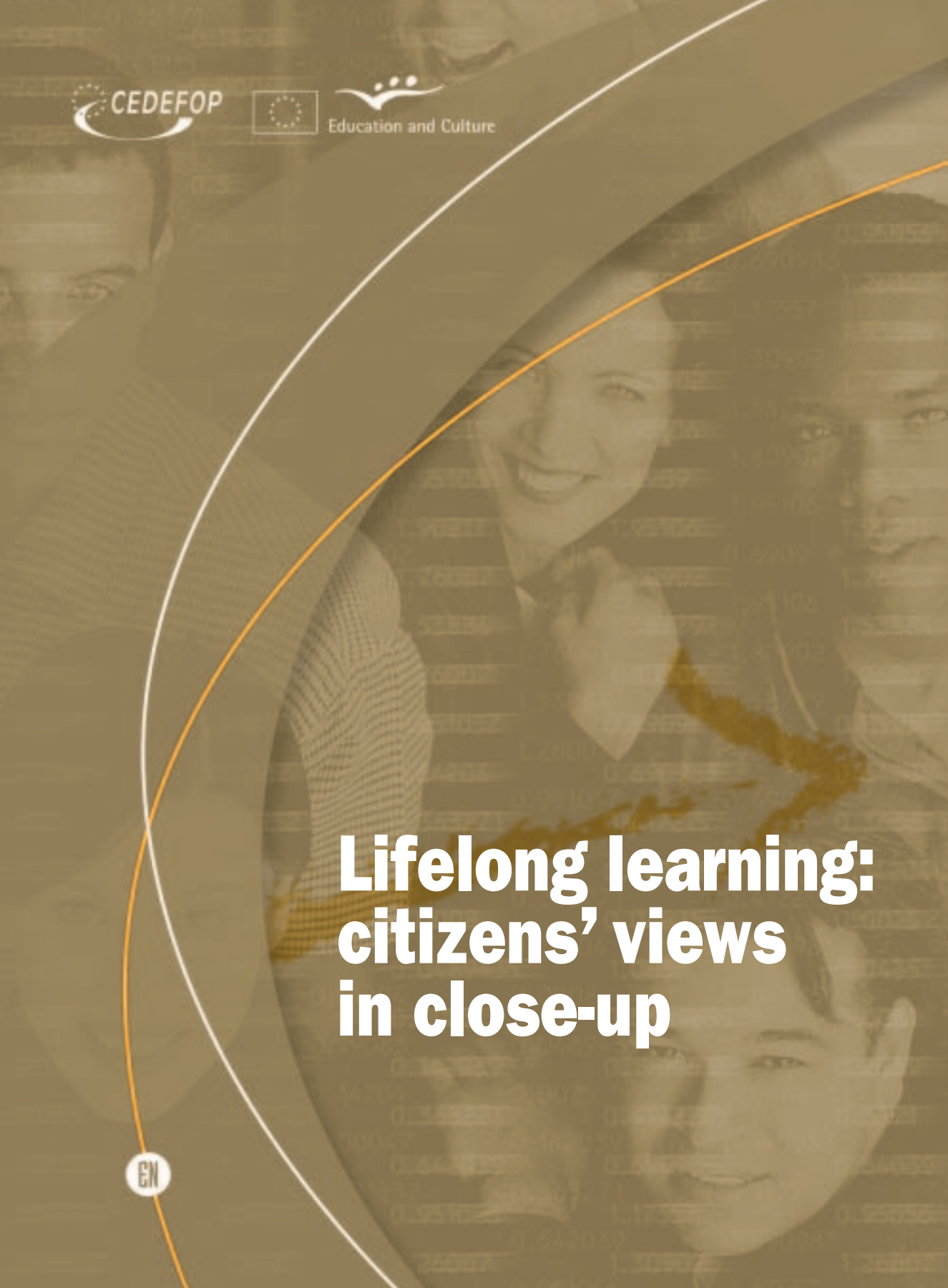

CEDEFOP
Education and Culture
Lifelong learning:
citizens' views
in close-up
EN

Lifelong learning: citizens' views in close-up

Findings from a dedicated Eurobarometer survey

Lynne Chisholm

Anne Larson

Anne-France Mossoux

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2004

A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available
on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server (http://europa.eu.int).

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

Luxembourg:
Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2004

ISBN 92-896-0309-7

Designed by M.Diamantidi S.A. – Greece
Printed in Greece

The **European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training** (Cedefop) is the European Union's reference Centre for vocational education and training. We provide information on and analyses of vocational education and training systems, policies, research and practice. Cedefop was established in 1975 by Council Regulation (EEC) No. 337/75.

Europe 123
GR-57001 Thessaloniki (Pylea)

Postal Address: PO Box 22427
GR-55102 Thessaloniki

Tel. (30) 23 10 49 01 11, Fax (30) 23 10 49 00 20
E-mail: info@cedefop.eu.int
Homepage: www.cedefop.eu.int
Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

Lynne Chisholm
Anne Larson
Anne-France Mossoux

Edited by:
Cedefop
Lynne Chisholm

Published under the responsibility of:
Johan van Rens, Director
Stavros Stavrou, Deputy Director

Acknowledgements

This survey and publication of its findings are the results of teamwork by many people over the past two years, not only at Cedefop but also at INRA in Belgium and the European Commission, in particular the Directorate-General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) and the Directorate-General for Press and Communication. Since autumn 2003, the Danish University of Education in Copenhagen has supported this project through Anne Larson's participation in the framework of Lynne Chisholm's visiting professorship in the university's Department of Educational Sociology. This work was part of the university's launch of a new research programme in education policy.

We would like to thank the colleagues at Cedefop who contributed to the questionnaire development and testing and the secretaries who provided unfailing support throughout the preparation of this publication, especially Christine Nychas. For the preparation of this second publication, Michael Adams at Cedefop's Brussels office has given valuable support and encouragement. Throughout this project, Werner Herrmann was at hand to lend advice and solve problems. Without the confidence of Angélique Verli, Head of Lifelong Learning Policy at DG EAC, this Eurobarometer survey could not have been commissioned. Our thanks are also due to Jean-Michel Lebrun from INRA and the colleagues from Cedefop's translation service, revision and publications department and the library and documentation service.

This Eurobarometer survey is part of Cedefop's lifelong learning flagship project 2002-04. Lynne Chisholm initiated and managed the survey project as a whole and worked with Anne-France Mossoux (formerly Cedefop; now at FOREM Liège, Analyse du marché de l'emploi et de la formation) and a team of Cedefop colleagues to design the survey and direct the shape of its analysis. Anne-France Mossoux was responsible for the day-to-day execution of the project, in particular relations with INRA and preparing the basic tabulations and data analysis. Anne Larson (Department of Educational Sociology, Danish University of Education) joined the project to work on the detailed analysis reported in this publication. The substantive chapters of this report were drafted by Anne Larson and Anne-France Mossoux under the guidance of Lynne Chisholm, who finalised the report and assured its publication.

Lynne Chisholm
Lifelong learning flagship project

Foreword

Lifelong learning is seen as the cornerstone of the 'Lisbon goals', the European strategy set in Lisbon in 2000 according to which the European Union should become, by 2010, the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economic area in the world, as well as a more cohesive and inclusive society (European Commission, 2003a, 2003b and 2003c) ([1]). It is also a transversal objective of European policy, which brings together education and training and is, at the same time, a key element of employment, social and democratic policies.

Cedefop decided to place lifelong learning as the overarching objective for its medium-term priorities from 2003 to 2006. Key issues related to lifelong learning have been addressed in the second research report (Tessaring and Descy, 2001a and 2001b) and policy report (Bainbridge et al., 2004) ([2]). Virtual communities ([3]) have been created to support the work of the technical groups set up to follow up the Lisbon and Copenhagen processes. A dedicated conference *Policy, practice and partnership: getting to work on lifelong learning* was organised by Cedefop in June 2003, under the Greek Presidency (Chisholm, 2004) ([4]). Further to the latest consultation on lifelong learning policies, Cedefop contributed to the analysis of the national reports and the preparation of a synthesis report ([5]), as it did in 2001 for the consultation process on the European Commission's Memorandum on lifelong learning (2000; and see Cedefop, 2002).

The special Eurobarometer on lifelong learning jointly launched by the European Commission and Cedefop was designed to compensate for the lack of comparable and comprehensive data on lifelong learning at EU level. It is the first step towards providing up-to-date information on people's opinions on lifelong learning as well as their experiences of lifelong learning, their intentions for future participation and their learning preferences.

This publication presents the full analysis of the special Eurobarometer on

([1]) For more information on the Lisbon Strategy, please consult: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html.

([2]) The executive summary and more information on the publication are available from the following address: http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/policyreport/policyreport.asp.

([3]) The virtual communities are available from: http://cedefop.communityzero.com

([4]) The conference proceedings and the summary report are available from: http://www.trainingvillage.gr/etv/default.asp. The summary report is also available (in English, French and German) free of charge in hard copy (on request from Cedefop, Panorama series 4033)

([5]) The national reports and synthesis report are available from: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/lll_en.html.

lifelong learning carried out in early 2003. It follows on from the brochure *Lifelong learning: citizens' views* (Cedefop, 2003) ([6]), which presented the initial highlights of the survey.

Cedefop hopes that this publication will serve the needs of all those interested in monitoring and implementing lifelong learning as well as supporting the activities aimed at the collection of further data in that field – such as the survey on adult learning being developed by Eurostat and the work on continuing education and training carried out by OECD. We also trust that this Eurobarometer survey leads to further surveys covering other aspects of education and training and including the new Member States.

Johan van Rens
Director, Cedefop

([6]) The brochure is available (in English, French and German) free of charge in hard copy (on request from Cedefop) and in pdf format from:
http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/publication/download/panorama/4025_en.pdf

Preface

The wish at the outset of the project was to obtain innovative information about lifelong learning from the perspective of individuals themselves. It was decided to launch a Eurobarometer survey to achieve this purpose. Indeed, Eurobarometer opinion polls are well suited to gauge people's views on many issues of interest and to provide rapid snapshots of the overall picture. The special Eurobarometer survey on lifelong learning is seen as a complementary tool to large-scale data collections or surveys on education, training and employment.

The questionnaire, developed at Cedefop, was meant to cover the full scope of lifelong learning and the whole range of learning contexts. We tried to integrate issues at the heart of research or policy debate, such as motivation to learn and participation in non-formal and informal learning. It was developed around five modules:

(a) general opinion on learning and additional background information;
(b) learning preferences in terms of setting, method and social context;
(c) past education and training experience, i.e. participation, motivations and benefits;
(d) future participation intentions, including motivations, obstacles and possible incentives;
(e) policy-relevant issues, such as basic skills, guidance and counselling, financing lifelong learning.

This publication is built around four thematic clusters that emerged from the initial analysis (Cedefop, 2003) and are seen as policy-relevant. Chapter 1 unpacks the information provided by the Eurobarometer survey on citizens' perceptions of the usefulness of a range of 'old and new' skills in relation to self-assessments of whether they possess these skills or not. Chapter 2 takes up the question of where and how people think they learn best, both in relation to recent experience and future intentions, with a particular focus on work-related learning and learning in working environments. Chapter 3 discusses issues linked to participation and intentions and compares some of the findings from the Eurobarometer with data from large-scale surveys. Chapter 4 looks at some policy-relevant issues addressed either in some questions or as transversal issues throughout the questionnaire and compares data from this special Eurobarometer on lifelong learning with results from previous Eurobarometer surveys on comparable topics. The

executive summary takes the form of key points to take forward into further policy and research debates.

Throughout this report, the findings for each theme are considered from various vantage points based on similarities and differences between countries, by age, by sex, by educational level and occupational status. Within the technical limits of Eurobarometer samples, cross-tabulations between these variables and across patterns of response to different questions provide fascinating and often troubling insights into European citizens' attitudes towards learning – but also into the life circumstances that importantly shape these. In many ways, the findings confirm what we know from a longstanding tradition of research into social inequalities and educational opportunities and outcomes. They open the vista towards a better appreciation of these processes and their consequences as these operate throughout the course of people's lives, rather than focusing only on the generation and maintenance of such patterns in the early years of life and in initial education and training. At the same time, the findings also provide many intriguing insights into similarities and differences between countries as part of building up a 'European map of learning'. Eurobarometer surveys are rarely analysed in such detail as has been the case for the 2003 lifelong learning survey, and this goes to show that despite their statistical limitations, Eurobarometer data can be exploited to great advantage given focused design on specific themes and the availability of specialist expertise to work on their findings. Finally, the rich information this survey provides is a valuable source of ideas for further inquiries, and it demonstrates without the shadow of a doubt just how important it is to match objective facts about learning participation and achievement with subjective perceptions of learning experience and benefits.

Table of contents

List of figures and tables

Figures

Tables

Executive summary

The 2003 lifelong learning Eurobarometer charts the subjective and personal views of a random sample of European citizens aged 15+ in the 15 pre-2004 Member States, Iceland and Norway. The findings therefore look at attitudes and behaviours from individuals' own perceptions and statements.

This report provides a detailed analysis of the survey results, following previous publication of an initial analysis (Cedefop, 2003). They show that educational experience, life and social circumstances together with cultural perspectives consistently shape the response profiles for all topics covered. There are very few examples where none of these factors intervene to differentiate noticeably between respondents from different countries, with different levels of education and occupational status, of different ages and between women and men. Equally important, these basic differentiating factors act together to produce profiles of cumulative advantage or disadvantage with respect to self-reported attitudes towards learning and learning behaviours themselves.

The survey findings confirm and extend what we know about these matters from other surveys and research studies. They also provide new and interesting material on citizens' judgements of the relative usefulness of different kinds of skills, their learning preferences and the factors that encourage or discourage them from taking up learning in adult life. They also deliver the first detailed set of this kind of data in EU/EEA comparison. Comparable data from a repeat Eurobarometer survey for the 10 Member States acceding to the EU in May 2004 will also become available in the near future.

Some findings are troubling. They show wide differences in access to adult learning and link these to circumstances and orientations, which appear to interact with each other, producing both virtuous and vicious circles of learning experiences and behaviours. In particular, the survey data allow a first approximate identification of 'learning-detached citizens' for Europe as a whole. Their experiences and attitudes lead them to shy away from education and training of any kind and do not lead them to engage actively with the range of learning opportunities that may be available to them. Neither are they likely to find themselves in labour market or social circumstances that ease and encourage participation in learning.

Europe faces not simply a digital skills gap, but more broadly a 'new skills' gap. It also faces a learning time-bind: citizens report that lack of time is the main obstacle they face in taking up learning opportunities. Further, on many

topics covered in this survey, a Nordic-Southern European divide is readily visible, most of all when gender is added to the equation. However, many differences flatten out when breakdowns control for educational level.

As an interesting highlight, rates of labour market related mobility in the two years preceding the survey were relatively low, and the types of changes that took place are more likely to have occurred for certain groups rather than others. Of respondents, 12% had become full-time carers and are likely to be women aged 25-39; 15% had begun education and training courses among which both 15-24 year olds and the previously unemployed are over-represented. One in 10 had changed career and a slightly higher proportion had changed employer – and since respondents could note several types of changes, it is likely these categories significantly overlap. Employees aged 25-40 were most likely to fall into this group, and they are also more likely to be men, given that women in the same age group were more likely to have become full-time carers in the same period. Men were also more likely than women to have been promoted, whatever their age. All these patterns obviously have implications for the opportunity and the propensity to engage in different kinds of adult learning.

Skills for a knowledge society

The majority of the adult population in most countries register a skills gap for IT, languages and applied science/technology. Southern European countries are at a particular disadvantage. One third of EU15+2 citizens lack IT skills, but most nevertheless think they would be very useful. This is not the case for foreign languages or for applied science/technology, where clear majorities (in most countries) neither possess these skills nor do they consider them very useful.

For all 'new skills' (for this survey, IT skills and intercultural skills) it is above all older citizens with lower levels of education who are most likely to say that they neither possess these skills nor do they see them as useful in their lives. However, most citizens everywhere see traditional skills (reading/writing, arithmetic, general knowledge) and social skills (except management skills) as very useful and largely judge themselves to be proficient in these.

There is a visible and felt gendered skills gap as far as IT and applied science/technology is concerned. Fewer women see themselves as having these skills, but at least in relation to IT, they are no less convinced of their usefulness than are men. The gender gap is particularly visible for older and less educated women, and even more so if they live in southern Europe.

It may be that those who live in smaller countries with a trading tradition and with lesser-used first languages (such as Iceland and Luxembourg) are

more sensitive to the importance of intercultural skills in today's world (that is, cooperating with others, getting on with people from other countries and cultures, and using foreign languages).

The findings in general suggest that those citizens who have been able to experience the practical usefulness of a given skill are more likely to judge it as being important for them (for example, recognising the usefulness of foreign languages by participating in an exchange for study, training or work purposes). This points to the significance of extending the provision of practice-based learning and ensuring wider access to diverse learning opportunities.

Learning environments

Overall, learning in working versus non-working environments and learning in formal versus non-formal/informal contexts are equally popular. However, country of residence, age and sex influence learning environment preferences.

Most people think they learn in various settings, with the youngest most inclined to report multiple learning contexts. About half the survey respondents report having recently (that is, in the preceding year) learned something at the workplace, and men are more likely to report this than are women. Citizens who have extended or recent/ongoing learning experience are most likely to favour formal settings for future learning, and they are also most likely to identify having recently learned something in whatever kind of environment.

Although four in 10 citizens point to IT tools as the most important new learning opportunity to have arisen in the past five years, only just over one in 10 would choose to learn in the future through open and distance learning methods (in comparison with other options). Very few select the newest forms of learning channels (virtual communities, Internet chat, virtual or real-time intercultural collective knowledge sharing) as important new learning opportunities. Overall, 7% had experienced mobility as a learning tool (that is, going on exchanges, secondments and placements) in the previous year, and only 5% would choose this option for future learning for updating their professional skills.

Learning context preferences distinguish clearly between active learners and the learning-detached. Virtually all those respondents who report they are not interested in work-related learning have low levels of education. A quarter of those who not only have low education levels but are also outside the labour market (that is, either unemployed or inactive) do not know how to go about pursuing learning. However, those with low education levels and in employment - were they to take up learning in the future – would prefer taking courses located at the workplace.

At least 7% of citizens with low education levels, regardless of their labour market status, say they would never want to improve their professional skills. However, for those respondents outside the labour market, family and social environments are those where they are most likely to report having recently learned something. This suggests developing non-formal/informal learning opportunities is an important way to draw these citizens into education and training in the future.

Respondents with high levels of education and holding high-status jobs are the most proactive learning citizens: they seek information from a wide range of sources, they take part in different kinds of learning, and they are most likely to recognise that they have recently learned in a range of settings. The Nordic countries seem to have achieved most success in fostering an active learning orientation on the part of far greater proportions of their populations, including those with low education levels.

Participation and motivation

Two thirds of survey respondents had not recently (that is, in the previous year) taken part in any form of education and training that they recognised as such, but differences between countries are wide, ranging from around 50% non-participation in Nordic countries to over 80% non-participation in Greece and Portugal. However, when participants in these and other southern European countries take part in learning, they are more likely than average to do so on their own initiative. Overall, just over half European citizens had taken up recent learning because they had been advised or requested to do so (by their employer, by government agencies such as the employment services, or by family, friends and colleagues).

Employers appear to play a significant role in inciting learning participation, especially for those with low levels of education but having a job. Employer funding support and social recognition for their learning achievements are as important as flexible learning opportunities linked to the workplace.

Virtually all survey respondents see lifelong learning as having mixed purposes, that is, both work-related and personal aims, but the latter is slightly more dominant overall. The same applies, and this even more so, to their assessments of the benefits of learning: the majority see both work-related and personal benefits, but the latter outweigh the former. Those who were advised or requested to participate in the recent past are more likely than average to report work-related benefits. However, only 10% of those who were jobseekers or looking to change their job when they took up recent learning succeeded in doing so as a result, at least to date.

Almost two fifths of citizens report they have insufficient time at their disposal to take up learning, and within this, family commitments is the

dominant component for both sexes, although this is much more so for women. Lack of childcare/eldercare facilities is a significant factor in this equation, but not the only one. Time availability is also a matter of individual and cultural perception and priority setting, as the noticeable differences between countries suggest. The most frequently selected incentives for learning fit into this overall picture: flexible working hours, individualised programmes of study/personal choice of methods are most popular, followed by getting a certificate.

Of those not participating in learning in the preceding year, 20% would nevertheless like to do so, but 35% did not do so because they were not interested. With respect to future learning, one in five report that nothing would encourage them to take up learning again, with distinctly above average figures in Belgium, Greece and Portugal; further, 13% think they are too old to learn, and older women are overrepresented in this group.

In the first instance, older citizens and those with low levels of education are more likely to be non-participants. Insofar as older women are overrepresented amongst those with low education levels, which is most especially the case in southern European countries, then they, too, are more likely to be found amongst the non-participants in recent learning. Non-participants report the same kinds of obstacles to learning as do participants, but they are more likely to mention obstacles in the first place. They are also more uncertain about what they would like to do and what is available. This suggests that providing tailored information, advice and guidance would improve participation rates for these citizens.

Demotivated learners are those respondents who consistently report, across a range of survey questions, that they simply do not want to take up learning of any kind. Older women with low levels of education are also characteristic members of this group. In general, it seems that demotivated learners everywhere in Europe are not only learning-detached but are also inclined to be socially detached, that is, they are unlikely to participate actively in the public sphere, whether this be on the labour market or in community life. Further, incentives for learning which appear promising for the majority of the population do not seem to attract them. Key features are indecision, poor self-confidence and negative previous experiences with learning.

Comparing the findings of the 1995 lifelong learning Eurobarometer survey (*Europeans and their attitudes to education and training*, 1997) with those of the current survey indicates that citizens' views on financing lifelong learning have not appreciably changed in the intervening eight years. In both cases, about half the respondents report they are prepared to pay part of the cost of learning (in the current survey, this holds only for some learning purposes), and only a small minority are prepared to pay all the cost. The 2003 survey

finds that learning in order to move into self-employment draws the highest proportion (23%) of European citizens prepared to pay all the cost. Learning for improving one's personal life draws the highest level of support (51%) for preparedness to pay at least some of the cost. Readiness to contribute towards the cost of learning does not noticeably vary according to whether the purpose is work-related or not, and there are, for once, few country differences on this point. However, there are large country differences on readiness to contribute *anything* towards the cost of learning. Southern Europeans are less keen to contribute than Nordics; in Belgium, Spain, France and Portugal people are least willing to contribute; and in Denmark, Iceland and Luxembourg respondents are most willing – or rather, least unwilling – to do so. Unsurprisingly, those on low incomes are least prepared to contribute, wherever they live, but this also holds for those with low educational levels and for older respondents (who are overrepresented, of course, amongst those with low incomes).

1. Skills for a knowledge society

1.1. Introduction

Initial analysis of the Eurobarometer findings (Cedefop, 2003) produced some interesting findings on how people value different kinds of key skills for the knowledge society and how they judge their own competence levels in relation to these skills. The skills list used in the questionnaire was based on what had become known as the 'extended Lisbon list', developed by the working group on basic skills, entrepreneurship and foreign languages established by the European Commission as part of the follow-up to the European Council's report on the concrete future objectives of education and training systems in Europe (2001). This working group's interim report (European Commission, 2003c) specifies the key competences essential for living and working in a knowledge society: communication in the mother tongue; communication in a foreign language; mathematical literacy and basic competences in science and technology; ICT skills; learning-to-learn; interpersonal and civic competences; entrepreneurship (for example creativity and being able to take initiative); and cultural awareness. For the lifelong learning Eurobarometer, these were operationalised into 15 kinds of skills as listed in the skills categories box overleaf, which also shows how these were regrouped into broader categories for the initial and current analyses.

Survey respondents were first asked to judge the personal usefulness of these skills both in family or private life and outside it ([7]). They were then asked whether they think they possess the skills in question, and if so, whether they would be able to present some form of evidence that this is so. In other words, the survey response charts subjective views alone. It does not record actual possession of skills. Respondents may well underestimate and overestimate their objective competence levels, and the reference levels they used in this respect are not known. Their judgements are hence only relative

([7]) 'Outside family or private life' means above all 'in the paid work world' for the majority of adults, but it can also encompass leisure, community and civic life, especially for those not active in the labour market. The aim was to distinguish between the private and public spheres of life, but this terminology cannot be used in questionnaire surveys for the general population. Further, boundaries between private and public do differ somewhat between cultural settings. These considerations led to the way in which the question was phrased, but the text that follows uses the terms 'private life/sphere' and 'public life/sphere' in accordance with the survey's aim. In many cases, the current analysis combines the values for these two categories into an average, but also refers on occasion to differences between the values for the two spheres.

approximations to realities, but self-assessments are also an important source of information about people's levels of self-confidence about what they know and can do. Further, where people feel they are not competent in a given area, they are unlikely to venture into occupations, jobs and activities that (appear to) require these. For this reason, it is the extent to which citizens think they are not proficient that is particularly noteworthy. In addition, the findings show that people tend to judge as useful those skills and competences they also think they possess. This, too, provides clues about how people construct their motivation – or their relative lack of it – to acquire new skills or improve the levels of those they have.

