



Miomir Despotović

ADULT EDUCATION IN WESTERN BALKANS

- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW -



Adult Education Society
DVV International

Belgrade, 2016



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DVW International is the Institute for International Cooperation of the Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband e. V. (DVV), the German Adult Education Association. As the leading professional organisation in the field of Adult Education and development cooperation, DVW International provides worldwide support for the establishment and development of sustainable structures for Youth and Adult Education.

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Foreword

The study you see before you is part of a continuing effort on the part of *DW International*² to support CONFINTEA processes in the region and facilitate a regional contribution to this UNESCO initiative. This support has been continuous since 2002 and has involved numerous and diverse activities; in recent years it has focused on the implementation of the recommendations of the *Belém Framework for Action*. The research that served as the basis for the study, as well as a significant portion of the other regional activities on this project, was coordinated by the Adult Education Society in partnership with the network of offices of *DW International* in the south-east European region and the Montenegro Center for Vocational Education.

One of the key recommendations of the *Belém Framework for Action* was the initiation of monitoring mechanisms with clear benchmarks and indicators, since these are a prerequisite for the realisation of numerous other recommendations relating to quality, participation, financing, policies and others. A very diverse range of organisations offer educational programmes and activities aimed at adults: public institutions in a large number of fields, private organisations of all sizes, professional and citizens' associations, chambers and foundations, among others. Existing reports on and analyses of conditions in adult education primarily focus on providers of educational programmes in the area of literacy and vocational training for adults who are part of the formal education system; yet they comprise only a very small part of this broad sector. Additionally, none of the countries in which this research was conducted keeps a comprehensive registry of providers, a catalogue of educational programmes or some other systematic overview of the data. Essentially, the situation in much of the practice of adult education and learning in the Western Balkans is more a matter of supposition, based on partial information, than of direct knowledge. Hence it is not possible to reliably interpret change, monitor the realisation of relevant policies, propose support measures or advocate

2 The Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association.

policies based on facts. At the same time, adult education is referred to as “a prerequisite for the survival and development of modern society”³ and the discipline faces demands for reform of a most challenging kind in the processes of transition and European integration.

Through this research we have sought to collect more information about the field: who the providers are of adult education programmes in the Western Balkan region (Macedonia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and the territory of Kosovo⁴), what their orientation is in terms of their programmes, how they are financed and what their attitudes are towards quality in the delivery of their programmes, who the facilitators of these programmes are, what their employment status is and what attitude they have towards their own professional improvement. In preparing for the research, almost 3000 providers of adult educational programmes and activities were recorded. This database alone is a significant result of this project, offering a basis for some future, more comprehensive study. The methodological complexity and broad geographical scope of the research, as well as limited finances, resulted in a limited response from providers.

We are grateful to all colleagues and partners who worked with us on this project. We would especially like to thank the organisations that took part in the research, who trusted us with the data we requested, and in doing so contributed to efforts to bring progress and greater structure to the field of adult education in our region.

Dušan Zdravković

Director of the Adult Education Society

3 Medić S, Despotović M, Popović K, Milanović M. (2002). „Strateški pravci razvoja obrazovanja odraslih“. In Kvalitetno obrazovanje za sve – Put ka razvijenom društvu (305-332). Beograd: Ministarstvo prosvete i sporta RS

4 “This name is without prejudice to positions on status and is in line with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244 and the International Court of Justice Opinion on the Kosovo Declaration of Independence.”

Introduction

The idea of educating and teaching adults has long historical roots, and is an established component of contemporary socioeconomic development policies, both at the global and the national levels. Modern development policies regard education as a common asset, a fundamental human right and the basis for pursuing all other human rights and freedoms, such as the right to work and to choice of employment, security, equality, freedom of expression and thought and to participation in the cultural life of the community. It is also of crucial importance in addressing global socioeconomic and political issues such as: peace, tolerance, sustainable development, public health and nutrition, concern for parenting and the family, the emancipation of women, the protection and emancipation of marginal and vulnerable groups and groups and individuals with special needs, employment, social cohesion and inclusion, poverty reduction and economic development.

Because of the impact that it has and that is expected of it, education, and adult education as a particular aspect of this, has become a global development priority. In the policies and activities of global organisations (UNESCO, the OECD, the World Bank) there is a strong tendency for education to be positioned as a key instrument for individual and socioeconomic development (see, for example: UNESCO, 2014).

The European Union has also positioned education as a primary instrument in pursuing development and strategic objectives. The Lisbon Strategy strongly affirmed the principle that people are the main asset of the European Union and the focal point of its various policies, and that investment in people is crucial for the development of the knowledge economy and addressing the problems of unemployment, social exclusion and poverty (European Council, 2000). The new strategic framework for the period 2010-2020 – *Europe 2020: A European strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth*, accepted at the European summit in June 2010, regards education and learning as key elements for the economic and social development of the European Union. The decisive role of education and teaching in the future devel-

opment of Europe is clearly illustrated by the five quantitative objectives that the European Union needs to meet by 2020:

- to raise the employment rate of the population aged 20–64 from the current 69% to at least 75%;
- increase investment in research and development from the current 1.9% to 3% of gross domestic product;
- to achieve the “20-20-20” climate and energy targets – 20% reduction in greenhouse gas emissions, 20% of energy from renewables in the overall energy supply and a 20% increase in energy efficiency;
- to reduce the rate of early school leavers from the current 15% to 10%;
- increase the share of persons aged 30-34 completing tertiary education to 40%;
- reduce the number of people living below the poverty line by 25%, equating to 20 million people (European Commission, 2010).

These objectives are interconnected and interdependent. Achieving the education objectives will increase employment, and increasing employment will contribute to a reduction in poverty. Increasing capacities in research and development and investing in clean technologies also impacts the creation of new jobs and business opportunities, which significantly contributes to poverty reduction and is a catalyst for education and learning.

Adult education and learning are becoming more significant than ever before. For this reason, adult education systems need to adapt to the demands of socioeconomic development and offer education and learning which are suited to different groups of adult and their specific needs for knowledge and skills. This places adult education and learning providers at the forefront, leading the way in lifelong learning and in efforts to implement different socioeconomic policies and education policies in particular.

Both the Lisbon Strategy and the Europe 2020 Strategy make special mention of the countries of the Western Balkans and the former Yugoslav states. The Lisbon strategy affirms the stability of the Western Balkan countries and their integration into the European Union as one of its strategic priorities, while the Europe 2020 strategy emphasises the regional aspect of its stated objectives and the need for the development of regional and national objectives that follow the lead of the EU and address the needs in the specific socioeconomic context of in-

dividual states. Accordingly, the European Union has mobilised a large number of organisations and developed multiple initiatives supporting the European integration of the Western Balkans.

Socio-economic development, and especially the prospects for European integration, have placed a stark challenge before the Western Balkans in terms of its ability to make the transition, and specifically of its need to establish and implement far-reaching reforms in relation to:

- advancing democracy, economic and technological efficiency, social inclusion and participation in the labour market,
- establishing knowledge- and innovation-based economies, and the efficient use of resources and
- increasing employment and reducing poverty

Since these are very ambitious objectives, it may reasonably be asked to what extent the Western Balkans are able to keep abreast of and meet these objectives where adult education and learning are concerned.

3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Western Balkans – basic economic and demographic characteristics

The expression Western Balkans refers to the following south-east European countries: Croatia, Albania, Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Macedonia⁵. The last four came into being out of the breakup of the former Yugoslavia and aside from their common history and their understandable differences they nevertheless share a very significant degree of social, economic and cultural similarity. They also have in common their shared ambition to join the European Union. For practical reasons (Croatia has become an EU member), and because of the need for consistency and uniformity in drawing comparisons, the scope of this analysis of adult education in the Western Balkan region has been narrowed to Macedonia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and the territory of Kosovo⁶.

Although they differ greatly in terms of the sizes of their populations, Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Kosovo all have very modest demographic resources⁷.

5 In some official EU and UN documents, the name Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is used. This analysis will use its constitutional name – Macedonia.

6 “This name is without prejudice to positions on status and is in line with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244 and the International Court of Justice Opinion on the Kosovo Declaration of Independence.”

7 All the statistical data in this section of the analysis are from Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>), and the CIA (<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/resources/the-world-factbook/>). Although methodologically speaking these two databases are not fully compatible, they needed to be combined and used in parallel, especially in the case of Kosovo, for which Eurostat has no consistent data.

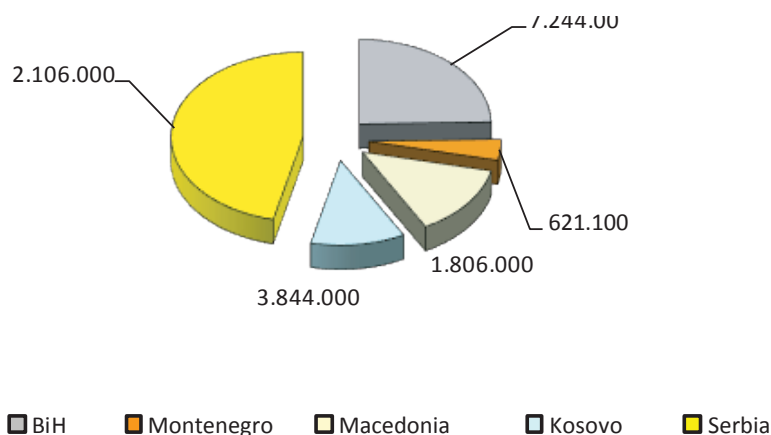


Figure 1 – Population figures for the Western Balkan countries - 2013

In terms of population size, Serbia is 101st on the list of the 260 countries of the world, Bosnia and Herzegovina is 129th, Macedonia 147th, Kosovo 151st and Montenegro 161st, and with their combined population comprise only 3% of the population of the European Union.

A key demographic trait of the Western Balkans, excluding Kosovo to a certain extent, is its progression towards a phase of slowing population growth, accompanied by low birth rates and falling mortality rates, i.e. a significant reduction in the child population and an increase in the elderly population.

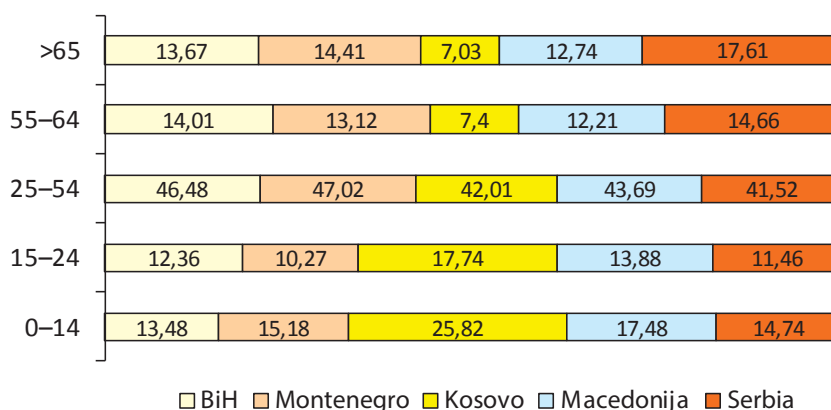


Figure 2 – Breakdown of the population by age in 2014, in %

The over-65 age group in the Western Balkans ranges in size from 13% to 18% of the total population, with a tendency towards further

growth. Only Kosovo does not entirely reflect this trend – there this age group accounts for a little over 7% of the total population. This indicates that the Western Balkans are facing the problem of an ageing population, a declining school-age population and probably, in the near future, a shortfall in the labour force.

As regards economic development, the Western Balkans as a whole are severely lagging behind the European Union, with no individual country achieving even 40% of the average European per capita GDP.

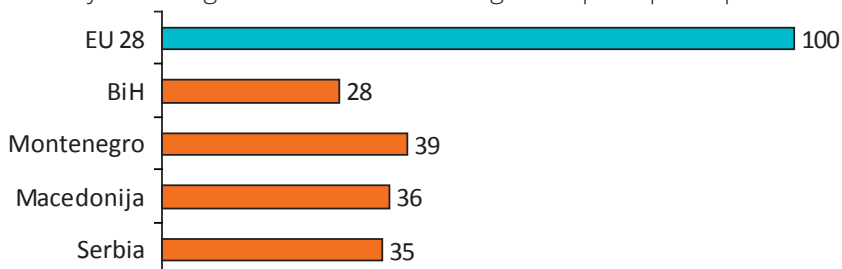


Figure 3 – Gross domestic product per capita, 2014
(Index EU28 = 100%)

A lack of economic development (the inability to increase GDP over the long-term) is inevitably accompanied by high – sometimes extreme – unemployment rates.

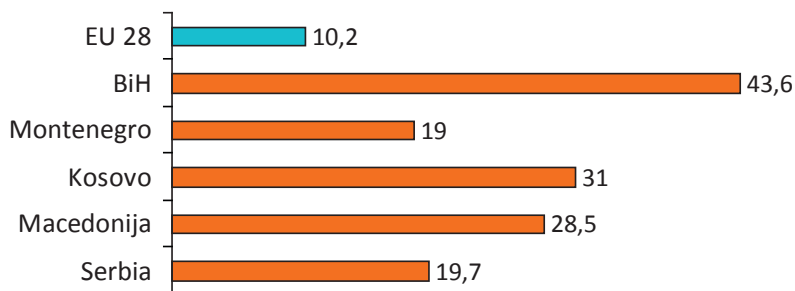


Figure 4 – Unemployment rates, %

The inevitable consequence of the low, even negative economic growth rate, and of high unemployment, is poverty among a significant proportion of the population. According to Eurostat data for 2013, 9.6% of the EU-28 population was severely materially deprived, while that figure for Serbia was 26.9% and for Macedonia as high as 37.7% of the population. According to the CIA data also, a significant percentage of the population lives below the poverty line, especially in the cases of Macedonia and Kosovo.

