.

The critical question which had to be answered was that of financing. As there were no money to spend, it was necessary to find volunteers as trainers and facilities which could be offered for free.

As long as the first restriction is concerned, there was a great help and a fundamental contribution by two very experienced colleagues (one was the principle of a Junior High School and the other was a trainer in the seminar for the introduction of the new school textbooks in September 2007). They accepted to participate in the program voluntarily as trainers. They are the coauthors of this paper.

The program was put under the auspice of the Directorate of Secondary Education in Serres, which should have the responsibility to find the place, where the program would take place and the facilities to run it. It was decided the program to take place at the premises of the Evening School of Serres, as its Principal offered any possible support.

An announcement was made and about 30 teachers applied to participate. As long as only 15 teachers could participate due to limited computer terminals in the ICT lab of the school, it was decided to offer the program in 15 teachers the school year 2007-2008 and if it was successful, there could be another program the following school year 2008-2009. These teachers were selected after a draw, which took place in the office of the Directorate of Secondary Education.

A timetable was created (see annex 1) and the program started on Wednesday 20/02/2008. It was offered every Wednesday evening (6pm – 8pm) and it lasted 10 Wednesdays. It was a 20 hours in-service training program, with no cost and no fees.

Conducting The Training (1st Group)

As the program was of teachers’ choice, it was offered free of charge and the trainers were colleagues that the participants knew and appreciate, they were very enthusiastic about it. They participated actively from the very beginning as they were aware of the fruitful outcome.

The ICT lab had 15 PC’s, so everyone had its own PC to work. The two trainers offered any possible help and were present in all sessions. At the beginning they offered instructions and a sample manual of the software in use. They would first show an activity and the participants followed with their own try. It was a very productive class as everybody had the chance to create its own mathematical expressions with Math Type or geometrical figures with Cabri Geometry.

The two trainers observed and registered any reaction of the participants, keeping a diary which helped them to solve any problem would occur in the room. They noticed the participants’ enthusiasm, which turned to be a very good motive to do their job better. The program ended on Wednesday 23/04/2008. At the end the participants completed a questionnaire (four-option Likert-scale). The results are in Table 1.
Table 1. Questionnaire for the 1st group (2008-2009)

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<tr>
<th>1.1</th>
<th>The seminar was well organized.</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>The ICT room, where the seminar held, was convenient.</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>The school, where the seminar held, was convenient.</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>The day and the time were convenient.</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>93.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Is there anything else you want to comment on the organization of the seminar?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.1</th>
<th>What you learned in the seminar was what you expected and wanted.</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>The trainers helped you (during the course).</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>93.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>The notes and the manual given to you for Math Type were informative.</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>The notes and the manual given to you for Cabri were informative.</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>What you learned in the seminar would be helpful and useful for you.</td>
<td></td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Describe in few words how you feel after this seminar.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Is there anything else you like to comment on the content of seminar? (e.g. how could it be improved?)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflecting (1st Group)

It was obvious that the majority of the participants in the program were very much satisfied, with only 13.3% on the negative side, commenting the inconvenience of the ICT room, due to the fact that some apparatus was obsolete. It was also impressive the fact that no one commented otherwise on the organization of the seminar.

In question 2.6 almost everyone felt very satisfied and confident that they would not have any difficulty using what they had learned. They wished to have the opportunity to continue their training in other areas of interest.

It was surprising though, that the comments we received for the last question 2.7, referring to the content, introduced a new challenge. Almost all of the participants wished to had an opportunity not only to use Cabri Geometry in order to prepare their test papers (the purpose for which this seminar had been organized), but to use it in the classroom, as a teaching tool, as well. This was a very important evolution, and so, the idea of implementing Cabri Geometry software in the teaching of Geometry came up as an unexpected result.

After that:

a) It was decided to repeat the seminar in the following school year 2008-2009 for the remaining 15 teachers who had applied for, and
b) It was strongly necessary to organize a number of experimental teaching sessions, in various high schools of the area, using Cabri Geometry in the teaching of Geometry.

Conducting The Training (2nd Group)
The new program started in 14/01/2009 and finished in 18/03/2009. It was organized just like the previous one, every Wednesday from 6pm to 8pm, with the same trainers, in the same school, using the same facilities.

The new group of participants, having being informed by their colleagues, who already had passed the same procedure, were very enthusiastic and committed to their assignments.

The 8th Wednesday of the program (04/03/2009) was offered in the presentation by the school advisor, and author of this paper, of a simulation of a Geometry lesson using Cabri Geometry as teaching tool. This lesson had previously been offered in various school classes of students 13-15 years old.

The school advisor had organized, in the period November 2008 to February 2009, a number of teaching sessions in the schools of the area of Serres, using Cabri Geometry as teaching tool. The content of these lessons was taken from school Geometry with regards to triangles and their properties. These lessons had a great success because students were experiencing a new method of teaching in a new environment (ICT lab). Each of them had received a working sheet of paper (Annex 2, in Greek language), where it was described what they had to do and how they could work. They had the opportunity to work and play, to sketch geometrical figures, to move them, to change them, to enlarge them etc. and to observe any possible change in their characteristics. Someone could see the class working and cooperating and everyone was happy because he or she had the opportunity to do something, to ask or to answer to questions, to participate actively in the learning process, something occurred very rarely in a traditional class.

This new experience had a great impact to the teachers who promised to implement the new approach to their classes as well.

When the second program came to an end the participants completed a questionnaire (as in table 1), exactly the same their colleagues did before. The percentages were almost the same with slight differences. They were all at the positive side.

At the end of the school year 2008-2009, the 30 teachers who had participated in the training program received a new simple questionnaire (Table 2). It was obvious that although they felt confident of using what they learnt for the exams papers, it was still difficult for the majority of them to change their style of teaching and to adopt new methods and new tools in their everyday presentation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Questionnaire for all participants (June 2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Did you use Math Type and Cabri Geometry for your exams papers?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Did you use Cabri Geometry as a teaching tool in your Math’s class?</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

At the end of the program it was concluded that the program was very successful and the following factors contributed to that:

1. The building was in a central position and it was a school very familiar to the participants.
2. The content of the program was of teachers’ choice.
3. The trainers were teachers from the area, where the program took place. Trainers and trainees knew each other and communicated all the time.
4. The program itself was self – developing for the participants as it started with the use of particular software and ended up as a trial for its implementation in the classroom, teaching Geometry.

5. The program was offered free of charge.

It was then discussed the aspect of the parameters that should be taken into account, when planning ICT in-service training programs, in order to guarantee the quality of these programs with the aim of improving teacher performance. These parameters could be:

1. The content must include subjects of teachers’ interest.
2. The building facilities must provide for the teachers’ convenience.
3. The use of any lab or computer room must be free all the time.
4. The hardware and software must be up-to-date and not obsolete.
5. What is learnt must be implemented in the classroom.

References


Dimoudis, Nikolaos: 37 Arkadioupolos St, 62125 Serres, Greece, e-mail: nikdimud@otenet.gr


Primerakis, George, M.Ed. School and Teacher Advisor: 14 D. Tseliou St. 54454 Thessaloniki, Greece, e-mail: geoprimer@yahoo.gr


Yannogloudis, Vasileios: 4 Tikopoulou St, 62124 Serres, Greece, email: vyiannogloudis@gmail.com
### Annexes

**ANNEX 1 (Provided in Greek only)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ΗΜΕΡΑ/ДΑΙ</th>
<th>SOFTWARE</th>
<th>ΚΕΦΑΛΑΙΑ/CHAPTERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1η Τετάρτη 1st Wednesday</td>
<td>Math Type</td>
<td>Τα πρώτα βήματα του Math type:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Γνωριμία με τις παλέτες των συμβόλων και των πινακιδών του Math Type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Εγγραφή μαθηματικών τύπων και παραστάσεων και μεταφορά τους στο Word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The first steps of Math Type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2η Τετάρτη 2nd Wednesday</td>
<td>Cabri Geometry II</td>
<td>Εξοικείωση με το λογισμικό:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Εγκατάσταση, συντήρηση και απεγκατάσταση του λογισμικού στα Windows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Η οθόνη του Cabri - Geometry II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The first steps in Cabri - Geometry II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3η Τετάρτη 3rd Wednesday</td>
<td>Cabri Geometry II</td>
<td>Τα πρώτα βήματα στο Cabri - Geometry II:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Κύρια μενού.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Γραμμή εργαλείων.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The main screen of Cabri - Geometry II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4η Τετάρτη 4th Wednesday</td>
<td>Cabri Geometry II</td>
<td>Γεωμετρικά εργαλεία:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Γενικές λειτουργίες</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Γεωμετρικά εργαλεία</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Άλλοι εργαλείς</td>
</tr>
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<td>• Επεξεργασία.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Geometric tools</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• General Functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Geometrical Tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• Other Tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Edit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5η Τετάρτη 5th Wednesday</td>
<td>Cabri Geometry II</td>
<td>Χρήση των εργαλείων κατασκευές:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Μετρήσεις</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Απόσταση και μήκος</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Εμβαδόν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Ισολόγια</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Εξίσωση και συντεταγμένες.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use of the tools, constructions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Measurements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Distance and length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Area of a Surface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Slope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Equations and coordinates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6η Τετάρτη 6th Wednesday</td>
<td>Math Type</td>
<td>Χρήση των συμβόλων και των πινακιδών:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Εξάσκηση στην γραφή ενός ανθολογίου περίπου 50 εμβαδομέτρων τύπων και παραστάσεων που έχουν ληφθεί από τα σχολικά βιβλία της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου και όλων των βιβλίων του Γενικού Λυκείου γενικής παιδείας και κατευθύνσεων (π.χ. τύπος παράγωγων, διανύσματα, όρια, λογισμόι, παράγωγας, ορίζοντες συστήματας 2x2, άσβοστας και ορισμένες αλκαλικές, νιοστές ρίζες, τριγωνομετρικές παραστάσεις κ.λ.δ.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use of symbols and signs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Practice in writing an anthology of about 50 formulas and expressions taken from Secondary School textbooks (e.g. type of function with multiple branches, vectors, limits, logarithms, derivatives, determinants, integrals, roots, trigonometric functions and expressions, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 7th Wednesday | Cabri Geometry II | Use of tools for figure construction.  
  - Displaying figures  
  - Naming figures  
  - Making comments  
  - Angle index  
  - Writing numbers and editing. |
| 8th Wednesday | Cabri Geometry II | Software settings – Shortcuts  
  - Preferences.  
  - Configuration tools.  
  - Repeat construction. |
| 9th Wednesday | Math Type | Using symbols, storage of signs and bars.  
  - Continue to practice in writing the anthology  
  - Undo of false movements  
  - Creating frameworks for the types  
  - Use of large and small storage bar of mathematics concepts changing the existing types or creation of new ones for fast writing of mathematical formulas and expressions. |
| 10th Wednesday | Cabri Geometry II | Editing geometrical figures.  
  - Edit and print geometrical figures  
  - Transferring the figures to other software.  
  - Copy / Paste to other applications. |
ΑΝΝΕΞ 2
ΓΕΩΜΕΤΡΙΑ Α’ ΓΥΜΝΑΣΙΟΥ
ΣΤΟΙΧΕΙΑ ΤΡΙΓΩΝΟΥ – ΕΙΔΗ ΤΡΙΓΩΝΩΝ
Παράγραφος Β.3.1 (3ο ΓΥΜΝΑΣΙΟ ΣΕΡΡΩΝ, 18 – 02 – 2009)
ΔΡΑΣΤΗΡΙΟΤΗΤΑ CABRI
Στη γραμμή εργαλείων, υπάρχουν: ένα κουμπί – βέλος, με το οποίο μετακινούμε ή σβήνουμε αντικείμενα, και δέκα άλλα κουμπιά με τα οποία κατασκευάζουμε, μετράμε, κλπ.

Δραστηριότητα 1: ΚΑΤΑΣΚΕΥΗ ΤΡΙΓΩΝΟΥ
- Κατασκευάζουμε τρίγωνο (κουμπί 2 – τρίγωνο). Κάνουμε αριστερό κλικ σε τρία σημεία της οθόνης.

- Ονομάζουμε A, B και Γ τις τρεις κορυφές (κουμπί 9 – ονομασία). Κάνουμε κλικ σε μια κορυφή του τριγώνου και στο πλαίσιο που εμφανίζεται πληκτρολογούμε A. Κάνουμε κλικ σε δεύτερη κορυφή και εμφανίζεται το Α, και με κλικ σε τρίτη κορυφή εμφανίζεται το Β.
- Μέτρηση πλευρών - γωνιών
- Μετράμε τις πλευρές (κουμπί 8 – απόσταση και μήκος). Κάνουμε κλικ στα σημεία A και Γ και B και Γ και A.
- Μετράμε τις γωνίες (κουμπί 8 – γωνία). Κάνουμε κλικ στα σημεία AΒΓ, ΒΓΑ και ΓΑΒ.

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 1η: Τι τρίγωνο σχηματίστηκε;
Ος προς τις πλευρές:
Ος προς τις γωνίες:

- Μετακινούμε το σημείο Α ώσπου το τρίγωνο να γίνει ισοσκελές (ΑΒ = ΑΓ) (κουμπί 1 – βέλος). Αριστερό κλικ στο A και σύρσιμο.

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 2η: Τι παρατηρείτε;


ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 3η: Τι παρατηρείτε;
Δραστηριότητα 2: ΚΑΤΑΣΚΕΥΗ ΨΩΝ

- Μετακινούμε την κορυφή Α ώσπου το τρίγωνο να γίνει οξυγώνιο

Κατασκευάζουμε την ευθεία του ύψους από την κορυφή Α (κουμπί 4 – κάθετη ευθεία). Κάνουμε κλικ στο Α και στην απέναντι ευθεία ΒΓ.

- Με τον ίδιο τρόπο κατασκευάζουμε και τις άλλες ευθείες των υψών. (Κάνουμε κλικ στο Β και στην ΑΓ, κάνουμε κλικ στο Γ και στην ΑΒ).

- Σημειώνουμε τα σημεία τομής των ευθειών με τις πλευρές του τριγώνου (κουμπί 1 – σημείο σε τομή) και κάνουμε κλικ στο «σημείο σε αυτήν την τομή» στις πλευρές ΒΓ, ΑΓ και ΑΒ.

- Σημειώνουμε (με τον ίδιο τρόπο) το σημείο τομής των υψών.

- Ονομάζουμε τα σημεία τομής Δ, Ε και Ζ αντίστοιχα (κουμπί 9 – ονομασία).

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 4η: Μετακινούμε την κορυφή Α. Τι παρατηρείτε?

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 5η: Μετακινούμε την κορυφή Α, ώσπου η γωνία Β να γίνει ορθή. Τι παρατηρείτε?

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΗ 6η: Μετακινούμε την κορυφή Α, ώσπου η γωνία B να γίνει αμφίβεα. Τι παρατηρείτε?

Με παρόμοιο τρόπο, κατασκευάζουμε τις τρεις διαμέσους του τριγώνου, βρίσκοντας τα μέσα των πλευρών ΑΒ, ΒΓ και ΓΑ (κουμπί 2 – μέσον) και ενώνοντας τα με τις απέναντι κορυφές (κουμπί 2 – τμήμα). Βρίσκουμε το σημείο τομής τους και μετακινώντας πάλι την κορυφή Α καταγράφουμε τι παρατηρούμε.

Τέλος, κατασκευάζουμε τις τρεις διχοτόμους του τριγώνου, (κουμπί 4 – διχοτόμος γωνίας) κάνοντας κλικ στις κορυφές ΒΑΓ, ΑΓΒ και ΓΒΑ. Βρίσκουμε το σημείο τομής τους και μετακινώντας πάλι την κορυφή Α καταγράφουμε τι παρατηρούμε.
The necessity and the mechanisms for the training of various groups on the problems of environment protection.

Introduction

Environmental education can be defined as part of the awareness about environment, which makes individuals conscious of the environmental problems or active in the protection of natural, historical and cultural values, so that they can directly participate in the solution of problems. Environmental education is of vital importance. As we say: “Each man has the right to live in a healthy and balanced (quiet) environment”. Hence the necessity that everyone has to protect the environmental health, develop environment even as an obligation, to protect it from pollution and destruction. The development of the territory has irreversible impact on environment as one of the main bases for the development of life.

The Southern Region of Albania is also facing a series of environmental problems. They are mainly caused by:

- The uncontrolled exploitation of natural riches in the last decades;
- The industrial production, which has not taken into consideration the minimum standards of the environment;
- The lack of proper systems for the management of garbage, which are simply collected and thrown to river sides.
- The lack of solid environment monitoring systems.
- The low level of sensibilization regarding the need for the protection of nature.

This has resulted in the considerable pollution of water, soil and air, having indirect and direct negative impacts on ecosystems and on public health. The European Union persists in the implementation of CE environmental standards in the whole region of South-Eastern Europe. This must be welcome, but it can only be realized through the cooperation of many links and actors addressing the common problems and the environmental issues.

Environmental situation in Albania and in its southern region

Degradation of environment

Degradation of forests, pollution of rivers, lakes and seas, the extreme urbanization of towns, etc. in Albania after the years 90’ have been increasing. The political, economic and social changes resulted in the deterioration of the environmental situation in our country. For a long time, environment has been under the “pressure” of economic profit of many people and certain structures. The maximum exploitation of natural resources for maximum and immediate profit has been the motto of these two last decades in the urban development of the southern region, the same as in the whole country. This new situation created in Albania after the 90’s had its impact also on the environment. During the last two decades, the economic development of the southern region of our country has known rapid pace, but often with serious subsequences on the environment. Biodiversity has been under the severe impact of human activities. Burning of forests and grazing lands in these 19 years have caused the denudation of entire surfaces of woods. In the towns of Gjirokaster and sarande, urbanization has highly reduced the green surface, etc.

- Insufficient knowledge on the values of biodiversity
• Isolation of Albania for several decades
• Lack in the past of a specific environmental legislation
• Running after fast profit resulted in a brutal exploitation of natural resources
• Few investments on environment.
• Insufficient education on environment in our schools.  
  The degradation of environment and polution of the southern territory of our country during the last 20 years have been manifolds:
  * Pollution of water resources
  * Air pollution
  * Degradation of fertile lands and erosion
  * Pollution from urban, industrial and home waste
  * Reduction of woodland resources, of the fauna, flora and fish.
  * Reduction of biodiversity
  * Acoustic pollution (problems caused by noises)
  * Radiation
  Below we are treating some of these pollution elements:

**Deterioriation of forests**

The main causes of the deterioration of forests and of the reduction of wood stock have been their abusing cutting for firewoods, construction materials, especially in the forests near villages and besides motor roads, the burning of grazing lands by shepherds and the massive burning of fires. According to the law “For the forests and the woodland service police”, the right of exploitation of forests is given to all juridical and physical persons licensed for exercise of such activity. This means that forests can be used by anyone, even those unfamiliar with this process. This has brought about abuses in the exploitation of forests, like: cutting of woods besides roads, non-application of the band, impossibility of forest control by the forest sevice organs, since the license for the use of forest woods is issued to a great number of subjects.

Huge damages of forests have also been caused by fires. Albania may be the only country in the region of the Balkans without an aeroplane for extinguishing of fires, which in the mountainous zones are often extinguished on their own, while the structures of protection from fire damages do not possess the proper means for the exercise of their functions.

**Damage of fauna**

In the last decades, considerable damage has been caused to the wild fauna through illegal hunting by native and foreign hunters. Until the end of the year 1993, 300 foreign hunters have been hunting in our country, often using sophisticated means and weapons, which strengthen the damaging character of hunting. Marine and fluvial fauna have also been damaged and so have the lagoon ecosystems in general because of fishing with dynamites and chemicals as ascertained by the KMM and other sources, in the districts of Sarandë in the Ioanian sea, Delvinë, Përmet in Vjosa river, Tepelenë and Gjirokaster in the rivers Vjosa and Drino, etc.
Air pollution in Gjirokastër and Sarandë (especially during summer) is reaching figures twice higher than the standard norm. According to the specialists of the Public Health Directorate, the cause of the pollution of the milieu in general is the big lack of investments in canalisations. The lack of collectors often brings about the explosion of black waters, which are a real problem in several quarters of the town. Pollution is particularly present in the most populated areas. Black waters and in particular evaporation of gases due to the high temperatures of summer are the cause of pollution twice as much as the standard norm. On the other hand, at the quarter of Roma people, “Zinxhira”, the consequences of pollution due to the mixture of black and white waters have increased the cases of viral hepatitis.

