Pathways to a Knowledge Society?
Implementing Objective 17 of the New Zealand Tertiary Education Strategy

by

Vicky Adin

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ABSTRACT

The philosophy of lifelong learning is not a new concept, and for many decades governments, worldwide, have debated what form a policy and resourcing framework should take that would help people raise their skill levels to meet the challenges presented to society entering the 21st century. New Zealand is no different. The introduction of the Tertiary Education Strategy in 2002 sought to create that framework by developing six strategic priorities that would raise skill levels, improve quality of provision, cater for the more disadvantaged and provide New Zealand with strong economic and social outcomes. In 2005, at the mid-way point of the Strategy's implementation, this thesis seeks to determine if the Strategy is, in fact, creating a framework that will achieve a 'prosperous and confident knowledge society'. The focus of this study was the implementation process of the first part of *Objective 17: Improved linkages between secondary and tertiary education* as a key indicator of *Strategy Three: Raising Foundation Skills so that all people can participate in our knowledge society.*

The methodology chosen for this research was a qualitative methodology, using an inductive and interpretivist approach. This approach allows patterns, themes and categories of analysis to emerge from the data and allows researchers to remain open to the unexpected, and to change the direction or focus of a research project. Research essentially fulfils three roles: it explores the issues - discovering if something exists; it defines and differentiates the object of the study; and explains it contextually. The research for this thesis involved three secondary schools, three tertiary providers, three government agencies and a document review. The three main data collection methods used were interviews, document analysis and written questions. Data analysis was completed using evaluative research techniques. The thesis is descriptive in presentation.

The results indicated that the application of Objective 17 has improved linkages between tertiary and secondary education, pathways are being created and there is a growing awareness of the necessity for lifelong learning. Nevertheless, the development of a culture of lifelong learning and the 'knowledge society' are still someway in the future. Three major themes were identified that could impede the success of the Strategy, however, the vision of a 'prosperous and confident knowledge society' is achievable.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Bruce Adin, QSO.

In appreciation of his commitment to education -

and to our family.

With my love and thanks.

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This thesis could not have been started, let alone completed, without the efforts of the many people who have supported, directed, and motivated me to achieve the goals I have. Firstly, I thank my supervisors: Dr John Benseman, for his encouragement and advice, and for his passion for lifelong learning and adult education; and Dr Linda Selby, for her unrelenting requests for structure, and her willing support. I also thank the many people who took part in this research for their time and contribution to this thesis. I would like to acknowledge my tutors throughout my lifelong learning journey: Those who made me think, those who made me write, those who challenged and those who motivated me, but especially Dr Jenny Lawn, who made me think differently, and Dr Marg Gilling, who taught me the 'why' of research.

Secondly, I acknowledge the dedication to lifelong learning of my colleague, Professor Norman Longworth, who inspired and energised me. I thank my colleagues involved in the PALLACE project (Promoting Active Lifelong Learning in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, China and Europe) 2002-2004, who stimulated me: Especially, Professor Denis Ralph of Flinders University, South Australia. To my fellow Trustees on the Lifelong Learning Trust Aotearoa, thank you for your faith in me: Especially the Chair, Dr Ron McDowall, who acted as my mentor, proof-reader, and sometime slave-driver throughout this journey.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

ABBREVIATIONS

ACE	Adult and Community Education
ACENZ	Association of Colleges of Education in New Zealand
AE	Alternative Education
AIMHI	Achievement in Multi Cultural High Schools
ASR	Assessment of Strategic Relevance
ASTE	Association of Staff in Tertiary Education
CATE	Career and Transitions Association
CERI	Centre for Educational Research and Innovation
COREs	Centres of Research Excellence
DOL	Department of Labour
EFTS	Equivalent Full-time students
ELLI	European Lifelong Learning Initiative
ERO	Education Review Office
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
FAQ	Frequently Asked/Answered Questions
ITO	Industry Training Organisation
ITPNZ	The Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics of New Zealand
MOE	Ministry of Education
MSD	Ministry of Social Development
NAGCELL	National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning
NAGs	National Administration Guidelines
NCEA	National Certificate of Educational Achievement
NEGs	National Education Guidelines / National Education Goals
NETS	Non-enrolment Truancy Service
NIACE	National Institute for Adult and Continuing Education
NQF	National Qualification Framework
NZAPEP	New Zealand Association of Private Education Providers
NZCER	New Zealand Centre for Educational Research
NZER	New Zealand Education Review
NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
NZSCED	New Zealand Standard Classification of Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PBRF	Performance Based Research Funding
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPTA	Post-primary Teachers Association
PTE	Private Training Enterprise
STAR	Secondary-Tertiary Alignment Resource
STEP	Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities
TAMU	Tertiary Education Monitoring Unit
TEAC	Tertiary Education Advisory Commission
TEC	Tertiary Education Commission
TEIs	Tertiary Education Institutions
TEOs	Tertiary Education Organisations
TER	Tertiary Education Reform Bill
TES	Tertiary Education Strategy
TESMon	Tertiary Education Strategy Monitoring Project
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WINZ	Work and Income New Zealand