Skill	Category in initial analysis	Category in this analysis
Ability to read or write	Traditional skills	Traditional skills
Ability to do arithmetic	Traditional skills	Traditional skills
Having general knowledge	Traditional skills	Traditional skills
Ability to express oneself well	Social skills	Social skills
Ability to assess situations and solve problems	Social skills	Social skills
Ability to take initiatives	Social skills	Social skills
Organisational skills	Social skills	Social skills
Ability to manage people	Social skills	Social skills
Knowing how to learn	Social skills	Social skills
Ability to get on with people from different cultures/countries	Social skills	Intercultural skills
Ability to cooperate with other people	Social skills	Intercultural skills
Ability to use foreign languages	Instrumental skills	Intercultural skills
Ability to use a computer	Instrumental skills	'ICT skills'
Ability to use the Internet	Instrumental skills	'ICT skills'
Ability to use scientific/technological tools	Instrumental skills	Scientific/technological skills and equipment

The initial analysis showed that European citizens consider traditional skills and (most) social skills to be very useful in all spheres of life, and that they also think they possess the skills in question. Further, respondents are more likely to consider instrumental skills very useful outside family or private life. Their awareness of a personal skills gap is most pronounced for the ability to use scientific and technological tools and equipment and the ability to use foreign languages.

This more detailed analysis of the lifelong learning Eurobarometer survey findings looks more closely at the patterns summarised above, digging more deeply into differences by gender, age, educational level, occupational status and country. This analysis regroups the 15 skills items in the questionnaire, to turn the spotlight directly on ICT and intercultural skills, which, as 'new skills' for the knowledge society, have high priority in European policy.

1.2. What are seen to be very useful skills?

The three traditional skills of reading/writing, arithmetic and general knowledge have lost none of their relevance in citizens' eyes: respectively 97%, 92% ([8]) and 87% judge these as very useful across the board. The consensus is consistent throughout the sample, which suggests – unremarkably – that this view is part of the taken-for-granted of life in a modern literate culture.

The picture for other kinds of skills (social, intercultural, ICT and scientific/technological) is more differentiated in several ways. As far as country variations are concerned, the 'usefulness ratings' for both Spanish and Portuguese citizens are generally lowest, whereas those for Icelanders and, to a lesser degree, in Greece and Luxembourg are highest. Similarly, younger and highly educated respondents, especially students, are most likely to consider almost every skill to be very useful. The older, the least educated, homemakers ([9]) and the retired, are least likely to do so. These patterns indicate that culture, educational experience and life circumstances intervene to shape data patterns, and we shall see this feature recurring throughout the whole report.

1.2.1. **Most skills are seen to be very useful in life as a whole – but there are some notable exceptions**

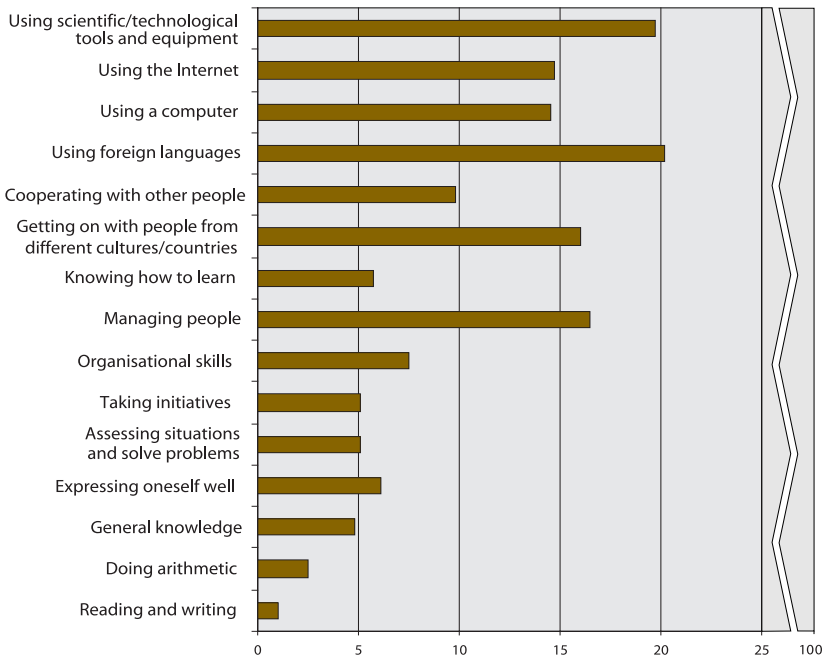
On the whole, people think that the skills that are very useful in the private sphere are also very useful in the public sphere. This does not always hold in reverse, that is, some skills are seen to be very useful in the public sphere but

([8]) There are few variations by respondent group. However, it is worth recording that only two out of three Spanish respondents think that being able to do arithmetic is very useful, in either private or public life. This value visibly departs from the general pattern and deserves further research.

([9]) This term is a compromise and an approximation. It refers to respondents who reported that they are not labour market active, not unemployed and who are mainly occupied with family responsibilities and/or running a household, but who are neither retired nor students. This group mainly comprises women who are not gainfully employed, may or may not have dependent children, and may or may not be living with a husband or life partner. Nevertheless, this group is not really homogeneous and there are other possibilities, which makes it inadvisable to use the classic term 'housewife'.

not so much in the private sphere, as shown in Figure 1 below. This is noticeably so for using scientific/technological tools and equipment, intercultural skills and ICT skills. It is especially so for using foreign languages and scientific/technological tools and equipment, where as many as one in five distinguish between the public and private spheres in their 'usefulness ratings'. There are virtually no differences by country or by socio-demographic variables on this point, which is unusual in comparison with overall data patterns.

Figure 1: **Proportion of respondents considering a range of different skills very useful in public life, but less so in private life, %**



It is worth recording that in Luxembourg, the intercultural skills of using foreign languages and getting on with people from other cultures/countries are judged to be very useful in life as a whole. This differs markedly from other countries, where these skills are much more likely to be seen as very useful in the public sphere, and less so in the private sphere: this holds for 20% of EU15 respondents, but only 3% of those from Luxembourg ([10]).

ICT skills throw up noticeable differences between countries on skills

([10]) See Table 1 in Annex 2 for the overall picture and Section 1.2.3. further below. Icelanders are similar to those in Luxembourg on foreign languages, which also fits into the broader pattern described in Section 1.2.3.

usefulness ratings between private and public life. Italians are especially likely to report that using the Internet is more useful in the public sphere (23% versus 15% for EU15). In contrast, respondents from Nordic ([11]) countries are more likely to consider ICT skills as very useful in their private life than are those from Southern Europe ([12]). This difference does not hold for the public sphere, but it holds for all age groups on using the Internet. More than eight in 10 young ([13]) Nordics consider it very useful to be able to use the Internet in the private sphere, compared with fewer than seven in 10 in Southern Europe. We know the proportion of households with Internet access is much higher in Nordic than Southern European countries (and see Chapter 4 on this point).

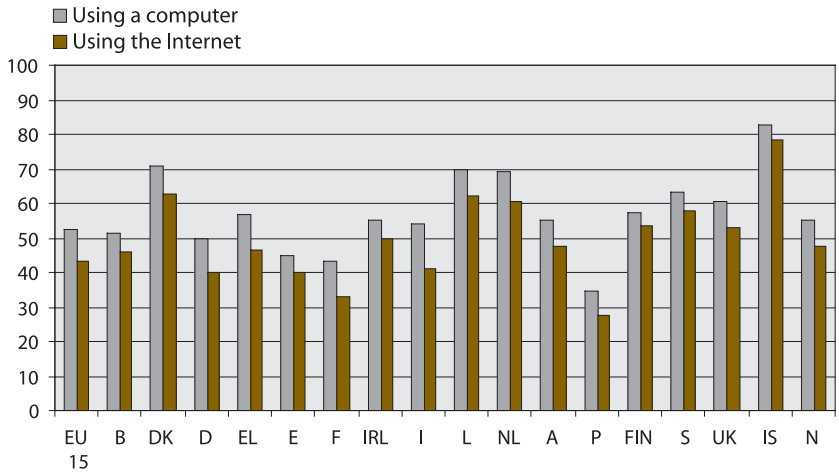
1.2.2. Half the general population think ICT skills are very useful across the board – but there are substantial country differences

Figure 2 overleaf shows the EU15 average falling at around 50% for rating the usefulness of ICT skills in both private and public life, which for the purposes of the survey means 'ability to use a computer' and 'ability to use the Internet'. In general, people tend to see computer skills as more useful than knowing how to use the Internet (52% versus 43%).

However, Figure 2 also shows that response by country varies widely: eight in 10 Icelanders consider ICT skills very useful, compared with about three in 10 in Portugal. Later in this report (Chapter 4), we shall see that these differences largely correlate with self-reported personal computer (PC) usage rates. The Portuguese fall well below average on this count, whereas the Danes and the Dutch are well above average. The Greek Eurobarometer respondents are an exception to the general pattern: they are more likely than the average EU citizen to rate ICT skills as very useful, but they also self-report the lowest PC and Internet use rates.

([11]) Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.
([12]) Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain.
([13]) In this report, the term 'young people' specifically means those respondents aged 15-24.

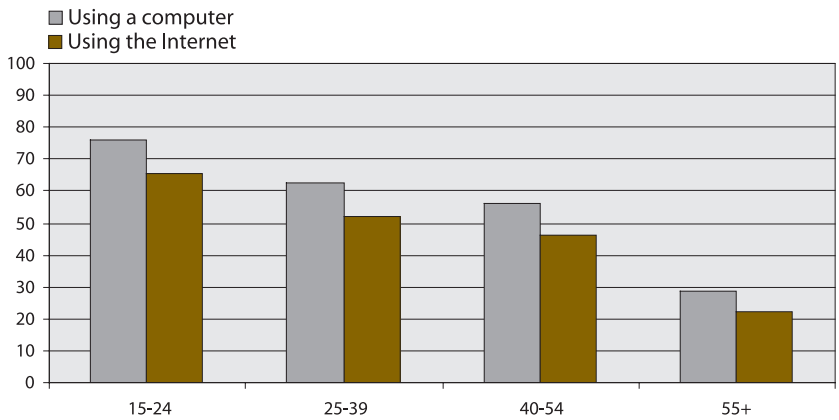
Figure 2: **Proportion of respondents considering ICT skills very useful in their lives as a whole, by country, %**



Note: 'Lives as a whole' = very useful in private and public life.
Country codes are shown in Annex 1.

There is also a clear association between age and the usefulness attached to ICT skills: the younger the respondent group, the more positive the judgement, as Figure 3 below indicates. This finding also correlates with self-reported PC and Internet use rates. However, familiarity with ICT tools cannot be the sole explanation for judgements on usefulness of ICT skills, since younger Eurobarometer respondents return higher usefulness ratings on all survey items.

Figure 3: **Proportion of respondents considering ICT skills very useful in their lives as a whole, by age, %**



Considering ICT skills to be very useful is also positively related to educational level ([14]). The survey findings similarly produce some gender differences on the judged usefulness of ICT skills, though overall, the gender gap is not as wide as might have been predicted (but see Section 1.4.3. below). Respectively 57% and 48% of male and female respondents think the ability to use a computer is very useful. For ability to use the Internet, the values fall somewhat for both sexes: 47% for men and 39% for women. Gender differences of similar magnitude show up when this response is compared to that to the question asking which new study/training opportunities have come about in the past five years. Of those male respondents who place importance on new technologies, 78% also think that ICT skills are very useful – as one would expect – but this does not hold so firmly for women (69%). It looks as if women and men may have different understandings of what 'usefulness' means, whether in the private or the public sphere of life, which is an intriguing hypothesis but which cannot be explored further through these Eurobarometer data.

1.2.3. The majority think intercultural skills are very useful, but this does not hold for foreign languages

For the purposes of this analysis, the category 'intercultural skills' comprises three individual items (see the skills categories box in Section 1.1.). Were the three items to be combined, well over half European citizens consider intercultural skills to be very useful. At the same time, as the data in Figure 4 below show, the values for the three items both differ absolutely and they show a largely consistent internal pattern in relation to each other.

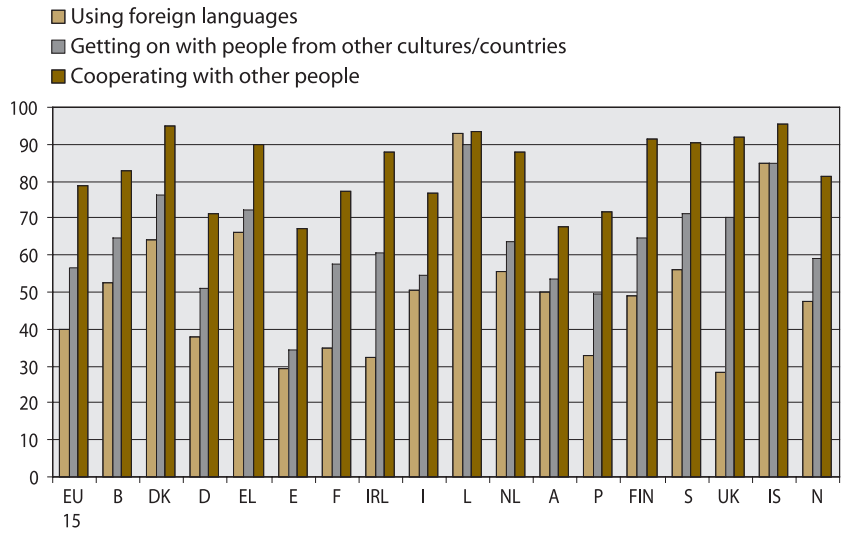
First, the ability to cooperate with other people is everywhere rated highest (EU15: 79%), and this is also the item that is least explicitly intercultural in content. On the ability to get on with people from other cultures/countries, 57% think it is very useful, but only 40% judge this to be the case for the ability to use foreign languages. Some of the country differences are immediately plausible, as for the low usefulness rating for foreign languages amongst British and Irish respondents, whose first language (in most cases) is also a lingua franca in Europe and in much of the world. Others are perhaps more puzzling, as in the relatively low rating given by German, Spanish and Portuguese respondents to getting on with people from other cultures and countries, since all three countries include significant migrant populations. In contrast, British, Danish, Greek and Swedish respondents fall well above the average on this item.

Second, the rank ordering between these three items holds for all 17

([14]) Table 2 in Annex 2 provides the data. Annex 1 provides information on how Eurobarometer surveys classify educational levels.

countries in the survey, except for Iceland and Luxembourg. In Iceland, the three item values are close and foreign languages are seen as no less useful than getting on with people from other cultures and countries. In Luxembourg, the three item values are even closer, but here, it is getting on with people from elsewhere that is judged as slightly less important than the other two items. Both countries also return the highest overall 'usefulness ratings' for intercultural skills. Relevant similarities between these two countries (size, lesser used first languages, trading relations, etc.) spring immediately to mind as helping to account for such patterns.

Figure 4: **Proportion of respondents considering intercultural skills very useful in their lives as a whole, by country, %**



Given the position of foreign languages in the above analysis and the wide range of values between countries on this item (from 93% in Luxembourg to 28% in the UK), it is certainly worth paying more attention to this specific component of intercultural skills and their judged usefulness. Spain, France and Portugal also fall well below average here, so it looks as if usefulness ratings do reflect the extent to which a country's first language plays a global role, or at least has done so in the recent past. This may well also have had a longstanding impact on the priority formerly attached to foreign language learning in national policies, school curricula and employer recruitment and training policies. Most Eurobarometer respondents will have completed their initial education and training some time ago, whereas adult language learning

remains an underdeveloped field, especially in vocational education and training.

These factors clearly play a role in the survey response patterns, since older and least educated citizens are also less likely to see foreign languages as a very useful skill to have. Age differences emerge for all three intercultural skill components ([15]) (as they do for all 15 skills included in the questionnaire), but are sharpest for foreign languages. Of 15-24 year olds, 53% judge this a very useful skill, but only 33% of those aged 55+.

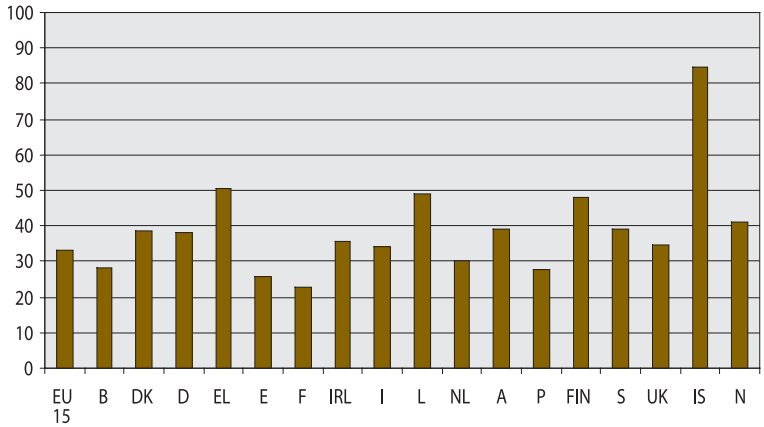
As is frequently the case for this survey and in other inquiries, age and educational level are not independent variables: younger respondents are on average better educated (at least in the time spent in full-time formal education and training), simply because both compulsory schooling has lengthened and effective participation rates in initial education and training have risen. Younger age groups have had more opportunities to experience the usefulness of foreign languages by having learned them and used them, as travel (for different purposes) has also opened up to far wider sectors of the population – and which is especially popular among young people. This all suggests that an important route to seeing something as useful is having the prior experience that this is so. Many European adults have still not had the opportunity to experience the personal usefulness of being able to use more than one language, whether at work, in the community or at leisure.

1.2.4. Only a minority of European citizens judge scientific/technological skills as very useful

Figure 5 (overleaf) shows that between 23% and 50% of respondents from EU15 countries think scientific/technological skills are useful in their lives, rendering an overall average of only one third agreeing on this item. Again, Iceland differs significantly from everywhere else included in the survey, in that 85% consider such skills to be very useful, but otherwise, Greece, Luxembourg and Finland return the highest usefulness ratings. Respondents in France, Spain, Belgium and Portugal return the lowest values.

([15]) Table 3 in Annex 2 shows, however, that age differences for the judged usefulness of being able to cooperate with other people are marked only when comparing those aged under and over 55. Table 4 in Annex 2 gives the breakdown for judged usefulness of intercultural skills by educational level.

Figure 5: **Proportion of respondents considering scientific/technological skills very useful in their lives as a whole, by country, %**



Gender differences are very noticeable, too: overall, 42% of men but only 25% of women say they think scientific/technological skills are very useful in their lives – and the scale of this gender difference holds equally for the private and public spheres. In other words, neither women nor men seem much to recognise the role that science and technology play in family life as far as tools and equipment are concerned. Both sexes are more likely to see such skills as useful in the public sphere (men: 64%; women: 46%) than in the private sphere (respectively 46% and 29%).

Finally, those aged 55+ and the least educated respondents also give low ratings to the usefulness of scientific/technological skills (see Tables 5 and 6 in Annex 2).

1.2.5. Almost everyone thinks that social skills are very useful, with the exception of being able to manage people

For the purposes of this analysis, six of the 15 skills included in the Eurobarometer questionnaire were classified as social skills (see the skills categories box in Section 1.1.). Unusually, there are no significant differences in response patterns by gender, age or educational level (see Table 7 in Annex 2).

The high level of accord between European policy and citizens' views on the usefulness of a range of social skills for living and working in a knowledge society is remarkable and suggests rapid progress can be made in motivating people to improve their skills and competences, and hence to raise the quality of human resources for the labour market and for civic life. The self-perceived skills gap on managing people highlights a widely recognised weakness in the

quality of current working practices and indicates the need to improve opportunities for management training on a broader front. It also shows that many citizens have not ever been placed in the position of managing others. Equally, it suggests there is a degree of under-recognition of such experience and acquired competence, in particular, for example, for learning that takes place in the family and local community.

1.3. Which skills are less widespread?

Most respondents think they could produce concrete evidence that they possess both traditional and social skills. Yet there are noticeable differences between countries. For example, on general knowledge, practically every single Icelander reporting that they possess this skill (98%) thinks concrete evidence is available to them, but this is so for only two thirds of Greeks, the Irish and the Portuguese (see Tables 8 and 9 in Annex 2). PISA results (OECD, 2003b) nevertheless indicate that objective literacy and numeracy proficiency levels vary significantly between countries ([16]).

1.3.1. **European citizens recognise a significant ICT skills gap**

Two fifths of EU15 citizens report they cannot use a computer and half say they do not know how to use the Internet. Country differences are significant, self-reported lack of these skills ranging from over 60% in Greece and Portugal to under 30% in Denmark, Iceland and Sweden (see Table 10 in Annex 2).

We have already seen that in general, people are inclined to rank skills as not very useful when they themselves think they do not possess them and have not personally experienced their usefulness in at least some aspects of their lives. For ICT skills, this is less clearly the case: fully one third (37% for using a computer and 34% for using the Internet) of those who report they do not possess ICT skills nevertheless agreed immediately beforehand that these are very useful skills, certainly in the public sphere. The felt skills gap is greatest for Greek respondents, of whom 62% unable to use a computer still think it would be very useful in public life – and the same trend holds for

([16]) PISA monitors the outcomes of educational systems in 15-year-old student achievement tests in reading, mathematical and scientific literacy. The first assessment was conducted in 2000 and will be repeated every three years. Level 5 literacy (= sophisticated reading tasks) for 15 year olds ranges from 2% in Luxembourg to 18% in Finland. Level 1 literacy (= basic literacy) ranges from 2% in Finland to 14% in Luxembourg. These are precise operational definitions and do not necessarily relate in any systematic way to how the Eurobarometer respondents may have interpreted the phrase 'able to' read and write. The PISA results also show country differences on mathematical literacy, which is not the same thing as 'being able to do arithmetic', the phrase used in this Eurobarometer survey.

using the Internet. In contrast, Portuguese respondents also judge their ICT skills as low, but they do not think such skills are very useful in public life either (almost 80% of those reporting lack of ICT skills do not see their usefulness). Figures are very similar for Sweden, but the key difference is that only 19% of Swedish respondents report they cannot use a computer in the first place.

Those aged 15-24 and those who are still studying are acutely aware of an ICT skills gap: over three fifths of those in both groups who report they cannot use a computer also say they think this is an important skill in the public sphere. This also holds – to a somewhat lesser extent – for ability to use the Internet (Table 11 in Annex 2 presents the basic data on ICT skills).

1.3.2. European citizens do not always recognise a language skills gap

Table 12 in Annex 2 shows the breakdowns for felt ability to use a foreign language (and see Section 1.2.3.). Those living in Spain, Ireland, Portugal and UK are not likely to feel they have a skills gap: they are more likely to admit they do not possess such skills yet, at the same time, are no less likely than average (EU15: 45%) to say these are very useful in the public sphere. Greeks and Italians differ: the majority of those who cannot use foreign languages nevertheless think such skills are very useful (74% and 69% respectively). Greeks, too, perceive a skills gap insofar as many think they do not possess the skill of getting on with people from other countries and cultures, but still see this as a very useful skill (74% compared with 43% for EU15; Table 13 in Annex 2 presents the basic data on skills possession reports).

More broadly, skills gaps for intercultural skills as a whole are felt most strongly by the youngest respondent groups and among those still studying: some three fifths who say they do not have such skills think they are very useful (see Table 14 in Annex 2). Those aged 55+ and the least educated also report they lack intercultural skills – but they are less likely to think such skills are very useful anyway (see Table 15 in Annex 2). In other words, among those who report that they do not possess intercultural skills, it is the youngest who are most likely to see this as a problem insofar as they also report that such skills are very useful to have.