Pollution from urban, industrial and home waste

A quite archaic way continues in the Albanian cities, where citizens throw into the garbage bins the waste of all kinds and where there is a mixture of food waste, solid remains, chemical substances and matters, and I think that compared to other countries of the Balkans region, this happens only in Albania.

Meanwhile, hospital waste, contrary to the law and the European standards, in Gjirokaster and Sarande, but also in other towns of the south of the country, are thrown anywhere. Drino river, the only one flowing across the town of Gjirokaster, has been since suffering from excessive quantities of all kinds of waste, which in many cases have been the cause of infections. The disorderly deposit of urban waste along the bed of Drino river is destroying the natural ecosystem, as well as the flora and fauna of this river. As a result of pollution, which is several times higher than the standard, Drino River is often considered by the inhabitants of these zones as a “natural garbage bin”. “Now Drino is four times more polluted than norms allow”, say the specialists of the environment and of the Regional Agency of Environment in Gjirokaster. In the recent years, this agency has been undertaking a series of initiatives for the protection of the river from pollution, but this has not been enough to stop the depositing of garbages and the increase of pollution along the river flow. The most problematic segment in this direction is the one along the residing zone starting from the cemeteries of the town and ending at the lake of Viroi, three kilometres from Gjirokaster. According to the reports by the specialists, various kinds of waste are being deposited in this zone, from urban waste and construction materials to syringes and bandages from the hospital. “This was a real beauty before”, fishermen using regularly Drino waters say. Previously, this territory was covered by greenness, while the river water was as clean as crystal. And now, the inhabitants regretfully say that all kinds of waste can be seen on the surface of the river: plastic bottles, packaging materials, etc. while trees are cut and greenery has diminished. In summer, along the horizontal belt of the flow of Drino in a space of about 3 km, the river looks like a marshland transforming the view visually. Remains of all kinds, like solid ones, agricultural waste, iron parts, scrap-metal, different chemical substances and hospital waste can be easily seen on the bed of the river, damaging seriously the ecosystem of the valley of Drino along its entire flow, up to the end of the urban zone. Although many a time critical reports on the situation inherited for years have been transmitted to the Environment Inspectorate or to the Prefecture, the latter been unable to act. The avoidance of the present situation requires big amounts of money, since the problem involves the entire basin of the river flow.

Trainings
One of the major environmental problems in our country is related to the fact that people possess insufficient knowledge and are barely informed about the problems of environment. Hence the necessity of the continuous education of various social groups in accordance with the laws of the state and the programs for the protection of environment. Protection of environment and its values brings up also the urgent need of an education system based on the modern theories of education and recommendations of international organisms. The 21st century is considered as the century of ecology. For this reason, protection of environment must occupy a key role in the structure of education at a high level as an imperative for the ecological education. This necessitates both the study of biological and environmental riches, and their maintenance and enrichment. This can be realized through constant trainings of various groups playing a major role in decision making and sensibilization of communities, like Municipal Councils, Communal Councils, Journalists or teachers of biology in relation with:

- The real evaluation of their situation and the undertaking of concrete actions: preventive, protective and regenerative.
- The discovery and knowledge of potential risks and the ways of intervention for the elimination of such risks on the environment.
- The application of technologies for the protection of nature and natural ecological resources.
- The preservation of ecological balances in various ecosystems.
- The application of standards in permitted influences in the natural environment and ecological monitoring.

For these reasons, constant environmental education and awareness become necessary for a consistent exploitation of biological and natural resources.

Special actors in the protection of environment are the pupils of all school levels, research groups, different groups of interest, institutional groups, etc. Therefore, environmental problems can not remain the object of only a few classes at our schools, but they also bring up the need of addressed and repeated training of various groups of interest. Specialists and pedagogues of our university think that they should compile and lead concrete training programs for: the journalists, the local administration, members of communal and municipal councils and teachers of schools of all levels. The training of these groups is necessary, because they are the direct actors in decision making, in taking the measures for environmental interventions and in the application of law. The goal and targets of the training of various groups for the protection of the environment are primary for the very fact that acquaintance with the legislation for the protection of the environment is necessary, this in harmony with the existing conditions in the southern region of Albania and its effective application. Of importance is also the continuous development of longterm educational programs for the realization of values, the preservation and protection of the environment alongside the economic development of the region. The same value is also given to the education related with the rational usage of natural resources: land, water, forests, etc. having in focus the endangered species. This is because according to the specialists, climatic changes, the quality of air, water, etc. play an indispensable role in the protection of the environment and the assurance of health and life.

Therefore, the general objective of the training of these groups is the development of an environmental strategy for the Southern Region of Albania, so that this zone as well
can efficaciously protect human health and the environment and ensure the conditions for the economic development based on the principles of stability.

This objective also includes the development of the process of a broad participation of pupils in the identification of environmental and health problems, reinforcing the capacity on a regional level and the increase of knowledge, so that we can achieve a high level of awareness among decisionmakers, managers, and the wide public about environmental issues.

**The object of training shall be:**

*The journalists.* In the radiotelevision programs and on the written media, we think the environmental problems should be of primary importance, and just for this reason journalists from the southern region shall be in the focus of the training. All this shall serve the welfare, aiming at the growth of public consciousness, first of the lawmakers, for the protection of the environment, for a better and healthy life.

*The local administration and the NPO-s.*

The aim of constant acquaintance and education with environmental policies is linked with the role of the various groups of interest, municipal and communal councils, in relation with the responsibilities they have in the protection of environment. Their consciousness and education for the protection of environment is the condition for a stable development, for the development of the society and for the growth of the wellbeing of a country.

**How is protection of the living environment and nature going to be realized?**

The evaluation of the need for training by these group of interests shall have the following topics in focus:

1. The protection of the living environment
2. The relevant legal rules for the agriculture, forestry and waters economy
3. Garbage administration
4. Garbage procedures
5. Water communions
6. Water economy
7. Acquaintance with the laws for the protection of living environment and nature.

A primary necessity for training remains the compilation of local ecological programs, which is as important for the zones with polluters, as for those communes that pretend to be ecologically unpolluted regions.

The training on the new legal acts as the basis for the functioning of new competences is important, because for the first four priority topics, 76% of the state employees are in urgent need of training, while 72% of them request the design of trainings on the beginner’s level.

**The quality of the trainings is very important.**

For this, the following are required from the specialists and relevant departments of the University:

- The standardization of training programs and materials.
- The improvement of the quality of the training program and materials.
- The formation of professional groups that will work for the standardization of the program in the respective fields.
Categorization of training programs

In relation with the categorization of the training programs, for each offered program it is necessary to define the group of the state officials it has to do with (leadership, professional and professional – administative), the place of work, the kind of the commune (urban/rural, big/small, etc.), as well as the categorization of trainings based on the level – beginners’ or advanced training level. The composition of the groups defined for training

In the course of the formation of certain groups for training, we must be careful so that these groups are homogenous. This should be so both in the aspect of the group of state officials, the place of work, and in the aspect of the kind of the commune.

Things to be considered for training:
- The problems related to preservation and protection of the environment
- The possibilities
- Focused groups
- The general goals of the training of focused groups
- The local capacities for qualified training, the role of the University and its branches for continuous training

The general objective for the training of focused groups shall be realized on the basis of modules prepared by environment specialists for constant and efficient awareness with values for the protection of our common home.

Table 1. Module I

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<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>INDICES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Building local training capacities</td>
<td>1. Preparation of the program for training of trainers. 2. Support for the development of the training program (by the Faculty of Natural Sciences). 3. Training of groups (selection of groups to be trained and the training centers, the group having no more than 15 persons).</td>
<td>1. The program compiled by specialists and the training materials must already be prepared. 2. Besides the pedagogs whose readiness for training should be part of their work, help must also be required from environmental specialists. 3. Programs to be prepared by respective departments.</td>
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<tr>
<td>II. Acquaintance with the environmental situation in the Southern Region of Albania.</td>
<td>1. Monitoring of different Municipalities and Communes. 2. Their environmental situation. 3. Thoughts of the community about the most problematic environmental issues (they are different for different municipalities and communes). 4. Who and what is responsible for the already created environmental situation.</td>
<td>1. Responsible persons. 2. Monitoring shows present situation. 3. Help from advice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Module II

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<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>INDICES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Acquaintance with the laws in</td>
<td>1. Seminars for acquaintance with</td>
<td>1. Training groups.</td>
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</table>
force for the protection of environment.  
2. Discussions about present problems.  
3. Discussions about the way state laws on the problems of environment are being applied.

II. The increase of awareness among groups for training.  
1. Seminars for thoughts from the groups about practical solutions of their problems according to their respective Municipalities and Communes.  
2. Acquisition of thoughts for short and long-term solutions for the protection of environment.

Table 3. Module III

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<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>INDICES</th>
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<tr>
<td>I. Concrete practical work.</td>
<td>Practical themes:</td>
<td>1. Groups of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1. (for example, domestic pollution, separation of garbage according to composition).</td>
<td>2. Groups of pupils</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>2. Planting of saplings in deforested zones.</td>
<td>3. Various materials for the practical realization of the selected theme for practical training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Training values and effects.</td>
<td>1. Discussions and conclusions on the effectiveness of trainings.</td>
<td>1. Leaflets.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2. Sensibilization of the community for the continuation of trainings for the protection of environment.</td>
<td>2. Conclusions after each training by participating groups.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Is living better in a clean environment and can the use of natural resources be made without damaging it?</td>
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Recommendations

• The endorsement of the SAA by Albania, where environment is one of the main priorities, makes up an obligation that in the field of environment our efforts even through training of various groups, take our legislation closer to international standards.

• The importance of trainings has to do with the acquaintance and quality implementation of all agreements and conventions Albania is part of and has signed, mainly on the part of the groups administering the environmental situation and are responsible for different decision makings.

• The strengthening of the legal framework and the information of the community on the environmental legislation must be continuous using the mass media as an efficient means. The training of journalists ensures competences in the treatment of environmental problems. Involvement and extension of environmental education in the community must be at the core of programs and broadcasts on the local media by journalists qualified in environmental issues.

• The qualification of teachers of the pre-university system of all levels shall be realized through continuous trainings.

• Protection of environment and its economic values should be viewed as factors for the creation or opening of new working places.

References

Ministry of Environment: www.ministriaemjedisit.com
Improving school and social guidance for young people, emphasizes at the European level

The European Union is implementing lifelong strategies policies to encourage the development of the guidance practice and service. In this sense, we can refer to different documents that underline various aims that have to be developed at a European level in order to ensure correlation between Member States. As well, all countries are faced with the fact that they have to improve their existing national guidance and counseling system in education and in training, and thus, answer to various needs of clients (students, teachers, parents etc.).

In this note, we can take into consideration an important Key Message (5) elaborated by the European Union, “Rethinking guidance and counseling”, which states that every country should “ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities throughout Europe and throughout their lives” (A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, Brussels, 2000, p. 16). This means that, all countries have to assume a new approach, in which guidance is seen as a continuously service for all individuals, necessary to overcome difficulties.

In the document regarding The European Dimension in guidance and counselling and the New Member States in the European Union, it is stipulated among others, that all countries should have the following competencies developed in order to answer the client’s needs “… special skills from guidance counsellors (eg. language skills, knowledge of system of other countries); up-to-date information (eg. funding of studies abroad, models of CVs in different countries); web-based information management skills; and knowledge about how to go about planning and preparing oneself when going to study/train/work abroad“ (The European Dimension in guidance and counselling and the New Member States in the European Union, p. 6). What should be underlined here is the importance of developing web-based information management skills for counsellors in order for them to develop competencies that require problem solving, the exploration of various sources and information from more than one authority source, which would encourage them to draw conclusions based on what was learned.

Another main concern is the development of common aims and principles for lifelong guidance at the European level to support national policy and systems, aspects that were recommended in the joint report Education and training 2010 of the Council (Education/Youth) and the European Commission (2004) to the European Council and noted in the Council resolution (Education/Youth) of May 2004 on Strengthening Policies, Systems and Practices for Lifelong Guidance in Europe. This resolution underlines the need to situate in the center of the problem the individual/learner in the provision of such services, and the need to: (a) refocus provision to develop the skills of individuals to manage their career and learning, (b) widen access to services and (c) improve the quality of the services. Different documents mention that the guidance’s finalities, are: the ability to enable citizens to manage and plan their learning and work pathways in accordance with
their life goals, relating their competencies and interests to education etc.; to assist educational and training institutions to have well motivated individuals; to assist in the development of societies in which citizens actively contribute to their social, democratic and sustainable development etc. (Improving lifelong guidance policies and systems. Using common European reference tools, 2005, p. 11).

A priority stipulated by the European Union, “Facilitate Access by All Citizens to Guidance Service” (Area 2) mentions that “Guidance services, as services of general interest, should be accessible to everyone, irrespective of their knowledge base or their initial skills, and should be readily understandable and relevant. A particular effort should be made to improve access to guidance services for the most disadvantaged groups and persons with special needs” (Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 21 November 2008 on better integrating lifelong guidance into lifelong learning strategies, p. C319/6).

In other words, for the Member States a main priority for the next coming years is to assure guidance service by taking into account the development of high quality of these services and to guarantee activities that include giving advice, counseling, mentoring, management skills, teaching decision-making etc. to all citizens. Consequently, the Romanian guidance system (in school or even in the social assistance system) does not make an exception in the need to improve its system.

The teacher counsellors in schools and the social worker

Before and after 1989, in Romania there where two models that functioned in regards to schools and professional orientation and counselling: the first model, the autonomy model, in which the counselling service, although it was conducted in schools, it was also organized outside of the educational system and the second, the dynamic model, in which by these services were included in the school program and are part of the curriculum.

After 1995, an education aw was elaborated (no. 84/1995) in the means to regulate the information, guidance and counseling activities operated by institutions subordinated to Ministry of Education. This Law stipulates (art. 49), the following aspects: (1) in each county and in the capital Bucharest exist Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres or Offices; these also ensure educational and vocational guidance activities; (2) the regulation of this centre function is established by order of the Ministry of Education. (Education Law no. 84 / 1995, modified by Emergency Governmental Ordinance no. 36/1997 and by Law no. 15/1999).

As well, other orders have been elaborated by the Ministry of Education, in order to stipulate different aspects, for instance, those regarding the establishment and Statute of the Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres for educational staff, students and parents (Order reg. no. 7895/18.09.1991); Job description for teacher counsellors in the Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres and the Inter-School Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Offices (Order reg. no. 31314 / 10.05.1994); Regulations regarding the organization and functions of the Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres and of the Inter-School Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Offices (Order reg. no. 31315 / 10.05.1994), and this list of laws elaborated can go on.

Speaking of the teacher counsellor working in the County Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres (CPPAC), including teachers working in school cabinets or in Inter-School Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Offices, he/she has to fulfill the following tasks: to
provide counselling services for students, parents and teachers in relation with different problems; to assure personality knowing/self assessment by students, improving inter-human relations and with the local community; to prevent/ reduce drop outs, school failure; to assure examination of students with difficult behaviour; career guidance; from different requests (parents, school or Inspectorate) students can be investigated psycho-pedagogically; to elaborate specialized materials for their dissemination through Teacher Training Houses, County School Inspectorate and other institutions; to collaborate with related local agents in order to achieve the educational objectives; to support the specific activity of life long pedagogical training for pre-university education teachers; to support the activity of methodical-scientific research and to maintain the teachers experience in this field (Ordinance nr. 4683/28.09.1998, point A, art. 13 (b) and point B, art. 14).

A major concern is the difference between the European Union’s legislation and the Romanian’s one. The countries with a long tradition implement quick and efficient new legislation at the European level, oppose to Romania in which the legislation may change in certain domains, but it takes a long time to implement it and is sometimes subject to change.

As we can see, the teacher counsellor has many responsibilities, but not one strictly focused on being a counsellor manager, one who would be at the same time a teacher, a confident, an active listener, a psychologist, a mediator, a negotiator, a consultant, a decision maker, a coordinator and this list can go on... “To be a manager” in the classic sense (Henri Fayol, James D. Mooney) means to foresee, to plan, to command, to coordinate and to control (Andrei et al. 2001, p. 37).

The teacher counsellor could be the person who can obtain case manager competencies, because he/she is suited to identify students at risk of school failure, can monitor service plan development for each student, advocate with different institutions on behalf of the student and his/her family, supports the development of networking between institutions/ agencies that have as a responsibility to help clients (networking between medical service, social service, the community and the education service) etc.

If we were to make an analysis between the attributes of the teacher counsellor in Romania in relations to the counsellor’s attributes, at the European level, the attribute are more largely defined. These attributes are: to inform from managerial aspect about the employment proposals; to work individually with the beneficiaries; to do group work with the beneficiaries; to help find placements in the workforce; to do a follow-up about the client and to support it; to work in the network of counsellors, orphans, employees, psychological assessment, aptitude; to manage /activities. In addition, at the European level, their exist specific categories of attributes addressed for the educational counsellors, which are: to work individually with the beneficiaries; to do group work with the beneficiaries; to report, orientate and counsel (Watts, 1996, apud Tasica, p. 3).

More so, if we were to make a synthesis related to the policies and strategies of how the guidance service or counseling is seen at the European level with how it should be seen at the Romanian level, we will see that guidance and counseling means that everyone has to have easy access to good quality information and service; guidance service means a continuous service for all citizens; new competencies have to be acquired by the counsellor (up-to date information, management skills, knowledge about how to go on planning and preparing the client, decision- making etc.); a networking service has to be developed in order to ensure service needs for the clients related to all kinds of request (school planning,
job orientation, individual problems etc.); readapt the legislation regarding the statute of the counsellor and the legislation in regards to ensure networking etc.

**A possible connection between the teacher counsellor and the social worker and other institutions**

The process of case management means among other making the connection between different institutions and agencies and thus, divide tasks, work load, obtain a common solution, assure quality assistance etc. In this sense, in Romania an existing ordinance (Order reg. no. 68/2003, *Regulation regarding social services, consolidated*) could help ensure the connection between different institutions by giving the right to collaborate with the social workers, to provide support and orientation for integration, readaptation and reeducating professionals (art. 34, f), as well as, counselling in an institutional framework, in centers for orientation and counseling (art. 34, i).

In addition, the law elaborated by the Ministry of Education, *Teachers Staff Statute* (law no. 128/1997 revised and completed by law 349/2004), points out other auxiliary staff functions that can be associated with the school, among them being the social worker (art.6 (1), point g.). In other words, the Ministry of Education collaborates with the Ministry of Labor, Family and Social Protection (MLFSP) in order to confer support to citizens who are facing difficulties to reintegrate, readapt in the social context, to intervene, especially for those at risk (students, families etc.). This social worker functioning in school offices and in County Psycho-Pedagogical Assistance Centres could fulfill the following tasks: identify the children with social problems in order to reintegrate them in the local communities; examine the social causes of the juvenile delinquency phenomenon; provide social assistance to those families that have children with problems; collaborates with institutions that can contribute to educational problems solution; make case studies and social investigations in special situations (Ordinance nr. 4683/28.09.1998, art. 13 c).

On a different note, a social worker wouldn’t have to receive specific training on how to become a case-manager, because he/she acquires different concepts while being in the university, courses that provide theory that include case management (for example the Master program based on Case Management).

The process of Romania’s integration into the European structure has determined quality changes in school counseling and social assistance (legislations, administration, developing studies, projects etc.), generally speaking, this could include training case managers within the schools, the emphasis being on the teacher counsellor.

In fact, Area 4: *Encourage Coordination and Cooperation among the Various National, Regional and Local Stakeholders* stipulated in the *Official Journal of the European Union*, that Member States should, among others: “develop effective long-term national and regional mechanisms for coordination and cooperation among the key stakeholders in lifelong guidance provision; develop a common culture, including by means of quality assurance, among the various services responsible at local, regional and national levels”. (Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 21 November 2008 on better integrating lifelong guidance into lifelong learning strategies, p. C319/7). This means, that there should be greater coordination and complementary between different institutions, including schools, relevant agencies, the social partners and local communities, all collaborating to improve the efficiency of case management accessible to everyone requesting guidance.
Additionally, the conclusions of the *Council and of the Representative of the Governments of the Member States*, emphasis that “schools should themselves be creative, dynamic places that are open to cooperation and partnerships with the wider world and that develop a culture of internal and external evaluation in which families too are involved, in order to identify possible areas for change and improvement” (Conclusions of the Council Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 21 November 2008 on preparing young people for the 21st century: an agenda for European cooperation on schools, p. C319/21).