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

Overview of thesis

For several decades, but especially in the 1970s and again in the mid-to-late 1990s, the international discourse on lifelong learning[1] that was both life-wide and relevant to the learner has ensued. The debate has frequently centred on the need for people to raise their skill levels to meet the challenges facing them in the 21st century. As the world moved from the industrial age to the knowledge age, discussion turned to ways of developing and building a culture of lifelong learning to meet these challenges. Different interpretations of the term have resulted in different approaches in different countries. Internationally, many writers promoted the concept of the Learning City.[2] For example, the European Lifelong Learning Initiative (ELLI) put its 10-point focus on partnerships, personal growth, lifelong learning, innovation, new technologies, wealth creation, contribution of skills and talents, learning from others, combating exclusion and celebrating learning (Longworth, 1999).

Similarly, in England, the first report of the National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning (NAGCELL), *Learning for the 21st Century*, outlined the purpose and value of lifelong learning and how to achieve the change necessary to adopt the philosophy of a 'culture of learning' (Fryer, 1997). The NAGCELL group, chaired by Professor R. H. Fryer, defined a framework for a culture of lifelong learning in which everyone should be able to envisage their own place, and their own contribution to the development of a culture of lifelong learning (Fryer, 1997, Part One, 1.5). He stated that any such framework should eliminate the 'learning divide' between those with qualifications and those without and encourage learning throughout life beyond schooling. The framework's eight principles included: coherence, equity, people before structures, variety and diversity, whole of government engagement, quality and flexibility, effective partnerships, and responsibility.[3]

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[1] The key elements of lifelong learning are that it is cradle to grave, and covers non-formal, informal and formal learning and promotes learning in any form within all social contexts.

[2] The European Lifelong Learning Initiative (ELLI) defined a learning city (or community or society or organisation) as a place that actively promotes a culture of learning (Longworth, 1999, p.206) (see Appendix 1).

[3] See Appendix 2: The Fryer Report Principles.

The framework should be based on a clear vision of lifelong learning for all, embracing both compulsory and post-school education, in all its forms, and create partnerships with the workplace. It should inspire and engage the imagination, commitment and energy of people in all walks of life; indicate the role of lifelong learning in maintaining the country's competitiveness in a global economy and in the development of new skills, dignity, confidence and opportunities for all its people; and, explain the contribution of lifelong learning in securing greater social cohesion (Fryer, 1997, Part One 1.5-1.6).

Likewise, in the first decade of the 21st century the Government's focus in New Zealand has been the development of a 'prosperous and confident knowledge society,' with an emphasis on strong social and economic outcomes. In pursuit of this goal, the Government adopted the New Zealand *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002/07*, (2002), (the Strategy), as its blueprint for the future development of the tertiary education system. The Government considered that New Zealand needed a tertiary system that makes "a strong contribution to the achievement of national goals[4]... and strongly linked with the communities of interest it serves" (TES, 2002, p. 5). The Strategy put its focus on being able "to meet the needs of learners and the future development of our nation, and which is distinctly New Zealand in its approach" (TES, 2002, p. 18). To achieve this goal the Strategy has established key change messages[5] that seek greater alignment with national goals; partnerships with businesses, stakeholders, and Maori communities; increased responsiveness to, and wider access for, learners; future-focussed strategies; improved global linkages; greater collaboration and rationalisation within the system; increased performance, effectiveness, efficiency and transparency; and a culture of optimism and creativity (TES, 2002, pp.18-19).