1.3.3. Differentiated perceptions of the usefulness of scientific/technological skills hold sway

Portuguese, Spanish and Greek respondents are most likely to say they cannot use scientific/technological tools and equipment (72%, 72% and 69% respectively; EU15: 55%). However, Greeks without these skills are most

likely (63%) – with Icelanders ([17]) – to think this is a useful skill. This suggests perception of skills gaps may be sharpest in two quite different situations: not only in contexts (such as in Greece) where there is a real and felt economic and social gap between a country's situation and that of its reference points (that is, prosperous EU countries), but also for those sectors of the population who are for whatever reasons separated from the mainstream of a society and economy at the driving edge of contemporary change (such as Iceland). Sweden offers yet another variant: respondents are least likely to judge scientific/technological skills as very useful, but also least likely to report (31%) they do not possess such skills. Perhaps in this driving edge context, these skills have become part of the taken-for-granted of most people's lives?

Once more, age and educational level influence the extent to which being able to use scientific/technological tools and equipment is seen to be useful by those who report that they do not possess such skills (see Table 16 in Annex 2).

1.4. How do citizens' views differ?

Eurobarometer surveys collect socio-demographic information for their respondent samples, and this permits, within technical limits, subgroup analyses along parameters known to influence education and training participation rates and attitudes towards learning. For all topics, the analyses undertaken for this report consistently looked at education, occupation, sex, age and country differences separately and, where possible, together. The chapters present those differences that are most marked for each topic.

1.4.1. Education and occupation are significantly associated with people's perceptions of their own skills and their usefulness

To bring out differences clearly, the data analysis for this report makes use of three broad socio-economic status (SES) groups:

- Group 1: highly educated people with a high-level job,
- Group 2: the low educated with a low-level job,
- Group 3: the low educated who are not labour market active.

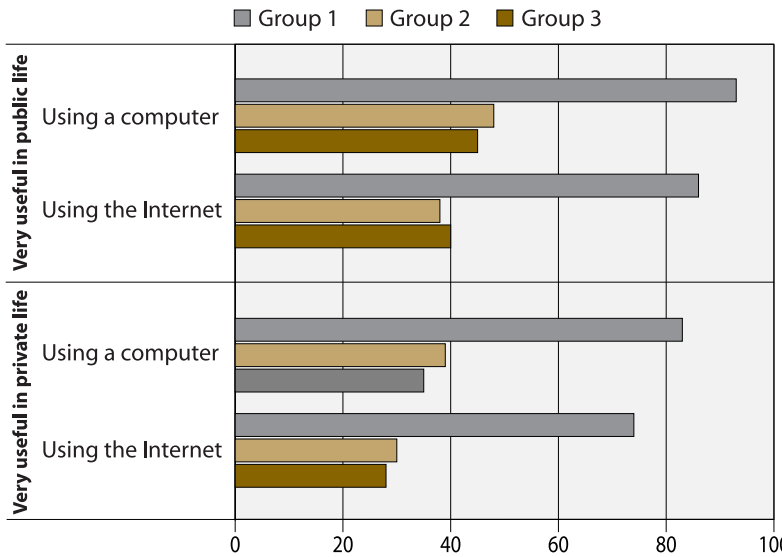
On judgements of the usefulness of skills, there is little difference between these SES groups for traditional and social skills – with one exception: Group

([17]) However, only 29% of Icelandic respondents report they are unable to use scientific/technological tools and equipment.

1 respondents are more likely to see the ability to manage people as very useful in both private and public life (see Table 17 in Annex 2). When it comes to self-assessments, Group 1 respondents are also more likely to say they possess general knowledge (classified as a traditional skill) and social skills (see Table 18 in Annex 2).

Differences between Group 1 and Groups 2 and 3 become much more marked, however, for ICT skills and intercultural skills. Again, Group 1 respondents are much more likely to see ICT skills as very useful in their lives – as shown in Figure 6 below – and much more likely to say they actually have them. Of Group 1 respondents, 92% report they can use a computer. Only 30% of Group 2, falling to 20% in Group 3, are self-reported computer users. Of Group 2, 22% and a mere 14% of Group 3 respondents say they can use the Internet, compared with 87% of those in Group 1.

Figure 6: **Proportion of respondents considering ICT skills very useful, by socio-economic group and life sphere, %**



Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Three quarters of those in Group 1 consider it very useful to be able to get on with people from other cultures. Almost as many take the same view for being able to use foreign languages. These proportions fall significantly for Group 2 and Group 3, where at maximum four in 10 respondents think foreign language skills are very useful (see Table 19 in Annex 2). Once more, this

corresponds with people's assessments of their own competences. For Group 1, 74% say they can use foreign languages, but only 17% in Group 2 and 9% in Group 3.

These SES-linked differences repeat themselves for using scientific/technological tools and equipment, whereby the spread of values opens up between Groups 2 and 3 as well as between these two groups and Group 1. The perceived usefulness of such skills for the public sphere ranges across 74% for Group 1, 51% for Group 2 and 35% for Group 3, falling respectively to 56%, 36% and 22% for the private sphere. And whereas 69% of those in Group 1 report they also possess these skills, only 31% of those in Group 2 and a mere 11% of Group 3 respondents do so.

It is clear from the pattern of these results that at the very least, those citizens who are highly educated and in higher-status jobs have more confidence in their skills and competences, and that they are substantially more likely to see all kinds of skills as useful in the whole of their lives. It is almost certain, of course, that they also possess a wider range of skills and a higher level of competence than those who are less well qualified and do not enjoy the same opportunities to continue and extend learning during and in their working lives. This is no less likely for those skills that almost all citizens think are very useful and see themselves to possess – that is, above all, the traditional skills of reading/writing and arithmetic.

Apart from differences in proficiency levels (which this survey did not address at all) people who lack basic skills are typically reluctant to admit this. It is not socially acceptable to be illiterate and innumerate in modern Europe. The survey findings simply confirm Europeans all think they are literate, numerate and more or less generally knowledgeable – and if they suspect they may not be, they will not say so to survey interviewers, which is hardly surprising.

On the other hand, there is much less normative pressure to be competent in the 'new skills' that play a key role in knowledge societies. Many citizens report they do not have ICT skills, cannot use foreign languages and lack the skills to use scientific/technological tools and equipment. On closer inspection, it is those who are least educated and either in low-level jobs or not employed at all ([18]) who are prepared to say they do not possess such skills – and neither are they so likely to rate them as very useful. As noted earlier in this chapter, there is clearly a 'virtuous circle' association between the opportunity to acquire and use skills and people's awareness of their utility, whether at work, in the family or in community life – and equally, there must be a 'vicious circle' for those who do not find a rewarding route into knowledge and skills acquisition and practice.

([18]) This does not necessarily mean they are registered as unemployed, nor that they are jobseekers.

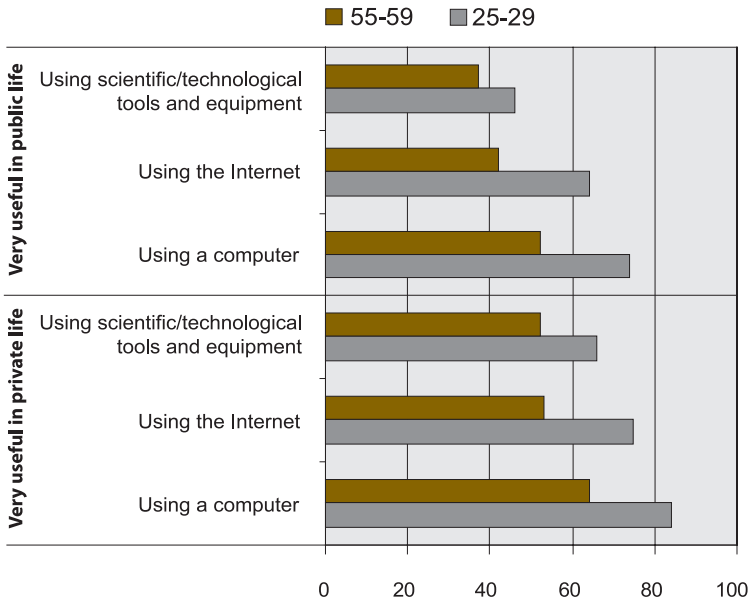
On the assumption that people's skills self-assessments do approximate to realities, then Europe faces much more than a digital skills gap. European citizens report a 'new skills' gap altogether. Further, this gap is socially structured, with education and occupation acting as key indicators. This feature comes up again and again in the course of this report.

Finally, the fact that about two thirds of Group 1 respondents – the highly educated with high-level jobs – say they can use scientific/technological tools and equipment, but fully one quarter say they do not see such skills as very useful in public life (effectively, in the work-world; the figure drops to just over half for the private sphere) is an interesting accent of a different order altogether. It may suggest that concepts of what counts as falling into this category are narrower than they might be, and perhaps anchored in the mechanical-physical rather than the electronic-virtual age. It may also point to the persistence of a certain undervaluation of science and technology in European civilisation and culture, in which philosophy and the arts have always played a highly valued role, especially for what used to be called the 'educated classes'.

1.4.2. Digital and science/technology skills gaps are narrower for younger adults

We have already seen (in the course of Section 1.2.) that the younger the respondent, the more likely they will be to see all kinds of skills as very useful. Age differences can be seen clearly by contrasting those aged 25-29 with those aged 55-59. In fact, only small-scale differences emerge between these two groups for traditional, social and intercultural skills. As Figure 7 below shows, age differences are much more significant for ICT and scientific/technological skills. Adults in their late 20s are much more likely than those in their late 50s to see these skills as very useful in their lives, and concomitantly to say they possess them. Unsurprisingly, the digital skills age gap is noticeably wider than the science and technology skills age gap.

Figure 7: **Proportion of respondents considering ICT skills and scientific/technological skills very useful, by selected age groups and life sphere, %**



1.4.3. **European women are very much aware of a gendered digital skills gap**

To bring out gender differences more accurately and relevantly, women's and men's responses were compared according to employment status (labour market active versus inactive), for those in mid-adulthood (those aged 55-59) and by controlling for educational level (the highly educated and the low educated).

In general – that is, for each of the categories noted above – male respondents are more likely than women respondents to regard the ability to use scientific/technological tools and equipment as very useful in the public sphere. This consistent gender difference disappears for the private sphere, which surely indicates the significance of occupational segregation by sex for shaping attitudes towards science and technology linked skills. At the same time, and once more regardless of specific category, men are more likely than women to think they have the skills to use scientific/technological tools and equipment. This, too, must reflect qualifications, training and working experience. It undoubtedly also signals the well-known finding that women lack confidence in their capacities for science and technology, which not only

influences them not to study, train and work in such fields but also leads them not to recognise the scientific/technological skills they actually possess.

There are also very marked gender differences for ICT skills. Category for category, women are just as likely as men to judge ICT skills as very useful, whether in the private or the public sphere. Yet category for category they are far less likely to say they actually have these skills:

- 20% of women in mid-adulthood, but 35% of their male peers, say they can use a computer;
- 34% of women with a low education level, but 48% of corresponding males, say they can use a computer;
- 12% of women in mid-adulthood, but 28% of their male peers, say they can use the Internet;
- 28% of women with a low education level, but 43% of corresponding males, say they can use the Internet.

Age and education are not independent variables, even more so for women than for men in the older age groups. The gendered digital gap measures around 15% in each of these four comparisons, which is probably at least partly attributable to the interaction between age and education. The preceding subsection made the point that younger adults of both sexes are more 'tuned in' to both ICT and scientific/technological skills than are those in their late 50s, which shows the gendered digital gap is much more significant for older women, especially if they are less educated/qualified. It also underlines that women's established greater motivation and propensity to engage in adult learning has not yet specifically been applied to or resulted in narrowing the digital skills gap.

It is equally interesting that quite a high proportion of men with a low level of education report they can use a computer, which may reflect higher levels of confidence among men, higher levels of normative expectation that men should be able to use computers, and probably also factually higher levels of male familiarity with computer use. Whether all this is a result of the kinds of jobs men are more likely to have, or whether many have gained basic ICT skills in their leisure time at home, is a moot point. It does suggest, however, that providing opportunities to gain ICT skills is likely to attract men with low levels of education and qualification back into learning.

1.4.4. North-South 'new skills' divides are closely linked to education levels

This chapter has shown that response patterns for perceptions of the usefulness and the possession of skills differ markedly both by country and by

education levels. The extent of the differences present in Europe can be depicted very easily simply by combining these two variables to compare respondents living in the Nordic countries with those living in Southern European countries. About three quarters of highly educated Nordics think being able to use a computer is very useful, but only two fifths of their highly educated Southern European peers. The values are similar (if slightly lower in both cases) for using the Internet.

The picture changes for intercultural skills. First, North-South differences for highly educated respondents are relatively small. Second, there is no consistent direction of difference in the data patterns. In essence, highly educated respondents from both regional subgroups place high importance on intercultural skills, but patterns of relative importance differ according to whether the reference point is private or public life. Southern Europeans place higher importance on foreign language skills in public life than do Nordics (85% versus 75%), but this difference does not hold for being able to get on with people from other countries and cultures. In private life, Nordics place greater importance on getting on with people from elsewhere (79% versus 64%), but this difference does not hold for using foreign languages. The preceding figures refer only to highly educated respondents from the two regions. Table 20 in Annex 2 provides a picture of the similarities and differences between survey respondents from the North and South that includes sex, age and education level breakdowns.

The reasons for these divergences are unclear, but they may be related to different traditions and practices in the way in which the private and the public are defined and 'lived' in northern and southern European cultural contexts. It is, however, important to note that social circumstances and experiences bring Europeans together as well as separating them from one another. North-South economic and cultural divides in Europe are mediated by and, in some respects, flattened out for those who share similar educational levels and occupational status. On skills for a knowledge society, the real North-South divide is the digital one – and this European regional divide is both underpinned and strongly accentuated by the SES divide that exists throughout Europe.

When gender is added into the equation, the gendered digital divide shows up as especially significant in southern Europe, and it is especially visible for private life. Women from Southern Europe are no less likely than Nordic women to judge ICT skills to be very useful in public life, but do not rate their importance as highly as Nordic women do for private life. Table 21 in Annex 2 provides a picture of the similarities and difference between survey respondents from the North and South that includes sex, age and education level breakdowns.

Interestingly, though, the same kind of North-South divide opens up between women with respect to intercultural skills. Their perceptions do not differ for the public sphere, but they do diverge for the private sphere: 61% of Nordic women, but only 45% of their Southern European sisters rate foreign languages as very useful; 77% of Nordic women, but only 49% of those in Southern Europe think it is very useful in private life to be able to get on with people from elsewhere.

The survey data do not permit more than speculation on the reasons behind these findings, but one self-evident hypothesis would have to be that greater integration in employment, community and political life (that is, in the public sphere) widens horizons of awareness, opportunity and experience in various ways, whereas greater enclosure within the private world of family, household and kinship relations limits personal and social horizons. This means that chances to appreciate and experience the reasons why it is useful to acquire key skills for living and working in a knowledge society are unequally distributed, and that immediate social circumstances significantly prefigure opportunity structures. Insofar as Nordic women's lives – on average – span the public and the private in a broader and more integrated way than do those of many women living in Southern Europe, then the divergences between their perceptions become at once explicable. This is all the more plausible when such differences disappear for younger and highly educated women, that is, for those who experience similar levels of integration in the public sphere, regardless of where they live in Europe.

2. Lifelong learning and the diversity of learning contexts

The initial analysis (Cedefop, 2003) brought out that European citizens are likely to say they learn best in non-formal and informal contexts, but that when they think of learning in the future, they are more inclined to imagine doing so in a formal context. Younger people are more likely to think they learn in a wide range of contexts, but even they are not especially likely to say they have recently learned through open and distance channels (ODL) or through secondment to another organisation, study, training or work placements in another country (that is, using mobility as a learning tool). This chapter goes into these issues in more detail.

2.1. Where do people like to pursue work-related learning?

2.1.1. **Europeans tend to prefer taking courses and receiving professional guidance and support for learning – but they will choose a range of contexts to do so**

One in two (51%) European adults (excluding the retired) say if they sought to update their professional skills now or in the future, they would seek to follow an organised course ([19]). Courses at schools, colleges, universities and training centres are slightly more popular than courses arranged at the workplace (25% against 17%; 8% indicated organised courses provided in other contexts).

Whether learning takes the form of an 'organised course' or not is only one way of grouping the response items, which can also be classified into learning that takes place in 'working' or 'non-working' environments ([20]). On this basis, European adults divide once more into two groups: 43% would prefer learning

([19]) This could mean courses offered at education and training establishments of different kinds, but equally organised courses offered at and through the workplace. Response items offered a number of closed alternatives and respondents could check only one item from the list. Annex 3 reproduces the questionnaire.

([20]) For this purpose, working environments are: courses organised at the workplace; secondment to another organisation or participating in an exchange programme for study, training or work experience abroad; learning from an experienced colleague; learning by doing one's everyday work; and using workplace facilities for personal use. Non-working learning environments are: courses at a school, college, university or training centre; courses organised elsewhere but not at the workplace; learning by using local facilities; and learning at home, for example using ODL channels.

in a non-working environment, 41% a working environment. Two thirds of those who prefer learning in working environments choose learning at the workplace itself (27% of the total sample), which could mean doing an on-site organised course but could alternatively mean learning in the everyday process of working or by using workplace facilities for their own use.

Whatever the learning location, half choose organised courses, as noted above, which implies they also seek the guidance and support of a teacher or trainer for their learning. A further 5% would prefer to learn from an experienced colleague. Over six in 10 respondents from Denmark, Iceland, Norway, Sweden and the UK are in this overall group, compared with fewer than five in 10 from France, Portugal and Finland (see Table 22 in Annex 2). The youngest are almost twice as likely as the oldest to fall into this group (15-24 year olds: 64%; 55 and older: 33%), whereas those who have spent longest in full-time education and training, and most of all those who are currently students, are much more likely to do so as well (see Table 23 in Annex 2).

At maximum, 12% of survey respondents choose learning through ODL ([21]) and just 5% select using mobility as a learning tool. Unsurprisingly, students are slightly more likely to opt for using mobility as a learning tool, but otherwise there are virtually no differences between countries or by socio-demographic attributes on the extent to which either ODL or mobility attract people's learning context preferences.

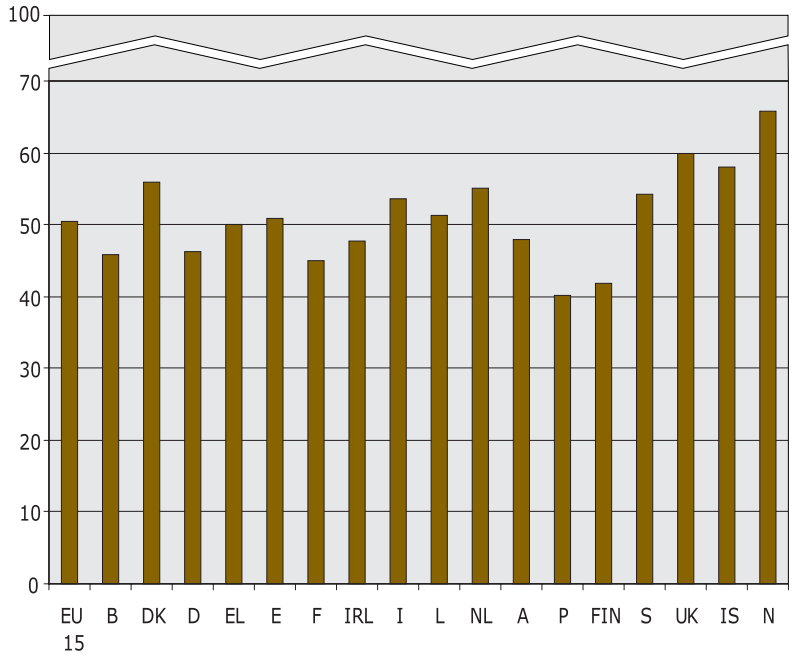
These findings indicate that self-directed learning (that is, without continuous professional guidance and support of some kind) does not automatically attract the majority of Europeans. Further, very few citizens, even among young adults, yet place much emphasis on learning by virtual means or by participating in mobility for learning purposes (see the interim report of the European Commission working group on mobility and European cooperation (European Commission, 2003b) on the need to open access to such opportunities).

2.1.2. **Taking courses is not equally popular everywhere in Europe**

There are significant differences by country on preferred routes to updating professional skills. As shown in Figure 8 overleaf, in half of the EU15 Member States fewer than half the respondents opt for taking courses. The range extends from around four in 10 for Portugal and Finland to at least six in 10 for Norway and the UK.

([21]) For this purpose, ODL includes: learning by using local facilities; learning at home, for example using ODL channels; and using workplace facilities for personal use.

Figure 8: **Proportion of respondents who prefer courses for updating professional skills, by country, %**



Icelanders are particularly likely to seek courses offered through education and training establishments as opposed to organised at the workplace (46% compared with 7%). British, Norwegian and Swedish respondents hold similar preferences.

Those who have recent or extended experience of formal learning (that is, the younger and the highly educated) are also especially likely to prefer courses of whatever provenance. Respondents aged 15-24 are about twice as likely as those aged 55+ to do so (59% versus 31%; see Table 24 in Annex 2). The age difference remains when respondents specifically choose courses offered through education and training establishments (40% versus 14%; see Table 25 in Annex 2). The older respondents were when they ceased full-time education and training, the greater is the preference for taking courses – with those who are currently students being the most likely of all to select this option (64%). Of those having left education and training by the age of 15, 36% would take courses to update their professional skills, rising to 56% for those who stayed in education and training until at least the age of 20. Again, these patterns repeat themselves for courses specifically offered through education and training establishments (see Tables 24 and 25 in Annex 2).

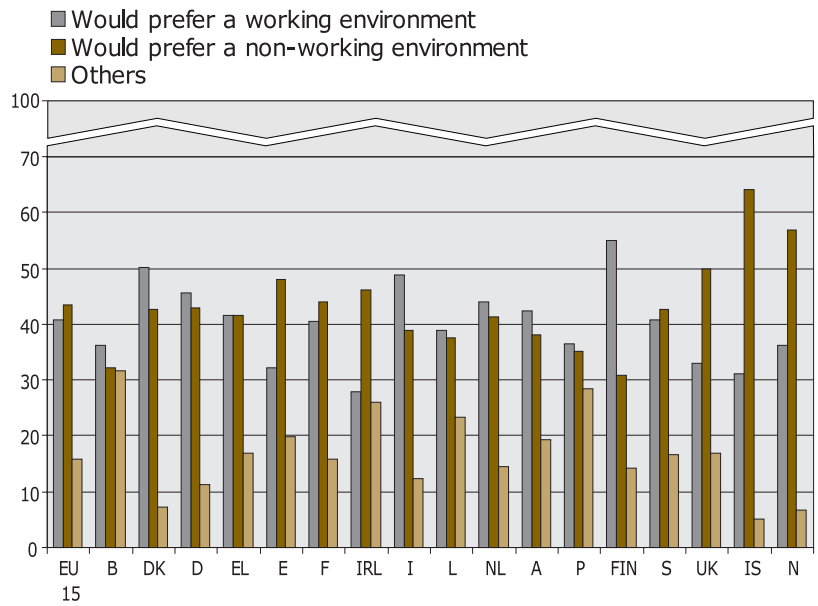
In occupational terms, neither homemakers nor the self-employed ([22]) are prone to opt for taking courses to update professional skills (32% and 39% choose this route). Lower-level non-manual employees and manual workers are especially likely to prefer courses organised at the workplace rather than through education and training establishments (see also Table 26 in Annex 2).

Age, education and occupation intervene in expected ways. The response patterns plainly illustrate the influence of personal circumstance and experience on learning context preferences. Country differences demand differentiated explanation, but are undoubtedly associated with differing structures and traditions in national education and training systems.

2.1.3. Work-related learning environment preferences differ greatly between countries

Major differences between countries also appear on preferences for learning in working versus non-working environments, as shown in Figure 9 below. Learning in a working environment is particularly popular in Denmark, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, and Portugal – but it is most popular in Finland (at 55%, compared with 31% opting for learning in a non-working environment).

Figure 9: **Preferred environments for updating professional skills, by country, %**



([22]) Self-employed respondents comprise a very heterogeneous group, both in educational levels and type/level of employment – ranging from lawyers to farmers and fishermen.

Learning in a working environment is least popular in Ireland (at 28%), and the Irish are least likely (at 18%) to choose learning actually at the workplace ([23]). The reverse is true for the Finns, closely followed by the Dutch and the Italians (see Table 27 in Annex 2). In these three countries, preferences for learning in a working environment are as widespread as those for taking courses offered through education and training establishments.

On the other side of the coin, preferences for learning in a non-working environment are strongest in Iceland, Norway and the UK (at least half the respondents in each case) – and these countries are those for which preferences for taking courses (wherever provided, including at the workplace) are most pronounced ([24]).