**The need for a different approach - facts and figures**

As stated in the *Official Journal Union*, “social inclusion and equal opportunities are still major challenges for education, training and employment policies”, which means that more emphases needs to be put on the community to develop and assure the necessary resources for overcoming different obstacles (Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 21 November 2008 on better integrating lifelong guidance into lifelong learning strategies, p. 1).

Similar to other countries, each in their own way, Romania is faced with all kinds of different aspects (violence in schools, risk of school drop-out etc.) that can be prevented or intervened if a networking between different institutions would be created in the sense of case management and gives other responsibilities to the teacher counsellors and social workers.

Without going into to much detail, the next few paragraphs are dedicated to some studies realized in Romania in order to underline the need for a possible change. The result of study regarding school violence shows the following dimensions of this phenomenon:

The percentage of the school units in which violent behavior was registered exceeds 75%. This percentage varies depending on a series of criteria, among which: the type of the education unit; the residential area; the location of the school; the size of the school (number of pupils in the school).

The percentage of pupils with severe violent behavior is estimated – according to the statements of the principals of the investigated schools – to an approximate value of 2.5%.

The percentage of children and youngsters, victims of violence (theft, sexual abuse, physical abuse, harassment etc.) estimated based on the investigation data amounts to almost 3% (Jigau, M. (coord.). 2005, p. 195).

According to a study that was concentrated only on the manifestation of verbal aggression in school and that was conducted on a small sample of pupil, teachers and headmasters, from the gymnasium and high school (urban and rural areas), show that verbal aggression is manifested in simple forms such as: teasing, name calling, the use of ironic attitudes) to more severe forms (offenses, insults, conflict, sometimes accompanied by discriminatory attitudes and the marginalization).
Figure 1
Pupils, class teacher and headmaster’s opinions regarding the frequency of verbal aggression manifested at the school level

As we can observe, verbal aggression is present very often in schools, especially between pupils. This means that, some measure should be taken into account (counselling, monitoring planning, service coordination, individual assessment etc.), in order to intervene at the school and community level.

Emigration of parents seem to be an important risk factor for the pupils, that should be taken into account, because 24% of the pupils (710 pupils researched who parents emigrated) show that their school notes and results seem to be dropping (SOROS, 2007, p. p. 20-21).

Another important factor that affects the individual's school achievement and chances for a good life is the desire to drop-out of school. Consequently, the teacher counsellors would have an important role in helping the education system by reducing this factor. As you can see in the figures below, a report that is realized every year by the Ministry of Education, together with the Institute for Educational Sciences, is based on different indicators calculated, in this note, the indicator regarding the rate of school drop-out is increasing at some levels of education (tables I and II):

| Table 1. Rate of school drop-out at the primary and gymnasium level |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Total         | 0,6           | 1,2           | 1,2           | 1,5           | 1,7           | 1,8           | 2,0           |
| Urban         | 0,7           | 1,4           | 1,2           | 1,3           | 1,5           | 1,8           | 2,2           |
| Rural         | 0,6           | 1,0           | 1,3           | 1,7           | 1,8           | 1,8           | 1,8           |
| Female        | 0,6           | 1,1           | 1,6           | 1,3           | 1,4           | 1,6           | 1,8           |
| Male          | 0,7           | 1,3           | 0,9           | 1,7           | 1,9           | 2,0           | 2,2           |

Source: Calculation data has been realized with the information from the National Institute of Statistics, 2001-2008.
Table 2. Rate of school drop-out at the professional school level

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<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
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</table>

Source: Calculation data has been realized with the information from the National Institute of Statistics, 2001-2008.

As a conclusion, all these factors mentioned above, related to the individuals problems or needs could be addressed and advanced, more or less, if a different approach would be associated with the development of new training competencies, responsibilities and service implementation and coordination within the school system, one that would put more emphasis on a complementary service (social exchange, service coordination, service integration etc.)

Including Access to Training Case Managers in Schools as an Alternative

Again looking at what should be acquired in the future, in regards to school staff training, the European Commission states that another focus should be on “improving the in-service training of teachers in terms of quality, recognition of such training, and of resources” (Competences for the 21st Century: An agenda for European Cooperation on schools”, p. 5). In this sense, in the present, this would be a good opportunity for training teachers on the topic of case management and how to become a case-manager.

Looking a little at how teachers relate to training course, a recent study conducted in Romania Life-Long Learning in Romania (2008), shows that 87% of the investigated teachers declared they have attended different types of training programs, categories that are comprised of programs covering subjects such as: the planning, organization and evaluation of learning activities (methods, didactics, curriculum and subject curriculum); management and communication; informational technologies. In this note, teachers would be egger to participate in training programs and they would be keen to take part in training programs that are related to management, communication, planning etc.

Another study The Analysis Need for Counselling throughout Life (2006) shows that headmaster, teachers and counsellors have several requests:

- 48,6% of the headmasters feel the need to collaborate with other institutions/authorities (LaRoche et al. 2006, p. 91);
- 61,7% of the teachers feel the need to associate, intercommunicate and relate at a local and (inter) national level (LaRoche et al. 2006, p. 82);
- 40% of the teacher counsellors use managerial skills in counseling (LaRoche et al. 2006, p. 119).

The data shown above distinctly, proves the fact there is room for improvement and the need to change various aspects related, on the one hand, to the modality in which people associate, communicate at different levels, interact etc. and on the other hand, by changing the way institutions communicate, interact, which might adjust the way they reflect and resolve the client’s needs (monitoring clients, service, cost and benefits).

The possibility of training for case managers (teacher counsellors) in schools is not well known in the Romanian system; it would be useful for the schools to create a support program system. In this sense, on the one hand, there is a need to improve equality and relevance of case management materials to support universal access for training, which
would be an ongoing challenge, but at the same time it would be necessary. On the other hand, there is a lack of collaboration between different institutions, governmental ministries, and agencies and between national and regional level of government in sharing necessary information.

Different authors have defined case management in various ways depending on how they relate to this term. Thus, case management “is not an event; it is a process which is flexible and should be tailored to meet local needs and demands. While the activities are relatively standard, case management may take on dramatically different shades of emphasis depending upon such factors as: the richness and nature of service available in a specific local; how the inventory of service is controlled; the geography of the area in which the case management operates; the existence of other case management system... ; purchase of service capability; and the value system, which informs the behavior of case manager“ (apud Weil et al, 1989, p. 31). Weil considers as well that case management refers to a service that takes into account different human service system, including education, social service needs that are capable of addressing different needs (apud Weil et al, 1989, p. 3). In essence, the case manager is a case coordinator (is the person who keeps a direct relationship between service providers, and clients), a person who looks out for the client’s needs.

In order to fulfill this process or service by a case-manager, according to Marie Weil (1989) the eight basic case management functions are: 1) client identification and outreach, 2) individual assessment and diagnosis, 3) service planning and resource identification, 4) linking client to needed services, 5) service implementation and coordination, 6) monitoring service delivery, 7) advocacy and 8) evaluation (Weil et al, 1989, p. 29).

Relating this to the school level system in Romania, the teacher counsellor who would be trained as case manager would have to be continuously involved with the client’s needs to help individuals and families cope with complicated situations in the most effective way possible, and thereby achieving a better quality of life for the individual (identify their goals, needs, and resources). In addition, this person would have to assure the collaboration between different people who come from various institutions or affiliations (teacher counsellor, social worker, parents etc.), in order to provide service and advocacy and evaluate actively the clients’ progress: “case management is not only method a used by human service agencies that has as a target children and families that experience a variety of multiple and concurrent problems, while at the same time experiencing difficulties in accessing and using services available from different professionals and service systems” (Ballew & Mink, 1986, apud Smith, 1995, p. 2).
A possible scheme could be drawn up, which indicates the connection between different actors that would play an important role (see below).

Tendencies and Obstacles in Training Case-managers within the Schools

**Strengths**
- Romania is a new member of the European Union so this means that it has to adapt to different demands, including the guidance service;
- The world is continuously undergoing rapid changes, and thus, the school system wouldn’t make an exception;
- Headmaster, teachers and especially, teacher counsellor are participating in different types of training courses;
- An existing code of ethics for teacher counsellors;
- An existing counseling network (MCPA, CCRED etc.).

**Weaknesses**
- Possible resistance from authorities to change the legislation (teacher counsellors, social workers, networking between institutions etc.);
- Resistance from different authorities or people to change the way they see guidance or counselling;
- The need to draw up new possible standards in assuring counseling and guidance;
- An inexistente national association for teacher counsellors, like the one for psychologists;
- A clear network between schools and other institutions (medical service, school community, and other services).

**Opportunities**
- Training adults to adjust to a new profile (case manager);
- Developing networking strategies among different actors involved;
- Strengthening the collaboration between the social worker and the teacher counsellor at every level, in order to assure quality service (recording and
documenting the cases, monitoring service delivery, interacting with agencies involved in the social assistance etc.);

- Designing an alternative support training program;
- Including more actors in resolving the individual’s needs;
- Including more actors in the solving school problems (social work, community etc);

**Threats**

- Change the legislation related to statute of the teacher counsellor in schools;
- Financing training and the new role of the counsellor;
- The duration period until such a program could be implemented;
- The possible lack of interest for decision makers in building such a program.
- The education legislation is undergoing changes and thus, it is not very clear what is going to be requested (this includes the requirements for becoming a teacher counsellor).

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Reaching the low-skilled in Norway: teacher training for quality enterprise based courses in basic skills.

Background
Several studies have shown that there is a large group of adults whose skills in reading, numeracy and digital competence are insufficient to handle the challenges of contemporary labour markets and social life. Such basic skills constitute a precondition for further learning and competence development. Many adults will therefore require training to strengthen one or more of these skills.

Depending on how the statistics are interpreted, at least 400 000 adults, out of a population of 4 million, are at risk. In general, the number of people with low basic skills increases with age and every fifth person between 16 and 20 is at risk. In addition, immigrants, especially from non-western countries, show a low score. Among people with low scores, the following factors occur more frequently: low levels of education, unemployment, social benefits as main income.

The Basic Competence in Working Life Programme
The Norwegian Government finances, since 2006, a national program called Basic Competence in Working Life (BCWL). The programme is an important part of the Norwegian Government’s answer to the challenge of lack of skills in the adult population. Norwegian labour life comprises extensive demands for documentation and reporting. Enterprise leaders point out that employees are required to handle an increasing amount of documents, handbooks and manuals, which often are mandatory because of strict safety regulations (VOX 2007). The use of digital tools is widespread in all parts of the labour sphere, and digital skills have nearly become a prerequisite for participation in the labour market. Improvement of basic skills could be a contribution to enabling a larger number of employees to adapt to new demands and job tasks in the enterprises, and participate in competence-building measures (Svensrud, Winsnes, & Lahaug, 2008).

The aim of the Basic Competence in Working Life Programme is to give adults the opportunity to get the basic skills they need to keep up with the demands and changes in modern working life and civil society. The programme concentrates on reading, writing, numeracy, and digital skills. Any enterprise in Norway, private and public, can establish cooperation agreements with a learning provider and apply for funding from the programme. Through the programme, basic learning projects in enterprises are funded and monitored. Projects organised outside workplaces can also receive funding, but the objective will still be to prepare people for working life.

The annual grant call emphasizes that 1) the learning activity should take place in the workplace environment and that basic skills training should preferably be linked to other job-relevant learning, 2) the activity should strengthen the participants’ motivation for further learning, 3) the courses have to relate to the Competence Goals for Basic Skills in

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72 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL), published in 2000 and 2005 respectively (OECD), as well as the survey Citizen and User (VOX 2008). Further information on the ALL study can be obtained from the National Centre for Reading Education and Research, University of Stavanger. For further information on Citizen and User, see vox.no.
Adults (see www.vox.no/english). Experiences from the Programme for Basic Skills in the Workplace indicate that such training may improve the working environment and contribute to lower rates of absence due to illness.

VOX has been given the responsibility for running the Basic Competence in Working Life Programme in the sense of informing about it through various publication channels and meetings, receiving and assessing applications, distributing the funding to the successful applicants for grants, monitoring the projects and assessing final reports from finished projects. VOX also provides concrete assistance to projects, in the form of materials, help with solving start up problems, support and advice to enterprises and providers, and teacher seminars.

The education providers, which may be public and private providers and even the enterprises themselves if they have the necessary teaching staff, organise the courses and help recruit the participants in co-operation with the enterprises. An initial screening is often used in the recruitment process. Trade union representatives often prove to be of vital importance in recruiting and motivating participants, and actually throughout the whole process of setting up a course and creating support in the enterprise.

A framework for basic skills for adults

The education that has been offered for adults with low basic skills so far is a full (condensed) primary school course. For some this will fulfil their needs, but for many this will be neither useful nor necessary. What many adults need, is a possibility to attend flexible education geared specifically towards basic skills.

To facilitate adapted training programmes, VOX was assigned the task of elaborating a framework for basic skills for adults, including descriptions of skill levels and competence goals for reading and writing, numeracy, digital competence and oral communication for adults. The framework describes goals for acquired competence that are equivalent to those defined by the Knowledge Reform, but have been adapted to the life and work situation of adults. The competence goals define the proficiency in the basic skills that adults at various training levels are expected to have.

The framework has been developed with a view to adults who need to improve one or more basic skills. By directing attention to the experiences and specific needs of adults, the framework will strengthen the quality and the flexibility of training programmes in basic skills for adults. In this manner the framework could act as an aid to provision of training that is adapted to the life and working situation of adults, in the workplace, in a training centre or in other contexts.

The competence goals are intended to contribute to the provisioning of training programmes for adults who for various reasons have poor basic skills, in a form which is adapted to their resources and needs. A major challenge consists of the fact that those who have the poorest skills tend not to envisage a need for training or to have little motivation to

73 For more information about the background of the framework, see Svensrud, Winsnes and Lahaug, 2008. Handbook for the competence goals. The handbook details key issues associated with work with adults and their basic skills.

74 The Knowledge Reform requires basic skills to be integrated into all subjects at all levels (Ministry of Education and Research, circular F-13/04). The five basic skills comprised by the Knowledge Reform are oral communication, reading, basic mathematics, writing and ability to use digital tools.
take classes. In addition, the everyday life of adults tends to be characterized by many conflicting priorities, and it can be difficult to motivate them to participate in training programmes for a sufficient amount of time to achieve real progress. Therefore, it is essential that training programmes based on the competence goals take account of factors that influence and motivate adults in a learning situation.

To many adults, the quality of the training programmes and appropriate adaptation to their situation will be decisive for their ability or willingness to participate. Facilitation and purposeful effort are therefore required in order to reach out to those who have the most pronounced need for training (Svensrud et. al. 2008)

A model for professional development

The Fafo Institute for Labour and Social Research emphasizes the importance of organizing job-related training around the context of the workplace (Folkenborg and Hansen 2003). They found that this provided more opportunities to make use of the workplace community in the learning process, facilitated skill enhancement in the enterprise in general, and ensured that participants acquired job-related competence. Fafo underscored, however, the importance of embedding the training effort in the enterprise as a whole, and that training preferably should take place in the workplace during normal working hours. Furthermore, the providers of training must be acquainted with the needs of the participants, who should also be allowed to contribute to and evaluate the training programme.

To ensure the quality of the learning provision a training model has been created for professional development for teachers working in the implementation of the Basic Competence in Working Life Programme. The framework comprises both formal and informal further training for teachers.

In addition to improve the quality of the teaching, the purpose of the training is to support the teachers in their new role. The training also aims to improve the teachers’ competence in the disclosing of a participants need for adapted training. It gives an introduction in how to use the framework for basic skills as a basis for developing courses and planning sessions. The teachers need to learn how they can work together with subject teachers and other professionals as a team, for example at the working place. Further they also need to address how they should act to obtain familiarity with the working environment and the needs of the trainees. Familiarity with the working environment will facilitate the use of the potential that exists in the workplace as a learning arena and to adapt the training to the needs of the participants. Familiarity with the workplace will also entail an overview of the job tasks that have the highest priority in the participants’ daily work situation.

The teachers are invited to reflect pedagogically about adult learning. Teachers will intuitively behave different to adult learners than to younger pupils and children. Many pedagogical principles are valid for all age groups, but the learning environment is often different. It is about which values and attitudes the teachers are bringing into their meeting with the adult learner (Arnesen og Furre 2002). This indicates that it will be important to establish an environment where the participants are required to become personally involved as co-creators and responsible actors in the learning process (Wahlgren 2006).

The formal training is implemented from the autumn of 2009 and is given in cooperation with Norwegian Universities and University Colleges. The course gives 30 ECTS...
points. It is a part-time study over one year with a combination of classroom activities, web-based training and teaching practice. The programme consists of different modules. The student combines a theoretical module of how adults learn and a didactical module where they are specialising in how you teach adults in digital competence, numeracy or reading and writing, using the framework for basic skills for adults as an important tool.

The model for formal training

![Diagram of the model for formal training]

The informal training has been implemented since 2007, and is given through annual series of seminars for teachers and trainers. The teachers are offered a series of one-day courses free of charge. This arrangement is in its second year now and seems very successful. The courses focus on how the competence goals in the framework for basic skills for adults can provide support for preparation and implementation of training programmes for each of the various skill types. The teachers find it useful to get input and ideas to use in their own teaching, and share experiences with other teachers working with the same target group.

Measuring learning output

Very little weight is traditionally placed in Norway on measuring the progression of individuals with low-level qualification in adult learning. The main emphasis has been on the documentation of subjective results like higher level of self-esteem and further motivation for learning. VOX has recently finalised a set of test tools to measure learning outcomes in relation to the Framework, as well as screening tools and tools for formative evaluation.

To facilitate adequate learning provisioning and measuring of learning outcomes international literacy and numeracy tests have been translated and adapted, and a test for digital competence has been created. Projects funded (in 2009 and later) through the Basic Competence in Working Life programme will be required to use these tools to document results. Teachers and trainers planning to use these tests have to attend special courses in
order to be certified as test administrators. Appraisal is essential mainly in order to identify training needs, and should be regarded as an educational tool. The results will simplify the planning of the training programmes as well as the formulation of individual learning goals. They could also serve to render the participant aware of his or her specific needs for training.

Although no specific qualification system has been created to give formal accreditation for attained levels of basic skills according to the Framework, teachers are instructed to make use of formative assessment, e.g. methodology built on portfolio work and “Can do” statements.

Going forward

The results from the Basic Competence in Working Life projects that can be reported are not yet quantified, but qualitative feedback states that participants are happy with the courses and feel that they have got new incentive to get on with their professional careers. The impact will be more easily measured in terms of learning output after the spring of 2010. Participants in projects that have received grants in 2009 will be tested both at course entry and exit through the use of the newly developed tests in literacy, numeracy and digital competence.

VOX has the responsibility for the development and the implementation of the curriculum of the introductory courses for refugees and immigrants. When discussing quality in these courses, the focus is on both the teachers’ competence and their teaching methods. In 2008, extra funding was provided to improve the teachers’ competence. There are developed a course plan covering five central topics which is offered to the teachers. Their competence in evaluating their students is one topic that is being covered in the teacher training. The teachers have to know the competence levels in the curriculum in order to register the participants to the correct tests.

Going forward the different paths of teacher training for teachers who teach basic skills to adults and teachers who are teaching immigrants should be seen in closer relationship to each other. Teacher training for immigrant teachers who are training immigrants in written and oral communication in Norwegian could for instance be a forth choice for didactical studies in the further education programme mentioned above.

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The role of the adult educator in the respect of quality.

Introduction
The following paper is a current reference to adult education and more specifically in adult educators in respect of quality. It starts with a general approach to adult education with necessary historical details and focuses in the role, the strategies, and the techniques that adult educators use, and the theories that they are based on in order to achieve more quality in the whole process.