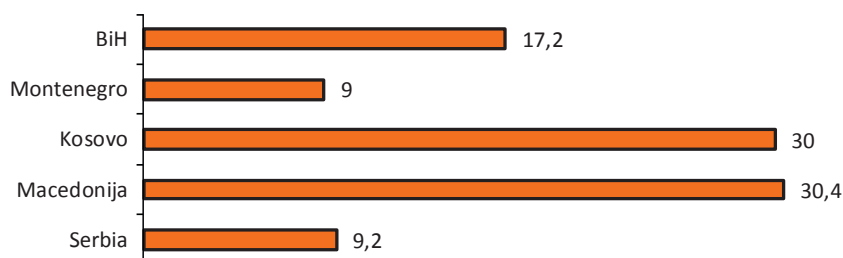


Figure 5 – Percentage of the population below the poverty line

Unemployment, poverty and poor levels of inclusion are not, however, only connected with the state of the economy, and cannot be eradicated merely through economic policy measures. Economic analyses and research suggest that a growth in the investment rate and the economic growth rate are not necessarily accompanied by a growth in employment and a reduction in poverty (see Despotović, 2007). Unemployment and poverty have deep roots which are to be found in the system of social (in)justice, and especially in a background of unequal and unjust distribution of knowledge, skills, abilities and potential, and in the lack of access to education for all citizens. This particularly applies to a lack of access to education in the adult stage of life. With this in mind it is clear that one of the keys to overcoming economic underdevelopment, reducing unemployment and poverty and improving social inclusion in the Western Balkans lies in recognising the importance of human capital and increasing opportunities for adult education and learning. This also points to a profound need for a review of the current state of adult education which would serve as a basis for the creation of relevant adult education policies and for defining their objectives and priorities.

3.2. Defining adult education/learning

The history of adult education is a history of misunderstanding over its actual nature. Culture, tradition in adult education, and the interests of individual countries or organisations and their particular needs for educating and teaching specific target groups within the adult learner population, have resulted in quite different understandings of adult education – from UNESCO's all-encompassing definition, to rather restrictive ones in certain countries, such as for example in the United States, and in political unions such as the EU. This gives rise to major difficulties in empirically defining, monitoring and studying the phenomenon of adult education.

Adult education is traditionally defined as non-professional education for people aged 18 and above (Peters, 1966) which is conducted outside the regular school system and which is essentially of a voluntary and local character. The definition of adult education in some countries, for example the US, also has a restrictive aspect, seeking to limit this activity to a clearly-defined category of adult. The US Workforce Investment Act of 1998 defines adult education as services or instruction below the postsecondary level for individuals who:

- have attained 16 years of age;
- are not enrolled in secondary school;
- do not have a secondary school diploma or its equivalent;
- are unable to speak, read or write the English language and
- lack sufficient mastery of basic educational skills to function effectively in society (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1988).

From the point of view of this Act, adult education covers learning activities aimed at those who have not had a high-school education and at the non-English speaking immigrant population regardless of the prior level of education attained.

In more recent EU terminology, the expression “adult education” has been completely supplanted by the term “adult learning”, which is defined as “all forms of learning undertaken by adults after having left initial education and training, however far this process may have gone (e.g. including tertiary education)” (Communication from the Commission, 2006, p. 2). The European Union has thus joined those countries which narrow the definition of adult education and in so doing contribute to misunderstanding of the concept.

In contrast to the US and EU, UNESCO has given adult education an all-encompassing definition, affirming it as a concept and practice that is not limited in terms of its content or the way in which the learning is conducted or organised. This of course does not mean that UNESCO’s understanding of adult education is without its inconsistencies and difficulties.

At its General Conference in Nairobi in 1976, UNESCO explicitly defined adult education as part of lifelong learning and as “the entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adult by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in

a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development" (UNESCO, 1976, p. 2). At its Fifth International Conference on Adult Education too, UNESCO reaffirmed a broad-ranging understanding of adult education and repeated the Nairobi definition of adult education in slightly condensed form as "the entire body of ongoing learning processes, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, and improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction to meet their own needs and those of their society" (UNESCO, 1997, p. 1). Adult education is asserted to be the "key to the twenty-first century", and a condition for full participation in society, for sustainable development, for promoting democracy, justice, gender equity, and scientific, social and economic development, and for building a culture of peace based on justice and global dialogue (UNESCO, 1997). Impressive, but insufficient, since the same Conference saw the promotion of a concept of adult learning which "encompasses both formal and continuing education, nonformal learning and the spectrum of informal and incidental learning available in a multicultural learning society, where theory- and practice-based approaches are recognized" (UNESCO, 1997, p. 1). The use of the term "adult learning" was probably an effort to affirm the concept and philosophy of lifelong learning, the primary intention of which is to overcome the limitations of institutional learning and develop the full potential of learning situated outside the education system. However, after one decade UNESCO changed its view, although the change seems more a product of confusion rather than an evolution in its understanding of adult education. At its Sixth Conference on Adult Education in Belém in 2009, it gave a definition of adult learning identical to that given in the Hamburg declaration of 1997. In the familiar definition of adult education from Hamburg, the phrase "adult education" was simply, and without explanation, replaced with the phrase "adult learning", while everything else was left exactly the same (see UNESCO, 2009). But that is not all. UNESCO seems to be unsure what to do with these two terms, and so in the Belém Framework for Action and all later documents it combines them into a single expression: "adult learning and education" (ALE) which it treats as entirely self-explanatory, giving no definition of it (UNESCO, 2015).

The different conceptualisations of adult education/learning hint at the methodological difficulties in researching it and identifying its indi-

vidual manifestations, still further compounded by the varying definitions of the words “adulthood” and “adult”.

3.3. The diversity of adult education

Adult education is a very broad area in which different types of provider are active and which, through different types of learning, deliver different education and learning activities in widely differing fields of knowledge and practice. These learning activities are aimed at varying target groups – young adults, the elderly, the employed, the unemployed, the rural or the urban population, people with differing levels of prior education, women, prisoners, immigrants, people with special needs, etc. Adult education, adult learning, lifelong learning, continuing education and self-directed learning are terms which seek to “pin down” and describe this diversity and, although they are frequently used synonymously despite the differing meanings and contexts in which they are pursued, they do not relate to clearly distinguished areas of practice or public activity.

The boundaries of adult education are extremely broad and are difficult to identify and define precisely. This can be very clearly seen in the international and national standard classifications of economic activities, in which adult education is most often classified as “Other education” or using some similar terms, indicating an activity which cannot be precisely defined and described (see: United Nations, 2008). In some classifications, the category “Other education” is not subdivided into more detailed or specific subcategories (it is a “catch-all” category), while in some systems it is defined more precisely using a variety of subcategories such as educational organisations and learning programmes and activities (informal sports and cultural education, general and political education of adults, professional training for adults, education in folk high schools, education in adult education centres, education in evening institutes, associations for adult education, education in local adult education centres, training for the labour market, literacy training, learning in further education institutions, etc.). This shows that adult education in the organisational sense is mostly defined as informal education conducted outside of school, and in terms of its purpose and content as liberal, lower-level professional education (see Despotović, 2010; 2012).

One of the reasons for this variation and inconsistency in classifying and describing adult education as an economic activity is no doubt

to be found in the differing traditions of adult education and the fact that the notions of “adulthood” and the “adult” are social and cultural constructs, the meaning of which is saturated by the dominant value system and cultural norms of individual societies and their practical needs in the area of adult learning and education.

3.3.1. The modular approach in defining “adults”

In both the global and the European context it is common to consider as adult all those aged 18 and above, since any person who has not reached 18 years of age is considered a child (UNICEF, 1989). For very practical reasons, this definition is very often relativised so that persons below the age of 18 are also considered adults in order to be able to access adult education and learning programmes and services under certain conditions. The reason for such an understanding of “adult” is the fact that age by itself does not determine the position and status of an adult in a society so much as the social roles and functions that the person takes on in a particular period of their life (Kasworm, C.E., Rose, A.D., Rose-Gordon, J.M., 2010). Some definitions of adulthood do indeed only emphasise years of age as the key criterion in defining an adult, while others place the focus on the roles and functions assumed by individuals who are considered adult in a society. Still others take education as a criterion – whether or not the person has abandoned it or has participated in any educational or learning programme or activity or has fully completed a particular level of education.

In view of the fact that the boundary between children and adults is changing in most cultures, UNESCO is leaning towards the use of the term “adult” to refer to all those taking part in adult education and learning, even if they have not formally reached adulthood (UNESCO, 2015). This has prompted some authors to propose a “modular” approach to defining adult education (Myers, K., Conte, N., Rubenson, K., 2014). This approach takes age (a minimum of 25 years) as the basic criterion in defining an adult, but where necessary it also includes younger people in the adult category (aged 20 to 24) who are in the process of acquiring basic skills, or who have the social role of an adult such as providing for a family or full-time employment as a primary activity. Excluded from this group are people above 54 or 64 years of age, those who are currently in higher (university) education or those who are involved in education that is not market-oriented.

In the European Union an adult is taken to be “Any person aged 16 years or older who has left the initial education and training system.” (Brooks & Burton, 2008). Although it is usual to consider adult anyone

who is 18 or older, this definition has been adopted by the European Union for very pragmatic reasons – because adulthood in some countries of the Union is reached at 16 and because international literacy surveys seek to encompass people between the ages of 16 and 65 as a single age group.

In some other countries, such as Serbia for example, where all those aged at least 18 are considered adults, the criterion for defining an adult with respect to adult education is variable and depends on the type of learning program or activity in which the person is involved. For adult primary education programmes, those aged 15 or above are considered adults. For secondary vocational education programmes, all those aged 17 above are considered adults, while for qualification programmes, informal education and informal learning programmes, recognition of prior learning and use of counselling and guidance services, adults are taken to be all those aged 18 or above (Vlada Republike Srbije, 2013).

3.4. Types of adult education

Adult education and learning, because of the diversity of its target groups, is extremely varied in terms of content, quality, objectives and results achieved. Also, it is conducted in a variety of contexts ranging from schools of different types and levels to organisations that do not belong to the formal system such as companies, families or the local community.

Adult education and learning, primarily under the influence of the development of the concept of lifelong learning, is usually broken down into formal education, non-formal education and informal learning (although it is not uncommon to encounter the term “informal education”). Although it has become almost universally accepted, this classification according to some theoreticians is meaningless (Wain, 1985) and has only brought further confusion to the understanding of education as a process (Savićević, 2003).

3.4.1. Formal learning/education

Formal learning is conducted in an organised and structured context, that is in institutions that provide regular education or a continuing learning path for learners and students. From the point of view of the learner, formal learning is intentional. It usually leads to validation and certification (Brooks, G. & Burton, M., 2008). In addition to being stru-

ctured it is also controlled, since it assumes the presence of clear mechanisms for identifying and evaluating the quality of the work of the individual and the provider, which is the basis on which diplomas or certificates recognised as proof of qualification at the national or international level are issued.

Such a definition of formal education/learning also gives rise to the primary criteria which distinguish it from other types of education and learning. These criteria are as follows:

- ***hierarchy level-grade*** – relates to gradations of learning and competencies that the complexity of the content of the programme requires of participants, where completion of one level allows access to another higher and more complex level;
- ***admission requirements*** – a requirement or set of requirements which have to be fulfilled in order to gain access to learning, such as age or prior attainment in education;
- ***registration requirements*** – a requirement or set of requirements which have to be met to formally record enrolment into learning (European Commission, 2006).

The emergence and establishment of National Qualifications Frameworks has somewhat altered the definition of formal education, putting in place a fundamental criterion for differentiating formal education from other types of education and learning. A National Qualifications Framework is a regulatory document defining all qualifications and their positions in the hierarchy of possible qualifications, as well as the bodies and organisations which facilitate them, conditions for enrolment in programmes and the types of certificates or diplomas issued. In accordance with this, all institutionalised learning activities are considered formal if they lead to a learning outcome that can be categorised within the National Qualifications Framework, or lead to a certificate defined by the NQF. Programmes partially conducted in the workplace can also be considered formal education if they lead to national qualifications (dual education or apprenticeship programmes).

3.4.2. Non-formal learning/education

Non-formal education covers those activities not explicitly defined as learning (in terms of learning objectives, time and resources). It is institutionalised, intentional and planned by education providers. From the perspective of the learner it is intentional (Brooks, G. & Burton, M., 2008). The structured (organised) context of non-formal learning emphasises the central role of the participant in the learning process,

but it is mostly lacking in control mechanisms for achieving quality and evaluating the performance of the participant.

Non-formal learning covers a limited number of areas and is focused on more detailed coverage of a relatively narrow range of topics and areas, which cannot provide sufficient knowledge for the attainment of formal qualifications or levels of education (Cedefop, 2000). It usually covers areas such as literacy, culture, life, working and social skills and personal development skills.

In terms of its primary function, non-formal education is an addition, alternative and/or supplement to formal education in the process of lifelong learning. It is aimed at people of all ages but need not be conducted on a continuing basis, either in terms of its approach or its content; it can be short-term and/or low-intensity, which usually manifests itself in the form of short courses, workshops or seminars (UNESCO, 2011).

From the standpoint of the National Qualifications Framework, non-formal education encompasses institutionalised learning activities and programmes that lead to qualifications which are not part of the National Qualifications Framework, and for which the provider (professional organisation, private commercial organisation, non-governmental organisation) delivering it does not issue national diplomas and certificates. (European Commission, 2006). However, some types of formal qualification can be achieved solely through participation in special programmes of non-formal education. The basic condition for this is that such programmes be accredited by the authority responsible for qualifications or the accreditation of programmes.