This thesis was completed mid-way through the Strategy's timetable and examines one aspect of the Strategy to determine if it could be considered a stepping-stone to the development of the 'prosperous and confident knowledge society' desired by government policy. The focus of this study was to explore the impact that *Strategy Three: Raising Foundation Skills so that all people can participate in our knowledge society,* might have on developing a 'knowledge society'. That impact was researched by investigating the implementation process of the first part of *Objective 17: Improved linkages between secondary and tertiary education* in three secondary schools and three tertiary institutions. The main aim of this thesis was to ascertain to what extent Objective 17 of the Strategy was being translated into practice, and whether the

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[4] Economic transformation; Social development; Maori and Pacific Peoples' development; Environmental sustainability; Infrastructural development; and Innovation.

[5] See Appendix 9: Key Change Messages

underlying philosophy would engender policies that led to lifelong learning being an everyday part of life in New Zealand.

The alignment of thinking on lifelong learning between nations was demonstrated when comparison was made between the six strategic priorities, and 35 objectives formulated in the Strategy, and the stated aims of a) the learning city charter developed by ELLI, and b) the eight principles of Fryer's culture of learning as indicative benchmarks. The Strategy indicated the policy and resourcing framework was in place in New Zealand. The question remained as to whether the 'practice' of lifelong learning would follow.

The Researcher

To assist in locating the researcher in the study, my interest in tertiary study, in its broadest sense of post-compulsory learning, began with a personal lifelong learning journey on becoming a mature-age learner, and from the fact that education had been a major part of my life since my marriage to a primary schoolteacher some thirty-five years ago.

My involvement in lifelong learning began in late 1998. I was an elected member of a territorial local authority, and discussion was taking place over the escalating costs of a controversial new council building, which housed the library, museum, and an education resource centre. Decisions needed to be made about what to do with some 1700 square metres of undeveloped space still available on the same floor. Privileged council papers (Personal communication, 1998) at the time indicated that up to 50% of the youth in the town were school-leavers without any qualifications or employment opportunities, with resultant social issues within the town.[6] I undertook to research various usage options that would be of benefit to the community, and the disadvantaged youth in particular. The approach was made from a political angle rather than an educational angle.

It was during the course of the research that I located the NAGCELL report on lifelong learning, entitled *Learning for the 21st Century*. The philosophy of lifelong learning and the learning city concept outlined convinced me it was the right path for Council to consider. It appeared to offer pathways to enable individuals to raise their knowledge and employment skills, which was what

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[6] i.e. A socio-economic imbalance, high unemployment statistics, graffiti, and crime statistics.

was needed in the town.   However, very little information or understanding was held by Council about the concept of lifelong learning, and even less information on the Learning City concept and its status in New Zealand.

Further research was carried out, and overseas experts invited to give seminars and present papers.   Subsequently, a proposal was submitted to the sitting council to become a 'Learning City', which was duly adopted.   After the initial success of the launch of 'Papakura -The Learning City', by the Hon. Steve Maharey in 2001, a change of council that same year resulted in funding being withdrawn.   As such, the concept was shelved and no further development took place.   To continue with the work that I had begun on Council, and to fulfill the PALLACE[7] contract with the European Commission, the Lifelong Learning Trust Aotearoa was formed at the end of 2001.   I am the Executive Trustee of that Trust.

At that time I was completing a Bachelor of Arts in Humanities majoring in English.   I added Adult Education as a second major so that I would gain a greater understanding of education policy and philosophy.   During completion of my under-graduate degree, the Tertiary Education Strategy was being formulated and it appeared to approximate the 'framework' as espoused in the Fryer report.   I undertook post-graduate study to enable me to observe and understand the Strategy's development and implementation, and to evaluate the outcomes in terms of promoting lifelong learning.

Organisation of Chapters

Chapter One: Introduction
This chapter gives an overview of the thesis, outlining the topic, and providing context.   A short biography of the researcher is provided, and details regarding the organisation of the thesis concludes the chapter.

Chapter Two: Literature Review
The literature review begins with a background of the international thinking into developing better educational and learning policies to meet the changing needs of the world entering the 21st Century.   The chapter covers the lifelong learning debate and outlines some of the more defining documents of the past thirty years.   A brief history of politics in New Zealand is

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[7] Promoting Active Lifelong Learning in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, China and Europe 2002-2004.

included. The chapter explains the Tertiary Reforms and the process of developing the Tertiary Education Strategy, backgrounding the New Zealand Government's vision of developing a prosperous and confident knowledge society, beginning with the Tertiary Education Advisory Committee and a detailed analysis of the four reports they produced.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter outlines the rationale, the research aims and objectives, and states the research question. The chapter discusses the research methodology and methods, and outlines the research methodology chosen, and explains the process of evaluation research techniques used in this study.