What adult education means?
A remarkable variety of definitions can be traced back to their use in the different currents of ideas exist to the field of adult education. Adult education is defined as a facilitation process aimed at providing support in the ability to direct and develop oneself, an ability which individuals naturally possess. For some, any uncritically assimilated explanation by an authority figure will suffice. But in contemporary societies we must learn to make our own interpretations rather than act on the purposes, beliefs, judgments, and feelings of others. Facilitating such understandings is the cardinal goal of adult education. Transformative learning develops autonomous thinking (Mezirow 1997, p. 5).

The expression “adult education” refers to the phenomenon deriving from the entirety of theories, strategies, policies and organisational models which aim to interpret, direct and manage the individual and collective training processes throughout their entire existence. A remarkable variety of definitions can be traced back to their use in the different currents of ideas exist to the field of adult education.

The objective of adult education goes beyond the boundaries of the school system and of professional training. It includes the entirety of learning activities, including those of an informal or accidental nature, present in work and everyday life. Education of Adult Persons (EPA) is generally understood as an activity (as far as the process and results are concerned) whose basic objectives are to guarantee the acquisition, bettering and updating of basic training for adults, the improvement of professional qualifications (through basic training of a professional nature and specific vocational training at intermediate or higher level) and the development of the capacity to participate in social, cultural, political and economic spheres. The conceptual framework of EPA embraces the principles of continuing education. The assumption is that every human being has an enormous developmental potential that can be released in the right learning environment.

The need to define a theory on the educational process during the different stages of life links up with the scientifical approaches to adult education which provide scientific confirmation of the possibility of educating oneself throughout an entire life-span was first expressed in the first decades of the 20th century. The main references to this at first mostly revolved around the operation of the intellect in adulthood, while subsequent references tended to focus on the connections between individual and cultural development. It is on such a connection that was identified as life with education and defined adult education as a...
collective and social phenomenon.

The preferred learning method is sharing knowledge with others and thus expanding it. The goal is professional and personal development, discussing in groups, respecting the rules of good communication, letting everyone speak when his/her turn comes.

**Historical Origins**

Adult education is an organised and intentional process which interests many people from every population level throughout their entire life-spans. In fact the first steps in favour of adult education took place in Norway during the first half of the 18th century. At 19th century underlined the beginning of the first historical studies on adult education in the United Kingdom, a practice which had already been exported overseas well before the independence of America, where a legislative transfer came into effect towards the end of the Elizabethan era. I was the 19th century well the time that the phenomenon occurred in Spain as well as the other European Mediterranean countries. Adult education truly established itself during the most intense period of the industrial revolution. It came into existence through two parallel movements; on the one hand, the industrial bourgeoisie’s interest in having available manual labour capable of participating in a productive activity undergoing constant development and, on the other hand, the emerging working class’s interest in directing the new conditions and training possibilities brought about by the production process, and in its own desire for emancipation and overcoming the social divisions of labour.

At the end of the 18th and the beginning of 19th century, in all the industrialised Europe came up the new professional training centres for adults or young workers. The expansion of forms of educational friendly societies and solidarities and the birth of educational systems and activities were inspired by the working class. Towards the end of the 19th century and in the first decades of the 20th century, an intervention took place in the area of lifelong education. These interventions were chiefly aimed at controlling and managing educational and professional training organisations for youth and adults.

It was, however, those years after the First World War, in 1919, that the expression “lifelong education” was accepted in an official British government document for the first time. In 1930 in Western Europe, however, the modern concept of adult education went through a crucial period of fine-tuning of theory and practice similar to the historical experience of the popular front in France. From the 1960s onwards, adult education started gowing constantly and became the object of unceasing confrontation by various interested parties. Social movements and unions put forward new claims on the grounds that adult education should be on a global level and priority for everyone.

The first attempt to address the problem of educating adults in Greece was made in 1929, when the government of Eleftherios Venizelos was attempting to address the major problem of adult illiteracy. Evening and agricultural schools were established by law with a view to providing elementary education to those who exceeded the legal age for attendance at primary school. But the existing socio-economic conditions of the time did not make this to work for along time. The events of World War II did not allow the development of an adult education system even though, in 1943, an Adult Education Service was established for the first time at the Ministry of National Education (MNE) and, in the same period, significant efforts were made by resistance organisations to educate and train farmers in particular. In 1970s an effort to establish adult education started
through the creation of the Directorate for adult education, within the MNE, which in 1983 was upgraded by law to a General Secretariat for Adult education. Its policy is focused on preventing and combating social exclusion and its major aims are:

• To combat illiteracy and develop basic education and skills,
• To provide vocational training mainly for the unemployed,
• To provide socio-cultural education.

Even so, it is vital to emphasise that there is no one ‘European system of education of adults’, but many systems within the still emergent European region. The diversity that exists reflects historical, cultural political and economic differences. Adult education includes everything described as basic and continuing education and assisted learning for youth and adults, formal, non-formal or informal. Specifically “All learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, and social and/or employment – related perspective.”

The adult education in democracy in general

The way of understanding adult education may be controversial and divisive for more traditional parts of the education system including the teaching profession, schools and universities in most countries, much less so for most adult educators. What is controversial and philosophically objectionable is the tendency for adult education, to be co-opted to serve liberal economics and a global free trade market.

Generally, the most economically developed and democratic countries have had the most developed adult education. Democratic states have limited their effort to three main activities: sponsoring the initiatives of independent bodies and institutions; establishing a legal basis for adult education, and encouraging co-operation between different organisations. Organised adult education has always included many different types of organisations and institutes. The real growth through which it became a worldwide phenomenon occurred only after the Second World War. However, regulations on informal/non-formal adult education do exist. They tend to fall into the following four categories:

• regulations offering public financial support to providers of adult education
• regulations establishing individual entitlements to educational leave
• regulations offering financial incentives to learners to take part in education
• regulations establishing a framework for the recognition of prior, non-formal and informal learning

Regulations establishing entitlements to educational leave may have different financial implications for either the employee taking the leave or the employer. Normally the learner decides which course to attend. Eligible learning under such regulation may be defined in either narrow or broader terms. Usually at least a certain degree of job relevance of the learning is required, or only courses that have been formally recognised by the state for this purpose may be chosen.

The first question that is asked is who participates in adult learning? Much better we should ask who does not. Such a question provides some challenging answers. Despite recognition of the benefits of education there is strong evidence that the participation of disadvantaged groups in all kinds of adult education continues to be lower than that of other groups. However the structures of participation patterns are similar. For example:

• Participation in adult learning declines with age – especially in vocational and work-
related fields

- Participation rates increase as the level of education of the participants rises
- The worse the social situation, the less likely people are to take part in adult education
- Participation is lower in rural than in urban areas
- Ethnic minorities take considerably less part in adult learning than the native population.

The statistics shows that older adults are the least likely to participate compared with other age groups. Current surveys also showed that those people who have received the least initial and further education do not participate in adult education.

Some reasons that do not allow them to participate in adult learning may be of a practical kind - lack of time, money, appropriate educational offers - or of a social-psychological order - unsupportive social environment among friends, family, and superiors, lack of learning culture, bad previous learning experience, failure to perceive the benefits of learning, and so on.

People who have not lived a perfect experience in earlier educational environments may find difficult to experience a new one. All these obstacles are well-known in principle. Some have been subjected to research and analysis for decades. Not participating has more to do with educational level than with location. The same thing applies basically to participation in informal learning. Here the situation varies by the age group, but the level of education is a defining factor here as well. We can draw some very obvious conclusions from all of this about the work required.

**Quality and Development in Adult Education**

Assessing the quality of provision in adult education is important, as throughout the educational spectrum. This can be done through various forms of audit, assessment, monitoring and reporting. However, due to the distinct, varied, and fragmented nature of adult education, especially in informal and non-formal learning, it is difficult to carry out fundamental quality assurance tasks.

Purposes of quality assurance include:

- To ensure a high level of learning outcome relevant and appropriate to the needs of the learners
- To ensure the efficiency of the learning process and its organisation, with targeted use of resources
- To ensure transparency about educational provision for learners
- To ensure transparency about learning outcomes for learners and other actors, facilitating the recognition of learning achievements and transition between different learning pathways (see next section)
- To make learning more attractive and increase motivation, especially for disadvantaged groups
- To enable equal access to learning for all.

To define quality should examine three levels:

The first is at organisational level. Quality management models have been introduced into adult education organisations in many countries, most, such as ISO and EFQM, adopted from the business sector. They concentrate on organisational processes
rather than on quality of outcome. Many institutions are unable to cope with the administrative workload that such quality assurance models bring.

The second level is the learner level where the main concern is how to assess and document learning outcomes. Some initiatives are under way to develop tools that will help to recognise quality in informal and non-formal learning. These developments should be further promoted as a means of making learning outcomes visible to learners and other stakeholders.

The third quality assurance level is at system level. How does quality assessment figure in legislation? In some countries dedicated institutes or expert bodies support the development and monitoring of adult education and learning – some are government-appointed like the Finnish Adult Education Council, some are NGOs such as the National Institute of Adult Continuing Education (England and Wales), the German Institute for Adult Education, and the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education. (Rue de la Concorde 60 pg 40) This study suggests the following conclusions.

- Adult education at national level should be seen as an educational field in its own right, with appropriate attention in terms of monitoring and quality assurance.
- A European level working group could be established to elaborate a quality assurance framework for general adult education.
- Quality monitoring systems in adult education should attend more to learners and learning outcomes. Models for the assessment and recognition of prior learning may help.

  Policies should be developed to link existing national models for the recognition of prior learning more to the European Qualifications Framework, increasing comparability and transparency.

  Monitoring learning processes and outcomes alone is not sufficient. It is vital that adult education staffs are allowed to develop professionally so that they can provide the highest quality service. This is considered further in 2.4.7 below.

  It thus represents a fundamental challenge to existing policy and practice. We should not underestimate the radical nature of this practice to most practitioners and managers of adult education and lifelong learning in all its settings.

Overlaying the diversity of institutional practice is a wide range of needs, purposes and aspirations from the individual’s perspective. These include recognition to

- Develop self-confidence, self-awareness and/or self evaluation skills
- Verify appropriate practice in voluntary work
- Make explicit learning from work placements, exchanges, social action
- Enter or re-enter employment,
- Enter formal training or non-formal learning opportunities
- Make progress or get promoted in work
- Obtain part or all of a formal qualification
- Transfer qualifications gained in other contexts at other times accumulate skills, part-qualifications and competences into a coherent package.

The more important theories in the field of adult education

Andragogy constitutes an “educational ideology” and in no case an adult education theory and for this reason it cannot allow predictions or facilitate the effectuation of the educational process.
Consequently, Cross considers that the role of the educator is mainly to assist adult students in a creative way and at the same time to be sensitive and understanding in order to make the transition on another level so that the student can eventually reach the highest possible level of individual development.

By completing the presentation of the model we observe that another principal of the Andragogy theory, this of the problem-centered orientation could also be valid here, concretely in interrelation with the variable of optional education.

The Jarvis model (1995) conceives adult learning with a systemic attitude as a complex phenomenon, which should take into consideration both the educated person and the socio-cultural frame through which education occurs. This frame is constituted by the individual, objective culture and its means of transmission. Those means and the individual itself as a biological and psychological entity, interact during the learning process.

The culture as a series of values, perceptions, mentalities and cultural expressions of a whole society, is an open system of interactive elements, which is dynamic and hence changeable.

Jarvis (1995) considers that these changes inevitably result to the acquisition of new knowledge and thus learning. The individual should continue learning by building the new knowledge on the already existing one. However, Jarvis considers that due to the dynamic of the culture and his own previous experience the individual can engage and absorb selectively only certain elements.

Consequently, we conclude that culture is a phenomenon that because of the changes, pressures, but also the influences that it receives, it is constantly under continuous negotiation. To comprehend culture as a phenomenon it is only the basic presumption for the comprehension of the learning process.

The distribution of the segments of culture occurs through carriers using technology or through personal contact and communication. Its basic lever is the language, both spoken and written.

When adult students select the segments of culture to be transmitted to them, they are self-guided. In all the other cases there are scales of autonomy and guidance. It is generally accepted that in any educational process in which the educator, as a carrier of knowledge and the adult student as the receptor, take part as acting subjects, they develop bidirectional influences and relations.

What is especially different in adult education is that the educator and the adult student have a vast number of experiences, as well as shaped ways of the analysis and interpretation of their cultural frame.

In the level of application the child is mistakenly considered that has less experience and that potentially practices less influence on the educator, thus having forms of pedagogic communication mainly on one direction.

Apart from the curriculum and its means of transmission, according to Jarvis (1995: 57) it is the subject alone as a biological and individual substance, that plays the most important role. Both the individual substance and the way of acting of each individual are based on learning.

Experience plays a very important role in the whole regard of adult education. At this point emerges the question of defining the term experience and consecutively learning via experience. Jarvis supports that learning is an activity through which the individual substance in contrast to the biological develops and evolves (Jarvis, 1992), while he states
the opinion that people act and interact with a given and often expected way, which is the result of learning experiences acquired in the past (Jarvis, 1995).

When the individual is unable to act in an expected way, Jarvis (1987) calls it “disjuncture” which means that there is an incompatibility between the previous learning experiences of the individual and the current conjunction that is called to face.

Consequently, the experience is a combination of interactions between the current conjunction and all the previous experiences of the individual. (Biography) Jarvis (1995) distinguishes the experiences as direct and indirect. Direct experience is the one that the individual conceives with the senses, while as indirect the one that is transmitted to the individual in some other way. In his research (1987) he uses the Kolb and Fry circle of learning (1975: 33-37).

In this model the learning process either starts with the specific and tangible experience or can begin from any other point of the circle. The researchers mentioned above, support that the vertical axis symbolizes the process that begins with the tangible experience and leads to a more abstractive level, this of schematizing concepts and generalization. The horizontal axis symbolizes the process of rethinking on the experience, which has as a final stage the application and testing of the results of rethinking on new situations. Each quadrant of the circle symbolizes a different learning type.

Both Mezirow and Freire in their work emphasise on the emancipating aspect of education. While Mezirow deals with the emancipation in the frame of psychological dimension of the individual, Freire, on the other hand considers education as a lever that releases the individual from a feigned awareness, in which is self-restricted because of the sovereignty of the colonialist culture (1970). The process of social construction of the existing reality is something that occupies both scholars and they consider that the education can help as a social mechanism in the inversion of this process.

Another point, in which Mezirow (1990[b]) and other researchers attribute importance to, is the experience. The process of transformational learning is closely connected with experience since individuals should and have the need to comprehend their experiences in order to acquire conscience of their life. Since Mezirow (1981) supports that learning is the outcome of rethinking experience, the adult student should re-examine the obvious conditions and perceptions in a critical way, since these constitute the frame of interpretation of experiences. In this way the process of transformation is set to function.

Mezirow gave particular emphasis in the process of rethinking and stated the opinion that it goes through seven different stages (1981: 12 - 13) some of which, as he mentions, is more likely to activate during the adult life of the individual. Those stages are characterized by:

1. **Contemplation Ability**: conscience of concrete perceptions, meaning, as well as behaviours.

2. **Emotional Contemplation Ability**: conscience of the individual’s emotions with regard to that is conceived and is the subject of thoughts or actions.

3. **Discrimination Contemplation Ability**: evaluation of effectiveness of perception.

4. **Evaluation Contemplation Ability**: cognition and realization of the value of various crises.

5. **Conceptual Contemplation Ability**: control of degree in which all used meanings are sufficient for the process of evaluation.

6. **Mental Contemplation Ability**: recognition of the practice to move forward to clear-sighted judgments based on limited information.
7. Theoretical Contemplation Ability: cognition of the sufficiency or not of a total of visuals for the interpretation of personal experience. (GGDBM, 2006):

Another point worth pointing is the essential role of the adult educator, since, according to Mezirow (1985), the educators charged with the difficult task of developing the critical rethinking to their students. He also supports that the substantial intention and at the same time obligation of adult education is the analysis of the requirements on which performance is based.

Mezirow (1991) admitted, however, that, in the end the education and more generally learning do not necessarily have a transformational character, neither do they always aim at the development of the ability of critical rethinking and also revised his opinion on the circular course of learning and he proposed a ten stages process, through which the transformational learning process passes (Mezirow (1991: 1968- 69)).

One of the most famous scientists in the field of adult education is Freire, who was greatly influenced from the sociopolitical conditions that prevailed in Brazil during this era.

According to Freire, the educated individual cannot remain inactive, but should participate actively within the social environment. Consequently, the education cannot be a neutral process. It inevitably has a political character. The substance of his method, the dialog, is the word which is analyzed in syllables and is used in order to teach adult learners the basic elements of literacy.

His approach is more political and configurational compared to the approaches of others that are more atomistic. And that is what makes this theory more applicable in adults than in children given that adults as carriers of experiences and receptors of a concrete cultural reality can affect consciously their environment and create changes. Freire considers the relationship of educator – educated as very important and faces the educator as the person to ease the rethinking attitude of the educated as well as their learning course. Also, Freire, as well as Mezirow, give particular emphasis in the process of rethinking of experiences, as well as in the harmonization of rethinking and action, in order that the individual proceeds in realized action and is rendered an active subject.

Strategies and educational means

Four strategies exist that need to be adopted from adult educators in order that it strengthens the attendance of the adults in the team. This strategies concerning a) the way that the seats are placed in the class influences the interrelation of the members of the whole team, b) the team must participate in the creation of the expectations and rules that are going to follow during the educational term that they are going to spend together, c) the adult educator needs to concern seriously for the safety and the confidence in the team by explaining his role and asking the respect of all team in their safeguarding and d) the configuration of smaller teams, 4-6 persons each one, having as a goal the better exchange of opinions and information. In the educational teams the observation of principles and strategies of have particular value for the whole course of training activity (GGDBM, pg 25).

The educational techniques are the total of activities that helping the adult educator to achieve their individual educational objectives of a program. Using these techniques the adult educators try to keep the adults in the class until the end of the course and cover their personal and global needs as well. With this way will achieve the activation of attendance educated and cover individual and common needs educated.

The most known educational techniques that were found in literature are below:
• Enriched proposal
• Brainstorming of Ideas
• Work in teams
• Study of Case
• Game of Roles
• Demonstration
• Simulation (GGDBM, pg 26)

The adult educators in order to succeed quality may use supervisory means during their teaching. The most common and helpful are Projectors, Overhead projectors, video, TV, CDs, Board, camera, movies, and notes relevant to the subject. All these stimulate the interest of the learners and make the whole procedure more attractive.

Working to remove practical infrastructural barriers alone is not sufficient. Participation can also be increased by making a shift towards informal learning, and in turn exploiting the learning potential of places such as social houses and cultural institutions, and ensuring that such learning achieves the recognition that it deserves. A learning culture needs to be fostered though which attitudes can be changed and motivation increased. This involves motivation on the part of the learners, but the situation can also be improved by good external promotion of adult education.

The adult educators need to encourage the interaction between the adult learners and to create a proper atmosphere in order to cause open discussion in the class. The whole actions presume that they really try to keep all the individuals on eyes. They try to invite all of them in order to deposit their own ideas and experiences. They also have to cause the interest of everyone with the suitable questions and finally to lead the conversation in the desirable way.

Conclusions
The adult educators should keep the duality of the whole procedure by trying to sustain the normal function of the team. This should be achieved by using the most convenient techniques, the best educational means and by following the most basic theories of adult education. The adult educators should create sense of safety and trust between the members of the whole team. Also they should put limits in all the individuals in order to achieve the settled goals and to make the whole educational procedure easier.

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The limits of my language mean the limits of my education. A literacy perspective on the initial education of educators.

Introduction

− A learner writing a report or reading aloud the task she/he has just finished.
− A group of learners discussing a text they have read.
− A lecturer writing feedback on the margin of an exam paper.
− Learners/teachers reading an article from a computer screen or a smartboard.

All the above are common images for anybody. Can we imagine education outside reading and writing? Can we imagine education outside talking about or around written texts? What does an educator teach while they are engaging their learners in reading, writing or talking about written texts? We argue that through their approach to reading, writing and talk around written texts (that is through their approach to literacy) educators teach much more than the content they plan to teach - be it basic skills, photography or physics.

In this paper we aim to signal that educators need to be aware of the impact of their approach to literacy on their learners and the potential of this approach for the learning taking place while they teach different content. We claim that in order to approach education as an experience that empowers their learners and supports them in becoming active and critical members in their communities, educators need to consciously embed literacy into the content they teach. Our paper is an argument for considering literacy as a critical issue not only in education in general, but also in the education and development of educators, in the evaluation of effective and quality teaching.