3.4.3. Informal learning

Informal learning results from everyday activities connected with work, family or leisure time. It is not organised or structured in terms of learning objectives, time or resources. From the perspective of the learner, informal learning is in most cases unintentional (Brooks, G. & Burton, M., 2008.). The ISCED classification system defines informal learning activities as non-institutionalised activities (UNESCO, 2011). Schugurensky (2000) however believes that (non-)institutionalisation is not a criterion based on which informal learning can be differentiated from other types of learning. In his view, informal learning is conducted outside of programmes delivered by institutions of formal and non-formal education, but not necessarily outside educational institutions themselves. On the contrary, it can be conducted within insti-

tutions, but as independent learning. Institutionalised learning (in the sense of education providers) is no longer even an essential or critical condition for defining formal education. If, for example, an employer provides training which leads to a qualification from the National Framework, then that training and programme fall into the category of formal education (European Commission, 2006).

Informal learning covers a relatively narrow range of subjects and can be organised around instructions, observation or carrying out activities with others – for example, watching a documentary, listening to an audio recording of a foreign language or being given instructions and advice by a colleague on how to use a new tool at work (Cedefop, 2000; UNESCO, 2011). A component but not equivalent aspect of informal learning is incidental or occasional learning which is not organised and does not consist of communication aimed at bringing about learning.

3.4.4. Criteria for defining formal, non-formal and informal learning

The four key criteria for differentiating formal, non-formal and informal learning are: structure, intention, control and coverage (Tamilina, 2012), and these relatively consistently and clearly explain the differences between the three dominant types of learning.

Table 1 – Comparative criteria for the three basic types of learning

Characteristics	Formal	Non-formal	Informal
Structure	Structured	Structured	Non-structured
Intention	Intentional	Intentional	Non-intentional
Control	Controlled	Non-controlled	Non-controlled
Coverage	Broad coverage	Narrow coverage	Narrow coverage

The *structure* (organisation) of learning involves the establishment of planned forms or sequences of learning with an explicit or implicit objective. This means, primarily, an organisation which organises learning and establishes the environment for learning and plans the teaching content and methods through which learning communication is facilitated. The provider is usually a social body but can also be a technical or technological solution such as software or a film. Some activities can be highly organised, such as attending school, while others can have a very low level of organisation, for example self-learning new software using an instruction manual. Organisation relates to decisions on different aspects of learning (content, structuring of

knowledge, method, time, purpose, environment etc.), taken before the actual learning activity begins.

The **intention** to learn is a deliberate (purposeful) search for knowledge, skills, competencies or attitudes, and results in learning activities. The **intention** to learn formulated by the learner or participant prior to the commencement of learning is a crucial criterion in identifying the type of learning. It is the basis on which the difference between the activity of learning and the activity of non-learning or incidental learning is established. Of course, the activity of non-learning and incidental learning can lead to learning (new knowledge, skills and insights), but in that case it is only a side-effect of a particular activity. The boundary between the activity of learning and the activity of non-learning is sometimes a difficult one to determine. Culture, sport or religion include activities which may be but need not be considered learning activities, depending on whether there is an intention to learn. It is important to understand that the learning outcome cannot change the nature of the learning activity, for which the conscious intention to learn is of crucial importance (European Commission, 2006).

Control of learning relates to all aspects of learning – the objectives and outcomes of learning, its content, the methods and strategies used, the environment in which it takes place, its facilitators and the results achieved. Control is provided by an external authority or the education provider itself, based on previously defined criteria and standards.

The **coverage** of learning can be broader and relate to knowledge, skills and attitudes orientated towards the development of the whole person, or narrower, focused on specific information or partial knowledge, skills and behaviours.

3.5. Learning activities

All kinds of education and learning are delivered through individual learning activities. To put it another way, the characteristics of individual learning activities constitute broader categories or types of learning – formal, non-formal and informal. A learning activity is “any activities of an individual organised with the intention to improve his/her knowledge, skills and competence” (European Commission, 2006, p. 9).

Every individual learning activity is determined by the learning type, mode/method and content, as well as the subcategories and specific characteristics of each of these, which can transform the character of each individual learning activity.

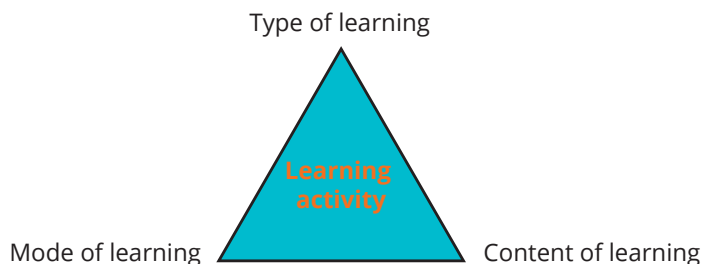


Figure 6 – Basic determinants of learning activities

The type of learning is the learning context defined on the basis of structure, intention to learn, control and coverage of learning as either formal, non-formal or informal education/learning.

The content is the subject or area of learning, i.e. what the individual is learning.

The mode of learning or organisational form (framework) used to realise the learning activity (the acquisition and transmission of ideas, information, knowledge, skills and competencies) is called the method and can take the form of a programme or a course.

A course is a planned set of individual learning activities in a particular field, provided by the provider of the education. A course is a generic term for different sets of learning activities which can take the form of a seminar, workshop, public lecture, conference, etc. (for more details see European Commission, 2005; 2006; UNESCO, 2011).

In the theory and the practice of adult education, organisational forms are usually broken down into those of an extensive nature and those of an intensive nature. Extensive forms involve larger groups of very diverse participants over a relatively shorter period of time; they are orientated towards the rapid transmission of knowledge and information and do not have a firm organisational structure (a programme with defined objectives and outcomes, with a timeline for their achievement). These forms have different practical manifestations, such as lectures, cycles of lectures, discussion evenings, round tables, exhibitions, panel debates, literary evenings, performances etc. Intensive forms are intended for smaller, relatively homogeneous groups over a longer period, they have a firmer organisational structure that aims to bring about somewhat more lasting change in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the participants. In practice these forms are termed seminars, courses, workshops etc.

A programme is a set of educational activities organised in order to achieve a predetermined objective in a defined period of time. In order to define the class of programme more precisely, two additional criteria are used: level and field of education/learning. In education and learning practice, the programme is usually a suitable combination of courses/subjects, “modules” or “learning units”(for more details see European Commission, 2005; 2006; UNESCO, 2011).

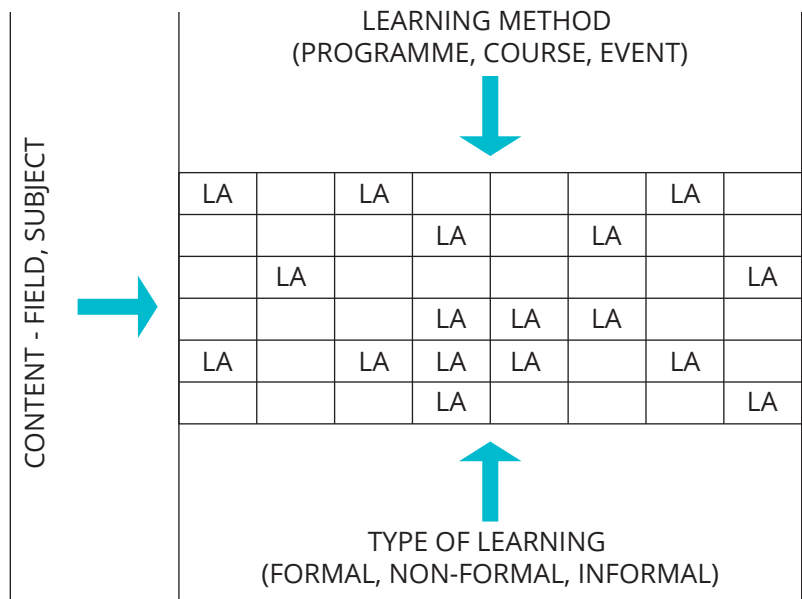


Figure 7 – Learning activity (LA) definitions grid

The character and type of individual learning activities are thus determined by at least three facets: the learning type, content and mode. Based on this, each individual learning activity has very differing manifestations and names. Sometimes, other bases for identification can be the name of the activity, the mode (form) of learning, sometimes the content of the learning and sometimes the type of learning.

The character and status of individual learning activities have differing meanings in different national contexts and change significantly (and become more complicated) under the influence of other elements of importance for learning such as:

- the type of institution/organisation organising the learning, depending on its status (public, private, non-governmental);
- the type of institution/organisation organising the learning (education as a primary, secondary or occasional activity);

- the media and means used (traditional or distance learning) and
- the characteristics of the participants in the learning (professional teachers, occasional teachers, children, youth, adults).

It is very hard to classify certain learning activities and determine their status and position. This is the case, for example, with activities that happen as part of sports and cultural organisations, where the same activities can be classified as non-learning activities or as formal, non-formal or informal learning activities, depending on their objectives and effects, context and the way they are organised.

Taking private lessons as a learning activity can have a quite different status, depending on whether the activity is a professional and ongoing activity for the teacher, with a formal teacher-pupil relationship, which is then classified as a non-formal education activity. If the teacher gives lessons as part of a private social relationship then that is classified as informal learning. Where national systems recognise “home schooling”, the organisation and function of which is such as to permit the learner to gain qualifications that are part of the National Qualifications Framework, then this can be classified as formal education (European Commission – Eurostat, 2007).

3.5.1. Classification of learning activities

Regardless of all the complexity and diversity of learning activities, systematic attempts to classify, monitor and research them are not unusual.

Classifications of formal learning activities are relatively straightforward, and both in national and international surveys on participation in education they usually come down to data on participation at various levels of formal education or at different types of formal education institution, or about participation in programmes aimed at acquiring diplomas or qualifications, with no details about their type or level (see Tamilina, 2012).

The process of identifying non-formal learning activities is somewhat more complex due to the significant differences in the education systems of individual countries, as well as because of the “philosophy” and approach to education of the various international organisations that classify learning activities and monitor and evaluate participation in education and learning in the interests of their own policies and approaches to global socioeconomic development. This suggests that the types of learning activity in different countries and organisations differ significantly.

The European Adult Education Survey (European Commission – Eurostat, 2007) has adopted a minimalist form for researching non-formal learning activities, naming only the following four groups:

- private lessons or courses (classroom teaching, lectures or theoretical and practical courses);
- distance learning courses;
- seminars or workshops;
- guided on-the-job training.

The OECD (2008) however offers a very extensive list of non-formal learning activities, primarily inspired by the Swedish experience and by their classification system:

Table 2 – Non-formal learning activities

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ attending adult education centres; ■ attending language schools or institutes; ■ attending correspondence schools; ■ training provided by an organisation, union or association; ■ a course or study circle organised by a study circle centre; ■ attending a typing or word-processing school; ■ dance school or institute (modern or jazz dance or ballet); ■ driving school; ■ study by regularly following an educational programme series on the radio or television; ■ courses or study circles in the workplace or in free time; ■ seminars, lectures, workshops or similar in the workplace or in free time; ■ any kind of apprenticeship training taken at vocational adult education centres or vocational education institutions; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ youth training at vocational or professional education institutions; ■ attending sports institutes in other training; ■ attending open university courses; ■ training provided by the employer at the workplace; ■ training provided by a separate training enterprise or training centre; ■ guided on-the-job training; ■ conferences, seminars or other similar training; ■ private lessons; ■ education or training in the workplace or in the work situation with the aid of advisers or instructors; ■ employment-promoting course paid for by labour authorities; ■ folk high school or folk academy with no qualification gained; ■ attending further education courses at a university continuing education centre;
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The list of learning activities, as can be seen, is very extensive and varied, also encompassing non-formal individual learning activities, which it attempts to define more precisely by identifying the learning provider, the method (form), the content of the learning and the teacher, trainer or instructor.

Informal learning is a very heterogeneous area, both in terms of its conceptualisation and in terms of methodological identification. In some cases it refers only to learning activities in everyday life, or those

relating to work, or only to self-directed learning activities and personal interests (see: OECD, 2008; Statistics Canada, 2003; European Commission – Eurostat, 2007).

Table 3 – Informal learning activities

AES*	OECD**	IALSS***
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ learning from family members, friends or colleagues; ■ using printed materials (books, professional journals etc.); ■ using a computer (online or offline); ■ learning via television, radio or video; ■ visiting a museum; ■ visiting a learning centre, including libraries; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ consulting books, handbooks, audio cassettes, video recordings or other documents with the intention of developing work skills; ■ using computer software or the Internet specifically for gaining knowledge for work; ■ observing someone performing a task with the intention of improving one's own work skills; ■ getting advice from a workplace colleague with the intention of developing one's own work skills; ■ getting advice from a workplace supervisor with the intention of developing one's own work skills; ■ attending conferences, trade fairs or work-related conventions; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ visiting trade fairs, professional conferences or congresses; ■ attending short lectures, seminars, workshops or special talks that are not part of a course; ■ reading manuals, reference books, journals or other written materials, but not as part of a course; ■ guided visits to museums, galleries or other locations; ■ using computers or the Internet to learn but not as part of a course; ■ using video, television, or tapes to learn, but not as part of a course; ■ learning by watching, getting help or advice from others but not from course instructors; ■ learning by oneself by trying things out; ■ learning in an organisation;

* AES - Adult Education Survey, see: European Commission – Eurostat, 2007

** OECD, 2012

*** IALSS - International Adult Literacy and Skills Survey, Statistic Canada, 2003

As can be seen, in defining informal learning Eurostat emphasises learning activities in everyday life situations, the OECD emphasises activities solely related to work, and the Canadian statistics agency emphasises activities that are not institutionalised. When we look more closely at the definitions of learning activities, it is quite clear that the criteria of institutionalisation, organisation and intentionality of learning are not entirely valid for differentiating informal learning from formal and non-formal education. Many of the aforementioned informal learning activities go on in institutions and organisations and are intentional, and somewhat organised (e.g. learning in the workplace). Even those

activities which on first sight seem non-institutional, such as for example learning via television, are in a broader sense institutionalised and organised, since there is a social and technical system behind them which intentionally, in a planned and systematic way, produces and makes available specific knowledge, opinions and values. The user “consumes” this in a way and at a time that suits him or her, and is not monitored during this process in any way, which might be regarded as a unique aspect or valid criterion for defining informal learning.