Men are significantly more likely to prefer learning in working environments more generally (48% versus 34% for women) and at the workplace more specifically (32% versus 22%). Women are somewhat more likely to prefer learning in non-working environments, but the difference is not nearly as marked (47% versus 40% for men) ([25]).

It is particularly interesting that 43% of those aged 55+ gave spontaneous answers to the question on learning environment preferences, and that this age group is least likely to opt for learning in a working environment (29% compared with around 40% or more for other age groups; see Table 28 in Annex 2). It may well be that as the prospect of retirement approaches and opportunities for training and professional development decline, these respondents no longer visualise themselves intentionally learning in any of the usual environments, if at all.

([23]) Learning at the workplace includes: courses at the workplace; by doing one's everyday work; and using workplace facilities for personal use. Learning at the workplace is therefore a subset of learning in a working environment.

([24]) The response items included the option to reply that 'I'd never want to improve my professional skills' or to provide spontaneous answers such as 'I'm never going to work for pay'. In Belgium, Ireland and Portugal these kinds of 'other' responses accounted for about 25% of the response, in Iceland for only 5%. This is remarkable at both extremes, and suggests that the closed response options did not adequately succeed in eliciting potential response, quite markedly in some countries.

([25]) Although many more women than men have less continuous employment biographies and do receive fewer CVET opportunities through their employers, these response patterns may also indicate that women look at learning environments in a distinctive manner. Women's lives characteristically mean that they come into simultaneous contact with diverse social settings, many of which provide informal learning opportunities and which interconnect with each other in ways that closed questionnaire design cannot easily elicit.

2.2. Where do people think they have learned something?

2.2.1. Most Europeans think they have learned in various contexts, but profiles differ by country, age and education

The Eurobarometer survey showed respondents a list of 14 different contexts (see Annex 3) and asked them to indicate in which of these they thought they had learned something in the preceding 12 months. This means that respondents decided what counts as learning something, and there was no specification of what was learned or the purpose in mind.

Nine in 10 Europeans think they learned something in at least one non-formal/informal learning environment in the past 12 months, but only one in four report they have solely learned in such settings. 39% think they have learned something in environments that span the formal, non-formal and informal categories. Virtually nobody (under 1%) thinks they have only learned something in formal settings (see Table 29 in Annex 2).

As noted earlier (in Section 2.1.), Europeans split into two equally sized groups according to whether they would prefer to undertake work-related learning in working or non-working environments. When the perspective switches from future preferences to recent experiences, just under one in five report having only learned something in non-working environments – but again, virtually nobody (under 2%) reports that learning only took place in working environments. Similarly, virtually nobody (under 1%) takes the view that they have only learned something during the past year whilst studying or following courses, despite the general popularity of taking courses to update professional skills.

Of Europeans, 5% think they have learned nothing in any setting during the past 12 months, rising to twice and more this figure for Austrians (12%) and the Portuguese (10%) and falling to virtually zero (under 1%) for Finns and Swedes. These responses may or may not reflect actual learning, but they certainly reflect cultural differences in the extent to which people are prepared to admit quite openly that they have learned nothing – or rather, the extent to which it is socially acceptable to say so. Some of this response may also reflect the different levels of willingness to express resistance to the value placed on (institutionalised) learning in modern societies.

As shown in Figure 10 overleaf, almost all Swedes (98%) report having learned something in at least one non-formal/informal setting in the year preceding the Eurobarometer survey, but they are least likely to say they have solely learned in such settings. At the other end of the scale, only 78% of Austrians report learning in non-formal/informal environments and only 21% in Portugal say they have learned both in formal and in non-formal/informal environments. Portugal is noteworthy as the clearest example of a country in

which people tend to think they have learned either in formal settings alone or in non-formal/informal settings alone, and this latter at a relatively high level (33%). Greece and Ireland also return similarly high rates of reported learning in non-formal/informal settings alone.

Figure 10: **Proportion of respondents having learned something in the preceding year, by learning context and country, %**

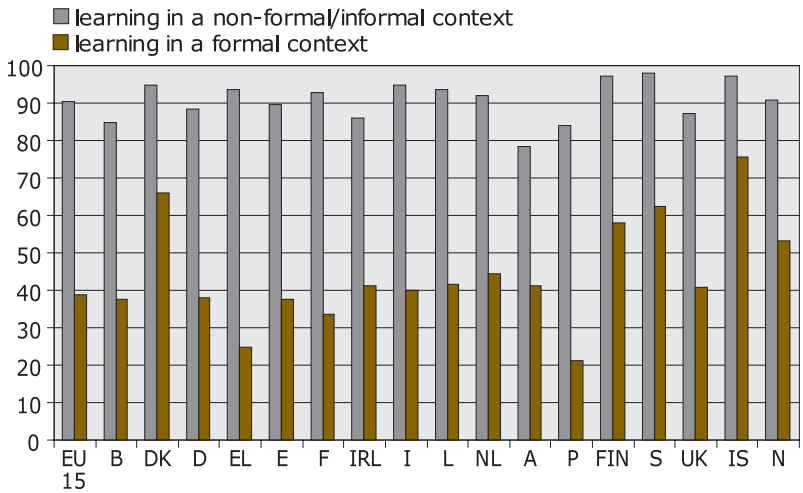
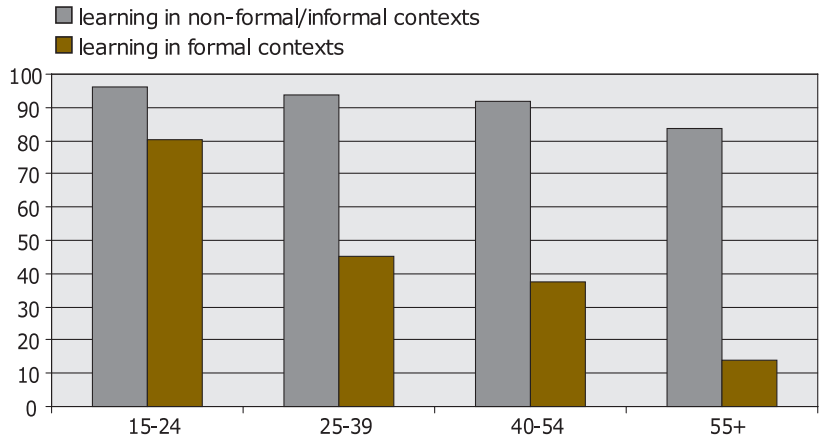


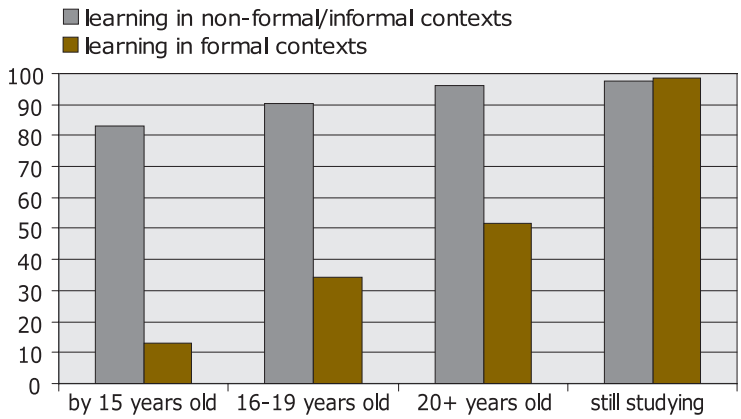
Figure 11 overleaf provides a similar breakdown by age group, and this indicates that although observable differences exist, these are less marked than those between countries. The youngest are somewhat more likely than the oldest to think they have learned something in non-formal/informal environments, but rates do not fall below 80% for any age group. The big fall-off with increasing age evidently relates to learning something in formal environments: 80% of 15-24 year olds have done so in the past year, but a mere 14% of those aged 55+. The oldest are also those most likely to think they have not learnt anything at all in any setting (8% compared to 5% in general).

Figure 11: **Proportion of respondents having learned something in the preceding year, by learning context and by age, %**



Finally, Figure 12 overleaf depicts the now familiar relationship between length of time spent in full-time education and training and awareness of/engagement in learning in general. The longer the educational experience and hence the higher the level of qualification, the more likely people will see themselves as having recently learned in all sorts of settings. The differences are much less marked for learning in non-formal/informal settings, which directly reflects the close correlation between current education/qualification level and continuing propensity to have the opportunity to learn in formal settings and to want and to be able to do so. It also suggests that developing non-formal/informal learning opportunities and benefits does indeed hold promising potential for raising participation and outcome rates for those who are less well educated, have fewer opportunities to continue learning and may be currently less eager to do so. It is especially noteworthy too, that those who are formally detached from the labour market (homemakers and the retired) are very unlikely to report having learned something in any setting.

Figure 12: **Proportion of respondents having learned something in the preceding year, by learning context and educational level, %**

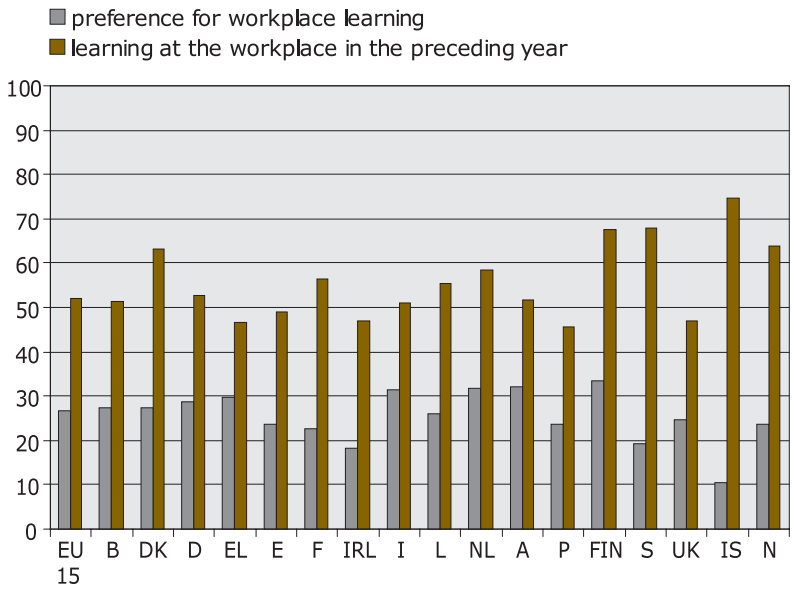


2.2.2. Learning at the workplace is more salient for men and in Nordic countries

On average, over half of Europeans think they have learned something at the workplace ([26]) in the year preceding the Eurobarometer survey, but values range from only 46% in Portugal to 74% in Iceland. Figure 13 overleaf indicates that no consistent relationship exists between those countries in which people are most likely to choose the workplace for future learning and those countries returning relatively high rates of having recently learned something at the workplace. However, this connection does hold (in opposite directions) for Finland and Ireland. Workplace learning is important for Finns in the recent past and the future, but in neither case for the Irish. In contrast, Icelanders are least likely to prefer workplace learning in the future, but most likely to report having recently learned at the workplace. Swedish respondents display exactly the opposite pattern.

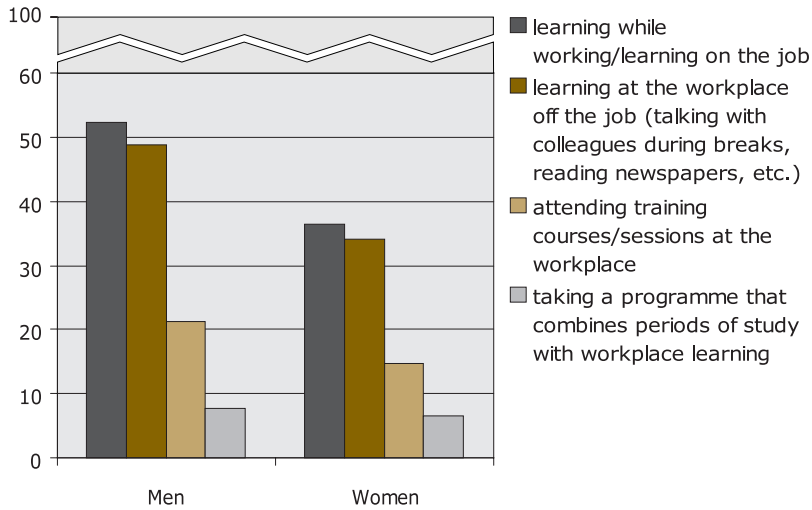
([21]) This includes: training courses/sessions at the workplace; following a programme; combining periods of study with workplace-based learning; working (learning on the job); and at the workplace (talking to colleagues during breaks, reading newspapers, etc.). This grouping of items is therefore not identical to that used earlier (in Section 2.1.) in relation to learning environment preferences.

Figure 13: **Proportion of respondents preferring workplace learning and having learned at the workplace in the preceding year, by country, %**



Earlier on (in Section 2.1.3.) we saw that men are more likely than women to demonstrate a preference for future learning in working environments, and this equally holds for self-assessments of where recent learning has actually taken place (61% of men report learning at the workplace over against 44% of women; see Figure 14 overleaf). It is men's greater propensity to report having learned while actually working that accounts for this gender difference in self-reported recent learning. More men have the opportunity to have done so simply because they are more likely to be in gainful employment in the first place: 28% of female (but only 19% of male) respondents checked the 'not applicable' response category for the workplace-related items in this question.

Figure 14: **Learning at the workplace in different ways: proportion of respondents having learned something in the preceding year, by sex, %**



2.2.3. **Mobility as a learning tool is very much a minority pattern**

Choosing mobility as a learning tool for updating professional skills in the future attracted only 5% of survey respondents, that is, learning by secondment to another organisation or participating in an exchange programme for study, training or work experience abroad. Values range from just over 2% in Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom to over 8% in Italy and Sweden. On average, 7% of EU respondents report actually having learned by going on a training placement/exchange or as part of an exchange programme during the 12 months preceding the survey. Values range from over 12% (in Denmark, France and Finland) to well under 6% (in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom), but no fewer than 22% of Icelanders report having done so. However, the overwhelming majority of Europeans had not participated in such activities or thought nothing had been learned from them (see Table 30 in Annex 2; and it is likely responses to these two categories are not clearly separable). Far higher proportions of respondents report they had learned something in the past year by travelling, studying, working or living abroad. Here, values range from 44% in Luxembourg and over 35% in Germany, Finland and Sweden to 25% or less in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

Taken together, these figures suggest using mobility as a learning tool within and across national boundaries, whether in working or private life, is

distinctly more common in some countries (such as in Denmark, Luxembourg, Finland and Sweden) than in others (such as in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom). Germany occupies an anomalous position, with relatively many (35.8%) respondents reporting having recently learned by going abroad (for whatever purpose) but relatively few (5.9%) having been on a company training placement or exchange programme (which may not have involved going abroad). Italy is similar, except while relatively few (4.9%) German respondents choose mobility as a learning tool for updating professional skills in the future either, Italians are much keener (8.2%).

It is likely, too, that many Europeans who reported they had recently learned by going abroad were defining travel in itself as a learning experience, regardless of whether this was explicitly connected with study, training or employment in another country. This is an interesting finding for appreciating the informal learning opportunities travel provides and which individuals take up and recognise. In some countries – including Germany – leisure travel abroad is a widespread habit, so objective opportunities for learning as a spin-off benefit are much higher than average. It does not automatically follow that mobility opportunities in education, training and working life are also more widespread than elsewhere, nor that these are necessarily seen to be attractive future learning opportunities.

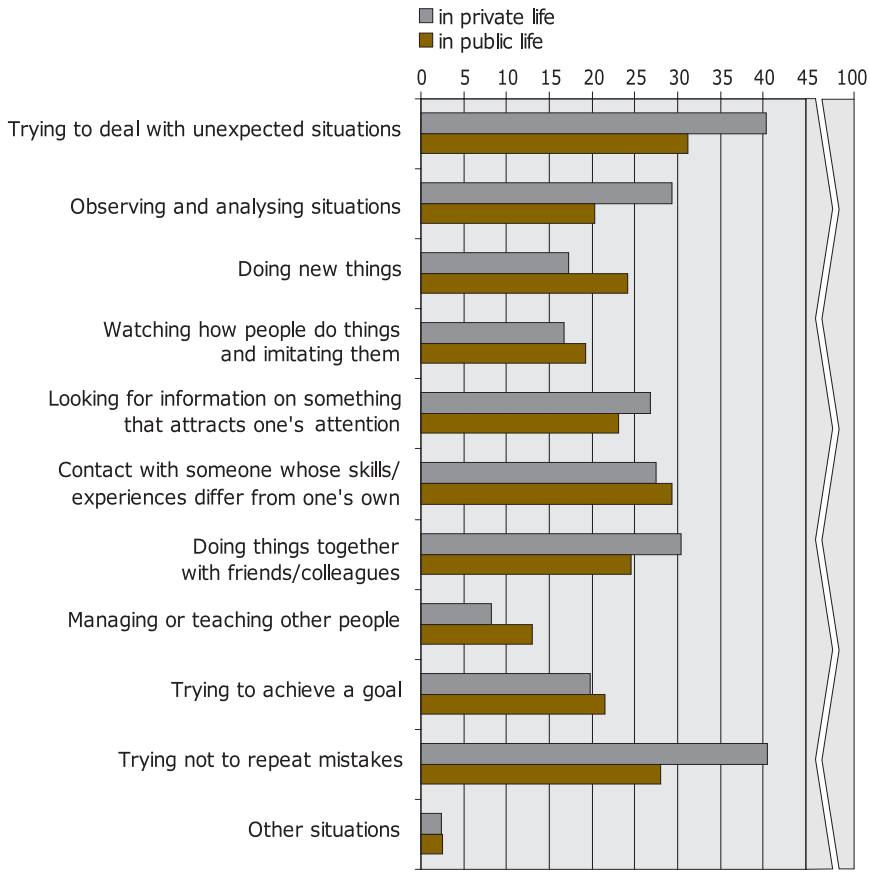
OECD (2001) student mobility statistics for 1998 broadly support the trends in these Eurobarometer results, though not precisely, since in this survey students are only one element of the whole sample. OECD data show Greek, Icelandic, Irish and Luxemburgish students as those EU and EEA citizens most prone to be studying abroad. German students, with the British, French, Italian, and Spanish, are least likely to be doing so. Interestingly, while French respondents to the lifelong learning Eurobarometer report a relatively high incidence of having learned through some form of mobility, French students are among the least likely to be studying abroad. This might suggest that in France, secondments/placements are more widespread in adult working life and that these do not necessarily entail crossing national borders, but rather moving between different organisations within the country. Nevertheless, in general it is certainly the youngest Europeans and those who are currently students who are most likely to think they have recently learned something through mobility (see Table 31 in Annex 2).

2.2.4. Europeans largely agree on situations in which they are most likely to learn something new

Eurobarometer respondents were shown a list of 10 different situations (as shown in Figure 15 below) that might offer opportunities to learn something new in the private and public spheres of their lives. The three most popular

responses for both life spheres are when trying to deal with unexpected situations, when trying not to repeat mistakes they have made, and when doing things with friends or colleagues. The first two response items are even more popular for private life, attracting at least four out of 10 respondents overall. Looking for information about things that have caught one's interest, and observing and analysing situations that come up, are also popular for learning in public life. Managing or teaching people is not a common way in which people think they learn new things, but is self-evidently more relevant in public than in private life. Watching what others do and imitating them, or doing new things altogether, are also more common ways to learn in the public sphere than in private life.

Figure 15: **Situations offering the best opportunity to learn new things: respondents' views by life sphere, %**



Note: Respondents could check up to three response items for each of the two life spheres, and they could offer spontaneous answers as well as simply replying 'don't know'.

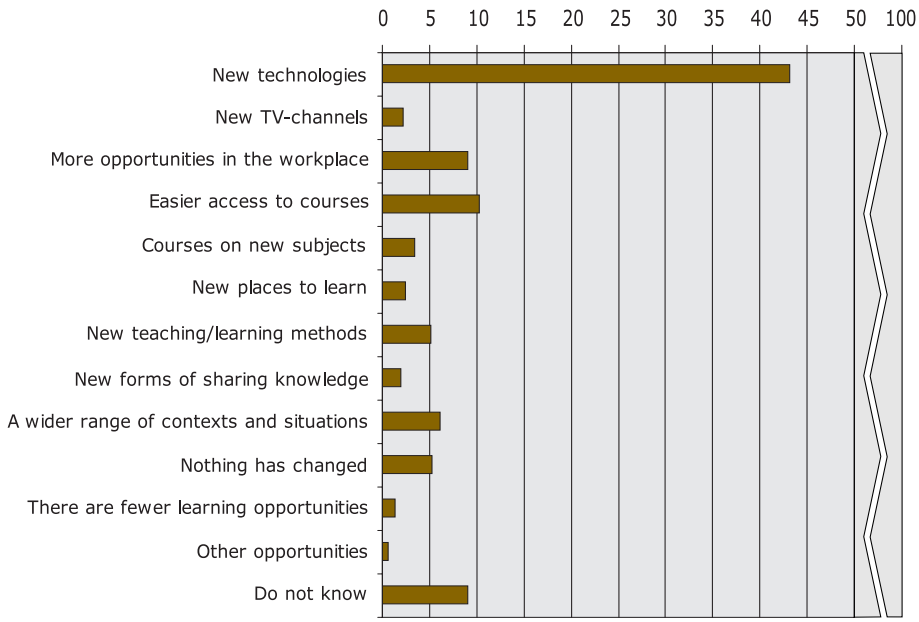
Interestingly, this is one area in which country differences are insignificant, but there are differences according to age and educational level. Older respondents and those with low education/qualification levels are much less likely to search the Internet or local libraries to find out more about something that has attracted their interest (see Table 32 in Annex 2). Older respondents are also less likely to report learning through doing new things altogether.

2.3. What new learning opportunities are on the horizon?

This chapter noted at the outset that ODL channels are a minority option (for at most 12%) as far as future learning preferences are concerned. At the same time, more than four in 10 Europeans think ICT-related learning technologies are the most important learning opportunity to have come about recently, as shown in Figure 16 below.

When recording the most important new learning opportunities to have come about in the past five years, respondents were offered the option 'Internet chat rooms, intercultural exchanges or other forms of sharing knowledge'. As Figure 16 below shows, only 1.9% of all respondents checked this category. Those who did may be at the cutting edge, but this is not where most citizens are in their everyday learning lives, where access to, experience with and social recognition of innovative forms of and contexts for learning remain the province of small minorities. Further, about one in 10 said they had no idea what new opportunities may have come about in the past five years.

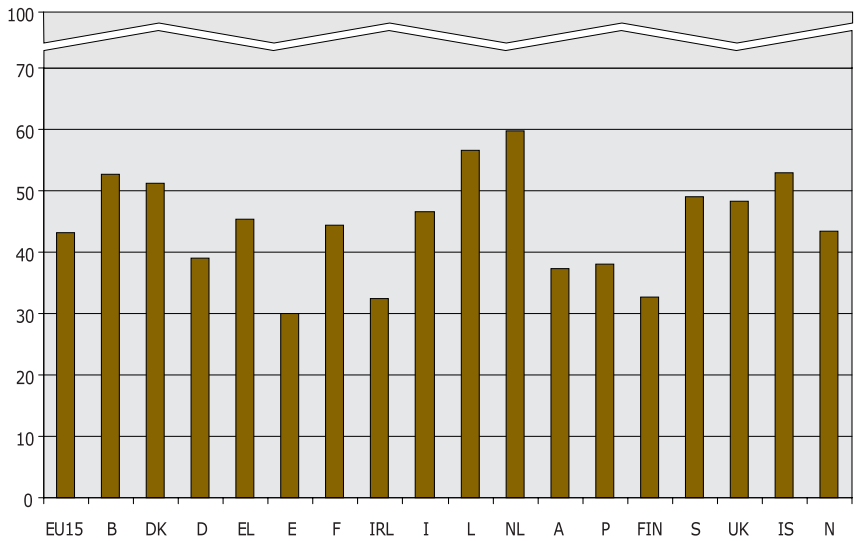
Figure 16: **The single most important learning opportunity to have come about in the past five years: respondents' views, %**



Note: Response items offered nine different study and learning opportunities, from which respondents could choose one only. Spontaneous answers could fall into three categories: nothing has changed; there are fewer learning opportunities than there used to be; and 'other/don't know'.