Chapter Four: The Research Process

This chapter describes the processes undertaken during the course of this research: the data collection tools, the participants, and the data analysis processes. The chapter concludes with a statement of ethical considerations.

Chapter Five: The Results

This chapter discusses the findings of the research. It is divided into four sections: Secondary Responses, Tertiary Responses, Government Agency Responses, and Document Review. Each section has its own summary of results, which are explained, expanded and discussed in Chapter Six.

Chapter Six: Discussion

This chapter discusses the results of the research. The responses of the secondary and tertiary sectors, government agencies and results of the document review are integrated and compared with each other in order to answer the research question.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions.

The conclusions reached as a result of the research complete the thesis.

An Addendum updates this thesis with discussion on the Education Sector Review and Assessment of Strategic Relevance findings released as this thesis was completed. Recommendations for future research are included at the end of the Addendum.

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This Chapter is organised in three sections. Part One - Background and Overview, reviews the international thinking into developing policies to meet the changing needs of the 21st Century. The discussion covers the lifelong learning debate, outlining some of the more defining documents of the past thirty years. A short summary of New Zealand politics and educational policy from 1972-1999 is included, and an overview of current education policy.

Part Two of this chapter focusses on recent Tertiary Reforms. It outlines the establishment of the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC), summarises the four reports it produced and explains its role in developing the foundations of the Tertiary Education Strategy. These foundations include the formation of the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC, or the Commission), and the classification, regulatory and funding systems. Additionally, this chapter describes the Tertiary Reform Bill (TER), outlines the functions of the Commission in delivering the tenets of the Strategy, and discusses aspects of the Strategy relating to Objective 17.

Part Three then summarises the progress of the tertiary reforms to date, detailing some of the divergent opinions of the education sector on the Strategy. A discussion on the literature surrounding pathways and transitions, and the monitoring process that has been established concludes Part Three.

Part One - Background and Overview

Lifelong Learning

Any debate on the need for greater connections between the various educational sectors that influence a person's pathway to educational achievement in the 21st century cannot be complete without a discussion on lifelong learning. Benseman (2002, p.4) identifies lifelong learning as being the most common term used currently, although it was often termed 'lifelong education' in

the 1970s and 1980s. The key elements of lifelong education promoted education as both 'life-long', covering the human life-span, and 'life-wide', covering all forms of education including non-formal, informal and formal. Benseman, (2002, p.4) says that, "whilst [lifelong learning] covers the same scope as the latter term, it is argued by some writers as an even broader concept, with added emphasis on promoting learning in all its forms and within all social contexts." This discussion on lifelong learning has given rise to a plethora of documentation not only on the theory of lifelong learning, but also the reasoning supporting the need for it. In researching the literature available, one of the more obvious features is that lifelong learning is not a new idea.

As long ago as Plato, the importance of learning has been an integral part of how a society functions. Today, there are educational discussion papers, conference papers, governmental papers and policy, response documents, international reports, community newsletters, books, more books, reports, more reports and more policy. Many were treated as voices in the wilderness, and not taken up to any degree, but they all advocated the necessity for lifelong learning as they understood it. In keeping with modern trends, the Internet carries multitudinous links to the increasingly global concern many nations have as they try to address "the unprecedented demand for education arising out of the new tasks and functions to be fulfilled" (Faure et al, 1972, p. vi). As such, any debate on the necessity for lifelong learning, with its cradle to grave approach, has to start in the past.

The International Debate

For centuries, the concept of learning being the key to a fully functioning, adaptable and creative society has been debated. In 5th Century BC Athens, Socrates and Plato founded moral philosophy. Faure (1972, p.162) took the Greek philosophy relating to education, and adapted it for his purposes, saying: "In Athens, education was not a segregated activity, conducted for certain hours, in certain places, at a certain time of life. It was the aim of the society." By the 3rd century BC, the Chinese Philosopher, Kuan Tzu was saying, "when planning for a year - sow corn, when planning for a decade - plant trees, when planning for a lifetime - train and educate men" (Longworth, 1999, p. 3), and, as an example of modern day thinking Hoffer[8] (1973, p.22, cited in Edwards, 2000, p.5) argued that:

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8 Hoffer, E. (1902-1983) was an American social philosopher. Author of nine books and winner of the Presidential Medal of Freedom. His first book, *The True Believer,* (1951) was widely recognised as a classic, and established his reputation. Hoffer was among the first to recognise the central importance of self-esteem to psychological well-being.