It can clearly be seen that the world of learning as a whole, even within the all-encompassing and unifying philosophy of (lifelong) learning, has been compartmentalised for the purposes of analysis and effective management. The universal experience of learning is divided into formal, non-formal and informal. Despite occasional innovations, the criteria for division are still no clearer today than those offered in the 1970s (Coombs, 1968; Coombs and Ahmed 1974), which has brought the field as a whole to the brink of confusion with respect to analysis and management. This confusion is in large part due to the fact that the phenomenon of learning/education is changing more quickly than the criteria laid down for defining its various manifestations.

Formal education is becoming a less and less reliable basis for defining non-formal (non-formal being everything that is not formal). In the effort to maximise flexibility, formal education programmes take on forms and characteristics that are traditionally associated with non-formal education. In addition to their “universal”, standardised portion, they increasingly have elements which are tailor-made, contextualised to a great extent and orientated towards particular interests and needs. Formal education is, therefore, in terms of its external manifestations (assumptions, conditions, approach, degree of institutionalisation and control of learning) becoming deformed. And not just that. Mechanisms and procedures are being developed for recognising what has been learned in other contexts and situations, which means formalising non-formal education at its core – that core being the outcome of learning (knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies).

3.6. Areas of knowledge/education/learning

Each individual learning activity, as has already been said, is determined by the type of learning, the approach to/method of learning and the content of the learning. In practice the content is the subject (rare in adult education) or the field of learning (almost the rule).

Adult learning and education activities, in terms of the content they promote and offer, are very diverse, and range from basic (reading, writing, mathematics), generic and interpersonal skills to a variety of professional skills and competencies, knowledge, attitudes and values in particular disciplines and areas of activity such as the family, civic and cultural activism, spiritual and professional development and work, health protection, environmental protection and development etc.

The areas of education and learning are defined and classified in very different ways, which is a significant problem when researching learning programmes and activities. ISCED uses the term “field” of education, defined as a branch or area of content covered by an education programme, course or module. The field or area is the generic term for the subject, discipline or area of study (see UNESCO, 2011). In the European Union (Andersson & Olsson, 1999; European Commission, 2007;) the term *field of education and training* is used to refer to the subject being studied under a programme of education. All programs are grouped into narrower or broader fields depending on the similarity of their content. In classifying fields on the basis of the similarity of their content, the following hierarchical structure of criteria is used:

- theoretical content, as the most important criterion;
- purpose of learning;
- objects of interest;
- methods and techniques;
- tools and equipment.

However, the classifications of fields of education proposed by UNESCO (ISCED) and Eurostat are completely different from the fields of education proposed by the OECD. This difference is a consequence of a differing approach to education and a differing understanding of its basic functions.

Table 4 – Fields of education/learning

OECD*	ISCED/EUROSTAT**
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> new employment; computer hardware or software training, training for management or supervisory functions (e.g. coaching, management); administrative management (accounting, secretarial work, office equipment etc); manufacturing, non-office machines and equipment (e.g. forklift truck or truck driver); sales and marketing (e.g. customer service); workplace safety, environmental protection, sustainability; group decision-making, problem-solving, teamwork; personal development (e.g. time management, stress management, retirement); education, teacher training; mathematics, physical sciences, biology, chemistry; health, medicine, dentistry; language in the function of training; apprenticeship in the workplace; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> general programmes and qualifications; education; humanist sciences and arts; social sciences; business and law; natural sciences, mathematics and information and communication technologies; engineering, manufacturing and construction; agriculture and veterinary science; health and welfare; services;

* OECD, 2008.

** UNESCO, 2011; EUROSTAT, 2007.

The ISCED and EUROSTAT classify fields of education into 10 basic groups with 24 and 27 sub-groups respectively, and several hundred separate units which define them more precisely.

Fields of learning are in fact fairly independent potential sequences of learning derived from the fields of science (social, humanist, natural sciences) or practical economic activity (agriculture, engineering and construction, education, health) or from combinations of them (business and law). Accordingly, they can be narrow or broad in scope, orientated towards general knowledge or specific life and professional skills.

3.7. Adult education providers

An adult education system is comprised of a complex network of weakly interconnected organisations conducting a variety of adult learning activities, active at the international, national, regional and local levels. In the ISCED, an education provider is defined as “An organization that provides education, either as a main or ancillary objective” (UNESCO, 2011, p. 80).

Eurostat uses the term *providers of training* to refer to “organisations or schooling institutions that actual[ly] deliver training to participants” (European Commission – Eurostat, 2007, p. 56). Institutions that finance training or only provide support for its realisation are not considered providers of training. Eurostat also uses the term *formal education institution* to refer to education institutions at any ISCED level which provide education leading to a qualification recognised by the National Framework of Qualifications, which does not exclude the possibility of also providing non-formal education and does not change their classification as “formal education provider” (see: European Commission – Eurostat, 2007).

Adult education providers differ greatly in terms of their primary objectives, functions, the groups they target and their structure in terms of curriculum and organisation. They also differ in terms of their legal and financial status – some of them are public or budget-funded institutions, some are private, profitable organisations, and some are non-governmental organisations.

Adult education providers also differ with respect to their dominant approach. Some of them are orientated towards traditional forms of working, while others tend towards methods which involve the use of modern information and communication technologies, which determines the type of educational activity but not its fundamental nature.

In order to collect data on education providers, the OECD (2008) offers a universal list of education providers, on which can be found:

- Employer, own company;
- Private training institute or private business school;
- Other company or commercial institution where training is not the main activity;
- Employers' organisation, chamber of commerce;
- Trade union;
- Professional association or organisation;
- University, university college, high school;

- Non-profit association, e.g. cultural society, political party, NGO, etc.);
- Vocational school or publicly-funded technical institute;
- Dance school or institute;
- Driving school;
- Private person (e.g. students or teachers giving private lessons);

Networks of adult education providers differ from country to country. In Serbia, (MPNTR, 2015) for example, the network of adult education providers, in addition to primary and secondary schools and universities, is comprised of a very diverse range of organisations.

Table 5 – Organisations that can have the status of a public adult education provider in Serbia

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ other institution; ▪ state-owned company; ▪ employment agency; ▪ professional rehabilitation service provider; ▪ trade union; ▪ professional association; ▪ folk, workers' and open universities; ▪ professional training centres and organisations; ▪ centres and schools for information and communications technologies; ▪ driving centres and schools; ▪ career guidance and counselling centres; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ cultural education centres; ▪ public agency; ▪ employment organisation; ▪ business entity; ▪ registered sole traders; ▪ associations; ▪ adult education organisations; ▪ universities of the third age; ▪ foreign language centres; ▪ centres and organisations for human resource training and development; ▪ chamber of commerce; ▪ employers' association; ▪ cultural centres;
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The adult education system in Serbia comprises a very complex network of different organisations operating at the national (state), regional and local levels. Some of them are part of the formal education system, and as such receive budget funding to pursue their activities; accordingly they are subject to the same administrative and organisational requirements as other formal education institutions (in terms of financing, monitoring and evaluation, controls, organisation of teaching, documentation and record-keeping and the issue of certificates and diplomas, teacher and learner obligations, etc.). Organisations in non-formal education, or those providing support to informal learning, if they secure the status of a publicly recognised education provider, can under certain conditions access financing from public funds.

Having in mind all the diversity and complexity of adult learning and education activities, Schroeder (1970) classified all adult education providers into those:

- I whose primary activity is adult education (adult schools, open universities);
- II for whom adult education is a secondary function (regular schools, universities);
- III for whom adult education is a related function (libraries, museums, health and social organisations) and
- IV for whom adult education is a secondary function used in support of its primary objectives (a company, trade union, church, prison, television station, newspaper etc.)

The foregoing analysis shows that adult education and learning is a very complex phenomenon that is empirically difficult to pin down. It is very varied in terms of the participants (teachers and intended target group), purpose and objectives to be achieved, expected outcomes, content and areas of knowledge to which it is related, the forms and activities used to realise it and the organisations that do so. Not only is it very difficult to establish clear and consistent criteria for defining and differentiating its different manifestations in different social contexts and situations, it is also difficult to establish clear criteria for defining individual learning activities, since their character differs depending on the combination of elements from which each individual activity is comprised. Hence in conducting an empirical analysis and selecting empirical material (variables and indicators), care must be taken regarding the universality, type, quality and availability of empirical data in order to ensure they facilitate not just quantification and the application of statistical methods but also identification of the problem and general trends, a systematic approach, control and objectivity, and the drawing of valid generalisations, and especially comparison of the various systems and contexts of adult education.

2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Purpose of the analysis

The basic purpose of the analysis is to assess the capacity of adult education providers to meet the needs for knowledge and skills of adults in Macedonia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Kosovo.

2.2. Objective of the analysis

The primary objective of the analysis is to identify and describe the types, coverage and quality of learning activity in adult education organisations.

2.3. Areas of analysis and indicators

Identification of the activities of adult education providers has been carried out through the analysis of the following areas and indicators:

Area of analysis	Indicators
1. Status and primary resources:	<p><i>formal legal status</i> – data on whether the provider has the status of a public, private or non-governmental organisation;</p> <p><i>primary activity</i> – data on the type of primary activity the organisation is involved in in terms of Schroeder's classification of adult education providers;</p> <p><i>educational identity</i> – data on whether the word "education" is contained in the definition of the vision and mission of the organisation;</p> <p><i>place where learning activity is conducted</i> – data on whether the provider uses its own, public or rented facilities or a combination of these;</p> <p><i>employed staff</i> – data on the number of full-time employees, part-time staff and volunteers in the organisation;</p>
2. Forms of education:	<p><i>extensive forms of organised education</i> – data on the number of extensive forms of education conducted by the organisation, the number of participants involved and the types of programme conducted in this form, together with their sources of financing;</p> <p><i>intensive forms of organised education</i> – data on the number of intensive forms of education conducted by the organisation, the number of participants involved and the types of programme conducted in this form, together with their sources of financing;</p>
3. Programme quality:	data relating to the structure of the programme, its suitability for specific target groups, the possibilities for revision of the programme, the budget available for financing promotion of the programme and the existence of complaint procedures (in the event that the client is not satisfied with the programme);
4. Teachers/trainers:	<p><i>teachers in extensive forms of education</i> – data on the total number of teachers, their professional training in the area of adult education, their need for professional training in the area of adult education and the financing of their work;</p> <p><i>teachers in intensive forms of education</i> – data on the total number, the required level of qualification, their attendance of professional training, professional training within the organisation itself, the number of hours of professional training, financing for professional training, the relation between teacher pay and performance;</p>
5. Monitoring and evaluation	<p><i>feedback on performance</i> – data on whether professional staff receive feedback on the results of the evaluation of their work;</p> <p><i>adjustment of programme based on results of evaluation</i> – data on whether teachers have the opportunity to amend their programme and teaching approach based on feedback received;</p> <p><i>evaluation of trainer's performance</i> – data on whether the work of the trainer is evaluated;</p> <p><i>monitoring of student wastage</i> – data on whether student dropouts are recorded and analysed.</p>

2.4. Data collection process and organisation

Planning of the analysis, drafting of the questionnaire and collection of the data was carried out by the Adult Education Society in Belgrade, the network of DVV International offices in the region of south-east Europe and the Montenegro Center for Vocational Education, during 2014.

Data on the adult education providers were collected via an electronically-distributed questionnaire which had 54 closed-type questions grouped into three major sections:

- information on the organisation;
- information on learning activities;
- information on teachers;

2.5. Sample for analysis

In collecting and analysing data, a concept of adult education was adopted which considered all those learning activities which were structured and intentional. This understanding and definition of adult education permitted a broader approach and more space to identify adult education providers regardless of whether they were engaged in formal or non-formal education, and regardless of whether they delivered adult education programmes on a continuous or only occasional basis, and whether adult education was their primary function or only a secondary one. This also allowed the research to encompass organisations offering activities and programmes of very varying content (culture, sports, health, social protection etc.).

The analysis included a total of 379 adult education organisations, greatly varying in type, status and curricular orientation, of which 152 were from Serbia, 94 from Montenegro, 52 from Bosnia and Herzegovina, 44 from Macedonia and 36 from Kosovo. Considering the method by which data were gathered, a so-called “convenience sample” was used in this analysis, that is, the sample that was available at the time of the research. This type of sample has the least basis in the theory of probability, and therefore a very cautious and measured approach is required to analysing and interpreting the results and drawing conclusions.

3. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

3.1. Status and primary resources of organisations

3.1.1. Formal legal status of organisations

The data collected show that in the area of adult education there is a somewhat equal distribution between public, private and non-governmental organisations, with a slight, but noticeable bias towards private organisations. If we also take into account the significant percentage of non-governmental organisations, this might also suggest that the process of transition in adult education in the Western Balkans has only just begun, and that in the coming period it will continue with increased intensity.

