



**INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY**  
Initiative in Education & Lifelong Learning

## **Certificate Programme**

# **International Dimensions of Adult Education and Lifelong Learning**

## **Unit 4**

### **Adult Education Policies in International Contexts**

International Dimensions of Adult Education and Lifelong Learning

**Units of Certificate in International Dimensions of  
Adult Education and Lifelong Learning**

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**Unit 1 Historical Foundations of Adult Education**

**Unit 2 Philosophical Approaches in Adult Education**

**Unit 3 Role of International Organisations**

**Unit 4 Adult Education Policies in International Contexts**

**Unit 5 National and Regional Experiences**

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## Introduction

Major international events, such as the 7<sup>th</sup> World Assembly of the International Council of Adult Education (ICAE), held in Nairobi, Kenya, 2007, are benchmarks in the history of adult education as well as opportunities for the creation and renewal of objectives, strategies and targets that form the basis of policy. During the 7<sup>th</sup> ICAE Assembly the commissions formed to analyse diverse topics discussed, within their given areas of concern, civil society inputs and interventions in critical global policy spaces, especially the 6<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) (that was held in 2009) and the EFA (Education for All) and MDG (Millennium Development Goals) mid-term review processes. Duke and Hinzen (2006) called it “a cycle of global review and target-setting” (p. 132).

Overall, the evolution of policies and strategies, at both the national and international levels, reflects the evolution of conceptual developments and understanding in the sphere of adult education and lifelong learning. This evolution can also be attributed in large part to its internationalisation, especially that part of the adult education movement that, historically, has emphasised the social development and collective human betterment dimension of education (thus, deserving the title of movement) and has contributed to international co-operation for the development of future common strategies and policy recommendations (Cumming, 1995).

Although in the past few decades adult learning has set national policy-making agendas and national policies that have varied according to national economic and social contexts and goals, clear common patterns have emerged (OECD, 2003). These include approaches to increasing learning opportunities, to providing basic educational attainment to those lacking it, to bring about a holistic approach that focuses on potential learners, and to recognise informal and non-formal learning processes.

In very broad terms, the role of policy in the domain of adult education is to recognise learning as a human right and to find and implement measures to create the conditions required to exercise it. It may seem trivial that policies must acknowledge adult education as a right but, in reality, not every country, region, or sub-region in the world openly and actively recognises adult learning as a basic human right. Adult education that encompasses a society's human, educative and political dimensions can prepare the ground within and between countries for the hard political decisions that must be made and act as an instrument of popular participation to ensure that such decisions are not manipulative and elitist but rather humanising, egalitarian and liberating. Transformations of political and socio-economic structures, of course, may not be acceptable to all countries or establishments (Hall & Kidd, 1978). Adult education has been and still is a zone of ideological debates that affect policy making at national and international levels.

### **Learning Objectives**

After reading this module, you should be familiar with:

- The main contemporary trends in the development of adult education and lifelong learning policies
- The global aims of adult education and lifelong learning policies
- The international programmatic documents that guide the field

## 4.1 Major Programmatic International Documents in the Field of Adult Education

### 4.1.1 The Fauré Commission Report

In 1972 an international commission assembled by UNESCO, known as the Fauré Commission,<sup>1</sup> released a report that many considered a programmatic work for education. The aim of the report was immense: to depict the world of education at the time and to set forth directions for the future. Commission members did not assume the existence of an international community that, amidst the variety of nations and cultures, political options and degrees of development, reflected common aspirations, problems, and trends (Faure, et al., 1972).

### 4.1.2 The Declaration of Dar es Salaam

At the International Conference on Adult Education and Development held in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, in July 1976, more than 500 delegates representing some 80 countries formulated and approved a programme for action that comprised practical and immediate steps for the next five years in a document known as “The Design for Action”. This document stood as the action counterpart of a statement by Tanzanian president Julius Nyerere outlining the goals of adult education and development, which was unanimously accepted by the conference as the Declaration of Dar es Salaam (Hall & Kidd, 1978). This conference was of particular theoretical importance because it linked adult learning to development.

### 4.1.3 Education for All

The participants at the World

#### THINK TANK

A list of the 6 EFA goals along with indicators is available in the following webpage:

<http://www4.unescobkk.org/education/efatraining/module-a3/5-efa-indicators/>

Find out the value of these indicators in your country and try to understand what it suggests in terms of your country’s progress towards fulfilling the EFA goals.