Differences between EU/EEA countries are marked. As shown in Figure 17 below, over half those in Belgium, Denmark, Iceland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands consider ICT the most important new learning opportunity, but this is so for fewer than one in three in Spain, Ireland and Finland. The reasons for these national differences are certainly not of the same nature. Finland has a longstanding ODL tradition and is known to be at the forefront of ICT-based communication use and educational applications development. Undoubtedly, Finns today no longer see such tools and methods as particularly new. Instead, they look to other kinds of developments, such as courses on new subjects (13% compared with under 8% for respondents in all other countries covered by the survey) or more workplace learning opportunities, where only German respondents return a higher value (see Table 33 in Annex 2). This finding is also in line with the fact that Finnish respondents are more likely than the average EU15 citizen to opt for learning in working environments.

Figure 17: **Proportion of respondents selecting ICT tools and methods as the most important new learning opportunity, by country, %**



In Iceland, Norway and the UK, courses are a particularly popular choice for updating job-related skills (as noted earlier in Section 2.1.2.). In these three countries with Ireland and Austria, easier access to courses in education and training establishments is most likely to be seen as the most important learning opportunity to have come about in the past five years (see Table 33 in Annex 2).

Again, the Danes, Icelanders and Swedes are most likely to take the view that one can learn in a wide range of contexts and so consistently decline to select a single context as offering the most important new learning opportunity. Only 1% of those from Luxembourg take this stand, whereas Spaniards are most likely to think that nothing has changed. With the Portuguese, they are also most likely (at 14%; EU15: 2%) not to know what to answer (see Table 33 in Annex 2).

Predictably, older respondents and those with low education/qualification levels are somewhat less likely to regard ICT-based learning technologies as the most important new learning opportunity, and they are also those most likely to respond that they simply do not know what to say (see Table 34 in Annex 2).

Finally, of those judging ICT skills (ability to use computers and the Internet) to be very useful in private life, 52% (above the EU average) also think new technologies (such as Internet and CD-ROM) are the most important learning opportunity to have come about in the past five years.

2.4. How do citizens' views differ?

2.4.1. The selection of learning contexts distinguishes sharply between active learners and the learning-detached

This analysis contrasts Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3 respondents as in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.4.1.) to bring out the influence of education and occupation on citizens' views.

For all three SES groups, at most one in 10 respondents spontaneously record they have no wish to improve or update their professional skills. However, this drops to under 1% of Group 1 respondents (the highly educated with a high-level job), with Groups 2 (the low educated with a low-level job) and 3 (the low educated who are not labour market active) both returning similar values (7% and 8% respectively).

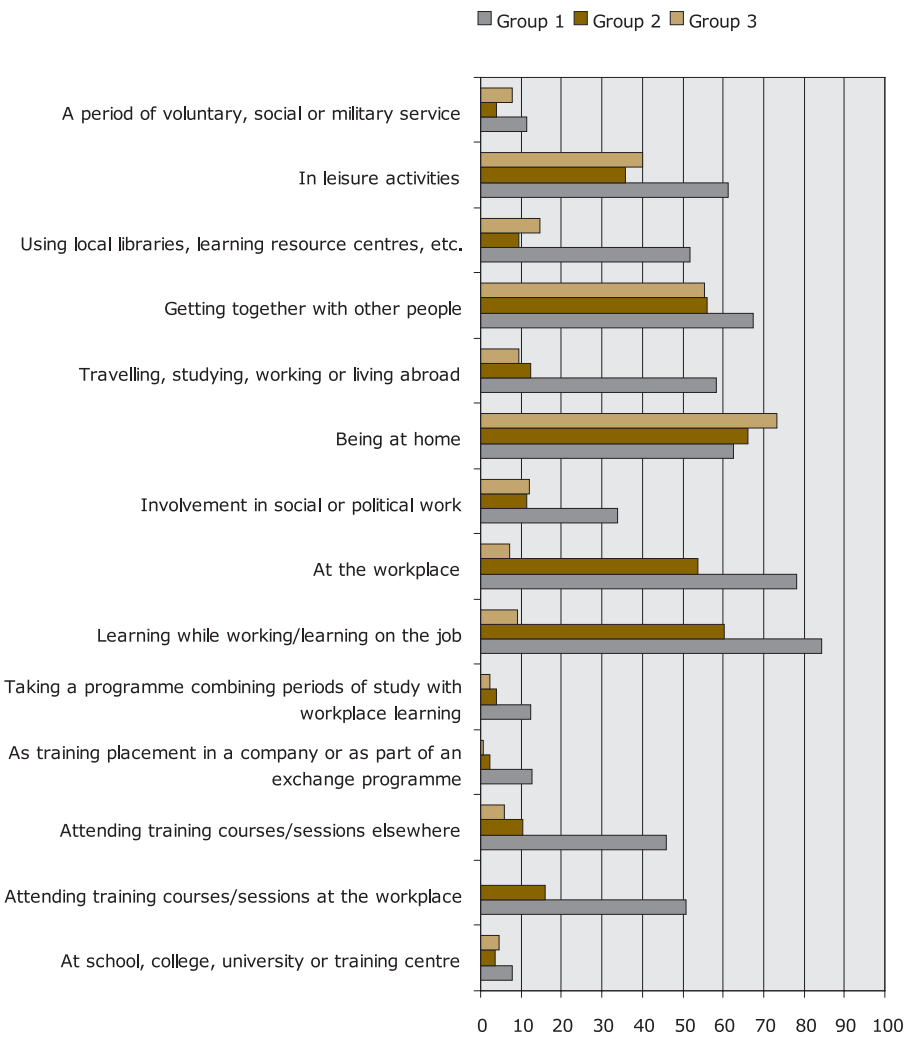
In other words, almost all Europeans not interested in work-related learning already have low levels of education/qualification. Further, a quarter of Group 3 respondents explicitly reply that they do not know how they would prefer to go about pursuing such learning (see Table 35 in Annex 2). These are citizens who are explicitly detached from the labour market altogether. Group 2 respondents differ from Group 3 on this criterion: they do have a (low-level) job. For this group, the most popular work-related learning context would be taking courses organised at the workplace. This preference is more pronounced than for Group 1 respondents, who are more likely to opt for updating their professional skills by doing courses offered by education and training establishments.

Group 1 respondents are also more likely than those in Groups 2 and 3 to think they have actually learned something (in whatever kind of context) in the preceding 12 months, especially work-related learning and using mobility as a learning tool. For example, 51% think they learned something by attending training courses/sessions at their workplace, compared to 16% for Group 2. Figure 18 below provides the relevant breakdown for the three SES groups. Men are generally more likely than women to think they have learned something by learning on the job, but this is most marked among the low educated (Groups 2 and 3), where 18% of women think they have learned something while actually working, compared with 31% of men (see Table 36 in Annex 2).

The response patterns are consonant with the well-known fact that better qualified people with higher-level company/organisational positions – and even more so when they are men – are more likely to be offered opportunities for further training and more likely to participate in further training opportunities. It is also very likely that the better educated expect to learn in various ways and contexts as a matter of course, and that they are more aware of having so learned.

At the same time, it is worth noting that Group 3 respondents in particular point to the importance of family and social environments and networks as contexts in which they think they have actually learned something: in leisure activities; getting together with other people; and being at home. In addition, women are generally more likely than men to think they have learned something by being at home (see Table 37 in Annex 2). These are important for Groups 1 and 2 as well, but their significance for Group 3 respondents is relatively much greater in comparison with other kinds of contexts in which people might have learned something in the recent past. By definition, Group 3 respondents do not have access to learning contexts that derive from paid working environments, and they certainly are not very likely to have been active in formal education and training learning contexts. However, neither are they very likely to identify having recently learned in wider community contexts (such as involvement in social or political work, or using local libraries and resource centres). This all suggests that Group 3 respondents are relatively detached from active participation in the public sphere as a whole and not only from the labour market. The implication is that attracting Group 3-type citizens into learning, of whatever kind, will necessitate more intensive development of non-formal and informal learning opportunities 'close to home' in the real and metaphorical senses of this phrase.

Figure 18: **Respondents' views on how they have learned something in the preceding year, by socio-economic group, %**



Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Finally, and in stark contrast, the response profile for Group 1 respondents across several survey questions reveals a consistent picture of the active, self-motivated learner (see Table 38 in Annex 2). They participate more in learning of different kinds, they experience themselves as learning in a wide variety of contexts, when their interest is caught by something they are likely

to go and look for more information about it – and they see this itself as a good way to learn. They therefore use local libraries, local learning centres and similar resources as places to learn, and they are more likely to point to ICT-related tools and methods as important new learning opportunities. More generally, they are likely to think they learn simply by doing new things, whether at work or at home.

2.4.2. The highly educated in the North and the South are similar – except for work-related learning environments

For many of the dimensions explored in this chapter, substantial differences between respondents from Nordic and Southern European countries either do not exist or only emerge when educational level, sex or age are added to the comparison.

However, a clear North-South divide does open up with views on the contexts in which respondents think they have learned something in the year preceding the Eurobarometer survey. The difference is sharpest for work-related learning contexts, where Nordic respondents are much more likely to report having recently learned something by attending courses/sessions at their workplace. This difference also holds for learning while actually working and by talking to colleagues, reading newspapers, etc. at the workplace – except for the highly educated, where responses from the North and the South are similar (see Table 39 in Annex 2).

This difference equally holds for younger respondents and specifically to learning by following a programme that combines periods of study with workplace-based learning. Of young Nordics, 23% think they have learned in this way, compared with only 11% of young Southerners. Further, young Nordic respondents are twice as likely as young Southerners to report they recently learned something by means of a training placement or through an exchange programme (28% versus 13% respectively). However, there is virtually no difference between young Nordics' and young Southerners' judgements (43% and 45% respectively) of having recently learned something by travelling, studying, working or living abroad. In addition, both young and highly educated Nordics of all ages are also somewhat more likely to think they have learned something by being at home.

Despite these general differences, respondents from the North and the South agree on how they would prefer to pursue work-related learning in the future and what they see as the most important new learning opportunities to have come about in the past five years. The kinds of patterns outlined so far are highly plausible given what is already known about opportunity structures in different parts of Europe for work-related learning and learning in working environments. More extensive and varied opportunities in the Nordic

countries go together with the much higher rates of participation in adult education and continuing vocational training (and see Chapter 3). It is interesting that these kinds of differences, which also influence attitudes and motivation for learning, are still observable for the youngest respondent groups.

Equally interesting is that North-South differences flatten out or disappear altogether for the highly educated – but the reverse is the case for the low educated and, independently, in the case of women. So, for example, Nordic women and low-educated Nordics of both sexes are much more likely than are their Southern counterparts to think looking for information on things that catch their interest is the best opportunity to learn something new (see Table 40 in Annex 2). In other words, Nordics are more likely to display attributes of the active learner even when they belong to social groups not typically learning-active (the low educated). From the other vantage point, Southern women are generally less likely to display active learner attributes than Nordic women ([27]). This characteristically Nordic active learning orientation also comes through when respondents select the best opportunities in the private sphere of life to learn something new. Nordic women are more prone to opt for having contact with someone whose skills and experiences differ from their own, and for doing things together with friends and colleagues. Women from Southern Europe and low-educated Southerners are more likely to reply that the best opportunity for new learning in the private sphere is trying not to repeat mistakes they have made in the past. An active learning orientation seems to require the facility and the confidence to 'look out and reach into' one's social environment and the resources it could offer for learning. This seems particularly well developed in the Nordic countries, drawing a much larger proportion of the general population into an active learning ambit, whereas in Southern Europe, less privileged individuals and groups remain at the margins of 'learning inclusion' through participation and engagement.

([27]) To interpret this statement correctly, it has to be borne in mind that general population samples from southern Europe will inevitably contain lower proportions of the highly educated/qualified. Education and training participation rates in southern European countries began to rise later than those in northern European countries, so it is only for the youngest cohorts that participation rates in northern and southern Europe converge.

3. Participation and motivation: patterns, obstacles and incentives

This chapter analyses answers given to questions on previous participation in education and training and future intention. It covers the issues of motivations, decision catalyst and benefits – linked to past education and training experience – as well as obstacles and incentives – linked to possible future participation.

In some cases, the findings from the Eurobarometer survey are compared with those from large-scale data sources: the International adult literacy survey (IALS ([28])), the Community labour force survey (LFS ([29])) and the European survey on Continuing vocational training in enterprises (CVTS ([30])).

3.1. Previous education and training experience, motivations and benefits

3.1.1. Twice as many respondents did not participate in education and training as those who did

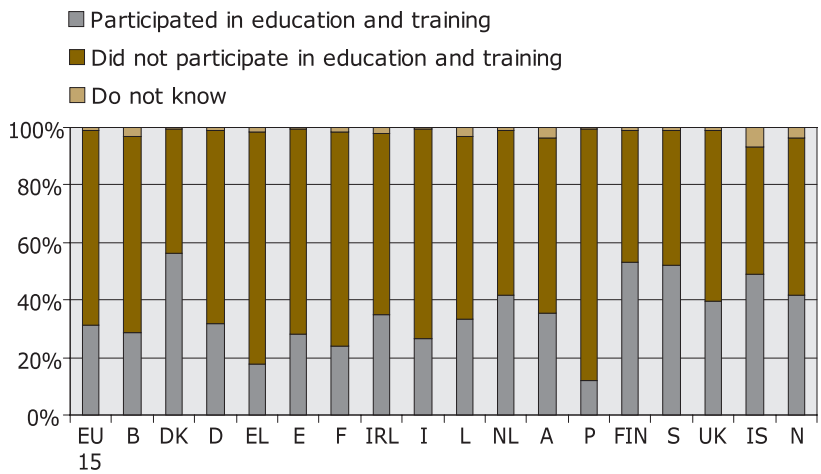
The question of past participation was combined with that of motivations. Only the aggregated level of 'participated', 'did not participate' and 'don't know' is explored here, although the relevant question differentiates more finely within these broad categories.

([28]) Coordinated by the OECD and Statistics Canada, IALS collected data on literacy and participation between 1994 and 1998. It covers the population aged 25-64 and the reference period is 12 months.

([29]) Coordinated by Eurostat, the European LFS is a household survey carried out annually. It focuses mainly on employment and unemployment issues but also includes a few questions on participation in education and training and educational level attained. It covers the population aged 25-64 and the reference period is the last four weeks. An ad-hoc module on lifelong learning was developed for LFS but, unfortunately, the harmonised data are not yet available at the date of finalisation of this publication.

([30]) Coordinated by Eurostat, CVTS is an enterprise-based survey conducted for the second time in 2000/01; it deals with different aspects of participation, provision and costs of continuing vocational training in enterprises.

Figure 19: **Participation in education and training in the preceding year, by country, %**



In the European Union as a whole, the proportion of respondents who did not take part in any form of education or training in the last 12 months is twice as high as the share of those who did participate (67% versus 31%). However, this general picture hides national disparities, as shown in Figure 19 above.

Participation is highest in Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Sweden (close to or over 50%) and relatively high in the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom (around 40%). It is lowest in Greece and Portugal (below 20%). In Belgium, Spain, France and Italy, rates are in the 20% to 30% range. Luxembourg and Austria are situated just above the EU average. A possible explanation for the low rates could be both limited provision and access to opportunities, and lack of encouragement or motivation.

Table 41 in Annex 2 shows the same data as Figure 19 excluding students under 25. Compared to participation rates in education and training from the 2003 LFS, percentages are higher in the Eurobarometer survey ([31]). They are lower than the percentages recorded in IALS (OECD, 2003, p.7-8). However, only six countries are covered both by IALS and the Eurobarometer, and lower than the share of employees participating in continuing vocational training courses in the CVTS survey (Eurostat NewCronos database – CVTS2 and Eurostat, 2002, p. 1 and 3.). Country patterns are largely comparable: Nordic countries and the United Kingdom are in the lead in all four surveys and Southern countries are at the bottom. Some country oddities are also observable in the Eurobarometer: the values of Germany and Austria are

([31]) This has to do, at least partly, with the different period of reference: the last four weeks in the LFS and the last 12 months in the Eurobarometer.

higher than expected based on LFS and CVTS2, while France belongs to the least well performing countries in LFS but not in CVTS2.

Age, gender, educational attainment and occupation, which influence participation notably in IALS and LFS, appear to be significant determining factors in this Eurobarometer as well (see Sections 3.3. and 3.4. below). Place of residence, however, seems to exert a limited effect on participation: the Eurobarometer findings do not reveal significant differences between those living in urban and rural areas.

3.1.2. Motivations to take part in education and training tend to be of a mixed nature

Respondents were not directly asked to choose between work-related reasons versus personal reasons. They were presented with a list of motivations, which related more to the work sphere or more to the personal sphere. Answers were then compiled into work-related ([32]) versus non-work-related ([33]) motives.

Overall, in the EU, the proportions of respondents enrolled in education or training for at least one work-related motive and for at least one personal motive are equivalent (23% and 25% ([34])). A minority undertook education and training solely for either work-related motives or personal motives (respectively 6% and 8%), i.e. motivations are mixed in the minds of most respondents. This contrasts with the findings from literature on adult learning, where a higher proportion of learners tend to focus on work-related motives (see results from IALS and OECD's thematic review (OECD, 2003, p. 45). The difference may be partly due to a different survey scope as well as broader age coverage in the Eurobarometer survey, including also the group aged 15-24.

In the EU, on average, motivations for taking up education and training in the past 12 months were mainly to: perform better at work (14%), obtain some kind of certification (12%), increase one's general knowledge (9%) and gain more personal satisfaction (9%). The typical EU motivations are generally valid in most countries (see Table 42 in Annex 2).

([32]) This refers to both job and career-related reasons. It includes the following answer items: be less likely to lose one's job/to be forced into retirement, be able to do one's job better, be able to take greater responsibilities/increase one's chances of promotion, change type of work, get a job and improve one's chance of getting another job.

([33]) This refers to non-work-related or personal motives. It includes the following items: meet new people, better enjoy free time/retirement, obtain a certificate/diploma or qualification, better manage everyday life, gain personal satisfaction and gain general knowledge.

([34]) The rates are relatively small because of the combination with participation/non-participation: only the 31% EU citizens who participated responded to this question. The values for the total number of participants (including Norway and Iceland) do not differ.

3.1.3. The source of decision to participate in education and training is extrinsic for a majority of respondents

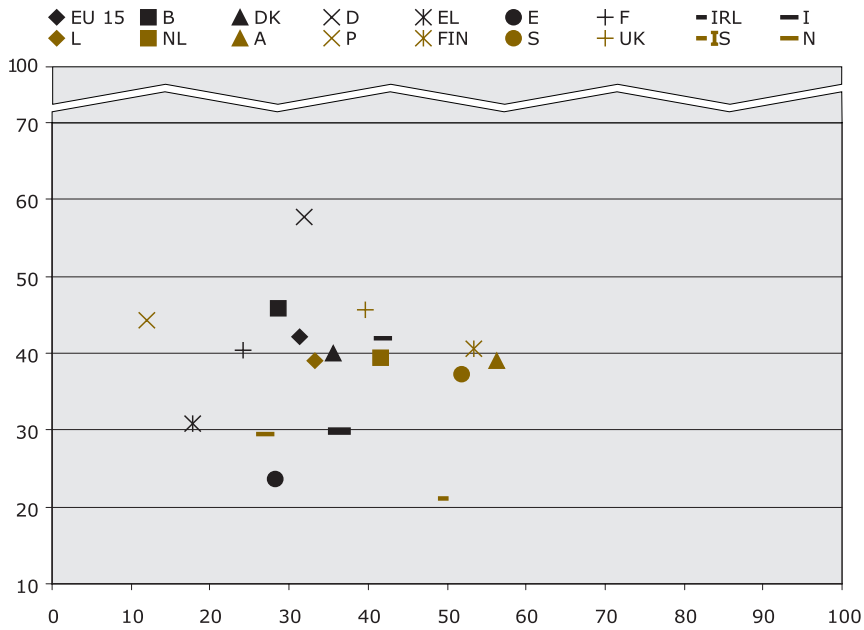
In the EU as a whole, the majority (53%) of respondents have an extrinsic motivation to participate ([35]) in education and training (see Table 43 in Annex 2) – this is especially true in Germany. Similarly, while most workers and unemployed people had an extrinsic motivation to take part in education and training, this was true for just a minority of students and the labour market inactive. For 43% of EU citizens – more in Greece, Spain and Iceland – the source of decision was intrinsic. This brings interesting nuances to the picture of participation – Greece and Spain are countries with lower participation rates but the majority of those who enrolled in education and training decided to do so by themselves.

Employer financial support varies between countries. Education and training induced or supported by employers or public authorities is more prominent in Germany but much less so in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy and Iceland. Employer financial support plays a more significant role in Denmark, Germany, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway but not much at all in Greece, Spain and Iceland. Table 43 in Annex 2 shows that advice through social relations at work, in the family and friendship networks is a significant source of influence in Germany, Italy and Norway, but not in Belgium, Iceland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal.

Figure 20 overleaf shows that there is no systematic link between request/payment and participation. Note that the reference population used on both axes is different: while all respondents are considered for participation, only participants are considered on the request/payment dimension. Looking at the range between countries on the request/payment axis suggests other factors are at play than just the request/payment. Some country oddities are noticeable. In Iceland, participation is comparable with other Nordic countries but few citizens record they were required/financially encouraged to take part in education and training. In Portugal, the proportion of those required or financially motivated to participate is comparable with the EU average but participation is very low. In Germany, participation is comparable with the EU average but the share of those required/financially pushed to participate is the highest.

([35]) In other words, they were required, advised or paid to do so.

Figure 20: **Proportions of respondents participating in education and training in the preceding year and respondents who undertook training in that period which was required or paid for, by country, %**



Note: Vertical axis = Proportion of respondents who undertook training required or paid for by others.
Horizontal axis = Proportion of respondents who participated in education and training.

Combining the information on participation with the information from Table 43 shows high participation in Iceland is coupled with very low levels of advice from social relations and support from employer and government; low levels of participation in Portugal are coupled with low levels of advice from social relations; average participation in Germany is accompanied by social, employer and government support.

3.1.4. Personal benefits outweigh work-related benefits

The response items to the question on the benefits of past learning experience were identical to the motivations discussed earlier in Section 3.1.2. Again, response items were aggregated at a later stage to determine work-related versus personal benefits. The answer 'no benefits' was not explicitly included in the list, but respondents could report this spontaneously.

Of those who had a learning experience in the past 12 months, a negligible proportion replied they had not benefited much, not completed the course yet or did not know whether they had gained benefits or not. More EU citizens

reported personal rather than work-related benefits: 81% got at least one personal benefit from their training (against 54% who got at least one work-related benefit) and 37% got only personal benefits (against 10% who got only work-related benefits). In all countries, personal benefits outweighed work-related benefits. However, relatively more in Germany, Iceland and Norway achieved at least one work-related objective. More people report only personal benefits in Italy.

The most popular benefits for EU citizens overall are: improved work efficiency (41%), personal satisfaction (36%), increase in general knowledge (35%), new acquaintances (33%) and to a lesser extent certification (24%). In individual countries, these five benefits also appear at the top of the list, although not in the same order – percentages are as high as 45%-50% for personal satisfaction in Denmark, better work efficiency in Greece and general knowledge in Italy and the Netherlands (see Table 44 in Annex 2).

3.1.5. Compared to initial motives, the benefits that people draw from their training are more likely to be personal

While people tend to have mixed motivations for past education and training (see Section 3.1.2.), the benefits they have received are much more likely to be personal than work-related (see Section 3.1.4.). Whereas percentages are comparable for motives for past education and training experience (see Section 3.1.2.), the gap between only work-related benefits and only non-work-related benefits is much larger (see Section 3.1.4.). Perhaps people realise they gain personal benefits from most work-related education and training anyway or even that they do not necessarily get the work-related benefits they have hoped for.

Correspondence between motivations and benefits is obvious in most cases. To a large extent, people tend to report the benefit corresponding to their motivation (most rates resulting from the cross-tabulation are situated between 40% and 75%). A significant proportion of those who wanted to meet people did so, whereas a large share of those who wanted to do their job better recorded this benefit. However, only 10% of those who wished to find a job or to change jobs actually succeeded in doing so as a result of their training. This is an important finding; further research would be needed on this particular point.

In some cases, benefits are broader than initial motivations but tend to belong to the same domain. For example, those who wanted to enjoy their free time better report meeting new people (51%), enjoying their free time or retirement better (51%) and achieving more personal satisfaction (53%); those who wanted to avoid precarious job situations or to have greater

responsibilities report they were able to do their job better as the main benefit of their education and training (respectively 64% and 58%).

3.1.6. Those who were prompted to participate tend to recognise work-related benefits afterwards

Those whose training was required, advised or paid for (see Table 43 in Annex 2) report drawing more work-related benefits than those who decided by themselves. This is especially true for the capacity to do their job better (29 percentage points difference). This suggests that employers should encourage all workers to participate in education and training. On the other hand, fewer report gaining general knowledge (11 percentage points difference).