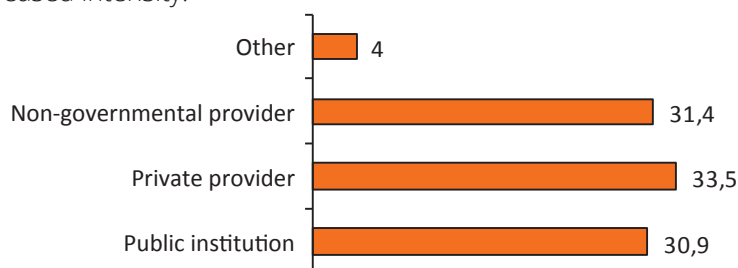


Figure 8 – Adult education providers by formal/legal status, in %

Nevertheless, the fact that 30% of adult education providers have the status of public institutions suggests that adult education is still seen as an area of significant public interest.

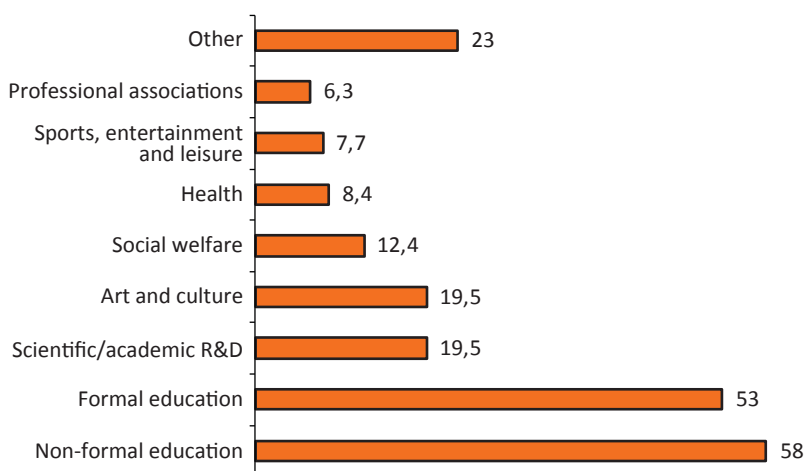
When looking at individual examples of the formal and legal status of adult education providers, the situation is however somewhat different. The data show that in Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo, public institutions predominate in the provision of adult education, while in Serbia it is non-governmental organisations and in Macedonia private organisations.

Table 6 – Adult education providers by formal/legal status, in %

	Public institution	Private organisation	NGO	Other
Bosnia and Herzegovina	32.7	32.7	34.6	0
Kosovo	58.3	19.4	16.7	5.6
Macedonia	20.5	50.0	25.0	4.5
Montenegro	40.4	30.9	25.5	3.2
Serbia	21.2	34.2	39.5	5.3

3.1.2. Primary activity of the organisation

As regards the primary activity of organisations involved in adult education, the results show that the majority of organisations (58%) were of the type whose primary activity was non-formal education (Type I). In second place (53%) were formal education organisations (Type 2), third (48.8%) were those belonging to Type 4 (art and culture, health, social welfare and sport) and in last place (48%) were Type 3 organisations (science, professional associations and other organisations).

**Figure 9 – Providers by primary activity, in %:**

What is especially interesting and entirely expected is the fact that almost 50% of organisations engaged in multiple activities – in other words they delivered programmes and activities in multiple areas, for example offering both formal and non-formal education programmes, or both health programmes and social welfare programs. This indicates that adult education providers are increasingly becoming multi-programme and probably multi-generational organisations, which is

probably a consequence of their market orientation and pursuit of a variety of users for their programmes and services.

This general trend has, however, quite specific regional idiosyncrasies. When adult education providers are compared nationally we can easily see that the dominant activity of organisations from Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina is formal education, while for organisations from Serbia, Montenegro and Kosovo it is non-formal education. The example of Kosovo is a drastic one – there the vast majority (86.7%) of surveyed organisations engage solely in non-formal and formal education. Other types of activity, excluding art and culture activities in Serbia, are few in number.

Table 7 – Adult education providers by activity and territory, in %

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	TOTAL
BiH	30.7	25.4	11.4	6.1	5.2	1.7	4.3	2.6	12.2	114
Kosovo	16.6	70.1	2.7	1.3	2.0	2.0	0	0.6	4.6	151
Macedonia	40.1	2.9	5.9	5.9	0.9	0.9	1.9	2.9	37.2	102
Montenegro	25.3	31.8	7.7	9.3	8.8	4.9	3.2	2.2	6.6	182
Serbia	22.0	44.0	15.3	17.4	8.7	7.0	6.6	5.3	7.4	241

Key: 1. formal education; 2. non-formal education; 3. science and development; 4. culture and art; 5. health; 6. social welfare; 7. sport and free time; 8. trade union and professional associations; 9. other programmes.

The data from Table 8 show that adult education providers engage in multiple activities regardless of their formal and legal status. Of special interest and significance is multiple activity, that is, the curricular orientation of non-governmental organisations which deliver almost all types of programme, which until a few years ago was unimaginable. Nevertheless, it is quite apparent that organisations whose primary activity is formal education in the majority of cases have the status of public institutions, while non-formal education providers are mostly private or non-governmental. Unlike organisations that have the status of public institutions and private organisations, for whom programmes of formal and non-formal education predominate, while other types of programme are marginal in nature, non-governmental organisations have relatively uniform programming across all areas (activities) and they are in a real sense organisations with a multiprogramme orientation. Especially interesting, and meriting further study, is the fact that they also deliver formal education programmes. How they do it and what type of formal education program they offer remains unknown for now, but it is likely that they have had to go through an accreditation process with the relevant authority and meet certain conditions

with regard to premises, equipment and the professional qualifications of the teachers conducting these programs. This shows that formal adult education is becoming less and less the monopoly of public (state) organisations and is less and less being provided through the traditional school system. It is increasingly being determined by the needs of the labour market and the capacities and ambitions of local providers to offer the necessary knowledge and skills to specific target groups for whom education in the traditional school system is not a realistic option.

Table 8 – Providers by activity and formal/legal status, in %

Type of organisation	Type of primary activity								Number of organisations
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Public institution	70,1	35,0	16,2	23,9	4,3	6,0	6,0	1,7	117
Private organisation	42,5	69,3	10,2	7,1	2,4	0	2,4	1,6	127
Non-governmental organisation	46,2	68,9	31,9	23,5	20,2	33,6	16,0	14,3	119
Total programmes	191	211	70	65	32	47	29	21	666/363

Key: 1. formal education; 2. non-formal education; 3. science and development; 4. culture and art; 5. health; 6. social welfare; 7. sport and free time; 8. trade union and professional associations.

3.1.3. Identity of provider

In view of the potential diversity of objectives and functions they have, the activities they conduct and the areas they cover with their programmes, the majority of organisations have a predominantly educational identity, using the term “education” in the definition of their vision and mission.



Figure 10 – Use of the term “education” in defining the vision and mission of the organisation, in %

In Kosovo 75%, and in Bosnia and Herzegovina no less than 94.4% of organisations from our sample used the term “education” in defining their vision and mission. This means that education is the primary framework within which they operate, whether it represents their pri-

mary social function or is only an instrument in achieving broader or more narrow (local) objectives and affirming the point of reference for values and behaviours.

3.1.4. Location where learning activities are conducted

The question of location where learning activities are conducted is seemingly not problematic for adult education providers since almost a quarter of them use their own premises, while around 10% use public premises. Approximately 40% of these providers conduct their activities in a combination of their own, rented and/or public premises.

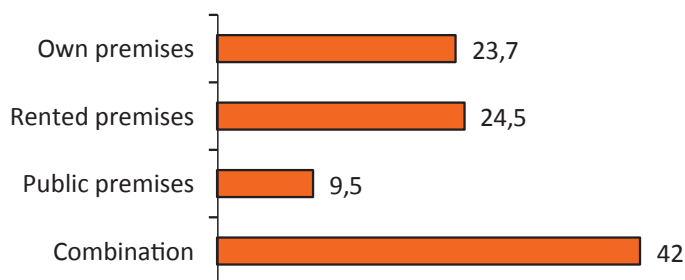


Figure 11 – Location where learning activities are conducted, in %

The data on the location of learning activities shows that the most favourable situation is to be found in Kosovo, where around 55% of providers have their own or public premises available to them. In Montenegro too, more than 40% of organisations use their own or public premises for conducting learning activities. Organisations from Bosnia and Herzegovina have their own or public premises available to them to a somewhat lesser extent, while adult education providers in Macedonia and Serbia have least of all.

Table 9 – Location where education activities are conducted, in %

	Own premises	Rented premises	Public premises	Combination
Bosnia and Herzegovina	25.0	21.2	9.6	44.2
Kosovo	30.6	19.4	25.0	25.0
Macedonia	18.2	45.5	2.3	34.1
Montenegro	38.3	18.1	4.3	39.4
Serbia	14.5	25.0	11.2	49.3

As regards the distribution of data on the location where learning activities are conducted with respect to the formal/legal status of the organisation, we can see that more than 68% of public institutions in-

volved in adult education use their own or public premises, in contrast with private and especially non-governmental organisations, which primarily use rented premises or a combination of their own, rented and public premises. NGOs have particular problems with premises, since only 8.4% of them have their own, with just 5.9% using public premises to conduct their activities. They mostly rent premises or combined rented and public premises which, considering the way they are financed, is an extremely unfavourable situation. In view of the fact that non-governmental organisations have the most diverse programming, and that they are not-for-profit organisations, one may ask how they manage to survive and compete in the education market. It is most probable that non-governmental organisations have strong support from international donors or foreign partners with whom they implement specific joint programmes or projects.

Table 10 – Location where education activities are conducted, in %

	Own premises	Rented premises	Public premises	Combination
Public institution	46.2	2.6	22.2	29.1
Private organisation	19.7	41.7	2.4	36.2
NGO	8.4	28.6	5.9	57.1

3.1.5. Staff employed in adult education providers

At the heart of the success of an adult education provider are human resources, and their ability to effectively use their own capacities and the capacities of the organisation in which they work, regardless of whether they are regular employees, part-time (occasional) staff or volunteers.

The data collected show that more than 50% of surveyed adult education providers are small organisations with up to 5 regular employees, while just over a quarter are large organisations with more than 20 employees.

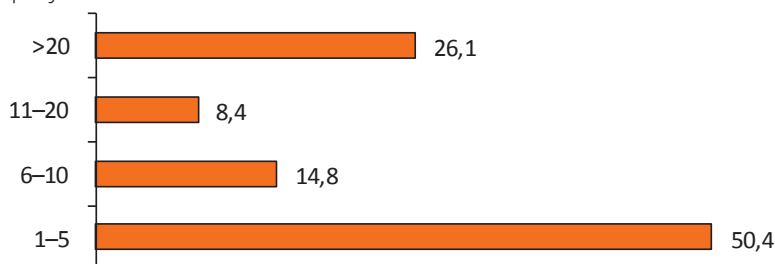


Figure 12 – Number of regular employees in adult education organisations, in %

In Macedonia almost 80%, and in Serbia almost 60% of organisations involved in adult education are small – up to 5 employees – while in Kosovo, large organisations with more than 20 employees predominate. In Bosnia and Herzegovina and in Montenegro the distribution of adult education providers is fairly uniform with respect to the number of regular employees.

Table 11 – Number of regular employees in adult education organisations, in %

	1-5	6-10	11-20	>20
Bosnia and Herzegovina	37.9	17.2	3.4	41.2
Kosovo	5.0	17.5	17.5	60.0
Macedonia	79.2	10.4	10.4	0.0
Montenegro	46.5	13.1	9.1	31.3
Serbia	59.2	14.2	7.7	18.9

Some of these differences probably stem in part from circumstances and traditions inherited from the period when these states were part of the former Yugoslavia. Others – the differences in the number of regular employees – are probably determined by the dominant type of organisation. In Macedonia and Serbia more than two thirds of organisations are private and non-governmental organisations which by their nature have a small number of employees, while in Kosovo, organisations with the status of public institution predominate; characteristically, considering they are financed from public funds, they have somewhat larger numbers of employees.

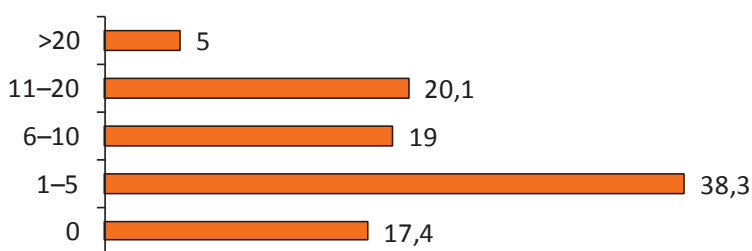
Of course the question may be asked whether this identified distribution is incidental or systematic and stable. The presence of a systemic connection between the type of organisation in terms of its formal legal status and the number of regular employees working in it was determined by way of a correlation analysis, that is by calculating the correlation coefficient and chi-square (χ^2) in order to test its significance.

Table 12 – Type of organisation and number of regular employees in adult education organisations

Type of organisation	Regular employees							
	1-5		6-10		>11		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Public institution	18	15.4	11	9.4	88	75.2	117	100
Private organisation	90	70.9	21	16.5	16	12.6	127	100
Non-governmental organisation	79	66.4	19	16.0	21	17.6	119	100
Total	187	51.5	51	14.0	125	34.4	363	100
	C = .51 Statistical significance .000							

The correlation coefficient between the type of organisation and the number of regular employees is 0.51, and is statistically significant at the 0.01 level, which means that we can say that the differences between the type of organisation and the number of regular employees are not incidental but systemic, with a certainty of 99%. The coefficient obtained (0.51) is exceptionally high for this type of variable, which points to a real and significant connection between the type of organisation and the number of staff, whereby public institutions have a larger number of regular employees than non-governmental and private organisations.