<sup>1</sup>The members of this commission were Edgar Fauré, Felipe Herrera, Abdul-RazzakKaddoura, Henri Lopes, Arthur V. Petrovsky, Majid Rahnama, and Frederick Champion Ward.

Conference on Education for All, who assembled in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, issued a declaration in which the right of all people in the world to literacy and basic education was stated as a universal human right (UNESCO, 1990).

#### **4.1.4 The Delors Report**

In 1996 the Delors Commission produced a document called “Learning: The Treasure Within” for UNESCO. In it, the commission declared lifelong learning as the paradigm for all education and presented an integrated policy framework approach. This framework outlined four pillars necessary for education: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be (Belanger & Federighi, 2000).

#### **4.1.5 The Hamburg Declaration**

In 1997, the participants at the 5<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V), held in Hamburg, Germany, issued a series of recommendations for the future work of UNESCO in the field of adult education. Theme 10 of the report was dedicated to the enhancement of international co-operation and solidarity (UNESCO, 1997).



#### **4.1.6 UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)**

At the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000, world leaders who participated agreed to set of time-bound and measurable goals and targets for combating poverty, hunger,

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disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women (UNDP, 2010).

#### **4.1.7 The Ocho Rios Declaration**

Participants at the 6<sup>th</sup> World Assembly of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) meeting, held in Ocho Rios, Jamaica, in August 2001, issued a declaration to affirm the centrality of adult education for democratic citizenship and global action (ICAE, 2002).



**NOTE BANK****EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/4****Teaching and Learning: Achieving Quality for All****Four step strategy to better teacher recruitment**

The 2013/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report emphasises on the need to provide quality education for all children. It acknowledges growing disparities in terms of quality of education accessible to children of varying classes. This means that, although more children may be joining school than before, poorer children face low standards of education and are unable to fulfill basic numerical and reading abilities.

The report emphasises on the recruitment of better teachers. Teacher absenteeism, a major issue in many of the poorer schools, and the lack of availability of competent teachers are issues that have been addressed in the report.

It looks at a four step strategy to efficiently recruit better teachers (UNICEF, 2013):

- **Strategy One: Attract the best teachers**

This entails encouraging people interested in teaching to go ahead and choose it as a profession. Many times, teaching is as second grade to engineering and medicine. Thus incentives to attract dedicated citizens, from diverse social backgrounds, need to be brought about

- **Strategy Two: Improve teacher education so all children can learn**

It has been found that teachers, although dedicated, do not have sufficient knowledge on their core subjects. Therefore better training for teachers means better learning environment for students.

- **Strategy Three: Get teachers where they are most needed**

Many teachers avoid remote, rural areas thus further widening the gap between rural and urban students in terms of access to quality education. As has been observed in the Republic of Korea, teachers must be provided incentives and perks to attract them to teach in such remote areas.

- **Strategy Four: Provide the right incentives to retain the best teachers**

Salaries for teachers in many developing nations are so low that they would need to take a second job to fulfill basic requirements. It is thus crucial that teachers be paid attractive salaries to cut high attrition rates in the teaching profession.

You will be able to read the entire EFA Global monitoring report 2013/4 on:

<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002256/225660e.pdf>

## 4.2 The Concept and Goals of Lifelong Learning

Although Belanger & Federighi (2000) traced the concept of lifelong learning to the philosopher Comenius in the second half of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, it was not until the 1950s and 1960s that the concept, known as lifelong education and the learning society, took wing. As policy, it first appeared in the Fauré Report of 1972, only to be buried and then re-emerge some 20 years later, this time in the context of the crisis of the welfare state, economic restructuring and the structural adjustments of the World Bank. A major contribution to its rebirth and crystallisation was attributed to the ICAE, which asserted that “the integration of all adult education, including general, political, cultural and vocational education, into a lifelong learning perspective is essential” (1994, p. 422). Lifelong learning was viewed as having the potential to eliminate the false dichotomy between initial schooling and adult basic education.

In 1997, the 5<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) further clarified the term by stating that the concept of lifelong learning referred to learning that occurs during the entire course of life, whereas adult learning refers solely to adulthood. The concept is inclusive because it comprises the formal, non-formal, and informal learning that occurs throughout an individual’s life span and is required to attain the fullest possible development in his or her personal, social, vocational, and professional life. It is also visionary because it calls for an open learning society, which offers a multiplicity of educational networks. Lifelong learning logically leads to the idea of the necessity of continuing renewal, upgrading, and completion of knowledge, since during an individual’s life span, socio-economic and cultural conditions change, especially in a knowledge economy. That is why lifelong learning, particularly in its basic forms (which become the prerequisite for further education), is considered a “moving target”.