> The central task of education is to implant a will and facility for learning; it should produce not learned but learning people... In a time of drastic change, it is the learners who inherit the future. The learned find themselves equipped to live in a world that no longer exists.

This evidence of a 'world that no longer exists' surrounds our daily lives. The internationally recognised reasoning backing the necessity for lifelong learning is best outlined by Fryer (1997, Part 2, 2.1):

> [People] face a bewildering mixture of uncertainty, risk, [and] insecurity... The challenges of rapid change are evident all around. They can be seen in radical shifts in the organisation of industry and labour markets... changes in occupations and the demand for skills... in the structure of communities and in family forms, roles and relationships.... [and in] new technologies and patterns of communication.

The irony is that learning both produces the change and helps us cope with it, harnessing it for our own needs. Over thirty years ago, before the market-driven political philosophy of the 1980s and 1990s intervened, the necessity for lifelong learning was brought into a global perspective. The effectiveness of existing educational theories was challenged by UNESCO reports, such as *The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis* (1968), and the Report of the Third UNESCO World Conference (1972). These reports "observed that the education system has dual responsibility... to meet individuals needs; and to meet societal needs" (Boshier, 1980, p. 204). This observation was followed up that same year with UNESCO's *Learning to Be* (1972) report, chaired by Edgar Faure. UNESCO had charged the Faure Commission to define:

> ...the new aims to be assigned to education as a result of the rapid changes in knowledge and in societies, the demands of development, the aspirations of the individual, and the overriding need for international understanding and peace (cited in Delors, 1995, p.42).

A study of the Faure report, as it is commonly known, shows that to deliver on its assignment, the four basic assumptions underlying the Commission's work were:

- Justification - the existence of an international community with common aspirations, problems and trends...

- Democracy - each man's right to realise his own potential... The keystone of democracy... is education.

- Fulfillment of Man - in all the richness of personality... as individual, member of a family and of a community, citizen and producer, inventor of techniques and creative dreamer.

- Learn to be - only an over-all lifelong education can produce the... complete man. We should... learn how to build up a continually evolving body of knowledge all through life. (Faure, 1972, p. vi).

In New Zealand, the Simmonds Report (1972) was the most significant report of the time. Benseman (2002, p.25) explains:

> In 1972 the National Commission for UNESCO had published a report to "examine the concept of lifelong education and what its implications are for New Zealand" (Simmonds, 1972, p.7). A six-person committee drawn mainly from mainstream providers or organisations and with a notable absence of representatives from ACE [Adult and Community Education sector] or non-formal groups wrote the report. Their report covered a wide range of implications, from pre-school to voluntary organisations and contained insights into the sorts of issues that would need to change if New Zealand were to become a learning society. Most of the report's recommendations (ibid, p. 9-10) were actioned. The most significant one not to be actioned was the setting up of a Committee of Inquiry to follow through on the report's recommendations.

The goals outlined in the Simmonds Report (1972, p. 13) suggested that education should be viewed as the 'developmental needs' of the individual, and as a member of society. They believed that the area of secondary education needed the closest study stating that, "external exams cause many to have a sense of failure, frustration and inadequacy and limit opportunities for individual needs", they went on to say, "successful students also often felt a lack of relevancy" (Simmonds, 1972, p.32). Consequently, the Simmonds Report recommended the introduction of internal assessment. They believed that the prime function of education was to motivate individuals to learn: to learn how to learn with less focus on subjects and a greater focus on intellectual abilities. It was not an accident that during the 1940s Prime Minister Peter Fraser often referred to learners as 'persons' not 'children' when he defined the aim of New Zealand education "with opportunities to develop to their fullest potential" (Simmonds, 1972, p. 13). The vision of the Simmonds Committee (1972) was that education would be treated as an equivalent of the welfare or health systems and could be picked up and put down by the individual as and when needed throughout life.