Though much work has been done on investigating education (including that of educators) and much on literacy, fewer studies have approached the two together. We have started form a study of literacy practices and contexts in the initial education of educators. In this article we re-contextualise our findings - we approach education form a literacy perspective. We believe that the literacy embedded in education can limit the learners ‘in’ or ‘out’ of their community – the limits of the literacy embedded in education and learning establish the limits of the learners’ education and the limits the educators have in educating their learners. Finally, we highlight how this literacy perspective on education can be transferred into developing educators. We believe that for the assumptions and discussions in this paper, the distinction ‘educator’ – ‘adult educator’ is not relevant. Any educator needs support in developing additional competences helping them approach literacy in their work with the learners.

Definitions

LITERACY

• ‘the ability to read, write and use numbers, to handle information, express ideas and opinions, make decisions and solve problems, as family members, workers, citizens and lifelong learners’ (definition given by the Scottish Executive in 2001, quoted in Tett, Hamilton and Hillier, 2006:4,6)
• ‘being able to participate effectively in social processes by working with written
language’ (Halliday, 1996:367)
• ‘the practice of using resources of language for making sense and for exchanging meanings’ (Hasan 1996: 382)
• ‘not a technology made up of a set of transferable cognitive skills, but a constellation of practices which differ from one social setting to another’ (Ivanic, 1998: 65)

RECOGNITION LITERACY
• the literacy (reading and writing) that focuses on form, on expression, on linguistic facts while ignoring language as a mode of social action; the literacy setting a view of knowledge as non-negotiable and finite, thus, establishing a relationship to knowledge that constructs learners as disempowered/re-producers of knowledge (see Hasan, 1996)

REFLECTIVE LITERACY
• the literacy that fosters the ability to reflect, to analyse and to challenge what is defined ‘as true in nature’: old knowledge is taken only as a point of departure in creating new knowledge and the critical abilities (challenge, question, negotiate meanings, reflect, enquire, analyse, etc) enable learners to participate in the process of creation of new knowledge - empowered/producers of knowledge (see Hasan, 1996)

LITERACY EVENTS
• ‘particular activities in which literacy has a role: they may be regular repetitive activities. Literacy practices are the general cultural ways of utilizing literacy that people draw upon in a literacy event’ (Barton, 1991:37)

LITERACY RESOURCES
• symbolic resources institutionally available to learners along with knowledge, discourse, social status, self respect; those who can use these resources and have control over these resources, are empowered (see also Bourdieu, 1991:6)

The research: theoretical and methodological framework.

This paper is based on an empiric research project of academic literacy (research towards PhD thesis) realized between 1999 – 2006 with a group of students (educators undergoing initial education) from the Faculty of Letters in a Romanian University. The main research question examines the relationship between academic literacy and the construction of symbolic power, however we consider the findings and the implications of the study extremely relevant for educators and trainers active in any domain of education (for a summary of the research see appendix 1, for the whole research study see Tilinca, 2007).

We argue that literacy is a social practice situated in space, time and context. The research shows how literacy can ‘limit’ the universe of those engaged in education at different levels: some texts and literacy practices are privileged by educational institutions and by educators, other texts and literacy practices are excluded by the same institutions and educators. The literacy practices and contexts in which learners are engaged through education position them (as critical and reflective learners or as learners who can just repeat and re-produce knowledge), puts them in relationship with their history (separates them from their history and life outside the classroom or capitalizes on this history and the life at home, in the workplace and in the community); finally, these literacy practices engage learners and their educators in different types of relationships (in which educators and learners have both access to dialogue around knowledge and to symbolic resources, or
relationships based on power where the educators are the only ones who control these symbolic resources).

**Literacy and Society**

The relationship between language/literacy and context and the role of language in the social processes and forces which shape it have been discussed by theorists coming from different areas and traditions, but language and society tended to be seen as separate entities. Fairclough (1989:23) considers that there is no external relationship ‘between’ language and society, but an internal and dialectical relationship. For him *language is a part of society, linguistic phenomena ‘are’ social phenomena of a special sort* (in the sense that language in use is socially determined and has social effects), and *social phenomena ‘are’ (in part) linguistic phenomena* (in the sense that the language activity which goes on in social contexts is not merely a reflection or expression of social processes or practices, it is part of those processes and practices).

Barton (1994:47) defines the relationship between literacy and the social reality as an intrinsic one

> “Saying that literacy has a social meaning is going further than saying that there are social dimensions to it or that it exists within a social context. Literacy is embedded in institutional contexts which shape the practices and social meanings attached to reading and writing. Within these social contexts, the act of reading and writing becomes symbolic.”

Barton shows, mirroring Fairclough’s view of language, that literacy is embedded in the social, that it is underpinned by practices and becomes meaningful within institutions. Besides being an everyday activity, literacy acquires symbolical dimensions.

Barton coined the ecological metaphor to define literacy in order to understand literacy as part of human activity as a whole. The ecological approach starts from people’s uses of literacy and in understanding literacy it focuses on the particular (contexts, times, participants, actions). The notions of ‘literacy event’ and ‘literacy practice’ are central for the ecological approach, supporting its social underpinning and its interest for the particular. The definitions of literacy conceptualise literacy against education, symbolic resources and social power or the production of new knowledge.

**Literacy and Education**

Education and literate activity are rooted in society and are both shaped and indicative of the broader social life and its underlying practices. Through their studies, Bernstein (1990) and Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) discuss the close relationship that exists between a society’s pedagogic institutions and the principles underlying social structure; they argue that the pedagogy of literacy is a prime site for the reproduction and production of knowledge. Street (1995: 15) also shows how, within education, literacy encapsulates existential and social dimensions, underlining that the transfer of literacy to students in the processes of education involves more than passing on some technical skills. He argues that the impact of the culture and of the politico-economic structures is likely to be more significant because this transfer is associated with shifts in meaning that are located at deep epistemological levels (what is truth, what is knowledge and what are the appropriate sources of authority).

The two-way relationship between broader social structures/practices and
institutionalized education is instantiated through language and literacy, two important social resources. People are socialized within diverse literacies, based on diverse relationships to language and on diverse means of knowledge and meaning making; on the other hand, institutions support diverse definitions of literacy and knowledge.

**Literacy as a symbolic resource**

Bernstein (1990) and Bourdieu (1991) conceptualise language/literacy as complex symbolic means through which knowledge is transmitted, identities are constructed and expressed and class legacies organized and imposed. The two sociologists state that access to and control over language and literacy, seen as symbolic resources, create difference among individuals: in the ways in which these are able to engage not only in the processes specific to education, but also in the social processes and practices. The relationship among different social actors or among social actors and the institutions in which they work are supported by their access to the symbolic resources.

Bourdieu (1991:6) uses the term ‘symbolic power’ to define the (invisible) social power established through control over ‘symbolic resources’ (knowledge, discourse). The similar concept of ‘cultural goods’ is used by Fairclough (1989:55) who says that these goods are analogous with any ‘good’ of a more tangible nature, leading to struggle for and accumulation of ‘cultural capital’.

Fairclough (1989) and van Leeuwen (1997) put forward similar concepts when they discuss types of power/ways of exercising social power and the relationship of discourse to power – as a resource of power and as means in the enactment of power. In other words, only those who can understand, manage and control symbolic resources (language, literacy, knowledge) are invested with social power.

Fairclough (1989: 43) distinguishes between ‘power in discourse’ and ‘power behind discourse’ and connects ‘power in discourse’ to the control exercised by those in power over the contributions of the non-powerful participants in the interaction through imposing constraints - on contents (on what is said or done), on relations (the social relations people enter into discourse) and on subjects (on the ‘subject positions’ people can occupy). Similarly, van Dijk (1997:21) considers that hegemonic power is exercised through controlling the context, which he explains as controlling the nature of the communicative event (imposing a definition), controlling participants and their roles (who may be present, who may speak or listen, and who may speak as what); the powerful may define the overall aims or goals of the event, schedule it, provide agenda and control other circumstances of text and talk.

Bourdieu (1991:127) foregrounds the role of representations and of manipulating representations in exercising symbolic power; he explains that social actors have knowledge of the social world and one can act on the social world by acting on their knowledge of this world – this action aims to produce and impose representations (mental, verbal, etc.) of the social world which may be capable of acting on this world by acting on the social actors’ representations of it, in other words people are manipulated through language.

**Literacy and knowledge**

Knowledge is an important ‘symbolic resource’ organizing school/academic life, and it is a central concept in discussing literacy. Hasan’s (1996) theorizes literacy and proposes a framework for interpreting different approaches to literacy around the relationship literacy
has with knowledge; she discusses explicitly the use of reading and writing in different discourses of knowledge.

Hasan (1996: 415) considers that there are different facets of literacy that co-exist. Recognition literacy is defined as finite and non-negotiable and as establishing a relationship to knowledge that constructs learners as disempowered:

’Sociologists of educational knowledge have argued that school knowledge is typically knowledge that is produced elsewhere; it is relocated into the curricula; and the standards of educational system simply demand a degree of mastery of this already produced knowledge as a sign of educational success. So school knowledge comes to have norms largely by treating norms as a finished product – something has been created in the past by some other producers. But when it comes to producing knowledge, the situation is qualitatively different. Here the existing knowledge is the point of departure for the creation of something significantly different from it...the essential nature of knowledge in this context is to change within a framework of seeming stability.’ (Hasan, 1996: 406)

The role allocated to students in recognition literacy is to ‘learn’ the linguistic standards and formal expressions set up by an exterior body and inculcated in them by the teachers; the underlying message of this approach to the learners is that they should go on doing what others have been doing, to regard language as not socially motivated, and perhaps to conclude that at least some systems of knowledge are not open to questioning (explanations drawing either on appealing to tradition - this is just how we do it, or on appealing to the internal properties of language - this is what language is like, (Hasan, 1996: 390).

On the other hand, reflection literacy fosters ability to reflect, to analyse and to challenge what is defined ‘as true in nature'; old knowledge is taken only as a point of departure in creating new knowledge and the critical abilities enable students to participate in the process of creation of new knowledge:

‘It is from this kind of deeper understanding of what ‘the’ text means that we can move to explanation questions. For example pupils would not simply note the way a text is structured, but they would also ask why it is structured in the way it is; what would change, for whom and at what price, if the structure were to be changed? They would not simply observe whose voice(s) underlie messages of what category, they would also ask why these voices and these messages go together, what voices are absent and why.’ (Hasan, 1996: 411)

Hasan (1996: 409) believes that this type of literacy is taught invisibly (i.e. the teachers themselves are not aware of what they are doing) and that invisible pedagogy would have meaning only to those who are familiar with this voice as the voice of their speech fellowship; in other words only some students will be able to ‘log in’, while others will not.

To summarize the above brief theoretical overview, we can say that, based on literature and research, our assumptions are that (i) literacy is a social practice and it should be seen as situated, (ii) knowledge cannot be produced outside language/literacy, (iii) only certain types of literacy lead to critical thinking, empowerment and to participation in the process of creation of new knowledge, (iv) language and literacy are symbolic resources and access to and control over these resources is not natural , but it is distributed through struggle for symbolic power and (v) empowerment is gained through access, management and control over language/literacy.

**The findings of the study and its implications for education**

Reading, writing and/or talk around and about written language are present
education processes, whether educators and the learners are conscious or not of the texts, literacy practice and literacy events produced or existent in the process of teaching/learning.

Educators offer models of using literacy resources to the participants in the act of education and, at the same time, socialize learners into social practices and participation models through the educational process. Engaging the adult learner in literacy (social) practices through the process of education, and positioning these learners in certain ways, educators contribute to the further engagement of learners in such social practices outside the educational space, and to the way learners positions themselves in their families, workplaces or communities. The responsibility of educators is immense.

The social and symbolic aspects of literacy are multiple and multiple are the possibilities that educators can develop in order to configure the literacy embedded in the teaching of different contents, in such ways as to ‘educate’ their learners for social life. Below, we indicate some of the findings of our research and implicitly some of the ‘literacy resources’ that can be accessed by educators in order to socialize their learners for the knowledge society, through an effective use of literacy in the classroom:

The construction of ‘events’, space and time for learning: Our study shows that space and time for literacy are constructed exclusively as space and time for direct teaching activities and that students and teachers are expected to engage in literacy activities and to interact around texts only inside the classroom and within lectures and seminars. The institutional definition of space and time for literacy excludes any individual or group activity around texts that is not patterned as formal teaching – thus, through this classification of space and time for literacy, students and teachers are constrained to positions that create a power differential between them: in the classroom and in classes teachers are traditionally invested with authority and power over the students. On the other hand, students are denied the possibility to engage in literacy activities outside the classroom and to experience (as in the case of home literacy) models of literacy in which other members of the academic literacy network use reading and writing outside formal teaching.

When the educator ‘defines’ and ‘frames’ the learning event or activity (e.g. workshop, lecture, dialogue, reading, etc) he/she signals what resources and possibilities are available for the learners at the level of the content of the activity, the type of interaction among the actors involves and among the actors and the texts to be read or written. Defining the type of learning event, the organisation of time and space for literacy and learning indicate what is allowed and what is not, when, under what circumstances and what roles can the social actors take.

The texts chosen/used for reading and writing: The institutional ‘definitions’ of text types show that the majority of these definitions do not have genre consistency, but that they contain frames for ‘available’ ‘voices’ and possibilities of manifestation of the students’ identity (whether they should concentrate on language or literature, whether they should prepare the written text for assessment or for a different literacy event, etc).

The choices made by the educator regarding the texts, what he/she includes or excludes from the range of texts used or envisaged indicates to the learners ‘what counts’ and/or ‘what is valued’ as knowledge by the educator or at an institutional or social level. In addition, these choices can signal the expectations of the educator regarding the engagement of the learners in the process of genuine communication and in the process of knowledge making. Whether these texts capitalize on or include the experience previously acquired by the learners, their experience and their needs from outside the educational
space encourages the learners to feel included or excluded from the dialogue, to value or not the reading and writing activities they perform in everyday life.

**The negotiation and shaping of tasks:** The tasks assigned for students to write and the texts indicated for them to read recognise only a limited range of text types as ‘counting’ as academic and desirable; these tasks and texts invite students to repeat already produced knowledge, excluding any opportunity for the development of critical competences that would enable students to understand literacy as a socio-politically constructed practice. My study shows that in using reading and writing for engaging in the process of making and understanding academic knowledge, there is no opportunity for students to use and compare different literacies and thus, any possibility for them to take an informed position is absent.

When the educator formulates the tasks for the learners and when these tasks are negotiated with the learners, the educator indicates the ‘roles’ available for the learners in the dialogue with the other social actors participants in the teaching/learning process and in the dialogue about and around the written texts. The learners receive signals about the space they have to express their own identities and ideas (e.g. directions like ‘copy’, ‘describe’, ‘compare’, ‘analyse’ allow learners different degrees of liberstiy and creativity). The manner in which the educator shapes the tasks for learners indicates the approach to literacy and learning that the educator promotes/encourages: are the learners to engage in ‘recognition literacy’ (does the educator indicate that he/she values the re-production of knowledge) or are they to attempt to engage in reflective and critical literacy (does the educator indicate that the learner can challenge or question what is being taught/talked about).

**The communication around and about texts (talk about/arounf texts):** Talk about literacy and making sense of literacy are the two components that constitute ‘discourses about literacy’ as I have defined it in my research. I interpret task setting as ‘talk towards text’ and feedback, evaluation and marking as ‘(teacher) talk about (student) text’. On the other hand, tasks, feedback, evaluation and marking are the main elements that the students use in the process of making sense of academic literacy.

Through comparing ‘(teacher) talk around (student) texts’ against co-operative and egalitarian principles I show that students are assigned preponderantly the role of receivers of knowledge, they are excluded from the right to take certain turns and that teachers are always assigned the role to ‘interpret’ and ‘repair’ what has been said by students. This unequal dialogue in which teachers are represented as absent in most of the cases is based on a power differential between the teachers who have control over symbolic resources, both in terms of context and in terms of discourse structure.

Our research demonstrates that in education talk around and about texts are as important and significant as reading and writing - it leads to learning. Talk around and talk about literacy is constituted of a number of steps, among which: formulating the task, work directions, continuous feedback, evaluation, grading, etc. All these sequences indicate possible practices, roles, relationships and positionings for all those involved, educators and learners. The presence or absence of these sequences, their frequency, their transparency, etc signal what is expected of the learners, what can be done with texts, what is valued and what is important.

**Layout, types of communication, media of communication:** Our study confirms that the essay is the privileged academic genre, together with the ‘language focused texts’, and shows that the dominance and privileging of these genres emerge from the restricted
range of literacy practices they articulate around them - the symbolic literacy resources institutionally available to the students writing texts in these genres are controlled by the teachers/institution to a great extent. The literacy practices articulated around the essay and the ‘language focused text’ are situated exclusively inside the university and they draw upon a definition of literacy as single literacy, restricted to the traditional areas of literature; this definition of literacy values exclusively texts and experiences from inside the university, a definition of literacy as autonomous – disembedded from the social context.

The examination of the research projects confirm that there are alternative genres that open up academic literacy towards a social definition, as situated, multimodal and rooted in everyday use. Research projects show, through the richer range of literacy practices articulated around them, that academic literacy is not naturally constituted of the privileged genres, that the networks, roles and interactions surrounding written texts within the academic literacy environment can function on a more open and democratic basis.

In addition to the access students have had to alternative literacies while they were engaged in the process of researching and documenting for their research projects, students could draw on a number of genres and text types when they have written their projects and the posters used to make public their findings. Students could identify their own voice and they have used a number of strategies to signal their presence in the texts, both verbal and graphic/visual strategies.

Not only the content of texts used in the learning process, the type/genre of texts or the talk around and about these texts become symbolic resources in education. Including verbal and non-verbal texts, including written and spoken communication around and about texts, the type of resources the educator and the participants use or consult in the learning process (virtual or print resources, books, journals or other publications and texts, artefacts) introduces the learners to practices and resources that they (can) transfer outside the classroom, in their homes, workplaces or communities.

Further work
European citizens are expected to perform varied routines and activities in the ‘new economy’ workplace and to be part of institutional procedures, implicitly to play a number of roles; all the routines oblige people to draw on different literacy practices. Are the educators prepared to assist their learners to take these challenges? What are the additional/complementary competences needed by educators in order to be aware of the impact of the literacy environment of their teaching on their learners? Are there any specific implications for the adult educators?

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The views of Greek adult tutors about their professionalization: The case of Second Chance Schools and Adult Education Centres of Central Macedonia.

Introduction
Professionalization, essential to helping adult education play a more central role (Merriam, 1997), is a long process “that, according to Vollmer and Mills, may affect any occupation to a greater or lesser degree (Cervero, 1988), by which an occupation succeeds over a period of time in meeting the criteria of a professional gamut and, according to Johnson, seeks to gain status and privilege (Eraut, 1994, Shah, 2008).

Professionalization has primarily an economic function in society in that it is a means of maintaining this system of social inequality (Cervero, 1988).

An essential prerequisite for the professionalization of adult education is the development of a well designed professional training programme with adequate institutional backing, certification procedures and code of practice (Shah, 2008). The professionalization of trainers is gaining greater importance than ever before: trainers will not only have to be good professionals in their fields, but will also need to learn the basic principles of adult education...in a dialectical process where the teacher is also a learner and the learner, in learning, teaches the teacher“ (English, 2005). The introduction of training is a sign of increasing professionalization of adult education, but because the education of adults occurs in a variety of sectors of society it is not possible to consider it as a single profession (Jarvis and Chadwick, 1996).

The professionalization of adult education includes all those “elements which have placed emphasis on providing adult education with a sound theoretical base, have emphasized research and the application of scientific standards to methods, materials and the organization of the field and have promoted the need for professional training and staffing“ (Shah, 2008).

Professionalization involves having a specialized knowledge base that can be passed on to others... (Rowden, 1996). Professionalization has been a source of much debate and disagreement and one of the most perplexing concerns facing those who engage in the education of adults (Merriam, 1997) Cervero is aware of some of the dangers of professionalization-routinization of practice and deference to prevailing ideologies-not only among the beneficiaries of continuing education, but also among its practitioners (Cervero, 1988).