The Delors Report (1996) added a new characteristic to the concept: it declared that women and men have a fundamental right to organised learning opportunities and that

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lifelong learning is hence a human right. The report concluded that lifelong learning is:

- A basic right
- A moving target
- The paradigm for all education

The concept of lifelong learning is essential for policy in an international context because:

- 1) it blurs the distinctions between formal, non-formal, and informal learning and
- 2) it expands adult learning over its traditional boundaries and dissolves it into other aspects of living and working.

Lifelong learning transforms into a sort of bonding agent within the realms of labour, economic development, health and culture. Hence, the goals of lifelong learning are not to be found solely in the domain of education, and several overall goals can be extracted from the policy frameworks noted earlier in this Unit:

- Contribute to the reduction or elimination of poverty
- Contribute to gender justice
- Achieve Education for All (EFA)
- Foster sustainable development
- Broaden opportunities for lifelong learning
- Contribute to the transformation of societies into more inclusive, tolerant and democratic ones (Belanger & Federighi, 2000; Duke & Hinzen, 2006; Jarvis, 2004).

Torres (2004) noted that lifelong learning has been acknowledged as a need and a principle for education and learning systems worldwide and is actively embraced by

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minority world societies. Despite this, she argued, it remained an uneasy topic for national governments in the majority world, as well as for international development and co-operation agencies. She warned about the world's dual education learning agendas and standards: in the North, policy focuses on increasing non-formal educational opportunities as a lifelong complementary educational path for all; in the South, adult education policy continues to focus on "remedial education for the poor" (p. 13). In Torres's view, acceptance of this duality — lifelong learning actively adopted in the North while basic education and completion of primary education are promoted in the South — leads to a consolidation and deepening of the gap between North and South. She argued that lifelong learning must be adopted as a paradigm for all countries.

## 4.3 Contemporary Global Trends in Policy Development

### 4.3.1 Bridging Formal and Non-formal Adult Education

Globalisation constitutes a driving force of what is variously referred to as the knowledge, the information, or the network society. Global competition, manufacturing locations and markets on the move, convergence of product quality standards and prices worldwide and merging of individual consumer choices all demand an increase in technological and cultural intelligence in product development and marketing (Glastra, Schedler, & Hake, 2004). Globalisation is also closely linked to the phenomenal rise of information and communication technology (ICT) in facilitating almost instantaneous access to information without regard to spatial dimensions and time horizons. Glastra, Schedler & Hake (2004) noted that “the application of information and knowledge in all spheres of social life has become the most dynamic feature in the transformation and reorganisation of late modern societies” (p. 155). The knowledge economy, in turn, is widely viewed as requiring the development of lifelong learning, understood as the appropriation, management, and use of information, knowledge and competencies as a permanent feature of social life, especially in the world of work.

The global reorganisation of economic activity, deregulation of world markets, international accumulation of capital and increased mobility in the international financial markets have led to a decrease in labour’s bargaining power and an increase in job insecurity. This insecurity requires employees and organisations to be able to adapt quickly to new circumstances, which is known in OECD jargon as “flexibility.”

The adaptation and updating of competencies and other auxiliary functions discharged by the main education systems has led many non-educational ministries to introduce educational programmes in their respective fields of responsibility (Belanger & Federighi, 2000).

Another response to this challenge has been to certify the knowledge and legitimise the know-how acquired informally, even that acquired outside recognised institutions. The task of granting the quality seal for this type of knowledge rests typically with the state.

In these circumstances, the role of policy is to establish the framework, that is, the conditions for institutional accreditation, quality standards and how they should be met, and so on. An example of a policy that bridges formal and non-formal adult education is the Korean Credit Bank System (CBS), an open education system that recognises diverse learning experiences gained both in school and outside school.