As regards the employment of contracted (occasional) staff, the data obtained show that adult education organisations do not employ occasional staff in large numbers. Almost 18% do not do so at all, while around 40% employ between one and five occasional staff, which is probably determined by the number of regular employees in the organisations, as well as the programmes they offer and their overall level of activity.

**Figure 13 – Occasional staff in adult education providers, in %**

The largest percentage of providers from Kosovo do not employ occasional staff, while in the same regard Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Serbia are fairly equal. Organisations from

Kosovo and especially Macedonia take on larger groups of occasional staff, which is probably a consequence of their formal legal status, and the fact that they are primarily public institutions. In Macedonia, the largest category of provider comprises private organisations, and so it is logical to expect that they would take on large numbers of occasional staff.

Table 13 – Number of occasional employees in adult education organisations, in %

	0	1-5	6-10	11-20	>20
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11.5	38.5	19.2	30.8	0
Kosovo	38.9	30.6	5.6	11.1	13.9
Macedonia	20.5	27.3	20.5	0	31.8
Montenegro	13.8	51.1	16.0	19.1	0
Serbia	15.8	38.4	19.0	20.1	5.0

The results of the correlation analysis suggest that a connection between the type of organisation and the number of occasional staff can readily be assumed.

Table 14 – Type of organisation and number of occasional employees in adult education organisations

Type of organisation	Occasional employees							
	1-5		6-10		>11		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Public institution	41	50.0	10	12.2	31	37.8	82	100
Private organisation	50	44.6	20	17.9	42	37.5	112	100
Non-governmental organisation	48	44.4	39	36.1	21	19.4	108	100
Total	139	46.0	69	22.8	94	31.1	302	100
C = .35 Statistical significance .000								

The data obtained show that there is a statistically significant, though fairly small ($C = 0.35$) connection between the type of organisation and the number of occasional staff. The largest percentage (46%) of adult education organisations employ up to 5 occasional staff, but as many as 31% of organisations employ more than 11. On the table we can clearly see that the correlation between the type of organisation and the number of occasional staff employed is curvilinear, since public institutions typically employ either small numbers of occasional staff (up to 5) or large numbers (more than 11), while private organisations tend to employ 6-10 employees for the most part, which is probably financially optimal for them.

Adult education providers take on volunteers only to a rather modest extent. Almost 38% of organisations do not take on volunteers at all, and the same percentage take on only up to 5 volunteers.

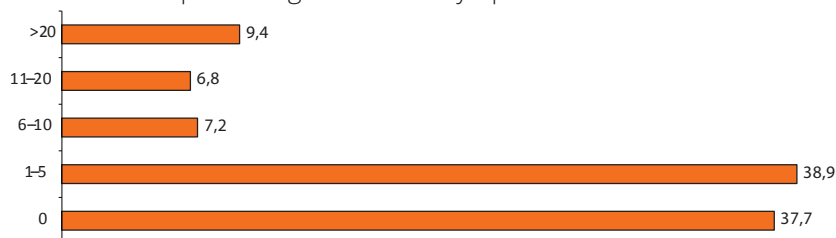


Figure 14 – Number of volunteers in adult education organisations, in %

The organisations from the sample on average employed only 2.1 volunteers for an activity conducted by the organisation. An exception to the general trend was, to some extent, Bosnia and Herzegovina, where more than 50% of adult education organisations employed up to 5 volunteers. In Macedonia, however, as many as 60% of organisations did not take on volunteers at all. The probable reason for this is the fact that the majority of adult education providers in Macedonia are private organisations.

Table 15 – Number of volunteers in adult education organisations, in %

	0	1-5	6-10	11-20	>20
Bosnia and Herzegovina	24.1	51.7	5.2	5.2	13.8
Kosovo	45.0	32.5	7.5	7.5	7.5
Macedonia	60.4	22.9	4.2	12.5	0
Montenegro	44.4	36.4	7.1	3.0	9.1
Serbia	30.2	42.0	8.9	7.7	11.2

The largest percentages of public institutions (56%) and private organisations (44%) do not take on volunteers, or only do so in very small numbers. In contrast to them, almost 90% of non-governmental organisations take on volunteers, with almost a quarter of NGOs taking on more than 20 volunteers to conduct their activities.

Table 16 – Type of organisation and number of volunteers in adult education organisations

Type of organisation	Employment of volunteers										Total	
	0		1-5		6-10		11-20		>20			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Public institutions	76	55.9	50	38.6	7	5.1	1	0.7	2	1.5	136	100
Private organisations	57	43.5	57	43.5	7	5.3	6	4.6	4	3.1	131	100
NGO	14	11.1	48	38.1	14	11.1	20	15.9	30	23.8	126	100
Other organisations	9	42.9	6	28.6	2	9.5	1	4.8	3	14.3	21	100
Total	156	37.7	141	38.9	30	7.2	28	6.8	39	9.4	414	100

Determining a systemic connection between the type of organisation and the number of volunteers taken on was not possible due to the small number of cases in the individual contingency cells.

3.2. Types of adult education

3.2.1. Extensive forms of work

The data obtained show that almost 70% of organisations conduct learning activities by way of lectures, and more than 50% by way of panel debates and round tables. Exhibitions or other extensive forms of education are used by a significantly smaller number of organisations.

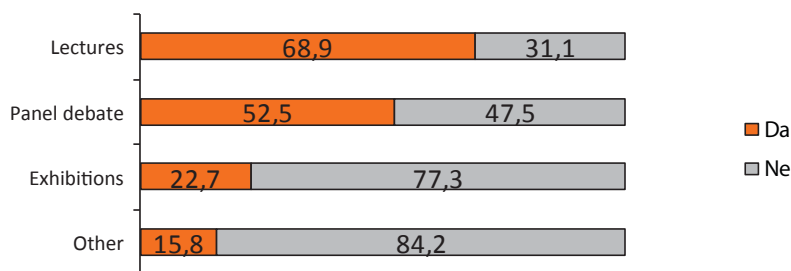


Figure 15 – Extensive forms in adult education organisations, in %

Of the total number (606) of extensive forms of education delivered, lectures accounted for more than 41%, and panel debates for more than 32%.

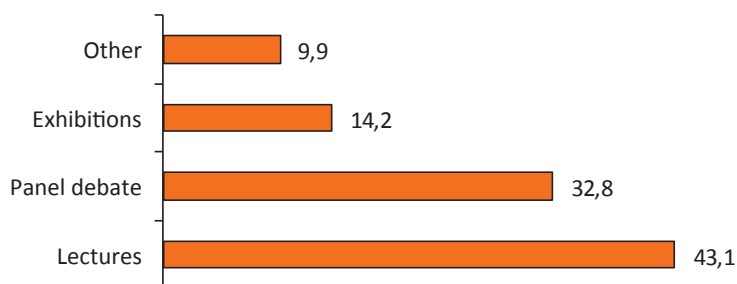


Figure 16 – Proportions of individual extensive forms of education as a percentage of the total

These activities are not great in number, since 50% of organisations conduct up to 20 extensive forms, while the same number conduct between 21 and 200 extensive forms during the year.

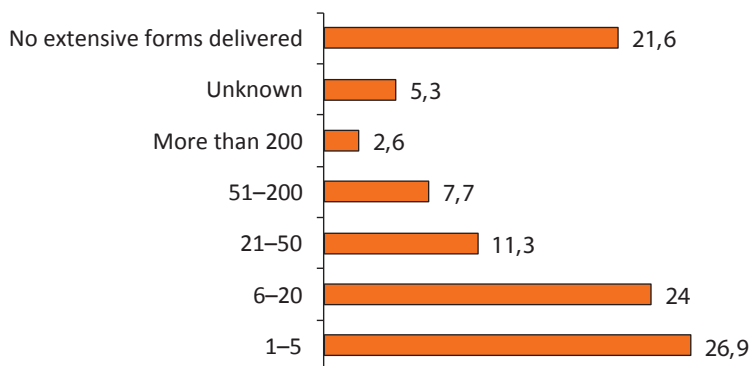


Figure 17 – Number of extensive forms conducted in the previous year, in %

The coverage of learners with extensive forms of education is generally speaking weak, since almost 50% of providers cover a maximum of 200 learners with these forms.

Of the total of 30 broader categories, programs are conducted in only five using extensive forms of education: free time, personal growth and development, work, interpersonal relationships and specific participant interests.

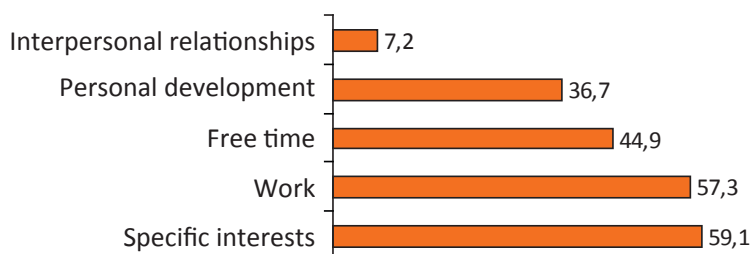


Figure 18 – Programme areas conducted using extensive forms of education, in %

Programmes in extensive forms of education are financed from various sources, but most commonly by the learners themselves, while funding secured through donations, most likely foreign, are in second place. By no means negligible is the fact that 10.6% of organisations finance these programmes/forms of education from their own sources.

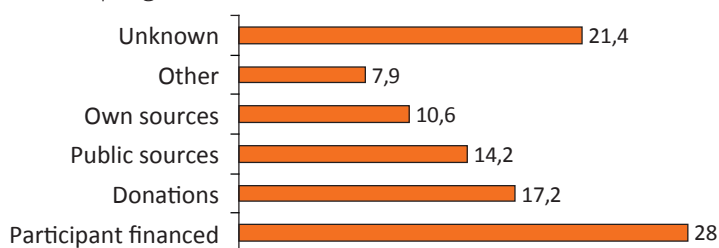


Figure 19 – Sources of financing for programmes in extensive forms of education, in %

3.2.2. Intensive forms of work

Intensive forms of education can be conducted via: workshops, seminars, courses, higher education study programmes, educational camps, colonies, summer schools, empowerment, support and self-help clubs or groups, counselling and guidance, conferences (real or virtual), professional or study visits, apprenticeships, work experience, mentorships, independent learning, distance learning etc. In practice, however, in the Western Balkans, only a small number of these forms are offered, and around 70% of organisations offer courses, seminars, ad hoc groups and workshops. Independent learning, practical work and conferences are organised by less than 40% of organisations.

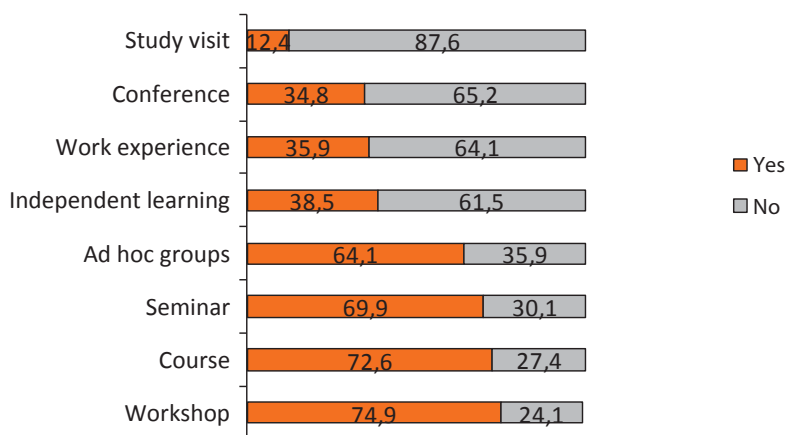


Figure 20 – Intensive forms of work in adult education providers, in %

Of the total number (1139) of organised intensive forms of work in 2013, three quarters are workshops, courses, seminars and ad hoc groups, with other forms of work accounting for one quarter.

The frequency of intensive forms of work is rather modest. Almost 60% of organisations conducted a maximum of 20 intensive forms of education in 2013.

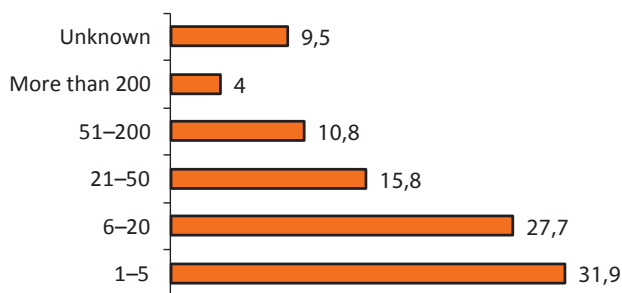


Figure 21 – Number of intensive forms conducted in the previous year, in %

As in the case of extensive forms of education, the number of participants covered is generally speaking small, since 54.4% of organisations cover a maximum of 200 participants with these forms.

Programmes can be delivered through intensive forms in many fields, but of 17 alternatives offered only 10 were selected.

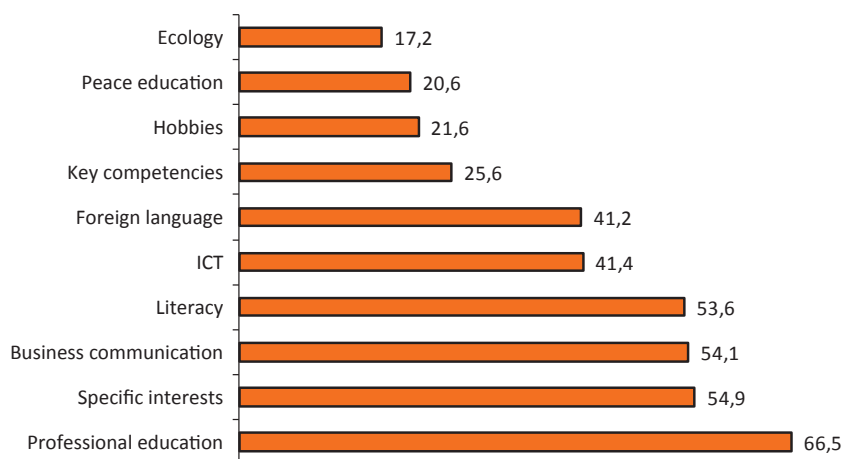


Figure 22 – Number of organisations delivering different programmes via intensive forms of education, in %

Dominant in intensive forms of education are various programmes for improving professional competencies (programmes relating to professional training and business competencies), followed by programmes covering specific areas of interest (natural, technical and social sciences programmes) and literacy programmes. This shows that adult education organisation are targeting very diverse target groups, offering them relevant knowledge and skills – from groups and individuals lacking basic literacy, to highly-educated groups who lack professional and business skills.