A similar pattern is observed when looking at the motivations for future education and training: more people having decided about their own training in the past consider an increase in general knowledge to be motivating (10 percentage points difference compared to those who were required or encouraged to take up education and training) while more of those who were required/encouraged to take part in education and training by an external body see the prospect of doing their job better as a motivation (14 percentage points difference). In other words, people's orientations to education and training seem to be influenced by the contextualisation of their past education and training experiences.

3.2. Future plans for learning: obstacles and incentives

3.2.1. Motivations to take part in future education and training are mixed, but personal motives tend to dominate

As with motivations for past learning experience, respondents were not asked directly to choose between job/career-related motives versus personal interest motives. They were given the same list of motivations as for past learning experience (see Section 3.1.2.).

Aggregated answers show over two thirds (71%) of EU interviewees put forward at least one personal motive and more than half at least (54%) one work-related motive. One respondent in 10 (10%) selected only work-related motives and three respondents in 10 (28%) only personal motives. Personal motives outweigh work-related motives. It is likely the non-work benefits that people gained from their previous education and training strengthen their orientation towards non-work motivations in the future.

The main motivations for future education and training put forward by EU respondents are to gain more personal satisfaction, increase general knowledge (31%), do one's job better (27%) and obtain a qualification (20%)

(see Table 45 in Annex 2). All these belong to the list of main benefits and coincide with the motivations for past education and training experience. The typical EU motivations are generally valid in most countries.

On average, 14% of EU citizens spontaneously say they would never want to do education or training. While no respondents in Denmark and only 3% in Iceland say this, percentages reach 20% in Belgium, Greece, France and Austria. This matches the ranking of these countries on the proportion of non-participants who are not interested in education and training (see Section 3.3.1.) – with the exception of Austria.

Motivations for past learning experience tend to reinforce and widen motivations for future education and training. As when comparing motivations and benefits of past training (see Section 3.1.5.), motivations seem to diversify as a result of past training and the non-work-related motives outweigh the work-related ones. For instance, those who were motivated better to enjoy their free time and took up education and training in the past would be ready to do education and training in the future to meet new people (41%) and/or better to enjoy their free time/retirement (54%); those who wanted to avoid job precarity in the past would keep this as a motivation for the future (48%) as well as the prospect of doing their job better (56%). Comparing the aggregated percentages for future motivations with those for past benefits (see Section 3.1.4.) suggests the benefits people have received from past training may be carried over into their motivations for future education and training.

3.2.2. Lack of time for learning is the main obstacle – and within this, family commitments

Respondents were also asked about the most likely obstacles to their future education or training. Different types of obstacles (practical, psychological, etc.) were included in the list ([36]).

Interestingly, in the EU as a whole, 29% do not see any obstacle to future education and training. The proportion rises to 35% in Spain, the Netherlands and Austria, 38% in Sweden and 46% in Denmark. Students constitute the group with the largest proportion of respondents saying there would not be any obstacles to future education and training (56%), as opposed to 21% for retired people and 15% for full-time homemakers.

Time ([37]) appears as the most important barrier for 37% of respondents in

([36]) Not including time and money explicitly in the list of response items was a conscious questionnaire design decision, taken on the basis that many would select these 'automatically', which would not be informative about the real obstacles. Therefore, the concept of time was translated into 'work commitments', 'family commitments' and 'threat to leisure/free time activities' while money was not included in the list of obstacles, only in that of incentives (see Section 3.2.3.).

the EU on average, especially in Greece, Iceland and Italy (over 40%) (see Table 46 in Annex 2). It is interesting to note, however, that very few people (5%) selected several time categories. Respondents may have reported that family, work or leisure commitments demand too much of their energy to leave time available for intentional learning. Alternatively, they may have replied that their family or their employer would not support their participation in education and training. In one or more of these senses, family is an obstacle to 21% of respondents – rising to 25% in Luxembourg, 26% in the United Kingdom and 31% in Greece; work is an obstacle to 19% – rising to 26% in Iceland (see Table 46 in Annex 2).

When analysing each answer item separately, family commitments come first (with 19%), followed by threat to leisure time (16%), job commitments (15%) and the idea of being too old to learn (13%). Proportionally more people consider themselves to be too old to learn in Belgium, Greece, Ireland, and Finland. This is the case for comparatively fewer respondents in Denmark and Iceland.

Research by OECD (2003a) and an ongoing study supported by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2003) confirm the importance of time as the most frequent barrier to continuing learning, followed by lack of funding. Chisholm (2004) reports widespread consensus among researchers, policy-makers and practitioners engaged in the lifelong learning field that enabling satisfying working-learning-living balance across the span of active life is a crucial lever for raising adult participation in learning. It is a key precondition for opening access to lifelong learning for all. However, there is no single formula for achieving satisfying balance, not only because people's life circumstances are objectively differentiated but also because people experience the nature and scale of demands on their time and energies differently, and they set their priorities in differing ways. Concepts and experiences of time as a phenomenon, process and resource have changed historically and are also subject to cultural interpretation. These factors certainly contribute to the response patterns in the lifelong learning Eurobarometer survey. For example, Greek respondents were much more likely to perceive family-related time obstacles to learning than those in other countries. The influence of cultural factors on respondents' perceptions of obstacles to learning relates to other categories of response as well. For example, people are undoubtedly less likely to think they are too old to learn if they live in societies where participating in some form of learning throughout life is a longstanding tradition and part of normative expectations

([37]) This refers to an aggregated category combining three response items: 'job commitments requiring too much energy', 'family commitments requiring too much energy' and 'threat to leisure time/free time'.

people have of themselves as well as those they experience from the world around them.

3.2.3. Individualised and flexible learning options appear to be promising effective incentives

After looking at obstacles, it is useful to look at the other side of the coin, that is, incentives to learn. The list of response items includes concrete measures that can be implemented as incentives; some of them correspond to the obstacles from the relevant question in the survey.

The proportion of those who say nothing would encourage them to take up education and training again is particularly high in Belgium, Greece and Portugal (29-30%) and especially low in Sweden (8%) and Iceland (4%). The EU average is situated at 19%.

Overall in the EU, the incentives most often selected are flexible working hours (21%), individualised programmes of study and personal choice of methods (20%). Obtaining a certificate (18%) and having access to individualised guidance and counselling (14%) would also seem to be quite effective.

In general, the incentives that seem to be most effective at European level tend to stand out at national level as well (see Table 47 in Annex 2). However, some seem to be particularly promising in some countries; this is so for flexible working time in Iceland and Spain, courses adapted to learners' level in Denmark and Sweden, choice of study method in Sweden and flexible learning opportunities in Finland, Iceland and Sweden. Few national differences are observed for obtaining a certificate. Guidance and counselling would be most encouraging in Finland and Sweden but not so much in Belgium and the Netherlands.

The proportion of those who spontaneously say they would participate if it did not cost them so much is highest in the United Kingdom (12% compared to 7% for the EU average) and Iceland (14%) and lowest in Luxembourg (1%) and Denmark (2%).

There is a relationship between obstacles and incentives for time and work, but not for family. Of those mentioning time as an obstacle, 52% also mention time – flexible working hours, help at work or flexible learning opportunities – as an incentive. Similarly, 52% of those mentioning work as an obstacle mention solutions at work – flexible working hours and assistance at work – as an incentive. However, only 27% of those who mention family as an obstacle have selected care facilities as an incentive. This suggests that family obstacles could lead to implementation of other incentives than just care facilities; it may also mean family obstacles may not simply be overcome by incentives. Reasons might be that family obstacles also have to do with

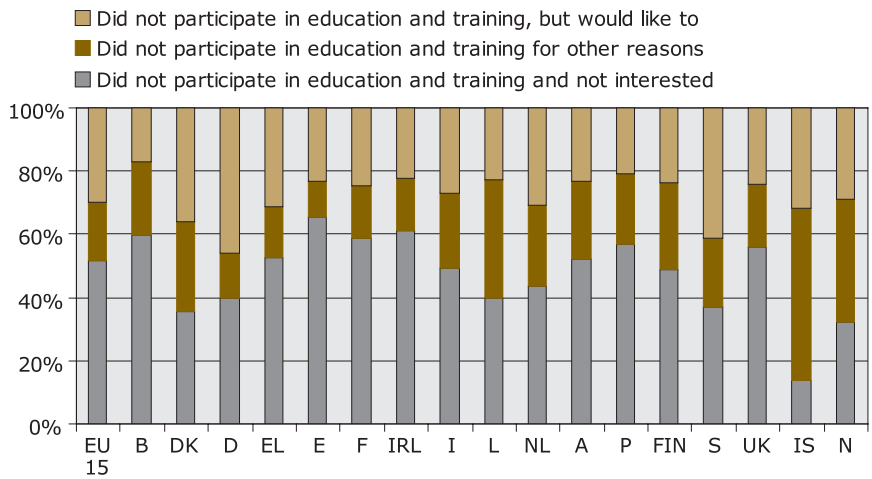
values and priorities – and not only with practical issues – but also with partners' (in particular men's) attitudes and behaviours. Family may also be a socially legitimate excuse for not participating, which may hide lack of interest in education and training.

3.3. Non-participants and the demotivated

3.3.1. The typical non-participant is more likely to be older, to have a low education level and to be female

The 'non-participants' category can be further broken down into those not particularly interested in learning, those willing to learn and those who did not do so 'for other reasons', as shown in Figure 21 below.

Figure 21: **Non-participation in education and training in the preceding year, by reason and country, %**



In the EU as a whole, 35% did not participate in education and training and are not particularly interested, 12% did not participate for other reasons and 20% would like to do so. The proportion of those with little interest in education and training is especially high in Belgium, Greece, Spain, France, and Portugal.

Figure 22 below shows the outlier countries resulting from the combination of the proportions of those who are non-participants and interested with those who are non-participants and not interested. Only the countries that deviate significantly from the EU average on both axes have been included in the table.

Research would be helpful to explain these divergences between countries. For the present, we might suggest at least two contributing factors to these patterns. First, actual participation rates in organised adult learning do vary greatly between countries. This means that the pool of non-participants – whether they are interested to participate or not – is objectively smaller in countries where participation rates are high, such as Finland and Iceland. Correspondingly, the pool of potential learners is large in countries where current participation rates are very low, such as Greece. The balance between interested and disinterested non-participants could be related to learning opportunity structures, the cultural value attached to education as such, and to factors associated with uneven patterns of social and economic modernisation within as well as between countries.

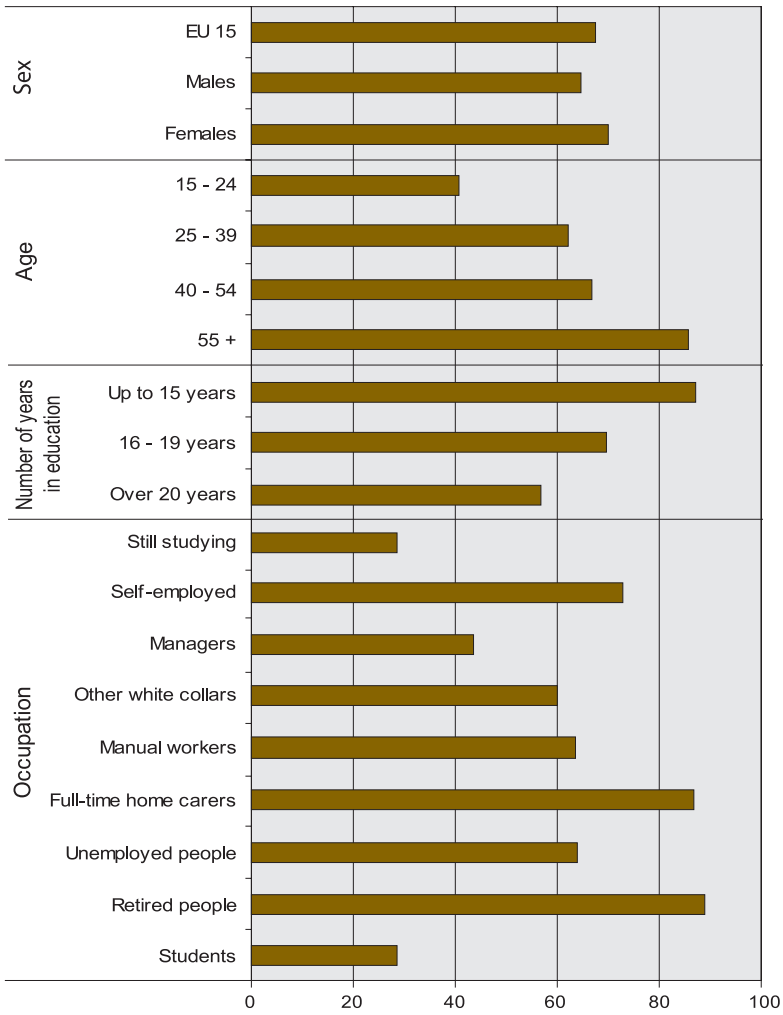
Second, it is possible that the normative acceptability of openly admitting lack of interest in pursuing further learning differs between societies and cultures, regardless of the actual size of the pool of current non-participants. Alternatively, it may be that the benefits accruing from adult learning are objectively higher in some countries than in others. These factors might help to explain, for example, this survey's finding that in Germany, relatively high numbers of non-participants express their interest in taking up learning in the future and relatively few non-participants reply they are not interested to do so, whereas the reverse is true in Belgium.

Figure 22: **Non-participants interested and not interested in pursuing learning: examples of countries deviating noticeably from the EU15 average**

	Low	High
Did not participate, but would like to	L, FIN, IS, B	D, EL
Did not participate in education and training and not interested	L, FIN, IS, D	B, EL

Figure 23 below shows age and level of education are strong determinants of non-participation. Gender is the least significant determinant factor. These patterns reinforce the findings presented in Chapters 1 and 2. Of females surveyed, 70% are non-participants ([38]) compared to 65% of males; 86% of retired people/55+ are non-participants and 87% of low-educated people are non-participants.

Figure 23: **Non-participants by sex, age, educational level and occupation, %**



([38]) In this case, 100% corresponds to all females surveyed. The percentage given here (70%) refers to the share of females who are non-participants versus the share of females who are participants or do not know.

Breakdown of the respondents by sex, age and education level shows 41% of the non-participants are 55 years of age or over; 35% belong to the least educated category; 54% are female ([39]). This suggests personal and social circumstances are more significant than attitudes in pre-structuring the disposition to take up education and training.

Although the non-participant group is not homogeneous, it is possible to analyse some of its characteristics. First, asked what would motivate those who did not take part in education and training in the past 12 months to take up education and training in the future, non-participants are more likely to reply 'nothing'. However, they also display similar motives for learning as do respondents in general, in particular gaining general knowledge and personal satisfaction. This suggests gaining general knowledge and personal satisfaction are likely to motivate non-participants.

Second, non-participants are more likely to report obstacles, especially indecision and a perception of being too old. Asked what would be the most likely obstacles to future education and training, predictably, non-participants are more likely to report obstacles. However, they provide answers which are not so different from the general population (see Section 3.2.2. above): time appears to be the main obstacle, and a significant proportion say that nothing would constitute an obstacle – noticeably more among those who are willing to participate than those who say they do not have much interest. This accords with OECD's (2003, p. 69) analysis of the most important factors for non-participation in learning. However, uncertainties about what type of training to take up and the perception that one is too old are much more frequent among those who are not particularly interested in learning. This suggests that tailored advice, support and confidence-building would be particularly useful for this group.

Third, incentives do not differ much from the general sample pattern either. However, significant proportions reply nothing could work as an incentive – more so than in the whole population, especially among those not interested in participating in education and training. Individualised programmes of study, personal choice of learning method and flexible working time are the most popular measures for non-participants (with percentages slightly lower than for the whole population) as well as certificates and guidance and counselling for those who said they would like to participate (with higher percentages than for the whole population).

([39]) In this case, 100% corresponds to the total of respondents. The percentage given here for females (54%) refers to the percentage of respondents who are females versus males.

3.3.2. Demotivated learners are also more likely to be old, low educated and female

Of the total interviewees, 11% are defined as demotivated ([40]). Percentages range from under 1% in Denmark and Iceland and 3% in Sweden to over 15% in Belgium, France and Ireland (see Figure 24 below). Breakdown by gender, age and education level shows 71% of these are 55 or over; 60% belong to the least educated category; 57% are female.

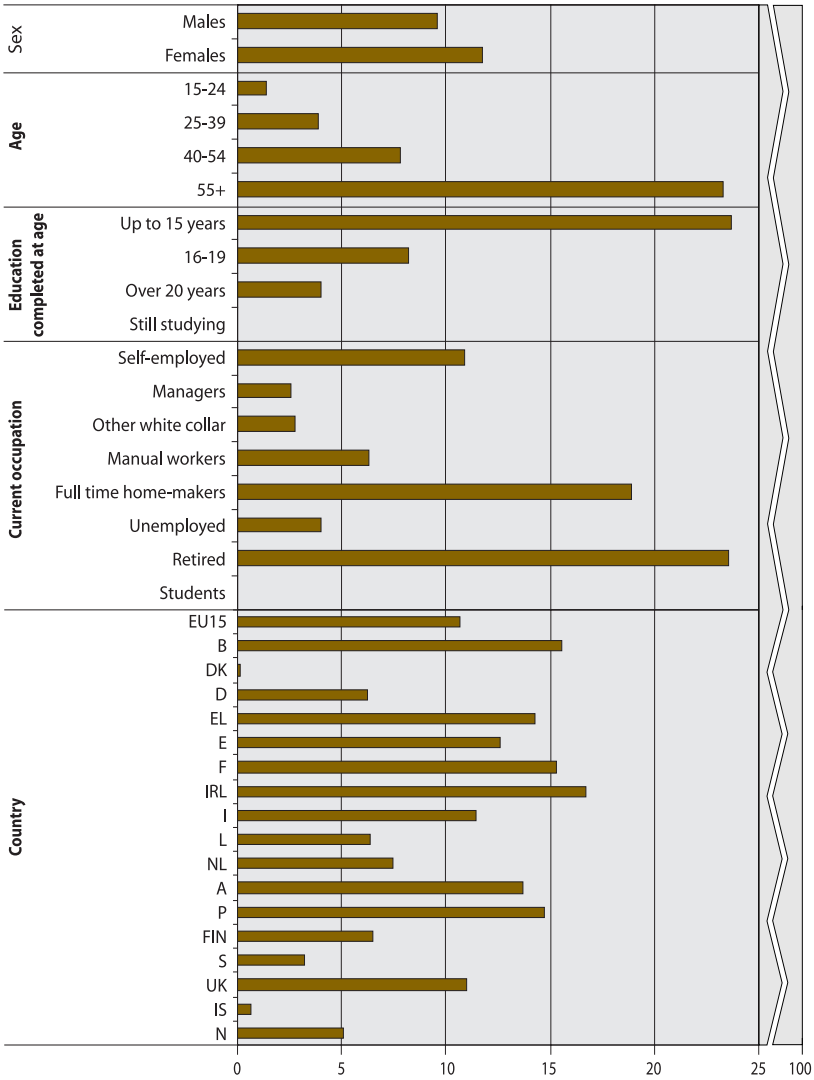
Of the females respondents, 12% are demotivated compared to 10% of males; 23% of retired people aged 55+ are demotivated and 24% of low-educated people are demotivated. These values are noticeably lower than for the larger group of undifferentiated non-participants as described in the preceding section (3.3.1.). This suggests demotivation, as distinct from non-participation per se, is linked with attitudes and values in prestructuring the disposition to take up education and training as well as with personal and social circumstances.

The motives that seem promising for other people simply do not work for the demotivated. As expected, 94% (against 14% of all respondents) of those we have termed 'demotivated learners' have never wanted to take part in education and training. Where possible motivations to take up education and training in the future are considered, percentages do not exceed 3% for any category of response. These data clearly show that none of the motivations that look promising for most respondents (personal satisfaction, increase in general knowledge, etc.) can confidently be expected to work for the demotivated.

The survey findings show indecision, poor self-confidence and negative previous education and training experience are the main obstacles to taking up education and training in the future. Demotivated learners note lack of knowledge of what could be interesting or useful to study (41% versus 11% for the whole population) as well as perception that one is too old to learn (31% versus 13%), that they were never good at studying (13% versus 8%) or are reluctant to go back to something that feels like school (12% versus 9%). These features are part of the definition of demotivated learners.

([40]) The 'demotivated' are those who replied that in the past they did not participate and are not particularly interested AND that they would never want to do education and training again in the future or that they would never want to improve/update their professional skills or that they would never want to work for pay AND that they are too old to learn, not good at learning or would not like to go back to something like school or that nothing could encourage them to learn again. These responses appear in the questions on past learning, future intentions, obstacles and incentives.

Figure 24: **Demotivated learners by sex, age, educational level, occupation and country, %**



3.4. How do citizens' views differ?

3.4.1. Motivations, reasons and decisions to participate in learning vary between socio-economic status (SES) groups

Once more, this analysis rests on comparing Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3 respondents as in preceding chapters of this report.

Low-qualified people without a job (Group 3) are much more likely to be non-participants than are highly educated people with a high-level job (Group 1). Of Group 1 respondents, 40% are non-participants, that is, they reported they had not taken part in some form of education and training in the year preceding the Eurobarometer survey. This figure is substantially lower than the EU15 average for non-participants (67%; see Section 3.1.1.). In contrast, 77% of Group 2 respondents (low-qualified people with a low-level job) are non-participants and a genuinely dramatic 91% of those in Group 3, that is, respondents with a low level of education/qualification and non-active in the labour market. This is in line with the findings from IALS, where employed adults were more likely to participate in education and training than unemployed people, who in turn had higher rates than those not economically active, and that rates were highest for white-collar workers (who have typically higher attainment levels) than blue-collar workers (Tuijnman and Hellström, 2001, p. 35 and p. 50).

Within the non-participant group SES does not affect the proportions of those who would like to participate. However, SES does affect the proportions of non-participants who also say they are not interested in pursuing learning. Only 14% of Group 1 non-participants do not wish to participate – but this is so for 47% of Group 2 non-participants and 57% of Group 3 non-participants. In other words, positive motivation to learn is not necessarily closely associated with education and occupation, whereas explicit demotivation to learn clearly is linked with low education and labour market detachment. This relationship shows up throughout the analysis presented in this report and, as shown earlier (see Section 2.4.1.), the basic problem appears to be one of broader social detachment from the public sphere.

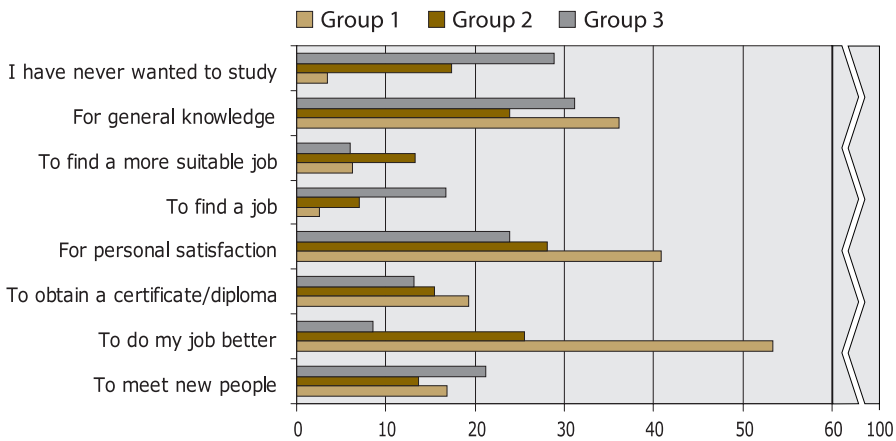
The source of the motivation or decision to participate in education and training also tends to vary by socio-economic group. A larger proportion of people from Group 2 took part in education and training following a request by the employer whereas more people from Group 3 participated in education and training further to a request by the employment service. However, the proportion of respondents from these groups whose training was funded is much smaller (see Table 48 in Annex 2). This is an important message to employers and public agencies, indicating where they should place more financing effort. In addition, more people from Group 3 took up education and training following advice from family or friends.

In general, motivation for learning is particularly weak for Group 3 and noticeably stronger for Group 1 than for Group 2: percentages are higher for Group 1 and lowest for Group 3, whose members are also more likely to reply they have never wanted to study (see Figure 25 below).

The types of motivations put forward tend to differ from one group to the other: Group 1 respondents are more likely than the two other groups to reply 'doing one's job better', whereas those in Group 2 are more likely to respond 'finding a more suitable job'. Those in Group 3 are more likely to say 'meeting new people' or 'finding a job'.