In 1995, the Presidential Commission on Education Reform (PCER) presented an innovative vision of a new education system that would promote the development of an open and lifelong learning society. The basic idea was that, under certain conditions, a student could obtain CBS-approved credits for informally acquired learning; after accumulating the necessary CBS credits, the student would obtain an associate or a bachelor's degree. The CBS was legislated in 1997, and an accreditation system and standardised curriculum were subsequently developed. The system is administered by the Lifelong Learning Policy Division of the Ministry of Education, which formulates all policies related to the CBS, approves the educational programmes offered by various institutions, finalises the standardised curriculum, and awards degrees. The Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) is responsible for other administrative tasks, such as student registration, accreditation and general management of the CBS information system. As a result, the CBS recognises individual, non-formal, prior learning experience, many national and private certificates, and online learning, for all of which it awards legitimate credits (UNESCO PROAP, 2001).

### 4.3.2 Coordination and Coherence of Policies

The recent trend toward an integrated or a holistic approach to adult learning has two dimensions:

- Integration between different forms of adult education, such as adult basic education (ABE), lifelong learning, learning for active citizenship, and vocational learning
- Coordination among different partners involved in the development and planning of related activities

In terms of policy coherence, the integrated approach implies joint efforts of different national government departments and agencies and national and/or international NGOs to forge mutually reinforcing policy action toward defined objectives. An example is the coherence between the European Union (EU) lifelong learning policy and the UNESCO policy, with common goals that can be traced from the global to the regional framework. Coordination involves institutional and management mechanisms by which policy coherence is exerted among the different entities involved.

### 4.3.3 Collaboration Across Institutions

All countries have a broad variety of partners involved in adult learning, including ministries of education and of labour, regional and local governments, educational institutions, special adult learning institutions, and social partners. In most countries, ministries of education are responsible for adult education, their scope of activity usually focused on adult basic education, literacy programmes, and other types of basic and vocational education. Ministries of labour usually focus their efforts on specific labour training programmes for specific groups, such as the unemployed. Other ministries may be involved as well, such as those for health, social services, industry and regional development.

An example of complexity in the design of adult education policy is found in Switzerland, where the actors involved are the Confederation, the Federal Office for Vocational Training and Technology, the Federal Department of Interior, the Federal Department of Foreign Affairs, the Pro Helvetia Foundation, and the regional governments.

Sometimes, specific institutions are created to coordinate policy activity and attain policy coherence. In Sweden, for example, policy design and evaluation are the responsibility of a number of specially created institutions: the National Agency for Education, the Swedish National Labour Market Administration, the National Agency for Higher Education, and the Swedish National Council of Adult Education (OECD, 2003).

As a result of this integrated approach, adult learning policy directly intersects with economic, labour, regional development and social policies (Belanger & Federighi, 2000).

#### **4.3.4 The Expanding and Changing Role of the State**

The increase in the volume and quality of social demand for adult education is well documented (Belanger & Federighi, 2000; Duke & Hinzen, 2006). In both industrialised and developing countries, the state's response to this growing demand has been an increased commitment to supporting and developing diverse learning strategies. Although the ways in which states have chosen to support adult learning vary, they present some commonalities, such as the tendency to “outsource” the design and delivery of various interventions. The state, in partnership with various other actors, defines macro-economic and societal priorities, manages social dialogue, ensures adherence to international commitments, and allows the private sector or civil society to design and implement various interventions. In other words, the state promotes the development of capacities for initiative in civil society or the market, rather than the centralised national education system, an approach known as decentralisation because the “centre” of decision making diffuses into a network. An example is the national literacy programme in Senegal.



Initially, the Ministry of Basic Education was solely responsible for the programme; later, other government departments took over the coordination, monitoring and research functions and the actual delivery was outsourced (Belanger & Federighi, 2000).

Spain has also completed a decentralisation process in education. The state has reserved the right to safeguard the homogeneity and unity of the educational system by guaranteeing conditions of basic equality for all Spanish citizens. Autonomous regional governments are permitted to develop national regulations, regulate non-basic aspects and develop the executive/administrative responsibilities. For training policies, the Public Employment Service partners with the regional governments in the management of labour policies (OECD, 2003).

Torres (2003, 2004) has suggested that for the South, although the decentralisation process may be a positive trend toward widening civil society participation in education, it is also the manifestation of a negative trend toward government de-responsibilisation. Often, decentralisation means not only transfer of responsibility but also cost-sharing and even open privatisation.

#### **4.3.5 The Internationalisation of Decision Making**

In addition to decentralisation, another trend is the strengthening of the transnational dimension of adult learning. One reason for this is the advent of supranational structures, such as the EU, and the growth in supranational organisations, such as NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement), the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the IMF (International Monetary Fund), and the Organisation of African Unity. Another factor is the development and merging of social movements that acquired an international character, such as environmental, women's and labour movements. Globalisation is, of course, another important factor.