However, although the scope of programmes may be significant, the individual intensity certainly is not. The proportion of any given programme in relation to the overall number of programmes (1469) is relatively small and uniform across the board, ranging from 4% to 17%. The data collected indicate that adult education providers most often deliver intensive forms of education for programmes in professional education, specific interests of individuals and target groups, literacy, business competencies, information and communication technologies and foreign languages. Intensive forms of education are less prevalent in programmes in the areas of key competencies, hobbies, peace education and ecology.

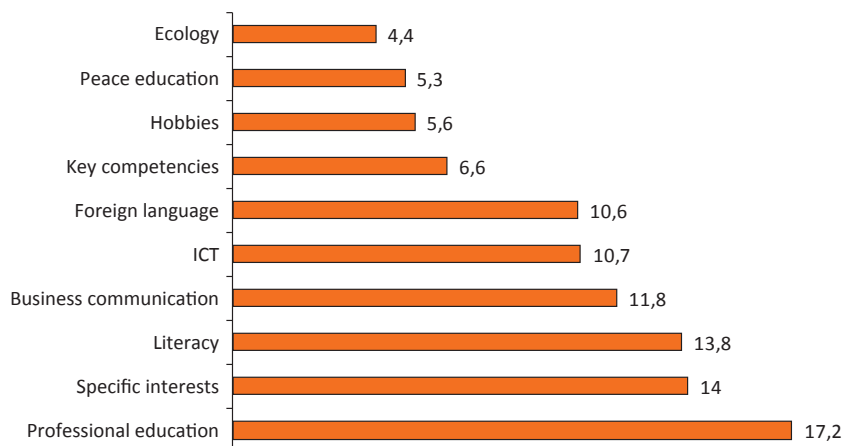


Figure 23 – Proportions of individual intensive forms of education as a percentage of the total

Sources of financing for programmes delivered through intensive forms of education were very diverse.

The largest percentage of providers (47%) financed intensive forms of education from participant-funding, which means that programmes delivered through intensive forms of education were mostly commercial.

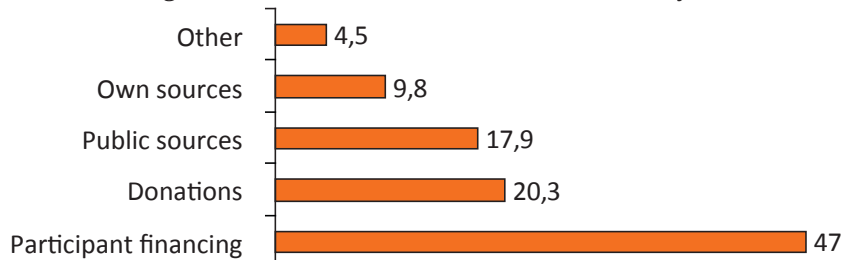


Figure 24 – Sources of financing for programmes in intensive forms of education, in %

A correlation analysis showed that there was a significant statistical link between different forms of financing for workshops ($C=0.27$), seminars ($C=0.27$), courses ($C=0.22$), ad hoc groups ($C=0.23$) and conferences. Courses were primarily (81%) financed from participant funding, ad hoc groups (82%) and conferences (70%) from donations and workshops (94%) and seminars (94%) from other sources. A significant statistical relationship between different sources of financing and the organisation of study trips, work experience and independent study was not established.

3.2.3. Relationship between extensive and intensive forms of adult education

The key question that arises when considering the delivery of various forms of education is the question of their mutual interdependence, their joint implementation and their partnership in practice.

A factor analysis was conducted in order to analyse data on the interdependence of 12 different forms of education. From the intercorrelation matrix for these 12 initial variables, using the principle component method, four factors were extracted which together explained 54% of the total variance.

Table 17 – Forms of education – component matrix

	Components			
	1	2	3	4
lecture	.329	.693	-.057	-.004
exhibition	.204	.650	.146	-.159
panel debate	.312	.759	.020	.057
other	-.015	.033	-.205	.800
workshop	.718	-.112	-.323	-.135
seminar	.672	-.208	-.038	-.262
course	-.086	.054	.771	.098
study visit	.032	-.302	.365	-.315
ad hoc groups	.719	-.152	.119	.043
conference	.608	-.259	-.122	.115
work experience	.399	-.016	.545	.209
independent	.358	-.250	.177	.377

In terms of degree of correlation, the first factor is best defined by ad hoc groups, workshops, seminars and conferences. Characteristic of all these items is the fact that they promote and affirm active and intensive learning, and so this factor might also be termed *forms of active/intensive learning*.

The second factor is best explained by panel debates, exhibitions and lectures, which are in essence extensive in disseminating knowledge and information, and so the factor can be termed by its usual name *extensive forms of education/learning*.

The third factor is constituted by the items courses, work experience and study visits, practical work and practical experience, and so this factor can be termed *forms of practical learning*.

The fourth factor has a very simple, but hard to interpret structure. Since it is constituted by the items “other” (innovative forms of learning) and independent learning, its possible essence is independent learning. Accordingly this factor can be termed *independent or informal learning in an organisation*.

As regards areas of education delivered through extensive and intensive forms of education, from the initial intercorrelation matrix for 15 initial variables, five factors, together explaining 61% of total variance, were extracted using the principle component method.

The first factor explains 17% of total variance and is constituted by the following items: interpersonal relationships, free time, personal development, work and specific interests. All of these items essentially affirm the ideas of autonomy, individualism, but also sociability, and so this factor might be termed *programs orientated towards individual development*.

The second factor is constituted by the items literacy, specific interests – Type 1, information and communication technologies and hobby activities. The first impression, that these are completely different areas, would appear to be the correct one. Thus this factor might be termed *programmes orientated towards specific target groups*.

The third factor is constituted by the items peace education and key competences. Since the factor has very high negative loadings for the items languages and information and communication technologies, there is little leeway for explaining and defining this factor, other than to say that it is completely theoretical in nature. Accordingly, this factor might be termed *programmes orientated towards theoretical education*.

Table 18 – Areas of learning – component matrix

	Components				
	1	2	3	4	5
interpersonal relationships	.782	.051	.014	.042	-.127
free time	.779	.040	.026	.110	.031
personal development	.773	-.031	-.013	.022	-.052
work	.643	-.082	-.063	.140	.176
specific interests – Type 1*	.606	-.085	.015	.000	.100
literacy	.114	.776	.012	-.542	.046
specific interests – Type 2	.081	.773	.071	-.552	.080
hobby activities	.006	.452	.168	.207	-.438
ecology	.031	.397	.053	.251	.352
languages	-.041	.334	-.720	.327	-.268
IT	-.033	.474	-.679	.284	-.096
peace education	.003	.373	.522	.244	-.385
key competencies	-.108	.275	.513	.462	-.158
business competencies	-.040	.376	.194	.411	.566
professional education	-.181	.205	-.060	.212	.469

* Specific interests in extensive forms of education are designated Type 1 and specific interests that are satisfied through intensive forms of education are designated as Type 2. Type 1 relates to broad and primarily theoretical and scientific interests, Type 2 to deeper, more lasting and more narrow fields of interest.

The fourth factor is mostly explained by the items key competencies and business competencies. The fact that literacy and Type 2 specific interests have negative loadings for this factor shows that those without education, those with only the primary level of education and specialists in specific domains of education and work are excluded from it. Considering the nature and orientation of programmes for key and business competencies organised by the education providers, this factor might be termed *programmes oriented towards employment and employability*.

The fifth factor is explained by the items business competences and professional education. The negative loadings for this factor on the items hobby activities and peace education indicate its practical and work-focused character. Accordingly, this factor might be termed *programmes orientated towards work*.

In turn, adult education providers might be divided into those who predominantly deliver a) *forms of intensive learning*, b) *extensive forms*

of education c) forms of practical learning and d) those providing support for *independent or informal learning*.

The preceding data and their interpretation suggest that as regards their basic orientation, adult education providers can tentatively be grouped into those delivering a) programmes orientated towards individual development, b) programmes orientated towards specific groups, c) programmes orientated towards theoretical education, d) programmes orientated towards employment and employability and e) programmes orientated towards work.

3.3. Quality of education programmes

Adult education programmes meet basic quality requirements in the sense that their objectives and outcomes are clearly defined, there are didactic and methodological instructions for teachers on how the programmes are to be delivered, programmes can be adapted for differing target groups and teachers receive feedback from participants on the quality of the programme and can revise the programme based on this.

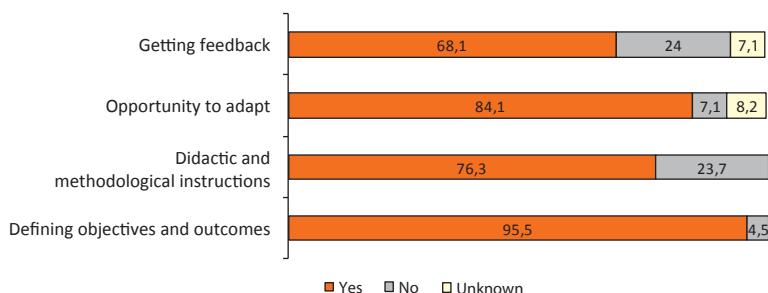


Figure 25 – Quality indicators for adult education programmes, in %

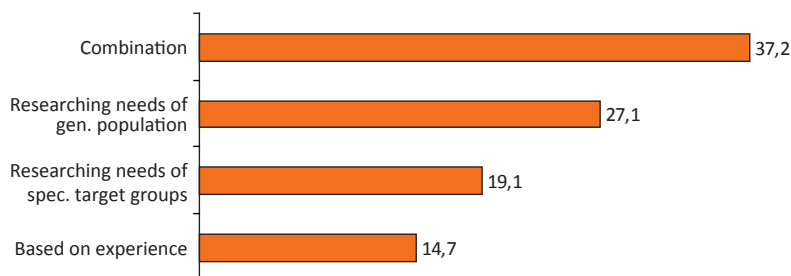


Figure 26 – Devising range of programmes for market, in %

Adult education programmes, in the vast majority of cases, come about as a result of research into the educational needs of the general population or specific target groups. Only a small number of organisations (14.7%) did not develop their programmes based on research into the educational needs of potential learners.

Organisations most often did not have data on the amount of funding set aside for promotion of education programs, but it is important to note that almost 56% of organisations set aside between 1 and 10% of their revenues for that purpose.

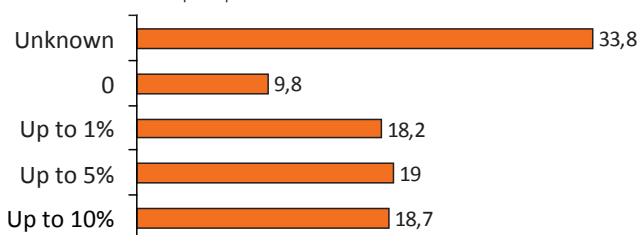


Figure 27 – Budget for promotion of education programmes, in %

3.4. Teachers in adult education organisations

For the purposes of this analysis, the term teacher is used generically to refer to trainers, lecturers, facilitators, instructors and counselors. The data relate to two categories of teacher:

3.4.1. Teachers in extensive forms of education

In considering teachers employed in extensive forms of delivery, the following indicators were analysed: total number of teachers employed, financing for their employment, required level of qualification, investment in professional training of teachers, coverage and place of professional training in the field of adult education.

Adult education organisations employ a relatively small number of teachers in extensive forms of education. More than 41% of organisations employ up to 5 teachers in the delivery of extensive forms of education, while 20% of organisations employ between 6 and 10, and almost 38% of organisations employ more than 10.

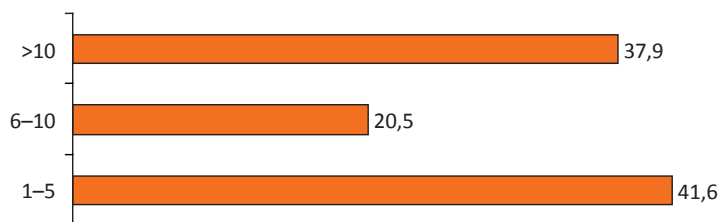


Figure 28 – Number of teachers in extensive forms of education, in %

The highest percentage of teachers (48%) delivering extensive forms of education are paid separately for this, which means that they are not regularly employed by the organisation. This also indicates that extensive forms are delivered periodically or occasionally, and teachers are taken on for this purpose who are not employed by the organisation itself, and they are paid separately for this. Only 20% of teachers were regularly employed, teaching and being regularly paid on this basis.

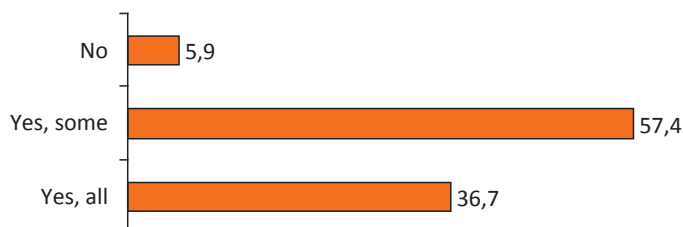


Figure 29 – Teachers in extensive forms of education who have attended professional training, in %

The data on the professional training of teachers delivering extensive forms of education points to a strong trend professionalisation in the area of adult education as a whole, since teachers did not attend professional training programmes for the area of adult education in only 6% of organisations. Almost 37% of organisations also reported that all staff attended professional training programs.