The essential concepts outlined by the Simmonds Report (1972, p.11-12) was that there should be free and ready access to lifelong education. There should be no age limit and there should be continuing professional development in the field of employment. Equal emphasis should be given to vocational and non-vocational education and that the idea of 'compulsory' in compulsory education should be replaced with 'entitlement' to lifelong education.

The Simmonds Committee held concerns that universities were slow in developing effective training for teachers of adults, and showed a marked reluctance to modify the traditional patterns of teaching from 'the lecture' to 'active learning' (Simmonds, 1972, pp. 101-103). Concerns were also raised over the relevance of subjects, and even though the open-entry principle was designed to eliminate the problems of getting into university, evidence suggested that professional, white, middle-class males predominated and that Maori were under-represented. They further expressed serious concerns with the relationships between schools and continuing education suggesting that experiments trialled, while partially successful, were left to wither for lack of institutional support. They argued that the costs of implementation should be balanced against the effect of not implementing the recommendations, such as increased unemployment, increased counselling services, and effects on the individual's mental health and those on law and order.

In summing up this period, Boshier (1997, p. 11), said, "the impetus for all these events was quite utopian and infused with a feeling of possibility," and "enormous energy was devoted to interpreting the Faure Report in New Zealand." Consequently, the challenges created by the massive changes in the everyday lives of individuals, and how they met these challenges, demanded a review of how nations viewed their education and learning practices. Faure (1972, p. 182), stated,

> We remain convinced that the question of lifelong education, the decisions to take and the paths to follow in order to achieve it are the crucial issues of our time, in all countries of the world, even in those which have yet to become fully aware of this idea.

Defining Documents

However, despite the innovative ideas of the 1970s, in New Zealand, like many countries caught up in the market-driven philosophies of the New Right,[9] education policies generally suffered from a lack of growth and development during the 1980s and early 1990s. It was not until the

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[9] Three key beliefs: (1) The only rights are non-interference rights., there are no "welfare rights", e.g., to food, medical care, employment, social services, or education. (2) The state should play a minimal role (3) no such thing as distributive justice. Invokes policies of privatising power. Policies include cutting back on public services ("eliminating waste"), getting rid of public property ("privatisation"), eliminating tariffs ("level playing field"), opening borders ("free trade"), and eliminating safeguards ("deregulation").' Source: 'New Zealand Reforms in Perspective' paper, Prof Ivan Snook, Economics in Education Seminar, 1990.

mid-to-late 1990s that world attention focussed once again on education policies, and turned towards a philosophy of lifelong learning.

Subsequently, some of the more defining documents discussing lifelong learning that appeared at the time include the CERI[10] report (OECD, 1995), the Delors Report[11] (1995), and the Fryer Report[12] (1997).   In brief, the focus of the CERI report focussed on developing the 'infrastructure for learning.'   Concluding that learning in the 21st century would become an essential part of everyday human activity, the conference emphasised that access to learning would need to become as near to universal as possible, with a greater degree of flexibility. Therefore, governments, in partnership with providers, would need to make a particular effort to improve access to under-served groups, and learning providers would need to adapt to meet the changing demands of their clients and to maximise the potential of new delivery techniques.   In addition, the conference decided that whilst governments would need to "*play an active role in supporting the learning infrastructure, they should not expect to control the learning agenda* (added emphasis).   Learning in the 21st century would need to be a collaborative enterprise between providers and business partners" (OECD, 1995, pp. 43-45).

Similarly, the UNESCO report, *Learning: The Treasure Within* (1995), chaired by Jacques Delors restated the basic premises of the Faure report, emphasising the 'learning to be' aspect and adding others.   The report emphasised that lifelong learning "emerges as one of the keys to the twenty-first century, [and] meets the challenges posed by a rapidly changing world" (Delors, 1995, p.20).   The key components of the Delors report are the Four Pillars of Learning: *Learning to know, Learning to do, Learning to live together* and *Learning to be.*   The essence of each of these is: *Learning to know* meant "developing ones' concentration, memory skills and ability to think", in other words learning how to learn.   *Learning to do* refers to personal competence. *Learning to live together* focussed on reducing world violence and developing an "awareness of the similarities and interdependence on all people," and *Learning to Be* meant "education should contribute to every person's complete development - mind and body, intelligence, sensitivity,

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[10] Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) 1994 OECD conference report.