### 4.3.6 Key Players in Policy Development

In reference to continuing adult basic education (ABE) policies, Duke & Hinzen (2006) noted that the world of policy making in this area is clearly a world of partnerships. However, due to the integrative approach between ABE and other forms of adult learning within the unifying framework of lifelong learning, what is valid for ABE is valid for adult learning policies in general. In these partnerships, the decentralisation and internationalisation of decision making are strong catalysts.

This world of partnerships involves three key players: 1) the public sector; 2) the private sector, and 3) the voluntary sector (also known as the third sector).

### 4.3.7 Public-Private Partnerships

Typically, these partnerships are found in the provision of vocational and workplace education. The provision is usually subsidized, totally or partially, by the state, although the ultimate goals of the partnership may have an economic as well as a social aspect, such as in the case of language acquisition for migrants. According to Duke & Hinzen (2006), public-private partnerships now constitute a significant initiative in linking literacy to workplace-based learning, and so directly to economic goals, whether of rural communities through small-scale enterprises or by raising skill levels and productivity of larger enterprises and even regional economies (p. 151).

Recently, the number of private providers focusing on e-learning has increased. In the field of ICT, efforts seem to be underway to expand collaboration between the private and public sectors for the adoption of good learning practices in terms of network infrastructure, access to hardware or Internet connectivity, and digital content. A broad provision of company training through e-learning and virtual universities provides post-tertiary degrees. More and more, the borders between different types of provision are blurring and virtual platforms are trying to cater to a large diversity of needs (OECD, 2003).

### 4.3.8 Public-Voluntary Sector Partnerships

In the developing world and in Canada, this type of partnership is the “classic” partnership in the field of adult education in general and ABE in particular (Duke & Hinzen, 2006). A large range of community-based organisations have been established to address special issues such as adult literacy or to meet the needs of special groups such as immigrants, members of specific ethnic or cultural groups, displaced workers, or economically marginalised adults. Typically, local agencies or advocacy groups identify unmet needs and then seek funding from public institutions.

In Canada, ABE is largely provided in community-based organisations, although curricula and syllabi are developed within formal educational institutions. The advantages of these programmes are that they are offered in the communities where the students live (and are thus more welcoming) and the instruction may be coupled with other forms of social or moral support. Community-based programmes are also committed to holistic approaches, including citizenship and community education (OECD, 2003).

There are also partnerships between all three sectors. An example is the case of state-subsidised community development programmes, in which adult education is a component.

### 4.3.9 The Roles and Performance of International Players

As part of the preparatory work for developing its policy for development co-operation in the education sector within the framework of the UN’s EFA agenda, the Education Division of the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) commissioned a study to provide an overview and critical analysis of current international education initiatives.

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This comprehensive study, conducted during 2001 and 2002 by the international education expert (and as of January 2003, the minister of Education and Culture in Ecuador) Rosa Maria Torres, led to the publication of a report called “Lifelong Learning — A New Momentum and a New Opportunity for Adult Basic Learning and Education (ABLE) in the South” in 2003. Since then, the report has been recognised by international educationists as an important work of reference and has been translated into Spanish and French and re-published in German by the IIZ/DVV (Werner-Dahlin in Torres, 2004). A revised edition was published as “Lifelong Learning in the South: Critical Issues and Opportunities for Adult Education” (Torres, 2004). It was based on a large number of case studies from Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as on a comprehensive literature review, surveys, personal interviews, field visits, an online forum and other methodological approaches.

**NOTE BANK****Life Long Learning in the Post-2015 Development Agenda**

The achievement of the 6 EFA Goals and the two MDGs which relate to education seems improbable as we close up on the 2015 deadline.

Some critical aspects of the goals that will not be met are (Tandon, 2012):

- Arresting the high dropout rates
- Achieving gender parity, especially in secondary levels
- Vocational skills beyond urban/industrial livelihoods

In the face of such difficulties, an agenda for Education-related goals in the post-2015 period has been drawn. Upholding the spirit of lifelong learning, there are certain aspects that need to be emphasised (UNICEF, 2013; Tandon, 2012).