In spite of percentage differences, personal satisfaction and general knowledge are placed relatively high on the motivational ranking of all three groups. Certification is the motivation with fewest differences from one group to the other.

Figure 25: **Proportion of respondents by type of learning motivation and socio-economic group, %**



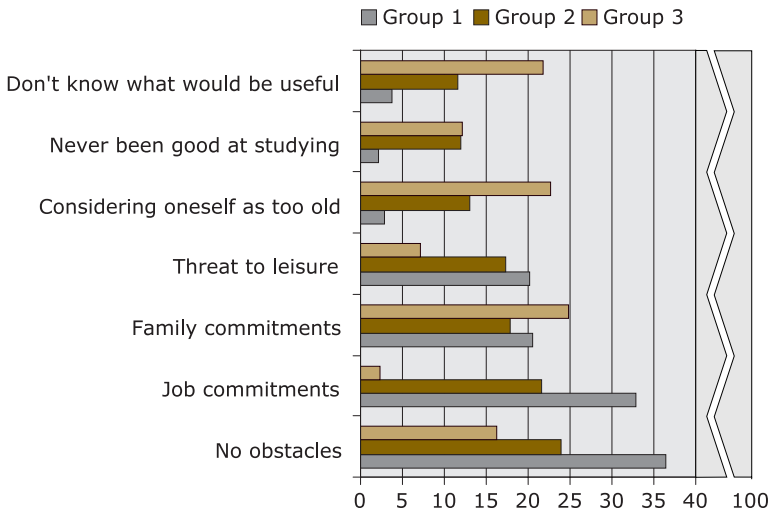
Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

The data also reveal a clear correlation between SES and the likelihood to perceive obstacles to future participation in education and training: the higher the SES level, the less likely are people to think obstacles would arise. Of Group 1 respondents, 37% perceive no obstacles, compared with 24% in Group 2 and 16% in Group 3.

Comparing the obstacles put forward by the different groups is interesting (see Figure 26 overleaf). Group 1 is more likely to select time and in particular work, Group 3 is more likely to select family. A significant proportion of people

from Group 2 and an even higher share of people from Group 3 think they are too old to learn, they have never been good at studying or do not know what they could do that could be interesting or useful. Guidance and counselling measures would be particularly useful for these groups.

Figure 26: **Proportions of respondents by type of learning obstacle and socio-economic group, %**



Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Group 1 respondents also appreciate a wider range of possible incentives to learn than those in Groups 2 and (even more so) 3. This, too, points to higher levels of motivation for high SES groups in the population.

Employers' requests to pursue learning and guarantees that doing so would be socially valued are more attractive incentives for Group 2 individuals. Those belonging to Group 3 place more importance on care facilities, computer access and money. Individualised programmes of study and choice of methods are the most promising incentives for Group 3, flexible working time and employers' requests to pursue learning the most promising for Group 2. These findings suggest low-qualified people without a job tend to face greater difficulties with their self-confidence and managing organisational matters. In comparison, low-qualified people in employment may need, above all, greater consideration and recognition from employers and society in general.

3.4.2. Motivation and time factors impact differently on the younger and the older

Once more, two contrasting age groups provide a clear basis for comparison. As expected, participation decreases with age: the proportion of non-participants is much higher among the 55-59 age group than in the 25-29 age group (74% versus 57%), especially the share of those who say they are not particularly interested (46% versus 20%; these findings correspond to those from IALS, see Tuijnman and Hellström, 2001, p. 30). The proportion of those who were required to take up education and training is very similar but the catalyst was different: the employer played a significant role in prompting 55-59 year olds to participate. This is particularly interesting, given the widespread view that employers are reluctant to invest in the training of older employees.

However, people aged 55-59 are more likely to be demotivated for future education and training, especially by work-related motives. People aged between 55 and 59 are also more numerous in thinking they are too old or in saying they do not know what they could do that would be interesting or useful.

In contrast, time (and in particular, work commitments) appears to be a particular problem for those aged 25-29. This is not surprising as they are likely to have more problems in juggling work and family demands. An additional clue for this is they are more likely to appreciate care facilities than older respondents.

In general, the younger age group is also more likely to welcome any incentive measure that would incite learning participation in the future. There are some exceptions: few differences are observed between the two groups on the choice of learning methods or on the interest in guidance and counselling. However, more 55-59 year-olds would appreciate having access to a computer.

3.4.3. Women are more highly motivated to learn – but experience more obstacles

As in previous chapters, the analysis contrasted women with men overall, but also controlled for activity status, age and education to gain insight into the independent influence of gender on the data patterns.

The IALS study found no substantial differences in participation rates by sex (Tuijnman and Hellström, 2001, p. 30-31). This Eurobarometer records some differences: in all cases, a smaller share of females participated in education and training in the past 12 months: 29% versus 34% for males on average. However, 47% of those women who did participate did so on their own initiative, compared with 41% of men.

A higher proportion of women think they have met new people as a result of their education and training or they have gained personal satisfaction or general knowledge. Men are more likely to think they are more efficient at work as a result of their training. This trend is also reflected in the motives for education and training.

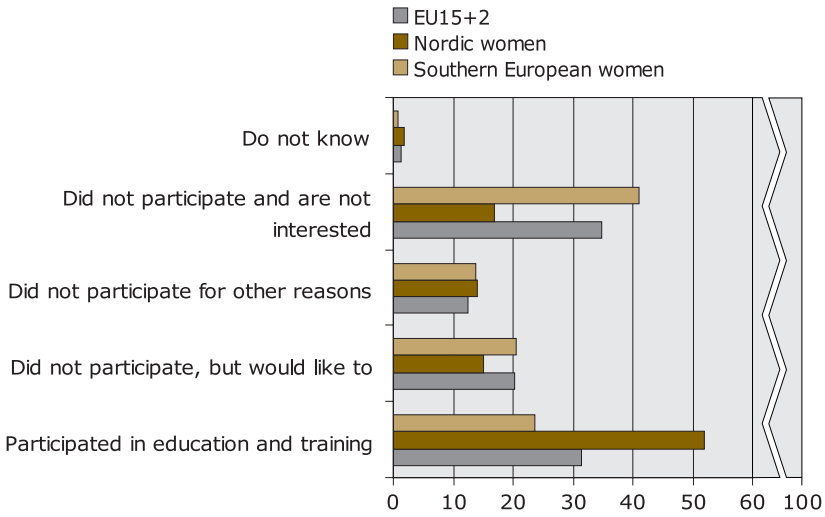
Women are also more likely to mention obstacles to taking up learning, especially family obstacles. There are also hints in the data that lack of confidence plays a role, too. More males than females, regardless of specific category, think there would not be any obstacles (33% versus 25% on average). Work-related obstacles are more of a problem for males (23% versus 16% on average) and family-related obstacles especially more so for females (28% versus 14% on average) – even more so for non-active females (25% versus 8% for males). Consistently, women (13% versus 3% for men) would appreciate the provision of care facilities. Women are more likely to indicate a lack of confidence: the perception that one is too old to learn is more widespread among middle-aged women (33% versus 26%) and more women than men think they do not have the necessary qualifications to take up education and training (6.2% versus 3.7% on average).

3.4.4. **Comparing women in Nordic and Southern countries**

This analysis – as throughout the report – focuses on similarities and differences between Nordic and Southern Europeans, but especially for women in the two regions, since female gender tends to accentuate the contrasts.

Twice as many women in the Nordic countries (52%) as in Southern European countries (24%) participated in some form of education and training in the year preceding this Eurobarometer survey. This conforms to the patterns elicited in the IALS survey (Tuijnman and Hellström, 2001, p. 55-6). Concomitantly, twice as many female non-participants in Southern Europe (41%) as in the Nordic countries (17%; see Figure 27 overleaf) say they are not interested in pursuing learning. At the same time, more female non-participants from Southern Europe (20% compared with 15% for Nordic countries) would like to take up learning in the future. Further, the motivational profile is similar across the two regions, that is, women's reasons for having recently participated do not differ. In addition, women from Southern Europe are far less likely to have been funded by their employer for the training they have recently undertaken than is the case for Nordic women (9% versus 24%).

Figure 27: **Participation in education and training by Nordic, Southern European and EU15+2 women in the preceding year, by reason, %**

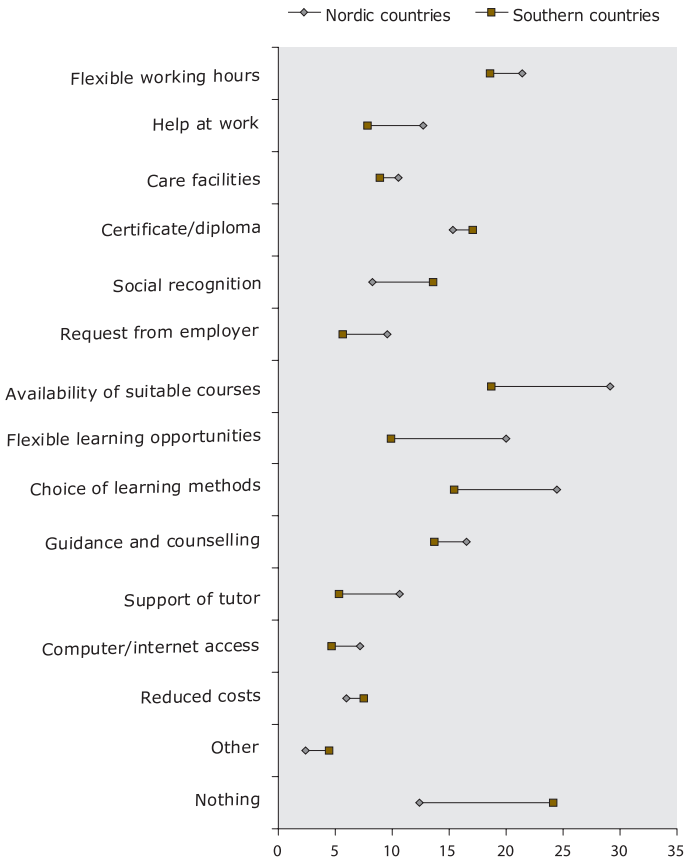


The North-South divide is also reflected in motivations for future learning: Nordic women are more likely than their counterparts in Southern countries to be motivated to do their jobs better (33% versus 22%), to meet new people (25% versus 16%), to be able to enjoy their free time/retirement (18% versus 10%), to change types of work (12% versus 6%) or to find another job more easily (14% versus 9%), while percentages are similar for general knowledge, personal satisfaction, certification and enjoyment of free time. In contrast, women from the South are more likely to reply they do not want to take up education and training in the future (18% versus 8%). These differences recall the image of active versus detached learners that have emerged in the preceding chapters.

This picture is underpinned by twice as many women in the South as in the North of Europe reporting nothing would encourage them to take up learning again (24% versus 12%). They are also more likely to think they do not know what they could do that would be interesting or useful (13% versus 7%). Therefore, women from Southern Europe are much more likely to belong to the group of demotivated learners than are their Nordic sisters, who, when considering obstacles and incentives, are more inclined to choose factors that effectively require a change in the way education and training is offered. Nordic women want courses adapted to their level, they want to choose the learning method that suits them and they want flexible learning provision (see Figure 28 below). It seems as if at least some women in Southern Europe

especially would benefit not only from more accessible opportunities to learn, but also personal and social services that provide information, guidance, counselling and broad-based support. This does not suggest women in Southern Europe need special services, but that services in Southern Europe require targeted and intensive development.

Figure 28: **Nordic and Southern European respondents by type of learning incentive, %**



4. Topical spotlights

Education and training policy and action at European level are now moving forward rapidly. Some issues, such as financing and encouraging mobility, are well-established policy priorities. Others, such as languages and IT, are gaining a renewed urgency because of labour market and social demands in today's Europe. Guidance and counselling are becoming increasingly important because of the greater need for individuals to envisage and plan for lifelong learning and more varied employment, career and life patterns. This Eurobarometer survey provides some information about citizens' views on each of these themes. In addition, the survey canvasses respondents' general opinions about lifelong learning itself. This chapter brings together the results for these varied topics, all of which are of particular policy interest. Where appropriate, the data are compared with results from earlier Eurobarometer surveys on related topics.

4.1. Citizens' opinions on lifelong learning

One of the survey questions asks citizens' opinions on lifelong learning. Respondents were invited to agree or disagree with a list of proposed items, including the goals of lifelong learning stressed in European and national policy documents together with three strong assertions: 'lifelong learning should take place only when you are young', 'lifelong learning is mainly for the middle-aged' and 'lifelong learning is not important at all'. These statements aimed to elicit the consonance or dissonance between EU policy discourse and citizens' own realities. Agreement with these items may indicate lack of information, disagreement with policy or mismatch between policy and reality.

Sex, age and socio-economic status do not influence citizens' general opinions on the importance or otherwise of lifelong learning. Of respondents in the EU as a whole, 88% reject the assertion 'lifelong learning is not at all important'. A high proportion of respondents also judge 'learning to learn' skills as very useful, which supports this overall finding.

Variations between countries do exist (see Table 49 in Annex 2). The Germans and the Icelanders are almost unanimous about the importance of lifelong learning: 95% reject the statement 'lifelong learning is not at all important'. Greece is situated at the other extreme, with 21% of citizens stating lifelong

learning is not important. Citizens in Austria, Belgium, Ireland and Norway are also more sceptical than average – with over 20% of respondents saying lifelong learning is not important or do not know.

However, the fact that people think lifelong learning is important does not mean they are ready to engage in lifelong learning. The 1995 Eurobarometer survey on lifelong learning (*Europeans and their attitudes to education and training*, 1997) asked whether respondents would personally like to be able to learn or receive training throughout their life.

Neither the 1995 data nor those from the current survey suggest a clear relationship between people's opinion about the importance of lifelong learning and the readiness to engage in lifelong learning. The Greeks, who have a relatively negative opinion of the importance of lifelong learning compared to the average EU citizen, saw themselves relatively keen to learn throughout their life in 1995. The reverse is true in Germany: a higher proportion of respondents think lifelong learning is important but fewer are ready to engage in lifelong learning themselves. The Belgians and Austrians tend to respond negatively on both counts.

The findings from the current survey on reasons for participation in education and training (see Chapter 3) show almost all citizens support mixed purposes for lifelong learning. A slightly higher proportion think lifelong learning serves non-work-related purposes in the first instance. Citizens tend to think lifelong learning is useful to achieve both non-work-related and work-related purposes. Overall in the EU, 96% support the contribution of lifelong learning to non-work-related objectives ([41]) and almost all of these respondents also agree that lifelong learning is also useful to meet work-related objectives ([42]). In the EU as a whole, percentages range from 77% for 'helping to avoid unemployment' to 89% for 'helping to improve job and career prospects'. These findings all support the approach towards implementing lifelong learning adopted at European level.

Compared to the EU average, Greeks are more likely to see lifelong learning as serving a wide range of objectives – contrary to the Dutch (see Table 50 in Annex 2). The highly educated are more likely to agree with all purposes of lifelong learning and especially with the fact that lifelong learning is important for personal development (93% for Group 1 respondents; 78% for Group 2). Apart from this, few differences are observed by age, sex or socio-economic status.

([41]) This category regroups the respondents who have selected at least one of the following items: lifelong learning is important in order to live a full and satisfying life, to improve the lives of disadvantaged people, to take their lives into their own hands and it helps people to cope with rapid changes in society.

([42]) This category includes the respondents who have selected at least one of the following items: lifelong learning helps people to avoid unemployment, to improve job and career prospects and it is important because these days no one can expect to do the same things throughout their working life.

Older citizens and those with a lower level of education are more likely to confuse lifelong learning with initial education and training or second-chance education. Overall, most EU citizens think lifelong learning is for everyone, but it is however interesting to note that 45% also link lifelong learning to second-chance education, 23% to adult education and continuing training and 14% to initial education and training.

Denmark, Finland, France, Iceland, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom are the countries with the largest proportion of citizens agreeing that lifelong learning is for everyone. The Germans and the Spanish ([43]) are more likely to associate lifelong learning with adult education/continuing training – contrary to the Dutch, Icelanders and Swedes. And Belgians, Greeks, the Irish and Portuguese are more likely to associate lifelong learning with initial education – as opposed to the Danes, Icelanders and Swedes (see Table 51 in Annex 2). This is also true for the retired and especially those with low education/qualification levels (22% for Group 3 compared with 8% for Group 1).

The largest variations are observed for lifelong learning as compensatory education, that is, 'for those who did not do well at school'. Citizens from Greece, Spain and Luxembourg are more likely to take this view – as opposed to those from Denmark, Iceland and the Netherlands (see Table 51 in Annex 2). Older people and the low educated are also more likely to agree. Those respondent groups that demonstrate a restricted view of what lifelong learning means are also more prominent among those who do not participate in education and training (see Chapter 3).

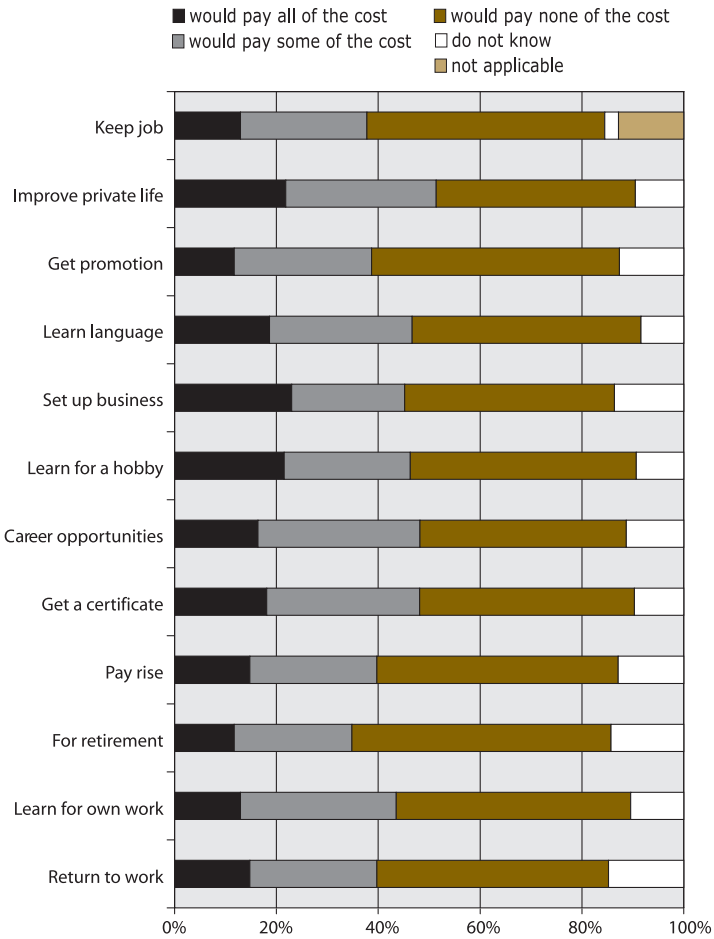
4.2. Citizens and financing lifelong learning

Initial analysis of the lifelong learning Eurobarometer (Cedefop, 2003) showed clearly that European citizens are divided on whether they are prepared or not to pay something towards the cost of their learning. Figure 29 overleaf and Table 52 (in Annex 2) show that for each learning purpose included in the relevant question, the proportions of EU citizens who are ready to pay some or all of the cost and of those who are reluctant to pay for anything are almost equivalent. EU citizens are more reluctant to pay for education and training that would help them keep their present jobs, obtain a promotion, have a pay rise or reintegrate into the labour market. On the other hand, they are more likely to finance learning that would increase their job and career opportunities or obtain a certificate. Why the former work as negative incentives and the latter as positive incentives would require further investigation.

([43]) The large deviation of Spain compared to the EU average is due to different wording in the Spanish version of the questionnaire compared to the original version.

Learning to support moving into self-employment attracts the highest proportion (23%) of those prepared to pay all the costs involved. Learning to support improving private life draws the highest level (51%) of agreement to pay at least some and perhaps all of the cost. The reverse, however, is the case for learning to prepare for retirement.

Figure 29: **Respondents' willingness to pay for education and training, by purpose, EU15, %**



This matches the findings from the 1995 lifelong learning Eurobarometer (*Europeans and their attitudes to education and training*, 1997), which provide some additional information. This survey asked respondents to indicate which of the State, the regions, the municipality, companies and the learners should pay for continuing education and training courses; multiple replies were possible. Two thirds (66%) of EU citizens said the State should be involved; 44% thought

companies should contribute money, while 29% replied that participants in continuing education and training courses should contribute. When asked whether they would personally be prepared to pay part of the cost of continuing education or training courses, half of EU citizens (52%) replied affirmatively. The findings from the two surveys held in 1995 and 2003 suggest citizens' support for co-financing arrangements has remained unchanged.

The current Eurobarometer survey also shows citizens' readiness to contribute towards the cost of their learning does not vary according to whether its purpose is work-related or not. In the EU as a whole, 21% of the people surveyed would not pay for any work-related purpose and 20% would not pay for any non-work-related purpose; 39% would not finance all the costs for any work-related purpose and 42% would not pay all the costs for any non-work-related purpose. This applies also to individual countries: the largest differences found in Denmark, Italy and Sweden do not exceed six or seven percentage points.

However, large country variations appear for the readiness to pay for anything at all. In general, Southern European citizens are less keen to pay than their Nordic counterparts. This is especially true for education and training that prepares them for a better private life, to gain new knowledge for a hobby and to open up job and career prospects. It is less so for learning that helps to acquire new knowledge in one's work field.

The Belgians, Spanish, French and Portuguese are the least keen to pay for their education and training, whereas the Danish, Icelanders and Luxembourgers are most prepared to contribute money to their learning for a number of purposes (see Tables 53 and 54 in Annex 2).

These results can be compared with those from the earlier survey in 1995, where respondents were asked whether they would personally be prepared to pay part of the costs of their continuing education and training courses. The proportion of EU respondents who are reluctant to pay is very similar in both the 1995 and 2003 surveys, but the proportion of those who are willing to pay tended to be higher in 1995 ([44]). Belgium, France and Portugal were then also among the countries with the highest rates of citizens reluctant to pay even part of the cost – but Spain was closer to the EU average. The relative position of the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom compared to the EU average was higher in 1995, lower in Luxembourg.

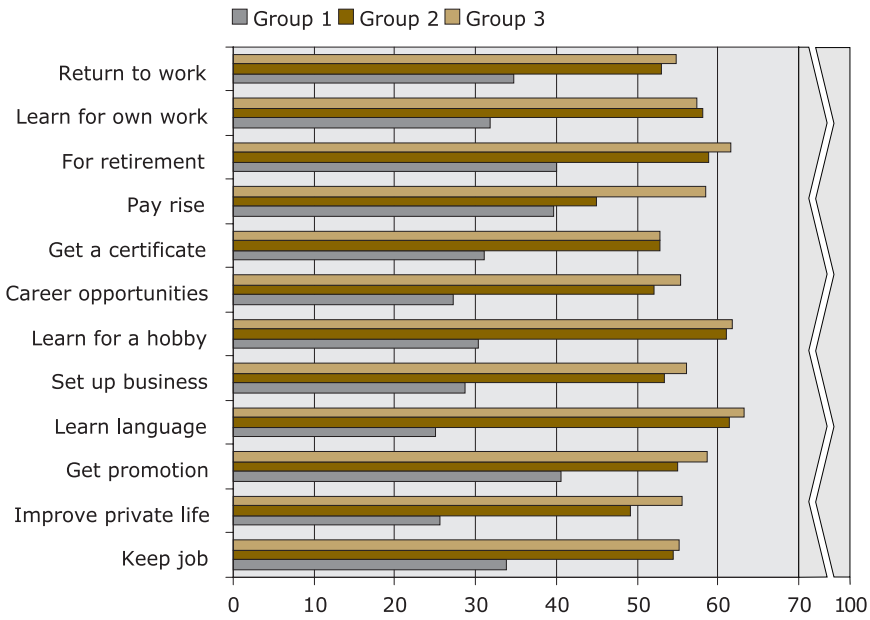
As expected, age and socio-economic status have an impact on the readiness to pay for one's own education and training. Those aged 55-59 are more reluctant to contribute than the 25-29 age group, whatever the purpose and including to prepare for retirement. Differences are particularly striking for setting

([44]) The questions were however not the same. It is possible people are less likely to say they are ready to contribute when they are asked about a range of concrete circumstances, as is the case for the 2003 survey.

up one's own business, obtaining some certification, opening up career opportunities and reintegrating into the labour market (see Table 55 in Annex 2). Those with a lower income are the least ready to contribute to the cost of their education and training, whatever the purpose. (see Table 56 in Annex 2). Figure 30 below shows the majority of Group 3 respondents (the low educated and labour market inactive) are reluctant to finance any type of education and training. The picture is similar for Group 2 (the low educated with a low-level job), but Group 1 respondents (the highly educated with a high-level job) are rather more willing to contribute to the costs of their learning.