[11] UNESCO International Commission on Education for the 21st Century 1995 report, Learning: The Treasure Within, known as the Delors Report.

[12] First report of the National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning (NAGCELL), Learning for the 21st Century, 1997, known as the Fryer Report.

aesthetic appreciation and spirituality" (Delors, 1995, pp.7-8); the fulfilment of the individual as profiled by Faure.

The Delors report has since been the basis of many other reports in many countries, including Dohmen[13] (1996), Dearing[14] (1996) and Tuckett[15] (1997), (cited in Boshier, 1997). However, Boshier (1997, pp. 44-49) claims that, "[u]nlike Faure's collectivist and anarchistic-utopian vision and 'learning from life', [these reports] were fuelled by concern about the 'global economy', 'work-place' and 'individual learning'. There is barely a hint of the democratic vision proposed by *Learning To Be* (Boshier 1997, pp. 44-49).

The Fryer Report is one upon which the British system of lifelong learning is based. In the late 1990s, the report of the National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning (NAGCELL), *Learning for the 21st Century* (1997), framed how this would be achieved in Britain. The Terms of Reference included making the case for the development of 'a culture of lifelong learning for all'. It outlined the Agenda for Lifelong Learning over the next five years: the Necessity for Lifelong Learning, A Vision of Lifelong Learning, Implementing Lifelong Learning for all and Achieving Change.

Putting Policy into Practice

Given the ideals these reports expounded, questions arose about what strategies have been developed since to increase flexibility and increase access. What new learning environments have been created that differ from traditional educational environments, and what pathways have been created as a result?

Since then, the proliferation of writings from educationalists, theorists, psychologists and government departments that ensued have not all been in favour of the concept of a culture of lifelong learning, or at least how it has been interpreted. Much of the attention has been focussed

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[13] Official Report on Adult and Continuing Education in Germany for the UNESCO World Conference on Adult Education in Hamburg.

[14] UK National Committee of Inquiry, known as the Dearing report, looked at higher education in the learning society committed to learning throughout life. The report outlined the purposes, shape, structure, size and funding of higher education.

[15] Director of the UK National Institute for Adult and Continuing Education (NIACE), the national organisation for adult learning.

on adult education programmes or increasing tertiary participation, but attention is now turning again to developing lifelong learning as a seamless concept rather than looking solely at sectionalised areas.

Many authors have debated the numerous definitions of lifelong learning (Moreland, 2000; Field, 2000a; Gorard, 2002). Many have argued about how to achieve the desired outcomes (Oliver, 1999; Edwards, 2000). Some have argued for a paradigm shift in educational practices, while others argued for a societal shift (Jarvis, 2000; Fevre, 2002). Some have focussed on the economic aspects, while others decried this, and focussed on the personal (Coffield, 1997; Gorard, 2002; Lonsdale, 2002; Trorey 2000). Some have argued that technology was the key to lifelong learning, while others have argued that technology had run riot (OECD, 1995; Henschke, 1997). This diversity is typical of the lifelong learning debate. McNair (2001, p.25), echoing the Greek philosophy, sums up the debate by saying:

> In a rapidly changing economic and social context, lifelong learning cannot be a matter of delivering the same course in different modes and locations (though that is itself a challenge for many providers). Educators need to find ways of integrating learning into the workplace and community settings, using the potential of a knowledge-rich society to develop learning in life.

Throughout these escalating discourses, the necessity for lifelong learning is rarely challenged and the justifications for lifelong learning are often repeated. It is one area in which proponents and critics all agree. It is the means, rather than the ends, that are constantly under debate.

International concerns, some of which have been outlined above, resulted in such developments as the United Kingdom appointing a Minister of Lifelong Learning; 1996 was declared the European Year of Lifelong Learning; and, in 1997, UNESCO placed "great emphasis on the relationship between lifelong learning and equality in its international congress on adult education" (Field, 2000a, p. xviii). Benseman (2002, p.38) explains that most writers point to the re-emergence of lifelong learning as dating from its adoption in the 1996 European Year of Lifelong Learning. However, Merricks (cited in Benseman, 2002, p.38) says that this development grew out of a 1993 European Union paper entitled *Growth, competitiveness, employment*, which not only promoted the need for lifelong learning as a guard against unemployment, but also as a means of promoting 'active citizenship'. In short, the report