The characteristics of professionalization Houle discuss reflect the dynamic nature of the concept. This dynamic quality is in contrast to the static denotation of the term professionalism. Any vocation wanting to become more professional must attend to the dynamic characteristics of professionalization. Houle (1980) studied 17 occupations which in the United States, and probably in many industrialized nations, have been most concerned with professionalization. Houle (1980) suggests there are fourteen essential characteristics, all but one of which is a candidate, alone or in combination with others, for a goal or objective in continuing professional education:
1. clarification of the defining functions of the occupation,
2. mastery of theoretical knowledge,
3. capacity to solve problems,
4. use of practical knowledge,
5. self-enhancement beyond the speciality to maintain perspective,
6. formal training-education in the essential knowledge and techniques,
7. credentialing or other designation of those qualified to practice,
8. creation of a professional subculture,
9. legal reinforcement of professional privileges,
10. public acceptance of a distinctive role,
11. ethical practices and procedures for dealing with ethical issues,
12. penalties for substandard performance,
13. relations to other vocations and
14. relations to users of service.

The fourteen characteristics of professionalization can never be fully achieved and, as Houle points out, “the race for professional accomplishment has no finish line”. Overall, these fourteen characteristics should constitute the goals for vocations seeking increased professionalization and for professional development (Langenbach, 1993, Knox and McLeish, 1989). Professional development involves learning new techniques and knowledge (Hillier, 2005), enhances the process of professionalization (Galbraith & Zelenak, 1989) and is at a crossroads (Lester, 1994).

In recent years, many factors have converged to steadily increase the momentum toward professionalization of the field of adult literacy (Sabatini, Daniels, Ginsburg, Limeul, Russell & Stites, 2000).

Three important elements of professionalization in the field have been professional associations, professional literature and information resources, and graduate study (Merriam, 1997).

Defining factors that benefit the professionalization

Professional associations

Professional association is an association organized by and on behalf of a high status occupation to control its own affairs, including the education and training of recruits and continuing professional education of its members (Jarvis, 1999). Professional associations play a variety of roles (Merriam, 1997, p. 222), exist in a wide range of types (Lester, 2007) and differ in the variety of purposes they have set for themselves (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994). Associations are also defined by the geographical range of the audiences they serve (in other words, their scope). Five such levels include local, state-provincial, regional, national and international (Merriam, 1997). Professional associations may have two different kinds of consequences: beneficial and harmful.

Professional adult education associations are found in almost every nation but yet general knowledge of these organizations is limited (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994). Many different types of professional associations serve and make a vital contribution to the development of the adult and continuing education field. Some of these aim to serve the needs of individual adult educators, others direct their services toward either institutions that provide services for adult learners or toward linking several adult education professional associations. In adult education, professional associations provide benefits to individuals, the field and society (Merriam, 1997). Fellenz (1981) cites professional adult education associations as a critical element in the growth of adult and continuing education.
Difficult
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people
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2373/2003
2004).
In
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2004).
Teaching
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2005α
&
2005β).
The
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of
movement
of
the
educators
among
the
different
educational
institutes
has
not
been
investigated
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but
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annual
contracts
encourage
the
movement
and
thus
the
educators
are
committed
to
adult
education
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in
the
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of
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(Jarvis,
2004).
In
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2373/2003
(Δουόκας,
2003,
Μαντζανάρης,
2007).
Teaching
in
school
is
an
important
full-time
job
for
the
part-time
educators
and
this
creates
great
questions
about
the
educators'
education
and
to
what
extent
prepares
people
for
adult
teaching.
We
can
see
the
insecurity
possessed
by
the
part-time
educators.
This
matter
is
not
something
new
and
does
not
exist
only
in
Greece
(Παπαγεωργίου,
2008).

Defining factors that make the professionalization of the adult tutor difficult

The labor established order of the adult tutors

Mee
and
Wiltshire
(1978:20-21
στο
Jarvis)
are
referring
to
three
categories
of
adult
tutors
regarding
the
labor
established
order:
those
who
have
a
full-time
occupation,
those
who
have
a
part-time
occupation
and
those
who
are
occupied
in
their
free
time.
Houle
(1960
&
1970)
talks
about
a
«pyramid
of
authority»:
volunteer
educators
are
put
on
the
basis,
part-
time
educators
with
reward
are
put
in
the
middle
and
full-time
professionals
are
put
on
the
top
(Galbraith
&
Zelenak,
1989,
Jarvis,
2004,
Rose,
1998).
Some
part-time
adult
tutors
may
have
another
job
as
temporary
occupation
and
determine
their
role
according
to
this
while
other
part-time
educators
do
not
have
another
job
and
think
that
their
job
is
adult
tutors.
In
both
cases,
Mee
&
Wiltshire
and
Graham
face
adult
education
as
an
activity
for
pleasure
and
fun
(Jarvis,
2004).

The
adult
tutor's
role
has
many
faces
(Willis,
2002): challenges
the
learner
to
move
to
increasingly
advanced
stages
of
personal
development
(Cross,
1981),
can
effectively
inculcate
knowledge
and
skills
to
others
(Oni,
2007)
and
for
educators
working
with
excluded
groups
within
communities,
it
is
more
important
a
more
positive
and
productive
learning
environment
(Coare
&
Johnston,
2003).

In
Greece
three
categories
of
educators
appear.
In
the
first
category
there
are
almost
6,000
full-time
cadres
that
are
activated
in
education
centers
and
state
services.
Many
of
them
have
important
experience
but
not
specialized
knowledge
and
abilities
(Vergidis,
1992) around
the
issues
of
adult
education,
designing,
organizing
and
evaluating
programs.

On
the
other
hand,
society
does
not
offer
them
educational
opportunities
and
does
not
demand
from
them
to
have
similar
knowledge
in
order
to
carry
out
their
duties.
The
243
educators’
trainers,
who
attended
an
educational
program
in
order
to
be
testified,
belong
to
the
second
category.
In
the
third
category
we
can
include
the
thousands
of
people
who
have
hourly
wages
with
annual
contracts
of
adult
tutors
(Κόκκος,
2005α
&
2005β).
The
rate
of
movement
of
the
educators
among
the
different
educational
institutes
has
not
been
investigated
yet
but
it
seems
that
annual
contracts
encourage
the
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and
thus
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educators
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committed
to
adult
education
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in
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the
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educators.
This
matter
is
not
something
new
and
does
not
exist
only
in
Greece
(Παπαγεωργίου,
2008).
Aim of the research: objectives and inquiring questions

The purpose of the research was the searching of the views of the Greek adult tutors in connection with their professionalization.

In particular, as apportioned research objectives had been established the following ones:
- The determinative factors, which according to the adult tutors reinforce their professionalization, should be searched.
- The determinative factors, which according to the adult tutors make difficult their professionalization, should also be searched.

Inquiring questions
OBJECT A: The defining factors that reinforce their professionalization, according to the adult tutors.
Inquiring Question A.1: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering their participation in professional/trade-union associations?
Inquiring Question A.2: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the special studies or further education on their own initiative in adult education issues?

OBJECT B: The defining factors that make difficult their professionalization, according to the adult tutors.
Inquiring Question B.1: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the labor established order (part-time or full-time)?
Inquiring Question B.2: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering sex?
Inquiring Question B.3: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering age?
Inquiring Question B.4: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the state policy about the further education of the adult tutors?

Method
The interview was the method of qualitative survey that was chosen. The unstructured interview was used in the research, which is an open situation that has bigger flexibility and freedom without having the meaning of a random case but being carefully designed (Cohen & Manion, 1994).

The researcher used a questionnaire that was the adjustment of two other questionnaires (one Greek and one foreign). These questionnaires have been pondered and successfully tested each one of them serving its own goals. The interview’s questionnaire was initially starting with «close» questions and continuing with «open» questions.

For the survey’s needs Second Chance Schools were chosen alongside with the Adult Education Centers of the district of Central Macedonia. Second Chance Schools (SDE) concern young people above 18 years old who have not completed the nine-year compulsory education and Adult Education Centres (KEE) is a project that aims to provide basic and new basic skills at a local level by creating a network of centres in all prefectures all around the country (Sipitanou & Zarifis, 2006).
Thirty two interviews were realized in total, the eighteen of them were realized with educators of the Adult Education Centers and fourteen with educators of A

the Second Chance Schools. The difference in the number of interviews is based on the fact that there are Adult Education Centers in the seven prefectures of the Central Macedonia while Second Chance Schools exist only in five prefectures of Central Macedonia. All the interviews were realized in a particular period, from the beginnings of February till the endings of March in 2008. During this period, all the educators were teaching in a class (this was valid for the educators of the Adult Education Centers).

Control of the inquiring questions
Defining factors that benefit their professionalization

After the working out of the questionnaires from the interviews, the inquiring questions were put into the testing of the empirical control. At this point a clarification should be made, considering the «measurement» of the professionalization: this was achieved through the three questions of the questionnaire. The first question was referring to the income percentage of the adult tutor from the Adult Education (Π1), the second one was referring to his self-determination as professional educator (Π2) and in the third question the educators were questioned if the Adult Education is their one and only basic activity (Π3). These three questions were observed in relation with the determinative factors that favor the professionalization of the Adult tutors (participation in trade-union/professional associations and special studies/further education of Adult tutors on their own initiative) and make difficult the professionalization of Adult tutors (labor established order, sex, age, state policy for the further education of Adult tutors)

Then, the first objective of the research was checked.

OBJECT A: The determinative factors, which according to the Adult tutors reinforce their professionalization.

Inquiring Question A.1: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering their participation in professional/trade-union associations?

According to the results of the survey twenty one/thirty two educators are enrolled in a professional/trade-union association.

Making the relation between the twenty one educators and the three questions for the «measurement» of the professionalization, the following are observed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adult Education Center</td>
<td>Second Chance School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Educators</td>
<td>Number of Educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Income (Π1)</td>
<td>9 educators (=7,2%)</td>
<td>11 educators (100%) &amp; 1 educator (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination as professional educator (Π2)</td>
<td>3 part-time are self-determined as educators and 6 are not.</td>
<td>11 educators are self-determined as educators and 1 is not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic activity or not basic activity (Π3)</td>
<td>1 educator as basic activity and 8 educators as not basic activity.</td>
<td>11 educators as basic activity &amp; 1 as not basic activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the three factors (Π1, Π2, Π3) the educators of the Second School Chance have high rates of professionalization while the educators of the Adult Education Center have
low rates of professionalization. Furthermore, the educators of the Second School Chance have high percentages of participation in professional/trade-union associations while the educators of the Adult Education Centers have lower percentages of participation. Thus the participation in professional/trade-union associations seems that affects the professionalization. The educators of the Second School Chance combine high professionalization with high rate of participation in professional/trade-union associations while the educators of the Adult Education Centers have lower rates of professionalization alongside with the lower percentages of participation in professional/trade-union associations. Thus the inquiring question A.1 can be answered positively in a sense of recognition of participation in professional/trade-union associations as defining professionalization factor.

Inquiring Question A.2: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the special studies/further education on their own initiative?

According to the results of the survey the thirty/thirty two adult tutors do not have special studies in Adult education while the majority of them (20/32) is interested in their further education on their own initiative in subjects related with adult education.

Thus there is not sufficient pragmatic material in order for the inquiring question A.2 to be answered.

**Defining factors that make difficult their professionalization**

The second objective of the research was checked.

**OBJECT B:** The determinative factors that make their professionalization difficult, according to adult educators.

Inquiring Question B.1: Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the labor established order (part-time and full-time)?

According to the results of the survey all adult educators of adult education centers (18 educators) are working part-time while in Second chance school the 10 to 14 adult tutors are working full-time and the 4 to 14 are working part-time.

In conclusion, the 22/32 adult tutors are part-time workers and 10/32 are full-time workers. To be more analytic, making a relation between the full-time adult tutors (10) and the part-time adult tutors (22) alongside with the three questions about the «measurement» of the professionalization the following are observed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Adult Education Center Part-time</th>
<th>Second Chance School Number of Educators Part-time</th>
<th>Full-time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income Percentage (Π1s)</strong></td>
<td>11 (=8%) 6 (=20%) 1 (=100%)</td>
<td>2 (=100%) &amp; 2 (=5%) &amp; 33%</td>
<td>10 (=100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-determination as professional educator (Π2)</strong></td>
<td>6 part-time are self-determined as educators and 12 are not.</td>
<td>2 are self-determined as educators and 2 are not.</td>
<td>10 are self-determined as educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Basic or not basic activity (Π3)</strong></td>
<td>5 as basic and 13 as not basic activity.</td>
<td>3 as basic and 1 as not basic activity.</td>
<td>10 as basic activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the three factors (Π₁, Π₂, Π₃) the full-time educators of the Second chance school have high rates of professionalization while the educators of the Adult education center have low rates of professionalization. Moreover, the full-time educators of the Second Chance School call themselves trainers-educators, the part-time educators of the Second Chance School do not call themselves trainers-educators while the educators of the Adult Education Center have lower percentages of self-determination as trainers-educators. Thus the labor established order of the full-time seems to affect the professionalization. The full-time educators of the Second Chance School combine high professionalization while the educators of the Adult Education Center have lower professionalization rates. Thus the inquiring question B.1 can be answered positively in a sense of the labor established order of the full-time working as defining factor of professionalization.

**Inquiring Question B.2:** Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate depending on the sex?

According to the results of the research all men adult tutors of Adult Education Center and Second Chance School (13/28) and (15/28) of the women believe that the sex does not affect their professional career.

For this reason, there is not sufficient pragmatic material in order for the inquiring question B.2 to be answered and to be proved a relation among the adult tutors’ views regarding their professionalization and their sex.

**Inquiring Question B.3:** Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the age?

According to the results of the research the age does not influence the 23/32 of the adult tutors of the Adult Education Center and Second Chance School to their professional development.

Thus there is not sufficient pragmatic material in order for the inquiring question B.3 to be answered and to be proved a relation among the adult tutors’ views regarding their professionalization and their age.

**Inquiring Question B.4:** Do the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization differentiate considering the state policy for the further education of the adult tutors?

According to the results of the survey an important number of adult tutors in Second Chance Schools (13/14) and in Adult Education Centers has received special education in adult education issues on the initiative of the institute for continuing adult education.

To sum up, it is obvious that the state policy as far as the further education of the adult tutors is concerned helps their professionalization.

Making a relation between the twenty eight educators and the three questions about the «measurement» of the professionalization it was seen that there is not sufficient pragmatic material in order for the inquiring question B.4 to be answered. Thus according to the research it is not feasible for a relation to be substantiated between the views of the adult tutors regarding their professionalization and the state policy for the further education of the adult tutors.

Summarizing the main points, the research demonstrated that the participation in professional/trade-union associations and the labor established order of full-time working, constitute defining professionalization factors whereas as far as the sex, the age and the special studies/further education of the adult tutors is concerned, with their own initiative or with the initiative of their conveyor, there is not enough pragmatic material.
Discussion

The research in many points confirms the bibliography. Something that was proved through the survey is that it is extremely difficult for someone to do a job without having a variety of knowledge, special abilities, when he is a part-time worker and not paid. This reality is still in force for every educator of the Adult Education Centers and for the part-time educators of the Second Chance School. It seems that this fact influences their professionalization extent since they do not feel like composing a clear professional group. As a result they are not committed to their working conveyor and they seek either a second job post or another new occupation. Actually, it is not random that most of them are doing another job, many times irrelevant to adult teaching or teaching in Adult Education Centers and Second Chance Schools. They face it as a second occupation. It is possible for them either to have a class or not, three months later. For this reason, they operate with different psychology. As far as the job of the adult tutors is concerned, we have to admit that there is not an essential difference, since the willingness, the interest and the attempt seem to «appear» from their words in both categories of education.

According to the bibliographical data that are confirmed by the survey, the vast majority of the part-time adult tutors in Adult Education Centers and Second Chance Schools consider themselves professionals of their basic studies domain. Thus, the adult tutor determines himself as nutritionist, nurse, electrical engineer, photographer, bank clerk, and psychologist. The difference between them and the full-time adult tutor in Second Chance Schools is that the second ones not only have done basic studies in a scientific field but also they prefix the characterization of educator first and second what they teach. Thus they determine themselves as educators of artistic, linguistic, scientific and social studies and not as musicians, philologists, geologists and lawyers.

About the defining factors:

First of all, a basic defining factor that favors the professionalization of the adult tutors of Central Macedonia is their participation in professional/trade-union associations. According to the results of the survey, from what full-time adult tutors in Second Chance Schools say, their participation in a professional/trade-union association gives them «familiarization», «protection of their rights», «harmony with their colleagues» (notes from the recorded interviews), organization for every rightful demand.

A second defining factor that favors the professionalization of the adult tutors of Central Macedonia is the labor established order (both full-time and part-time). In Second Chance Schools ten adult tutors work full-time and the rest twenty two work part-time in Adult Education Centers and Second Chance Schools. Confirming the bibliography, the research demonstrated that some part-time adult tutors had another job as temporary occupation and they determined themselves according to this while others, very few indeed- that they did not do other job- determined themselves as adult tutors. Thus for these educators the occupation in Adult Education Centers or in Second Chance Schools has a flexible character, they do not face it as a profession and when they find a better one (even if it is a second occupation), they abandon it. In addition, it was proved that there is a movement coming from the adult tutors among the different programs of the Adult Education (they move from program to program or they occupy themselves simultaneously in two programs of the same conveyor). Also, the educators feel insecure because they do not know if they will be occupied continuously, if new departments of their specialty will be created next year etc.
On the other hand, all the full-time adult tutors of the Second Chance Schools determine themselves as educators-trainers and they do not do another job. They are educators on detachment from the second degree or the first degree of education, they have many years of experience in education, they work in Second Chance Schools from 2 to 5 years and they feel satisfied from what they give and take from the trainees. They do not feel the insecurity the part-time educators feel, since they are permanent educators and even if they won’t be chosen by the Second Chance Schools they are going to work in a school. Finally, the whole part of their income comes from the Adult Education. The three factors (self-determination of adult tutors as educators-trainers, income from Adult Education and Adult Education as main activity) constitute high rates of professionalization for the full-time educators of Second Chance Schools.

For the rest of the factors (the special studies/further education on their own initiative, the sex, the age and the state policy about the education of the adult tutors) the pragmatic material of the research is not enough and substantiated position for these four factors has not been formed, if they reinforce or make more difficult the professionalization of the adult tutors in Central Macedonia.

To be more analytic, let’s focus on the special studies in Adult Education: the adult tutors of Central Macedonia display very low percentages since from the 32 adult tutors of the survey only 2 have done special studies in Adult Education. On the contrary, they are interested in acquiring more things on their own initiative.

As far as the sex is concerned, the research demonstrated that all men of Adult Education Centers and Second Class Schools (13 in total) believe that sex does not affect their professionalization.

Finally, the survey about the state policy and the further education of the adult tutors of Central Macedonia has shown that the educators would like to attend seminars on specific topics. This proves that the adult tutors are more interested in being educated. They also want to be and better as educators against their trainees.

**Restrictions of the research-Perspectives for further searching**

Despite the weaknesses that appear in the survey, a balancing was attempted with the covering of the periphery of Central Macedonia where Second Chance Schools and Adult Education Centers function in spite of the fact that the population of the participants consisted of a small number of educators, who were teaching in city, town and village.

Consequently, it would be interesting a future attempt of expansion in other areas of the country to be made in order to check in details the accuracy of the conclusions found in the diplomatic survey.

Furthermore, the conduct of a comparative survey with all the sectors of the Adult Education Centers with an urban, semi-urban and agricultural law, would be of high importance. Thus we can testify if the same defining factors influence the professionalization of the adult tutors or they differentiate and to what extent.

Also, an investigation of further factors would be something useful. We can find them, search which can be measured, appreciated and lead to safe conclusions as far as professionalization is concerned. It is possible for some other factors to lead us to different conclusions. If they exist, they should be examined. The researcher couldn't reach to safe and sufficient conclusions even for the factors that were feasible to be examined (sex, age, and labor established order).
Finally, it would be interesting for all of us to measure the professionalization of the Greek adult tutors by focusing not on their views but on objective criteria of measurement of their professionalization rate (for instance, percentage of the income from Adult Education in relation to the total income of the adult tutor, certification of the specialty of the adult tutor etc).