3.4.2. Teachers in intensive forms of education

Providers delivering intensive forms of education also employed small numbers of teachers. More than 45% employed five at most, 22% of organisations employed between 6 and 10 teachers and a little over 30% more than 10 teachers.

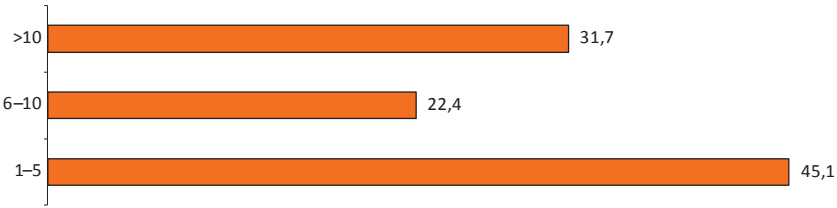


Figure 30 – Number of teachers in intensive forms of education, in %

In view of the nature of intensive forms of education and the programmes delivered by those means, it is entirely understandable that more than 65% of organisations required the highest level of qualification from the teachers delivering them. Only in a minority of cases, probably courses in the area of art, were there no conditions for employment in regard to the level of qualification.

The majority of teachers (81.3%) delivering intensive forms of education had attended some form of professional training, which was strong evidence that organisations considered professional training the most significant factor in their success and the quality of their work.

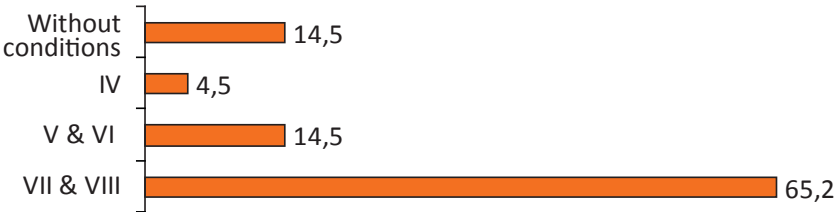


Figure 31 – Required level of qualification of teachers in intensive forms of education, in %

The very high percentage of teachers who had attended professional training programmes in adult education was likely a result of the fact that around 47% of organisations invested in professional training for teachers, while only 9% did not set aside any funds for that purpose. Nevertheless, it is a concern that 43% of organisations did not have data on funds set aside for investment in professional training of teachers.

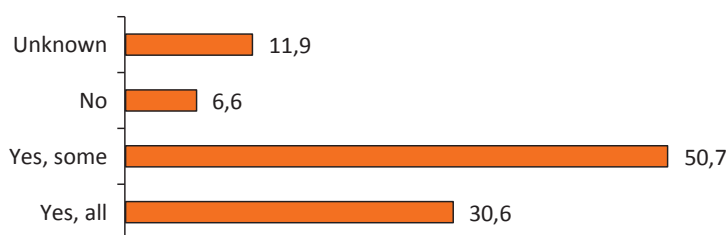


Figure 32 – Teachers in intensive forms of education who have attended professional training, in %

As regards the methods of training teachers in intensive forms of education, in-house training and sending teachers for training in another organisation were equally common.

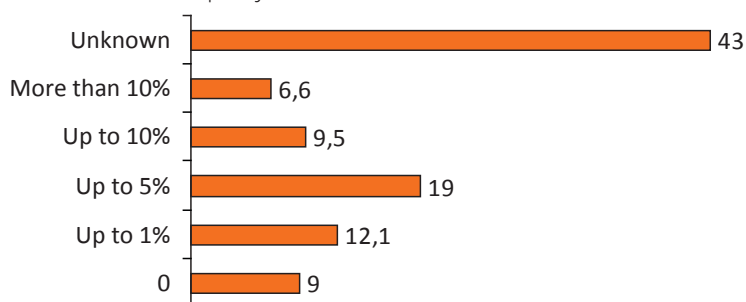


Figure 33 – Investing in professional training for teachers in intensive forms of education, in %

3.5. Monitoring and evaluation in adult education organisations

In order to gain an insight into the processes of monitoring and evaluation conducted in adult education providers, just four indicators were selected: *feedback on the performance of occasional professional staff*, *altering programmes based on the results of evaluation*, *evaluating the performance of trainers* and *monitoring and analysing participant wastage*.

The primary function of evaluation is to facilitate effective communication between the organisation and its partners and clients in order to improve the work of the organisation and the success of its clients, i.e. programme participants. The results show that the huge majority of staff in extensive forms of adult education received feedback on

the results of their work, which is a basic condition for improving their performance and professional development.

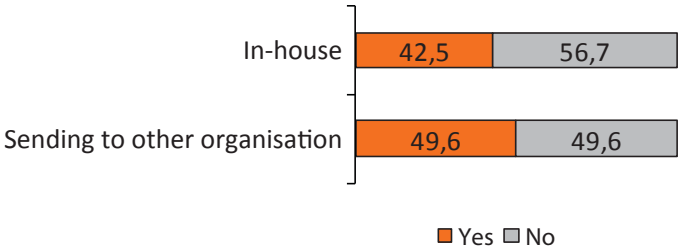


Figure 34 – Method of training of teachers in intensive forms of education, in %

A majority of organisations believed that all staff and teachers had every opportunity to revise the way their work was organised and delivered within the programmes they taught based on performance feedback.

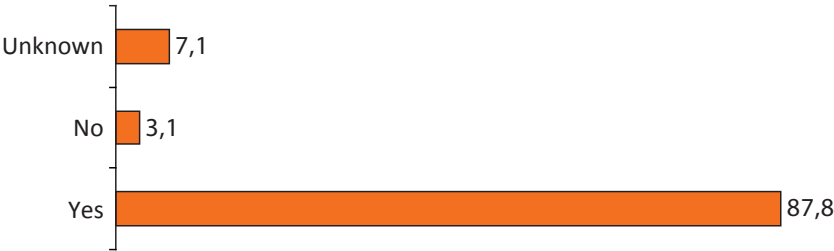


Figure 35 – Getting feedback on staff evaluation results, in %

Almost 79% of adult education providers continuously assessed their trainers' performance, while 17% did so occasionally and only 4% did not do so at all. This shows that adult education providers place high value on the work of their trainers, and have an ongoing concern for its improvement.

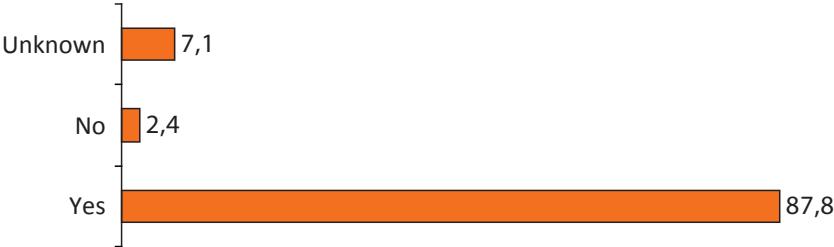


Figure 36 – Opportunity to amend approach to work based on feedback on results of evaluation, in %

Monitoring and analysis of participant wastage is fundamental in improving the quality of the organisation's services and its ability to react in an adequate and timely way to potential difficulties in implementing its education programmes, and to prevent these difficulties from arising.

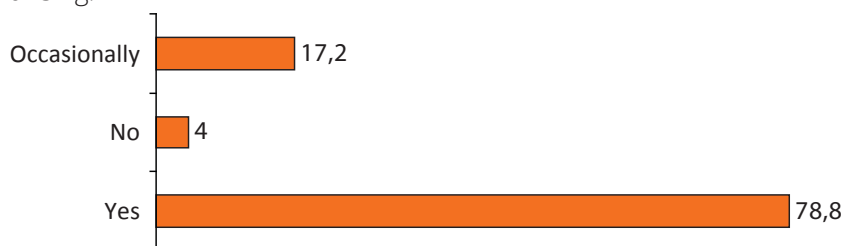


Figure 37 – Evaluation of trainer performance in intensive forms of education, in %

A large majority (62.8%) of adult education programmes monitors and analyses student wastage, while another significant percentage does not do so at all. These organisations either do not have the capacity for the time-consuming task of monitoring and analysing learner wastage, or they do not see it as something which could significantly improve their services.

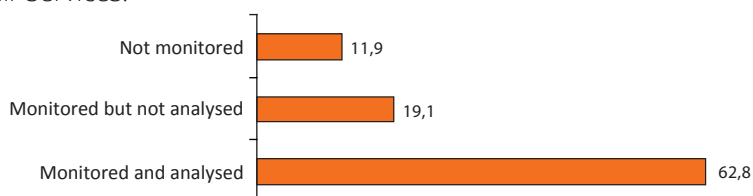


Figure 38 – Monitoring and analysis of student wastage, in %

SUMMARY

The data collected show that in the area of adult education there is a somewhat uniform distribution between public, private and non-governmental organisations, with a small but noticeable predominance of private providers.

The majority (one third) of adult education providers have the status of public or non-governmental institutions which suggests that adult education is still seen as an area of significant public interest. In Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo, state-owned institutions predominate in the provision of adult education, while in Serbia it is non-governmental organisations and in Macedonia private organisations which predominate.

The core activity of most organisations is non-formal education, while formal education organisations are in second place. However, the majority of organisations have multiple core activities, indicating their orientation towards multiple programmes.

Organisations whose primary activity is formal education mostly have the status of public institutions, while non-formal education providers are private or non-governmental in status.

Regardless of their primary formal legal status and core activity, the majority of organisations are educational in character, since education is a basic element of their social mission and their objectives.

The formal and legal status of organisations also determines the basic resources they have available, such as premises for the delivery of their services. Organisations with the status of public institution usually have public or their own premises, while non-governmental and private organisations use rented facilities in which to deliver their services.

More than 50% of surveyed providers are small organisations with up to 5 regular employees, while just over a quarter are large organisations with more than 20 employees. In addition to having a small number of employees, all the organisations employ a very small number of

occasional staff and volunteers. Only organisations from Kosovo and Macedonia employ larger numbers of occasional staff.

The most common extensive forms of delivery used by providers are lectures, panel debates and round tables. Exhibitions or other extensive forms of education are used by a significantly smaller number of organisations. The number of participants involved in these forms of education is extremely small, with almost 50% of organisations covering 200 or fewer participants with these forms. Programmes delivered via these forms are mostly financed from participant funding.

The most commonly used intensive forms of education are courses, seminars, ad hoc groups and workshops. The frequency of intensive forms of education is extremely low. The largest percentage of organisations provides at most 20 such forms of education, which also means a small number of programmes delivered, and a small number of participants covered.

Intensive forms of education are most commonly used to deliver various programmes for improving professional competencies (programmes relating to professional training and business competencies), followed by programmes covering specific areas of interest (natural, technical and social sciences programmes) and literacy programmes. Most of these programmes are financed by participant funding.

Courses are primarily financed from participant funding, ad hoc groups and conferences from donations and workshops and seminars from other sources.

In terms of the dominant type of extensive form of education they deliver, all the organisations can be grouped into those who deliver:

- forms of active/intensive learning;
- extensive forms of education;
- forms of practical learning and
- independent or informal in-house learning.

As regards areas of programming, all the organisations can be categorised into those who primarily deliver:

- programmes orientated towards individual development;
- programmes orientated towards specific groups;
- programmes orientated towards theoretical education;
- programmes orientated towards employment and employability and
- activities comprising independent or informal learning.

Adult education programmes meet basic quality requirements in the sense that their objectives and outcomes are clearly defined, there are didactic and methodological instructions for teachers on how the programmes are to be delivered, programmes can be adapted for differing target groups and programmes can be revised based on information received from programme participants.

Adult education organisations employ a very small number of teachers, especially regular employees, for delivery of their programmes. Nevertheless, most organisations have a positive stance towards the professional training of teachers, and most teachers have attended some form of professional training in the area of adult education.

For teachers delivering programmes in intensive forms of education, organisations usually demand the highest level of qualification and set aside a certain percentage of their revenues for that purpose.

The majority of staff in extensive forms of adult education receive feedback on their performance and based on this have the opportunity to revise their programmes and their approach to their work, which is a basic precondition for advancing their work and their professional development.

The large majority of education providers evaluate the work of their trainers on an ongoing basis and monitor and analyse student wastage during the education process, while a small proportion either do not do so at all or only do so occasionally.

In summarising the results obtained, we can say that transition is a primary characteristic of adult education providers in the Western Balkans. They are decreasingly being financed from public funds and more and more through the sale of their services and programmes, resulting in their orientation towards multiple programmes. Likewise, fewer and fewer of these organisations have the status of public institutions. Non-governmental and private organisations are increasingly becoming dominant in adult education in the Western Balkans. These organisations are traditionally orientated towards delivering non-formal education programs, but there is also a noticeable trend towards providing formal education programmes. For this reason, these organisations are placing particular priority on the professional training of their staff, especially staff in the area of adult education. Nevertheless, a significant majority of these organisations are micro-organisations with a small number of regular employees and occasional employees and teachers, and a very small number of volunteers, with quite a modest range of programmes on offer and a small number of participants

involved. The data obtained on the types, scope and quality of learning activities delivered by adult education organisations point to the conclusion that their capacity for meeting adult needs for knowledge and skills is quite modest, and that strong support is needed in order for them to become a proper and effective instrument for socioeconomic development and the successful integration of the Western Balkans in the European socioeconomic and cultural space.

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