- Manmade and natural calamities, war, social inequalities all contribute to the systematic exclusion of certain groups from the mainstream. This adversely affects their access to education. Thus emphasis needs to be laid on equal access to education
- Education cannot be merely expressed in numerical achievements. Importance must also be to provide *quality* education for all, cutting across social classes and gender.
- Stress needs to be laid upon the process of learning and competency & qualification of teachers.
- Content should be relevant in terms of enabling people for better skills in the employment market. It should also make individuals aware of their rights in order enable better participation in democratic processes
- Various dimensions were identified viz. Sexuality Education, Education for Sustainable Development, and Citizenship and Global Citizenship Education

As has been observed, many private enterprises have shifted the onus of education onto the parents and students themselves. The way out of this dilemma would be the incorporation of partnerships between private and public enterprises and civil society organisations. This lays out the key role that CSOs shall play in the post-2015 period in terms of striving towards the EFA goals and the MDGs.

Thus, it is only through this holistic approach to education that brings together various sectors, that one shall be able to achieve true development through informed and educated citizenry.

Based on her study, Torres concluded that international agencies, especially donor agencies, had become key actors in global, regional and national policy making and that their role was much more prominent and visible than it was in the 1980s. Most of these international players were located in the North and most focused their work in the South. Torres went on to suggest that there were voices in the South that questioned the quality of these players' connection to local issues in the South and even their usefulness. She also suggested that in the field of international co-operation for development in the

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education sector, the EFA partners — UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNPFA (United Nations Population Fund) and the World Bank (WB) — collaborated more in rhetoric than in reality, partly due to corporate behaviours and open competition and partly due to different understandings and approaches among them vis-à-vis education.

Torres's study illustrated how narrow cost-effective evaluations of adult literacy commissioned by the World Bank failed to acknowledge the achievements of recent campaigns, such as those in Ecuador (1988), India (Total Literacy Campaigns, started in 1988) and Namibia (1992). As a result, the World Bank's policy favoured early childhood programmes, which were perceived as more successful. The study also revealed that in recent years, the World Bank had acknowledged errors in education policy making and advice to countries in the South, notably, the excessive weight given to infrastructure during the 1960s and 1970s, the neglect of higher education vis-à-vis basic education, and allegations about the failure of adult literacy programmes.

Torres deplored the way in which economic criteria and cost-effectiveness had become dominant in international and national education policy making, because this had led to massive campaigns and programmes being funded and run by states and governments at the expense of small-scale local projects run mostly by NGOs. She believed that the strictly economic approach was dangerous and controversial and raised concerns about the leading role that the World Bank — an institution that specialises in finance, not adult education — seemed to play in adult education.

Torres also suggested that in terms of international policy, adult education was secondary to children's education. Although in theory, learning for life is acknowledged as the terminal goal, as of 2002 the EFA goals had translated into a "children only" approach (p. 67). According to her report, the administration of both the EFA and the MDG had made adult education a non-priority and reduced the goal of eradicating illiteracy to the more modest goal of reducing it. In effect, policy without a holistic view had led to competition for resources between poor children and their parents, although the inseparability between the well-being of children and their parents is well understood and documented.

In light of these critiques, Torres recommended that lifelong learning should be adopted as a paradigm for all countries so that the North can learn together with and from the South, as well as assist the South to document, translate and disseminate its own knowledge production. Torres also recommended treating educational policy as social policy: poverty is not the result of illiteracy but vice versa. According to Torres, education and learning are not objectives in themselves but means for improving not only people's lives but also the world. To this end, she recommended that educational policy should be explicitly framed within and oriented toward social transformation and that, given the heterogeneities of local conditions and the complexity of education and learning, the over generalisation of research findings should be avoided (an example of over generalisation is the extension of lessons from Africa into Latin America).

Finally, Torres recommended that the learning community should be the guiding principle for all adult education policy. She defined "learning community" as an area or a territory where all learners — children, youth, and adults — are valued and engaged in all learning means and modalities: education and training, non-formal and informal, peer and inter-generational, residential and distance, self-directed, and experiential.

## Summary

In order to improve the conditions of adult education in the world, diverse groups have come together. Various economic, social and political changes that have occurred in the world in the last 30 to 40 years and have dramatically altered the course of adult education. Internationalisation of adult education represents the trend of globalisation and privatisation.

Although organisations like the United Nations and its various wings and the World Bank have actively participated in the promotion of adult education, one must be critical of their roles. The disenfranchisement of labour and the subsequent drop in their bargaining power can be attributed to economic restructuring. This has led to education being centred around gaining the required skills to survive market forces.

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