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SECTION 4
PLENARY PRESENTATIONS
PART 1 | Highlights of major European initiatives and projects

PASCAL Universities’ Regional Engagement project (PURE)

DUKE, Chris
RMIT, Australia

PURE Methodological, Political and Philosophical Issues.

The Involvement of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Regional Development – characteristics and benefits of two approaches

This note sets out how two concurrent approaches to the contribution of HEIs to regional development differ in complementary ways – the Review of Higher Education in Regional and City Development 2008-2010 of Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) OECD, and the Pascal Universities and Regional Engagement (PURE) project of the Pascal International Observatory.

The organisations

IMHE as part of OECD is an association of subscribing universities within an intergovernmental organisation (IGO) accountable to and controlled by the OECD Ministers. OECD is highly respected and taken seriously by governments. OECD’s mission is with economic development, and other policies seen in an economic perspective. IMHE OECD works to a prescribed biennial Programme of Work. Its mission is with the management of higher education.

Pascal is a light-touch international nongovernmental organisation (INGO) led by senior professional people. These are drawn from the public policy and academic sectors, and committed to enhancing collaboration and knowledge-sharing between the public policy-making and academic worlds, resulting in better practice and continuing learning. Pascal’s mission is to enhance the capacity to use knowledge, learn, and do better, on the part of organisations of all kinds in the public arena, and to foster balanced development. Social, civic and environmental issues are as central as the economic and educational.

Origins of the two studies

OECD has undertaken several studies of the contribution of higher education to regional development in and since the nineties, producing reports in 1999 (IMHE) and 2001 (CERI). Pascal was created in the context of a large OECD Conference based on the CERI study and hosted by the Government of Victoria in Australia in 2002. Pascal was formed by RMIT University in association with OECD and the State of Victoria. It is now administered from nodes in three continents.

The most recent OECD work was its reviews in 14 regions, Supporting the Contribution of Higher Education Institutions to Regional Development, managed by IMHE in collaboration with the OECD Directorate for Public Governance and Territorial Development and the English Higher Education Funding Council. It comprised a self-

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75 Jarl Bengtsson Pascal Chair and Chris Duke Academic Director PURE. September 2009.
evaluation review (SER) by each region followed by an evaluative visit of an OECD expert group to produce a ‘peer review report’ (PRR). That work in 2004-06 resulted in the 2007 report Higher Education and Regions. Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged. Members of Pascal played key roles in this work.

In 2007 and 2008 IMHE and Pascal discussed future developments through meetings in Valencia, Pecs and Limerick. There followed a new round of IMHE work to review higher education in regional and city development in 15 regions, in 2008-10, and a separate Pascal Project on Universities and Regional Engagement (PURE), with an initial cohort also of 15 regions for the same period.

Objectives of the two studies

Pascal PURE values balanced regional development, and strengthening the 3rd mission of tertiary and higher education. It operates as a partnership of the two main parties working together, and is concerned with all aspects of ‘the health of regions’. Pascal’s governing body, like the PURE Advisory Network drawn from the Regions, comprises members of regions and of higher education institutions. In terms of participating regions, it is deliberately eclectic, allowing for diversity of regions. This allows it to explore the potential of different kinds of regions and authorities to work for development. Low-population rural and remote regions and ‘non-general-authority’ regions are included, as well as large city regions and small countries, seen as single ‘regions’. PURE also considers ‘tertiary’ issues – how the higher and non-higher tertiary elements may connect systemically; and it explores ways of measuring progress formatively.

PURE is an action research and development project, flexible and adaptive to the diverse needs and capacities of different kinds of regions within a common rationale, framework and set of purposes. It facilitates an ongoing community of learning regions, networked as a single international community, which includes sub-group Clusters that relate to different particular circumstances and priorities. PURE operates as an open information-sharing system.

IMHE is centrally interested in the management of universities; its Board of Management consists of university stakeholders. Since IMHE is also part of the IGO OECD, it considers only recognised regions in the national/federal governance structures’, that is, ‘recognised in terms of national administration’.

By taking regions that are part of the national and regional government structure, IMHE is able to use OECD’s full standard economic and related data bases in reviewing regions across a strong set of indicators; IMHE connects with other OECD data sources in creating a regional profile to inform the two reviews which are the heart of the work.

For 2008-10 IMHE has continued as its ‘key questions’ the general objectives of the earlier study about policies, practices and mechanisms that help mobilise higher education for regional development, and about how to make reforms happen. Like PURE it has added a question about the impact of the economic crisis, along with the challenging question ‘Which brings greater benefit to cities and regions: a high performing regionally focused HEI system or a single world class university?’

Methods of working
The IMHE methodology employs the same evaluative methodology as was used in 2004-06, supplemented by some additional questions and a facility for electronic interactivity. Its carefully detailed template requires regions to undertake a rigorous self-analysis, and to produce a lengthy report of up to 80 pages; it is expected that this will take the region 3-6 months to complete.

An IMHE administrator visits the Region to agree a single week-long review visit. An IMHE administrator and three outside experts (one national, two from elsewhere), acting as a ‘peer review group’, then meet different parties and judge the relationship and contribution of HE to the Region’s development. The central outcome is two twinned studies, the self-evaluation review report (SER), and the visiting experts’ report (PRR). These reports feed into an OECD synthesis report at the end of the biennium, which will be prepared by IMHE. IMHE offers to help with a national event to share the findings within each country of which a participating region is a part.

IMHE also organises periodic briefing and roundtable type events. Regions send participants to be informed by other authoritative OECD experience of the issues. These events enable exchange between regional leaders and representatives, supported by electronic exchange to assist network-building. The main IMHE dynamic is the evaluative review, managed by IMHE as part of an authoritative intergovernmental organisation.

PURE is developmental and highly participatory – operating as a web rather than spokes of a wheel. The main dynamic is not judgemental but developmental. Whereas IMHE requires a detailed and fully documented self-evaluation review, PURE requires only a much briefer outline Regional Profile. This is followed by a Regional Briefing Paper preparing for an initial visit by a Consultative Development Group of four (all international, or one from the same country and three from elsewhere). Following preparatory discussion the CDG visits for 3-4 days, focusing on the Region’s perception of priority needs and exploring together what strategies might advance these. CDG members are frequently drawn from other PURE participating Regions, thereby strengthening inter-regional exchange and learning.

Following the preparation and adoption of an agreed Regional review report (RVR1), each Region then develops an Action Plan in consultation with a network of senior PURE professionals. Clusters of Regions within the full cohort enable deeper shared analysis and comparison of the issues most important to them, as chosen by each Region. Each Region then works on its own Action Plan, connecting to other Regions with communications support from the PURE office, Cluster interactivity, and mentors for its Action Plan work as well as for Cluster participation. The Consultative Development Group returns to the Region, again for 3-4 days, a year after the initial visit.

Pascal is developing unique tools to identify and benchmark progress in the processes and results of engagement between HEIs and their Regions, sharing initial trialling, with follow-up application a year later. This work, the work of the several specialised Clusters of Regions, and the experience of each participating region, including examples of outstanding good practice, are drawn together in an interim synthesis report combining theoretical analysis with strategies and methods for improving the processes and benefits of engagement.

It will be clear that the two programmes and approaches offer different benefits and are complementary. One Region is taking part in both programmes. It is quite likely that other Regions, seeing the different advantages of the different approaches, will over time...
do likewise as the two programmes continue, with new Regions taking part, after 2010. This note is prepared to assist them in making such a decision.

The PASCAL Universities Regional Engagement (PURE) project – Background

The project concerns the Higher Education system of regions (including both universities and HE component of VET) and its engagement with those regions. It is a development from work of an OECD programme conducted by the Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) in collaboration with the Directorate of Territorial Development and Public Governance. The thematic review project «Supporting the contribution of HEIs to regional development» embraced 14 regions across 12 countries. The study was based on regional self-evaluations and international peer reviews. Reports of the 14 regions have been published on the public domain. The final synthesis report, Higher Education and Regions – Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged, was published in 2007 and is available in English, French and Spanish (see http://www.oecd.org/document/48/0,3343,en_2649_35961291_39872432_1_1_1_1,00.html). The study provided guidance in policy and practice for higher education institutions and regional and national governments and assisted with capacity-building in each country/region. Among the conclusions of this first phase of studies is that the potential of higher education institutions to contribute to the economic, social and cultural development of their regions is far from being fully realised. The report of this phase analyses the barriers to improvement, and suggests that universities should adopt a wide agenda of regional development - economic, social or cultural. It recommends that greater autonomy and better incentives be given to institutions and their staff to engage with small and medium-sized business. It also recommends that countries should provide a more supportive environment for university-enterprise co-operation including regulatory and tax environment. The report also suggests that instead of focusing on the supply-side of knowledge transfer, countries should develop business demand for university interaction. Universities themselves should become more entrepreneurial, widen their service portfolio and address the needs of wider range of firms and employers. The report emphasises the importance of “knowledge transfer on legs” - i.e. the students and graduates who can be one of the most effective mechanisms for knowledge transfer. The feedback from the 14 regions involved in that study was positive: the project has improved the ability of the regions and HEIs to share experience, interact, work together and communicate. Partnerships within the regions have been strengthened. An overwhelming majority of the regions were satisfied both with the quality and timeliness of the international peer review.

Current Work

The PASCAL International Observatory Pascal (see http://www.obs-pascal.com) is an organisation with a strong panel of expert Associates, including OECD lead and other evaluators. PASCAL grew out of OECD’s work in Regional Development from the late nineties, and was created at the International OECD Conference convened in Melbourne with the State of Victoria and RMIT University in 2002. Its work has expanded through
Europe where it has a European base at the University of Glasgow, a US base at Northern Illinois University and an Australian administrative HQ at RMIT University, Melbourne. Its strong Panel of Associates includes Peer Reviewers from 12 of the fourteen OECD 2004-07 Project regions (19 of the 56 reviewer positions), and several members of Self- Evaluation Review teams. PASCAL has extended and developed previous work to a series of new regions, who are currently engaged in a two-year study from 1 January 2009 to 31 December 2010. The project entitled, the PASCAL Universities Regional Engagement (PURE) project takes further several important issues identified but not fully addressed in 2004-07 with 16 regions around the world. These regions are:
- Bukersud County, Norway
- Darling Downs, Australia
- Essex County, England
- Flanders Region, Belgium
- Gaborone City, Botswana
- Glasgow City, Scotland
- Helsinki Metropolitan Region, Finland
- Kent County, England
- Jamtland Region, Sweden
- Lesotho
- Melbourne City, Australia
- Northern Illinois
- Puglia Region, Italy
- South-Trans-Danubian Region, Hungary
- Thames Gateway, London, England
- Varmland Region, Sweden

New areas for work for PURE include:
• to monitor and compare approaches to the innovation system and human capacity-building work of HEIs across all strands of balanced social development - cultural, civil society, health and welfare, environmental as well as economic,
• to identify barriers and ways of overcoming them, where appropriate trying out approaches new to partnership and organization, successful in other regions,
• to interrogate and use existing data more effectively and study the impact of HE partnership on regional development, with realistic tasks and targets for HE partnership-based regional development (metrics and impact evaluation) including ‘soft’ social, cultural, health and sustainability dimensions,
• possibly then to opt into selected benchmarking activities,
• to explore the impact on regions of global warming and other ecological questions such as transportation, waste management and disposal, and the contribution of HEIs where science and social science can be applied e.g. to the intelligent energy agenda,
• to analyse and compare trends towards and away from greater devolution,
• to compare different intermediary models for university engagement,
• to exchange approaches to advocating engagement nationally and rolling out regional engagement elsewhere in their countries.

Clearly not all regions involve themselves in all activities, and PASCAL agrees with regions as to which one or more of the eight areas they wish to focus on. Thereafter PASCAL agrees a work plan with regions. This includes two visits from an international review group assembled from its associates, and the teams both academics and regional planners. Many
review methodologies require regions to undertake a detailed status self-review, using a common general template, before there is any outside involvement from a review group. PURE differs in several ways from such approaches. It seeks to be tailored to the unique circumstances of change in each region. Rather than offering just evaluative and judgmental reviews, PURE seeks to bring to each region a consultative and developmental approach (hence the term for its review team of a Consultative Development Group (CDG)). There is an explicit focus from the outset on changing and improving the quality of partnership, and on beneficial outcomes in terms of regional development, which will also benefit the higher education (HE) sector. Direct exchange with other regions sharing similar ambitions and challenges assists practical learning, and the adoption of good practice. CDGs reinforce the PURE networking approach, drawing members where possible from other participating regions, and ‘twinning’ regions so that ‘reciprocal reviewers’ between regions share common interests. This is what we term as ‘peer reviewing’. In the review process it is essential to be able to learn from past and present experience, and to be able to make best use of data available from all sources to inform regional governance and the management of productive partnership. In order to do so we work with regions via a dedicated Link Partner and local representative Regional Co-ordinating Group, and we use well--validated benchmarking tools within the HEI system and regions. The central purpose of PURE is to improve what happens in the region, and to work for the continuation and sustainability of good practices. It is action-oriented. We are also creating asynchronous (text) and synchronous discussions (PC-based video) within clusters that cross regions to exchange good practices. Currently the 7 clusters that have emerged are:

- Regional Innovation and Renewal
- Social Inclusion and Active Citizenship
- Creative and Cultural Industries
- Green Skills and Jobs
- Tertiary Systems
- Sustaining Rural and Remote Communities
- Lifelong Learning and the Learning Region

Benefits of being involved for regions
- Participating where appropriate in the strands of action inquiry set out above.
- Specific opportunities for international benchmarking; access to transferable practice across regions; and direct learning from regions already engaged in analysing how higher education can support regional competitiveness and balanced, sustainable development.
- Connecting with regions both within the OECD and outside in clusters of common interest mediated through web-conferencing, face to face meetings and twinning visits. This reflects the reality of global learning and global regional competitiveness.

Cost
The normal cost to regions of involvement is €25,000 per year for two years, a total of €50,000, subject to normal inflationary rises each year.

Next Steps
We are starting a new cohort of studies with new regions in January 2010, and we would
very much wish to include a range of new regions. This timing will allow for exchange not only with other regions in that new cohort, but also with regions in cohort 1 above. Currently we are discussing involvement with the following cities/regions: Aegean, Alberta, Algarve, Belfast, Bornholm, Brittany, Colorado, Cyprus, Dublin, Florida, Manchester, Newcastle New South Wales, Newfoundland, Nord Pas de Calais, Oresund (Denmark/Sweden), Shannon, South of England, South-West England, Stoke-on-Trent and Tasmania By no means all of these regions will take part, but certainly there will be another viable cohort, and we will extend the list of interested regions above, especially in Asia and Latin America. We are very happy to discuss PURE in much further detail, and we’d be glad to discuss this in person in Thessaloniki or by tele/video conference, and indeed visit if there is a basis for taking things to the next level.

Contact: pureadmin@educ.gla.ac.uk
PURE Site: http://www.obs-pascal.com
PURE Clusters Site: http://www.pure-pascal.com

Both sites are password protected, but temporary access can be given by contacting the email address above.
SEALLL – GRUNDTVIG Quality in Adult Learning.

GRUNDTVIG 1: SEALLL: Self-Evaluation in Adult Life Long Learning

Life Long Learning situations are often less formal and less structured than school and higher education. Therefore quality care, self-evaluation, self-regulated learning and setting up the institution as a learning organisation is even more important in LLL than in formal learning situations.

SEALLL was a Grundtvig 1 project, part of the European SOCRATES educational programme and aimed to improve the quality of teaching and learning and the quality of organisation and management in LLL by promoting and supporting self-evaluation. The project wanted to help all 'players' in LLL-organisations self-evaluate their teaching, learning and management.

Guy Tilkin and Jaap Van Lakerveld have presented the project and its outcomes: the SEALLL manual and tool and will demonstrate its approach to quality care in adult learning. www.SEALLL.eu

SEALLL approach

SEALLL is NOT another suite of ready made evaluation instruments with indicators to check and boxes to tick. SEALLL focuses on self-evaluation as a learning process and the partnership is convinced that a culture of self-evaluation and ownership of processes and outcomes are vital for an evaluation process to have a chance to lead to change. Therefore a bottom-up approach and guiding the 'initiators' in the process of conducting their own evaluation is the lead motive of SEALLL.

The SEALLL partnership sees self-evaluation as an evaluation process that is self-initiated, internally organised and self-regulated. It should aim at the professionalisation of decision-making, and at improving the realisation of the organisation's own objectives and the quality of its education.

The project tool starts from a modular framework where 'self-evaluation as a dialogue in a multiplayer situation' is the key-concept. A dialogue between staff, teachers and learners within the institution and a dialogue between the institution and relevant external actors should be the starting point for SE.

SEALLL targets teachers, trainers, heads and administrative staff of formal, non-formal and informal adult education institutions, teacher trainers, policy makers and programme developers.
GINCO – GRUNDTVIG Networking in Adult Education

GRUNDTVIG NW: GINCO: Grundtvig International Network of Course Organisers

Mobility activities for in-service training (IST) for adult educators, and the development of training courses that meet Life Long Learning priorities, receive funding from the European Commission under the GRUNDTVIG (GRU) programme in support to improving access to a rich and varied provision of adult education (AE) training with a European scope.

In view of some clear short-comings GINCO aims to network the present and future GRU course providers. GRU course organisers would indeed benefit from a forum for cooperation and exchange of expertise.

GINCO aims to:
- contribute to improve the quality of GRU European training provision and its accreditation.
- install effective mechanisms for co-operation between (potential) GRU course organisers.
- strengthen the cooperation between the relevant stakeholders of GRU courses: AE providers, LLP National Agencies (NAs), the European Commission and other relevant stakeholders.
- contribute to the professionalization of adult education staff concerning international course provision and delivery.
- expand the GRU course provision in eligible countries of the LLL programme
- support dissemination and sustainability of the GRU course provision.

Consortium
The Ginco consortium consists of organisations with considerable experience in organising quality GRU courses (see the table below), organisations with expertise in quality care, didactics, ICT, competence recognition & validation and networking, LLP NAs, and of AE umbrella organisations and networks.

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GINCO will:
- Support course organisers to link up their courses with LLP policy.
- Support organisers in applying appropriate, innovative adult LLL didactics for their courses.
- Promote the appropriate use of ICT in preliminary, face to face and follow up phases.
- Support course providers in their care for quality.
- Support improving intercultural skills of course organisers.
- Provide evaluation frames for the courses.
- Support the organiser in follow-up and transfer of learning outcomes.
- Support organisers focus on course impact on participants.
- Improve dissemination of programme opportunities and courses.
- Analyse national course provision in LLP countries and development of strategies to improve the GRU course provision.

Finally, Gino, will represent the interests and needs of GRU training organisers and will act as a spokesman in front of the NAs, the European Commission, the AE sector and the educational public at large.

The direct network target groups are: adult education staff from GRU course providers, potential GRU course providers, AE providers in general, LLP NAs, educational policy makers, at European and other national and regional levels.
Introduction
The Project PALADIN (Promoting Active Learning and Ageing of Disadvantage Seniors) intents to contribute to the empowerment of the disadvantage seniors (over 50 years old low qualified) trough the development their readiness for self-directed learning, especially in 5 fields of their lives: health, activity (employment, voluntary or other), education (either formal, no-formal and informal), citizenship and finances.

General Objectives
- Develop and test, a package of methodology and instruments to facilitate self-learning processes, of seniors at disadvantage (over 50 years old without qualifications);
- Setting up a network of innovative activities, focused on self-training and learning approaches, at Community level.

Operational Objectives
1. Produce a self-directed index for mature adults (including 20 self-directed learning didactic tools);
2. Develop 5 Self-directed Learning Readiness Scales for disadvantage, low qualified seniors in 5 specific areas;
3. Organize 25 public round tables in 5 different countries: Portugal, Bulgaria, Malta, Spain, Hungary;
4. Organize 4 International Scientific Events;
5. Produce a Memorandum: “Lessons and recommendations for policy-makers and Lifelong learning deciders”.

Partnership
Paladin Partnership is composed of 8 institutions, from 6 countries: Portugal, Spain. Bulgaria, Greece, Malta and Hungary. These countries from Mediterranean region and central Europe have some of the lowest rates of participation in lifelong learning. This is a multidisciplinary partnership that includes research organizations, community education providers and policy-makers. INFORUM is taking the role, originally attributed to The National Institute of Telecommunications (Poland).

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Developing a set of key competences for adult learning professionals: The background of a European study.

Introduction

This paper presents the background of the study on the development of a set of key competences for adult learning professionals; a study commissioned by the European Commission, DG Education and Culture (DG EAC) and carried out by Research voor Beleid. This paper describes the role of adult learning in achieving the Lisbon goals; presents an overview of adult learning professions in Europe (ALPINE); laborates on the aims of this study, namely, developing a set of key competences for adult learning professionals; gives a deamarcation of the study and describes the context in which adult learning professionals work and finally, presents in short the methodological steps taken in order to arrive at a set of key competences. The final results of this study will be published in the forthcoming report.

The role of adult learning in achieving the Lisbon goals

In 2000, the Lisbon European Council set itself the goal of making the European Union the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world. Education and training are critical factors for achieving the Lisbon strategy’s objectives of enhancing economic growth, competitiveness and social inclusion. In this context, the Commission stresses the importance of lifelong learning and the role of adult learning, including its contribution to personal development and fulfilment in reaching those objectives.

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76 Research voor Beleid is a private institute for policy research based in Zoetermeer, the Netherlands. The study has been carried out by Research voor Beleid with the help of experts in the field: Jaap van Lakerveld (University of Leiden), George Zarifis (Aristotelian University of Thessaloniki) and Micheal Osborne (University of Glasgow). Furthermore, in the different phases of the study many other experts have delivered input on the set of key competences.

77 Research voor Beleid (2010) Key competences of adult learning professionals; Contribution to the development of a reference framework of key competences of adult learning professionals, Zoetermeer.

Although the role of adult learning is increasingly recognised in the Member States’ National Reform Programmes, in the context of the Lisbon agenda, implementation remains weak. Most education and training systems are still largely focused on the education and training of young people and limited progress has been made in changing systems to reflect the need for lifelong learning. Further action is therefore needed to confront the challenges facing the European Union and the Member States. Furthermore, National programmes ask for more fine-tuning of the adult learning sector throughout Europe.

Policy agenda on adult learning

The Commission has called on the Member States to promote adult learning and to place it firmly on the political agenda by adopting in 2006 the Communication on adult learning *It is never too late to learn*, followed by the Communication in 2007, on the adult learning Action plan *It is always a good time to learn*. Both Communications have been reinforced by Conclusions of the Council in 2008.

The Action Plan aims to help remove the high thresholds and obstacles that prevent adults from engaging in learning activities, and to improve the quality and efficiency of the adult learning sector. It complements this with a call to ensure adequate levels of investment in, and better monitoring of, the adult learning sector. The adult learning sector embraces all forms of learning undertaken by adults after having left initial education and training in formal, non-formal and informal settings.

In order to enhance policy development in the sector, improve governance and deliver better services, the Action Plan suggests five areas of action:

– analyse the effects of reforms in all sectors of education and training in Member States on adult learning;
– improve the quality of provisions in the adult learning sector;
– increase the possibilities for adults to go “one step up” - to achieve a qualification at least one level higher than before;
– speed up the process of assessment of skills and social competences and have them validated and recognised in terms of learning outcomes;
– improve the monitoring of adult learning sector.

The Action Plan which runs until the end of 2010 foresees continual monitoring of progress made in developing the sector and the results achieved under each priority.

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79 European Commission (2006b) Communication from the Commission Adult learning: It is never too late to learn (Brussels, European Commission).


Implementing the action plan at national level

The Commission has established a Working Group to provide and support the Commission's services with policy advice and assistance in implementing the Action plan. The activities of the Group are guided by the actions set out in the Action Plan itself and the actions proposed in the Council Conclusions and the Resolution of the European Parliament. The participants represent the Member States, the EFTA/EFTA countries, European Social partners and European Association in adult learning. The members of the working group meet three times annually and are supported in their work by focus groups. These groups are linked to the five key actions as presented in the previous section. One of the key activities of the Working Group is to give regular updates on policy developments in their respective countries. Their reports are used to identify good practices, to analyse trends and to formulate recommendations.

Improving the quality of adult learning professionals

Adult learning staff plays a key role in making lifelong learning a reality. Adult learning staff help learners to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes. The professional development of people working in adult learning is therefore a vital determinant of the quality of adult learning. The 2006 joint report on progress with the Education and Training 2010 work programme expressed regret at the fact that the professional development of vocational teachers and trainers continues to pose a real challenge in most countries. This coincides with other quality measures such as organisational development. The report could justifiably have extended the expression of disappointment to the professional development of teachers active in the field of non-vocational adult learning. In the 2010 joint report the challenge is expressed to ensure that all learners benefit from innovative methodologies, including the disadvantaged and those in vocational education and training (VET) and adult learning. The importance of high quality educational staff has recently been emphasised again by the European Council in 2009. This fits into the broader developments in teacher education and training, not only within the field of adult education, but also in all other forms of initial education (childcare, vocational education, primary and secondary and higher education).

During the Stockholm conference November 2009, it was stated that it is essential to ensure that teachers and school leaders are of the highest calibre and well-suited to the tasks they have to fulfil. This high calibre comes with high standard initial education and continuing professional development for staff at all levels.

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82 European Commission, Reports on the implementation of the Education & Training 2010 work programme: http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/nationalreport_en.html
83 See: European Commission (2007), Improving the Quality of Teacher Education; European Council (2007), Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on improving the quality of teacher education; European Council (2009), Conclusions on the professional development of teachers and school leaders, November 2009; ETUCE (2008), Teacher education in Europe: a ETUCE policy paper.
84 European Council (2009), Conclusions on the professional development of teachers and school leaders, November 2009.
Adult learning professions in Europe (ALPINE)\textsuperscript{85}

In order to improve the quality of adult learning professionals, first it needs to be clear who the professionals are that work in the field of adult education. For this purpose the European Commission commissioned a study on Adult Learning Professions in Europe (ALPINE) which has been carried out by an international research group, under guidance of Research voor Beleid and PLATO\textsuperscript{86}. Information has been gathered in 32 countries.\textsuperscript{87} The data gathered provides a snapshot of current practices, trends and issues of adult learning staff in Europe. However, the country studies clearly show that data on adult learning professionals is often poorly recorded, stored, organised and accessible.

The study gathered information on the following themes which are highly relevant in the context of this current study:

1) **Changing working contexts**: One of the key characteristics of the field of adult learning is its enormous variety. All kinds of educational activities are established to meet an even larger variety of educational needs of different groups. It is a challenge to outline the kinds of environments in which adult learning professionals are working. The changing working context concerns changes in the target groups that the educational programmes address, changes in the topics that the professionals cover and, most importantly, changes in learning methods (in general there is a more learner centred approach in adult education). The emphasis is not only on providing instruction, but also on focusing on the broader concept of learning, which involves paying attention to the well-being, motivation, and transformation of the individual.

2) **Professional profiles of adult learning staff**: The study shows that adult learning professionals fulfil a broad range of tasks and activities, especially in the case of teachers and trainers. The most important observation is that teaching staff is involved in practically every aspect of an educational organisation. Managers also face a broad array of tasks, although one that seems to be more consistent, in the sense that it contains management and coordination, development and planning,

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\textsuperscript{85} This section is based on the reports of the ALPINE study and a article that the research team published: Buiskool, Bert-Jan, Jaap van Lakerveld and Simon Broek (2009), Educators at Work in two Sectors of Adult and Vocational Education: an overview of two European Research projects, in: European Journal of Education, volume 44, number 2, June, pp. 145-162.

\textsuperscript{86} PLATO is a centre for research and development in education and training. It belongs to the Leiden University in the Netherlands.

\textsuperscript{87} The ALPINE study covered the 27 EU Member States, the EFTA countries which are member of the European Economic Area (Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein), and two of the three candidate countries (Turkey and Croatia). Data was collected in all these countries by our network of correspondents / experts. In order to cover all 32 countries in this study the research team cooperated with experts of the ESREA network (European Society for Research on the Education of Adults). In a selection of 15 countries, secondary data was amended with additional information from literature, statistics, and interviews. The in-depth studies were carried out in Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom. Two expert meetings were organised with the cluster experts to gain a deeper understanding of the outcomes of the study and of their impact on future policies, strategies, approaches and models. The country experts gathered secondary data on country level (like e.g. policy documents, previous studies, and other relevant information) and bundled the outcomes of this data gathering in a country report. Research voor Beleid & Plato (2008b) Country Reports drawn up in the Context of the Study on Adult Learning Professions in Europe: a study on current situation, trends and issues (Zoetermeer).
supervision and, to a lesser extent, technical and organisational support tasks. Too many contrasting tasks may threaten to overwhelm an individual's core competence while on the other hand, a too narrow definition may lead to a lack of multidisciplinary cooperation, with people being responsible only for their own area.

3) Pathways leading to the profession: The study shows that adult learning professionals have a variety of backgrounds. Many of them enter the profession without specific training to become an adult educator, though they often have experience in other work settings. There is no standard pathway for becoming an adult learning professional. Moreover, there is no evidence as to which pathway might be considered the most effective and might ensure the best preparation for the profession (in terms of learning outcomes). Finally, as a consequence of the broad variety of pathways and institutions involved, there is also a wide variety of qualifications, ranging from certificates of participation in a training course to diplomas and academic degrees. Moreover, adult learning professionals usually have 10 to 15 years of experience elsewhere before they decide to become adult educator. This variety makes the market for professionals and their employers less transparent.

4) Quality assurance and quality management: Quality assurance and management within adult learning institutes is indispensable for the professionalisation of the sector. Several national country studies illustrate a demand for more measurements in this field. The study shows that continuous professional development (CPD) and external evaluation only play a relatively small role in quality enhancement policies for adult learning providers. This indicates a need for change. It is necessary to increase external evaluation and pay more attention to the career prospects of practitioners. These strategies support processes of professional development in the sector. They stress the need for practitioners to have professional autonomy in determining their own career paths and, at the same time, to be accountable through external evaluation.

To conclude, the ALPINE study shows that adult learning staff needs particular competences in order to carry out their wide variety of professional tasks such as teaching, managing, programme planning, etc. However, little attention has been paid to defining the content and processes for initial and continuous training of adult learning staff. There are many educational and professional routes to become an adult learning professional and professionals are working in a wide variety of contexts. But little attention is paid on their continuous professional development. Part of the explanation is that the professions are not always recognised within formal career structures and compared with other educational subsystems. Adult learning is also characterised by high percentages of part-time staff (and people working on a voluntary basis) who may have few career prospects and who are frequently paid on an hourly basis.88

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Current practices in Europe also show that many countries do not have a clear view of the competences needed to fulfil professional tasks in the adult learning sector, partly because of the diversity of the field and the wide variety of activities staff carry out. In several European countries, competence profiles and standards for adult learning staff have been developed and implemented\(^\text{89}\), although their scope of application differs considerably between institutional and regional levels. There is a clear need for a set of key competences at European level to make systems comparable and to upgrade the quality of staff.

**Developing a set of key competences for adult learning professionals**

To partially overcome the ‘hampering diversity’ in the sector it is important to identify common elements in the work that adult learning professionals do and the key competences that come with carrying out the work. The Member States have recognised this need and as a response, the European Commission commissioned the study on key competences of adult learning professionals that can be used as a reference for further professionalisation.\(^\text{91}\)

The set of competences can help to identify the competences needed to carry out a specific activity in a specific context. In other words, the set of key competences can help to create comparable (European) competence profiles that can be used for individual countries in developing policy and improving the quality of provision.\(^\text{92}\)

In the study on key competences, competences should be understood as a complex combination of knowledge, skills and abilities/attitudes needed to carry out a specific activity, leading to results.\(^\text{93}\) Knowledge should be understood as a body of

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\(^\text{90}\) Bechtel, Mark (2008), Competence Profiles for Adult and Continuing Education Staff in Europe: Some Conceptual Aspects, in: Qualifying adult learning professionals in Europe, (Bielefeld).


\(^\text{92}\) Following other European initiatives like: 1) The development of key competences for all citizens of the European Union (http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc830_en.htm) The Commission made a series of proposals for Improving the Quality of Teacher Education. 3) “Improving Competences for the 21st Century: An Agenda for European Cooperation on Schools” (http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc838_en.htm), the Commission is proposing an agenda for cooperation among the Member States to make school systems more relevant to the knowledge-based Europe of the future.

\(^\text{93}\) This definition of competence takes into account the definitions used in the European document on Key Competences of lifelong learning: Competences can be defined as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context, European Commission (2006a), Key competences for lifelong learning. And secondly, the definition used by Cedefop: Competence is not limited to cognitive elements (involving the use of theory, concepts or tacit knowledge); it also encompasses functional aspects (involving technical skills) as well as interpersonal attributes (e.g. social or organisational skills) and ethical values, Cedefop (2008),
facts, concepts, ideas, principles, theories and practices related to a field of practice, work or study: Skills should be understood as a capacity learned or acquired through training in order to perform actions by applying knowledge: Abilities/attitudes should be understood as the physical, mental or emotional capacity to perform a task.

The aim of the study on key competences is to develop a common set of key competences that contribute to the development of a reference for Europe, which can be used by Member States on a voluntary basis. Furthermore, flexible and alternative pathways for transfer of competencies should be studied in order to allow progression in the profession, both in terms of function and levels, and transition between professional profiles, allowing more stability inside the adult learning sector

Some demarcation points: the context in which adult learning professionals work

As indicated, competences are context bound: they describe a particular set of knowledge, skills and attitudes needed in a particular context given certain quality criteria. Therefore, it is necessary to take the context in which professionals are working into account when describing competence profiles. In the context, differentiations between competence profiles will occur. In other words the context is the main carrier of particularity.

Although the study on key competences acknowledges this contextual embeddedness of key competences, it tries to abstract from the particular context by identifying the common elements applicable to all context. By doing so, we are able to abstract the core competences that have been identified in other studies and in different contexts that could be applicable for everyone working in the adult learning sector. As a result, the study takes into account the wide array of activities that are being carried out in this sector, by all staff and in different contexts in the field of adult learning.

Having said this, abstracting from the context could only be done with a good understanding of the context in which adult learning takes place. For the purpose of this study we define adult learning as all forms of learning undertaken by adults after having left initial education and training regardless of how far this process may have gone (e.g., including tertiary education). This definition covers all kinds of educational activities meeting a large variety of educational needs of different groups. A workable clustering of adult learning activities has been developed that is based on

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94 European Commission (2006b) Communication from the Commission Adult learning: It is never too late to learn (Brussels, European Commission).
the work of van Dellen and van Der Kamp.\textsuperscript{95} They identified four work domains in which adult learning takes place, namely:

- Education aiming at providing qualifications for the labour market: Vocational adult education;
- Education aiming at providing basic skills (second chance) not directly related to the labour market: Basic skills adult education;
- Education aiming to increase knowledge in culture and art: Cultural and arts adult education;
- Education aiming at increasing the social cohesion and citizenship: Social cohesion adult education.

Not only the goals of the educational programme differ but also the form of learning. The study focussed on competences needed for professionals providing adult learning in a formal and non-formal setting it leaves out informal learning since informal learning often happens unintentionally by both the learner and the educator.\textsuperscript{96} This makes it hard to identify the competences needed to educate someone informally.

The clustering in work domains is, however, still not precise enough to determine the exact context in which adult learning professionals work. Variations can be found also within and between work domains. Such differences can be seen in the target groups, the team composition, the programmes used in the institute, the attention for professional development, the exact mission of the institute and the way in which learning is delivered (i.e. traditional teaching, blended learning, embedded learning) etc.

As indicated above, the study identifies the core competences by abstracting them from the different adult learning contexts. However, in the presentation of the results of the study we intend to provide some contextual explanations of the competences identified.

**Specific characteristics of the adult learning as opposed to other fields of education**

As described, the adult learning sector is closely interwoven with all the other education and training sectors like general, vocational and higher education, for which competence profiles are already developed. As a consequence, one sees that a high percentage of the professionals working in the adult learning sector are also working in the other education and training sectors. The key question in this respect is whether it is necessary to develop a separate competence profile that is applicable for the adult learning sector. The answer lies in the specificness of working with adults, the contents and the

\textsuperscript{95} Van Dellen & Van Der Kamp (2008) Work domains and competences of the European adult and continuing educator, in: S. Lattke & E. Nuissl (Ed) Qualifying Adult Learning Professionals in Europe (Bielefeld, W Bertelsmann).

\textsuperscript{96} **Formal learning** is learning that occurs in an organised and structured environment (e.g. in an education or training institution or on the job) and is explicitly designated as learning (in terms of objectives, time or resources). Formal learning is intentional from the learner’s point of view. It typically leads to validation and certification. **Non-formal learning** is learning which is embedded in planned activities not explicitly designated as learning (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support). Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner’s point of view. **Informal learning** is learning resulting from daily activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not organised or structured in terms of objectives, time or learning support. Informal learning is in most cases unintentional from the learner’s perspective. See; Cedefop (2008), Terminology of European education and training policy.
methods applied that strongly influence the working context of adult learning professionals and implies a demand for special competences of staff.

First of all adult learning professionals often have to deal with a wide variety of adult groups each having different background like educational level / social origin/family background/social class/social milieus; earned income; male/female; age/generations; employed/non-employed; ethnic origins; urban/rural areas.

Secondly, in addition to the target groups, teaching methods differ also considerably. Adult learning focuses on, for instance, encouraging participation and improving performance and results through adopting a more learner-centred approach. It is considered desirable that the adult learner is placed at the centre, both when designing adult educational programmes and when determining their outcomes. The emphasis is not only on providing instruction, but also on focusing on the broader concept of learning, which involves paying attention to the well-being, motivation, and transformation of the individual. Aspects to take into account are, for instance, providing a safe and suitable learning environment, reinforcing positive attitudes toward the learners’ potential for success, and encouraging independent study skills.

Important specific characteristics also apply to other types of professional activities as well. According to Federighi (2008) management staff, for example, have to be aware of the great variety of organisational forms and of the different approaches that can be applied. They have to deal with changing contexts like the decline in government spending on adult learning and they have to reflect the aims of their organisation in the light of the target groups and the needs of learners. Complexity and diversity also characterise the task profile of administrative staff that has to cooperate with trainers, programme planners and with the management, and that acts at the interface between the institutions and its clients.

Methods applied for developing the set of key competences

Competences needed by adult learning professionals are being described in job descriptions of individual organisations, the learning outcomes of specific educational programmes and if available, qualification structures on national level. Moreover, there is a vast amount of (academic) research on teacher and management competences available throughout Europe. In identifying a set of key competences, it is therefore recommended to start with the richness of information already available and derive the ‘common elements’ from that which has already been developed. Therefore, the methodology used in the study on key competences consists of three steps:

- Competence identification: Compile all available information about the duties, tasks, responsibilities, roles and work environments of the job and identify the

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97 An overview of paradigm changes in adult learning teaching methods is also given in the OECD report Beyond Rhetoric: Adult Learning Policies and Practices (2003), (EAEA, 2006; European Commission, 2005).
99 The German Institute for Adult Education carried out a Grundtvig project on Professional Administrative Support for Adult learning (PRO-SAL).
relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes. This is done on the basis of the study of existing competence profiles, job descriptions, educational programmes, academic literature, and European wide studies on competences of educational staff.

- **Competence modelling:** Develop a consistent competence profile by making use of the compiled information on tasks, responsibilities and necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes. This was done involving experts and relevant stakeholders.

- **Competence assessment:** Checking whether the set of key competences is complete, consistent and workable for supervisors in the sector, professionals and other stakeholders. First of all, the set of key competences has been presented to a group of academic experts during the ESREA conference: “Educating the adult educator: Quality provision and assessment in Europe” that takes place in Thessaloniki on 6-8 November 2009 and the EAEA-conference Adult education: response to global crisis: Strengths and challenges of the profession, 14 November 2009 in Belgrade. Secondly, the set of key competences is presented to a group of policy makers during the four regional meetings on adult learning organised by the European Commission (DG EAC) in Oslo, Ljubljana, Berlin and Madrid.

Grounding the set of key competences on already existing frameworks and job descriptions provides the study a solid empirical basis, and by testing the outcomes amongst stakeholders the feasibility of the outcomes is guaranteed.

The results of the study will be published soon.
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*Contributors' surnames appear in capital letters.*

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