Differences by socio-economic status are less marked for work-related than for non-work-related purposes. This suggests those already predisposed (by their own experience and by the values of their social environment) to see the value of education and training will be more likely to think it is worth paying for it – and, of course, also more likely to have the money available to consider doing so. It is not surprising that those who are more likely to say they will not pay for education and training are also more likely to be non-participants and to be demotivated learners (see Chapter 3).

Figure 30: **Proportion of respondents not willing to contribute towards the cost of their education and training, by purpose and socio-economic group, EU15, %**



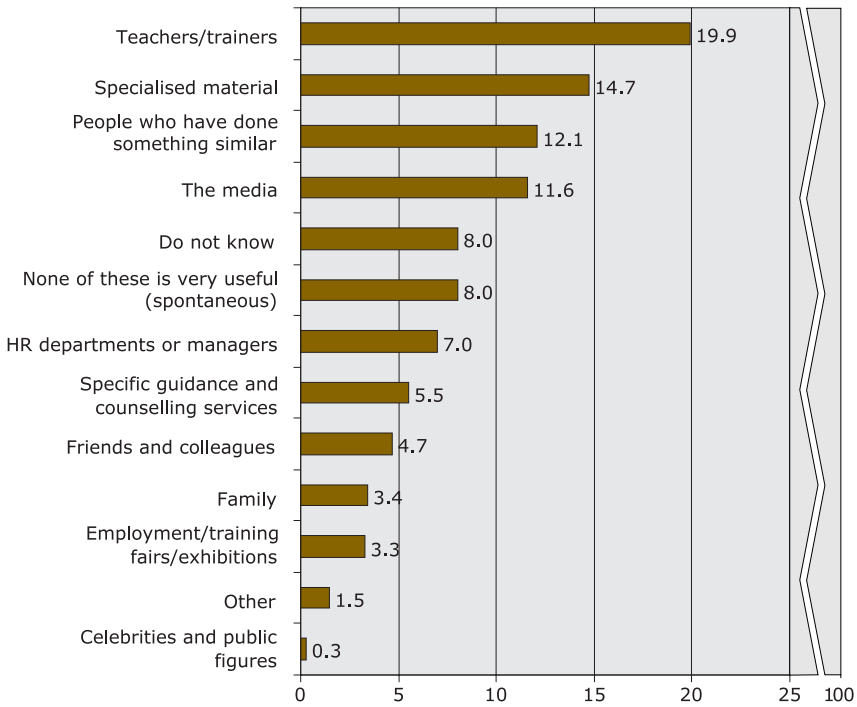
Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

4.3. Citizens and guidance and counselling

In the survey question about possible incentives to respondents' future participation in education and training, one response category was 'having access to good quality information and advice tailored to my needs'. In the EU as a whole, 14% selected this item – more in Finland and Sweden (20%) and fewer in Belgium and the Netherlands (9%; see Chapter 3).

The survey also included a question on guidance and counselling. Respondents selected one item from a list of possible useful sources of information to improve learning and career prospects. One citizen in five thinks teachers and trainers are the main source of guidance and counselling. Only 6% of respondents in the EU as a whole mentioned career advisors and employment counsellors as the most useful source of information to improve learning and career prospects – similarly, only 7% selected work-based contacts (as shown in Figure 31 below). The most frequently mentioned sources are hence teachers and trainers (20%), specialised material (15%), people having done something similar and the media (12% each). A significant proportion reply that none of the listed sources is particularly useful (8%) or that they do not know (8%).

Figure 31: **Respondents' views on the most useful sources of information to improve learning and career prospects, EU15, %**



Nordic respondents are more likely to rate any guidance and counselling source as useful in general – but Southern citizens are more likely to select teachers and trainers as well as family as a useful source of information for education or employment.

The Spaniards are even more likely than citizens from other countries to mention teachers and trainers as the most important source of guidance and counselling; so are the Icelanders for specialised material and the Dutch and the Austrians for work-based contacts (see Table 57 in Annex 2). The Belgians and the French are more likely to reply spontaneously that none of the sources from the list are very useful.

Citizens' views depend on their personal and social situations. People with very different socio-demographic characteristics (if less so for those aged 55+) select teachers and trainers. However, those in paid work are more likely to mention work-based contacts, people with a higher level of education are more attracted to specialised material and those with a lower level of education together with the labour market inactive are more likely to select the media. Younger respondents are more likely to rate any guidance and counselling source as useful in general; in addition to their preference for the media, those aged 55-59 are more likely to give replies suggesting their lack of interest and demotivation.

Arrangements for guidance and counselling services vary considerably between countries. Formalised public services were established earlier in northern Europe, and are typically still more extensive and differentiated in scope and style, than in southern Europe. Countries also differ to the extent that vocational guidance and counselling is provided in education and training establishments or in separate agencies, and whether these services are provided by specialised professionals or as part of the responsibilities of teachers and trainers. Traditionally, howsoever provided, such services have been designed for and tailored more closely to the perceived needs and demands of young people making initial transitions between education, training and the labour market than for adults. They have also focused more directly on education, training and employment issues than setting these into a more holistic framework of life planning. In addition, informal sources of information and advice remain important resources, especially in southern European countries and for some social groups. The improvement of guidance and counselling services in general and for adults in particular is a key element of European-level policy to make lifelong learning a reality for all, and much is presently underway in this area (see Sultana, 2004 for a review).

This complicated pattern helps to explain the rather scattered quality of the responses to the lifelong learning Eurobarometer question on sources of information to improve learning and career prospects. It is certainly

noteworthy that far more respondents selected teachers and trainers rather than career advisors or employment counsellors, but it is quite possible this difference in part does reflect the patchwork of different kinds of provision across Europe as a whole. Further, responses hint once more at the features of the active learning citizen, with the highly educated more likely to select specialised material (which they would have to seek out, either directly or by using relevant services) and the low educated more likely to select the media as a source of information (which does not necessarily require a proactive stance). Finally, younger respondents seem to be more proactive than older citizens on seeking information and advice, certainly for education and employment. This is perfectly logical, but if Europe's general labour force activity rates must rise in the coming years, then older workers are a vital part of reaching this goal, given the overall demographic transition to an ageing European population.

4.4. Citizens and mobility

The lifelong learning Eurobarometer addressed mobility in two different ways. First, a special question asked respondents to indicate the changes that had taken place – if any – in the two years preceding the survey as far as their work situation was concerned. We wanted to know the extent and nature of movements in and out of the labour market, but also movements within it. It was possible that individual respondents could have experienced more than one kind of change during this period; the question therefore permitted multiple responses. Second, respondents could indicate whether they had recently learned, or might in future like to learn, through secondments or exchanges to other organisations and through training, studying or travelling abroad. This second dimension of mobility is explored in detail in Chapter 2.

On labour market related movements, the changes that have most affected EU citizens in the past two years are becoming full-time carers (12%), starting education and training (15%) and changes in professional life (10% changed careers and 12% changed employers; see Figure 32 below).

Figure 32: **Proportions of respondents having changed their main activity in the preceding two years, %**

As expected, women and all those aged 25-39 are more likely to say they have started to look after someone (e.g. children, elderly or sick people) full-time. Although they constitute a significant share of the full-time homemakers included in the survey, other occupations do experience this change as well. Respondents aged 15-24 are more likely to say they have started education and training within the last two years. This is also true in particular for the unemployed, with few differences between males and females (see Table 58 in Annex 2).

Unsurprisingly, work mobility especially affects white-collar employees and manual workers between 25 and 40 years of age. All categories of occupations are likely to experience changes: employees, unemployed people and manual workers are more likely to change employers, whereas managers are more likely to have been promoted in the past two years. Males are more likely to be promoted, but otherwise there are few gender differences (see Table 58 in Annex 2).

Interestingly, however, noticeable differences arise between countries and occupations in experiencing geographical mobility for learning purposes. Chapter 2 shows the small percentage of those who have experienced geographical mobility as a learning experience in the past 12 months. Citizens from Luxembourg and Sweden are more likely to say they have learned something while travelling or experiencing a period of life abroad – and those from Greece and Portugal are less likely to say this. Students and managers and to a lesser extent self-employed people are also more likely

to think they have learned something in that context. They probably do have more opportunities to experience living abroad or travelling but they might also be more likely than other groups to identify these as learning experiences.

4.5. Citizens and foreign languages

Chapter 1 (especially Sections 1.2.1., 1.2.3. and 1.3.2.) deals with this topic in depth. In this section, the lifelong learning Eurobarometer findings are placed against those from the special Eurobarometer on languages (International Research Associates, 2001).

The lifelong learning Eurobarometer findings show citizens from Denmark, Greece and especially Iceland and Luxembourg are more likely to think language skills are very useful – as opposed to those from Ireland, Portugal or the United Kingdom. The values are however generally lower than those recorded in the special Eurobarometer on languages, where people were asked whether they thought foreign language skills were 'rather useful' or 'very useful' to them ([45]). The relative positions of the countries compared to the EU average do not differ much in the two surveys – however, position differences are noticeable for Germany, Italy, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom ([46]). In the language survey, 71% of the EU respondents said everybody should be able to speak at least one EU language in addition to their mother tongue.

The lifelong learning Eurobarometer question on financing (see also Section 4.2.) provides additional information. It shows that, as opposed to citizens from the United Kingdom, the Danish, Finns, Greeks, Italians, Norwegians and Swedes are more prepared to contribute at least some money for studies that would help them learn a new language. Figure 29 (see Section 4.2. above) also shows those with a lower socio-economic status are more reluctant to finance learning a new language.

On the basis of response to this Eurobarometer, 58% of EU citizens think

([45]) The significant differences are partly due to the differences in the question: the aggregation of the answers 'rather useful' and 'very useful' in 2000 versus the focus on 'very useful' and the subdivision into both life spheres in 2003. The fact that the special Eurobarometer from 2000 was focused on languages whereas they were part of a wider list of skills in 2003 is another possible source of discrepancy. See also Table 59 in Annex 2.

([46]) The rate for Germany was lower than the EU average in the special Eurobarometer on languages whereas it is close to the EU average in the lifelong learning survey; in Italy, the percentage was close to the EU average in the special Eurobarometer on languages and it is relatively higher in the lifelong learning survey; in Austria, the rate was relatively lower in the special Eurobarometer on languages and it is relatively higher in the lifelong learning survey; in Portugal and the United Kingdom, rates were close to the EU average in the special Eurobarometer on languages and they are relatively lower in the lifelong learning survey.

they do not possess foreign language skills (see Table 12 in Annex 2). The Spanish, Irish, Portuguese and citizens from the United Kingdom are more likely to think this. Conversely, the Danish, Icelanders, Luxembourgers and Swedes are more likely to think they can use foreign languages. For its part the special Eurobarometer on languages asked respondents to assess their linguistic competences as basic, good or very good. On average, 16% rated their language competences as 'very good', 35% as 'good' and 41% as 'basic', so these data match those from the lifelong learning Eurobarometer. Those who were more likely to say their language skills were basic came from Spain, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Finland and the United Kingdom. Over one third of Luxembourgers thought they have a very good level and almost all Swedes rated their language skills as good.

These findings suggest promotion of language learning and its benefits remains an important policy issue, particularly for some countries and among some population groups.

4.6. Citizens and new information and communication technologies

The lifelong learning Eurobarometer asked respondents what they think to have been the most important learning opportunities to have come about in recent years, whether they think ICT skills are useful in their lives and whether they actually possess these skills. The findings are presented in depth in Chapters 1 and 2. Here, they are placed against those from special Eurobarometer surveys on ICT (European Commission, 2002) and the information society (European Opinion Research Group, 2001).

It is no surprise to find information and communication technologies (ICT) as the most important learning opportunity (selected by 43%) to have come about in the past five years – especially as respondents were allowed only one answer to the question – far ahead of any other. Most respondents taking this view also think ICT is very useful in private life and in work life (respectively 69% and 77%).

The findings also clearly depict that country of residence, sex, age and educational level exert an impact on respondent self-evaluation of their proficiency and usefulness ratings for ICT tools. The Danish, Dutch, Icelandic and Luxembourgers are more likely to think they are useful both in the private and public spheres. This does not hold for the Portuguese. Citizens from Sweden and the United Kingdom are more likely to think they are useful in the private sphere – contrary to the Spanish and the French. Tables 60 and 61 (in Annex 2), taken together, compare these findings with responses to a similar

question in the ICT Eurobarometer. At EU level, the proportions of people who think using a computer in the private sphere is very similar: the absolute values are quite different in several countries but the country pattern remains quite similar in most cases. The share of those giving importance to ICT skills in the work sphere was much higher and the range of values was much smaller in the 2000 ICT survey ([47]).

The lifelong learning Eurobarometer findings show six EU citizens in 10 think they can use a computer – more in Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, Iceland and Norway and fewer in Greece, Spain and Portugal. These data are compatible with the proportions of people who said they used a computer either for work (including at home for work-related reasons), at home (for reasons other than work-related) or in the framework of their study (at school or university) in the ICT Eurobarometer. Table 61 in Annex 2 shows the percentage of people (both at EU and country levels) who actually use a computer is lower than the share of those who think they can, which is logical. The ranking of countries is once more very similar between the two surveys ([48]).

Finally, half of EU citizens think they can use the Internet and half think they cannot. People are more likely to think they have this skill in Finland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Norway and especially in Denmark, Iceland and Sweden – contrary to those from Greece and Portugal. Again, the data are consistent with the ICT Eurobarometer (see Table 62 in Annex 2). Fewer people said they used the Internet than those who say they can and the ranking of countries is very similar.

According to both surveys, males, younger people and those with a higher education level are more likely to say they can use a computer and the Internet. All these findings serve to underline the plausibility of the data patterns emerging from the lifelong learning Eurobarometer survey and strongly underscore the conclusions drawn in Chapter 1 on the need to address the digital skills gap in Europe.

([47]) This can be explained at least partly because of a different wording of the question: work was addressed directly in the question and ‘important’ was opposed to ‘not important’ in the Eurobarometer 54.0 whereas in Eurobarometer 59.0, the wording was deliberately vaguer ‘outside family/private life’ to allow people to include non-paid work and activities and study. More research would be needed to interpret these wide gaps.

([48]) The lifelong learning Eurobarometer findings show Luxembourg in a more favourable position, Finland in a less favourable position.

Annex 1: Methodological and technical information

Country codes

Country code	Country name	Country code	Country name
B	Belgium	NL	Netherlands
DK	Denmark	A	Austria
D	Germany	P	Portugal
EL	Greece	FIN	Finland
E	Spain	S	Sweden
F	France	UK	United Kingdom
IRL	Ireland	IS	Iceland
I	Italy	N	Norway
L	Luxembourg		

Abbreviations

CVTS	Continuing vocational training survey
CVT/CVET	Continuing vocational training/continuing vocational education and training
EEA	European Economic Area
EU	European Union
EU15	European Union average (based on the pre-2004 15 Member States)
EU15+2	European Union average + Iceland and Norway
IALS	International adult literacy survey
ICT	Information and communication technologies
ISCED	International standard classification for education
LFS	Labour force survey
n.a.	Not applicable
NUTS	Nomenclature des unités territoriales statistiques Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics
ODL	Open and distance learning
PISA	Programme for international student assessment
SES	Socio-economic status
VET	Vocational education and training
-	nil

Questionnaire description

The questionnaire was developed in English by Cedefop in cooperation with the Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) and the European Opinion Research Group (EORG), working on behalf of the Directorate General for Press and Communication (DG Press).

Following the Eurobarometer survey requirements, the questions were worded in a specific format. All questions were therefore closed. In addition to multiple-choice questions, where respondents were asked to give either one or up to three answers, there were questions in which interviewees had to give an opinion on a list of statements or answer items.

When wording the questions, attention was paid to expressing concepts simply, so all respondents could understand the words used and that these are relevant in different life situations, as far as possible.

The questionnaire was composed of 15 questions on citizens' opinions, experiences and attitudes to learning. These questions were developed around five thematic modules:

(a) general opinion on learning and additional background information;
(b) learning preferences in setting, method and social context;
(c) past education and training experience;
(d) future participation intentions;
(e) policy-relevant issues.

It was designed so links could be made between different questions. Some issues were repeated to reduce the effect of biases linked to these types of surveys. When interpreting the data, users of Eurobarometer data should be aware of such issues - for example, giving socially desirable answers.

Annex 3 reproduces the questionnaire. It can also be accessed in English from the DG Press website at

http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/index.htm.

Other language versions are available on request from

http://www.gesis.org/en/data_service/eurobarometer/staff/inra.htm.

Survey description

The questionnaire on lifelong learning was integrated into wave 59.0 of the standard Eurobarometer survey, which was conducted by EORG in early 2003 in the 15 Member States of the European Union and in Iceland and Norway. It covered residents aged 15 years and over holding EU citizenship, as well as Icelanders and Norwegians. Further information on Eurobarometer surveys and fieldwork methods are available at

http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/eb_special.htm and *http://www.gesis.org/en/data_service/eurobarometer/staff/inra.htm*.

The survey population sample is representative of the population aged 15+ for age, gender, NUTS2 region and urbanisation size. Further information is available from

http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/ramon/nuts/splash_regions.html.

The survey comprised 18 007 face-to-face (in Iceland, telephone) interviews carried out in people's homes in the national language relevant to the person concerned; 16 370 were carried out in the European Union, the rest in Iceland and Norway. The average number of respondents in each country was 1 000, except in Germany (2 144 interviews), the United Kingdom (1 439), Luxembourg (615) and Iceland (628).

A multistage, random (probability) sample design is applied in each country. Several 'sampling points' are drawn with probability proportional to the population size and density. To do so, the sampling points are drawn systematically from each of the 'administrative regional units', after stratification by individual unit and type of area.

In each country, the sample is compared to the universe (as shown in the last column of the table below, based on Eurostat population data). A weighting procedure was applied to each country, i.e. each individual is given a particular weight within the country. A further weighting procedure was applied to calculate the EU average, i.e. each country receives a particular weight within the EU. For this Eurobarometer, an additional weighting procedure was applied to calculate the average based on the total number of countries, including Norway and Iceland. All the data provided are weighted percentages. The raw data tables are available from

http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/index.htm.

Names of the organisations which conducted the survey in each country, number of interviews and size of the population aged 15 and over per country

Samples	National institutes which conducted the survey	Number of interviews conducted in each sample	Population 15 + or universe (in thousands)
Belgium	INRA in Belgium	1 073	8 326
Denmark	GfK Danmark	1 000	4 338
Germany (East)	INRA Deutschland	1 109	13 028
Germany (West)	INRA Deutschland	1 062	55 782
Greece	Market analysis	1 001	8 793
Spain	INRA Espana	1 000	33 024
France	CSA-TMO	1 039	46 945
Ireland	Lansdowne Market Research	1 007	2 980
Italy	INRA Demoskopea	1 006	49 017
Luxembourg	ILRes	615	364
Netherlands	Intomart	1 002	12 705
Austria	SPECTRA	1 022	6 668
Portugal	METRIS	1 000	8 217
Finland	MDC Marketing Research	1 018	4 165
Sweden	GfK Sverige	1 000	7 183
Great Britain	Martin Hamblin Ltd	1 109	46 077
Northern Ireland	Ulster marketing surveys	307	1 273
Total for EU countries		16 370	308 885
Iceland	IBM Business Consulting Services	628	252
Norway	MMI	1 009	3 504
Total for all countries		18 007	312 641

Methodological notes relevant to this publication

Unless specified otherwise, the data shown in the text refer to percentages calculated on the basis of the total number of EU respondents.

For each question, the category 'do not know' was considered as an answer and not excluded. In the case of multiple-choice questions, respondents could select more than one category; in these cases, the figures do not add up to 100%.

All percentages shown are weighted percentages. All percentages have been rounded to one decimal after the point in all tables and to the unit in texts; therefore, they may not add up to exactly 100%. To allow for comparison, the data for EU15, which serves as a reference in most cases, are provided in each country table. Socio-demographic variables are also based on EU15 data. For the comparisons made between Nordic and Southern European respondents, the reference population is EU15+2.

Readers should bear in mind that the accuracy of the results depends on the sample size and the observed percentage. For a sample of around 1 000 interviews, the real percentage is situated within the following confidence limits:

Observed percentages	10% or 90%	20% or 80%	30% or 70%	40% or 60%	50%
Confidence limits	± 1.9%	± 2.5%	± 2.7%	± 3.0%	± 3.1%

Because of the small sample size within each country, it is not possible to make very detailed country analyses, e.g. to cross-tabulate country, age and level of education at the same time. To guarantee a reliable analysis, it was decided not to look into categories with fewer than 500 respondents. This is also the reason why NUTS2 regional breakdowns have not been included in this analysis.

In all standard Eurobarometer surveys, the following socio-demographic data are collected on a standard basis: sex, age, civil status, political opinion (left-right scale), age when finishing full-time education and training, source of household income, range of income, current and last occupation and size of residential community. This analysis focuses mainly on sex, age, level of education and occupation.

Eurobarometer categories use four age-groups: 15-24, 25-39, 40-54 and 55+. Eurobarometer categories do not correspond to ISCED levels of education, but are based instead on the question 'How old were you when you stopped full-time education?' Answers are allocated to one of four categories: up to 15 years old; between 16-19 years old; at age 20 or older and those still

studying. Respondents are also allocated to one of the following occupational categories: self-employed, managers, other white collar employees, manual workers, full-time homemakers, unemployed and retired. The retired include not only those retiring in the usual way on age grounds, but also those retiring early on health grounds.

This analysis uses some additional categories. This is the case for age groups, where some breakdowns contrast those aged 25-29 with those aged 55-59. Education and occupation were also combined to produce an SES proxy that enables breakdowns to contrast three groups:

Group 1 highly educated people with a high-level job
= respondents aged 20+ when they completed full-time education AND working in one of the following occupations: employed or free-lance liberal professionals (e.g. lawyers, medical practitioners, accountants, architects), business or company owners, people working at top (e.g. managing director, director general) or middle management (including department head, junior manager and teacher).

Group 2 the low educated with a low-level job
= respondents who had left full-time education by the age of 15 AND working in one of the following occupations: skilled or unskilled manual workers and servants

Group 3 the low educated who are not labour market active
= respondents who had left full-time education by the age of 15 AND do not currently have paid work, that is, they are unemployed or temporarily not working or are full-time homemakers. This group does not include the retired.

The original intention had been to include two further groups in the analysis: highly educated people working in low-level jobs, and those with low education working in high-level jobs. Predictably, respondents in both categories are rare. The Eurobarometer sample is too small to yield groups of sufficient size for a reliable analysis.

Eurobarometer translations are of high quality; however, some ideas cannot be translated exactly as intended into all the languages used for the survey. Therefore, when comparing the results by country, it is always advisable to check for slight meaning alterations - especially when the values for that particular country depart greatly from the most commonly observed pattern.

Annex 2: Additional tables

Note: In the tables, lines in italics indicate aggregated categories, and those in plain text are taken directly from the questionnaire response categories.

Table 1: **Proportion of respondents considering intercultural skills very useful in public life and in private life, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
In public life																		
Using foreign languages	61.1	69.7	78.5	57.3	85.2	58.4	55.6	48.3	78.6	96.4	76.0	68.0	47.2	67.6	68.8	46.0	92.2	59.7
Getting on with people from different cultures/ countries	74.1	77.6	86.8	69.1	89.4	61.0	73.6	77.2	77.4	92.1	80.4	71.3	65.2	79.8	84.6	80.3	91.7	71.1
Cooperating with other people	89.3	91.1	97.2	86.4	96.5	84.8	89.4	92.7	88.4	95.7	93.5	82.7	84.4	95.9	93.8	94.3	96.5	83.7
In private life																		
Using foreign languages	44.4	58.3	69.2	43.4	67.1	31.5	41.2	36.3	52.6	94.4	58.6	55.4	38.2	53.1	63.7	33.4	87.9	57.2
Getting on with people from different cultures/ countries	61.0	68.5	80.4	55.9	73.3	36.6	63.4	63.9	57.6	91.6	67.0	58.4	55.2	68.9	77.1	76.1	86.8	70.5
Cooperating with other people	82.4	85.8	96.7	76.4	90.8	70.5	82.0	91.0	79.6	94.4	90.5	73.7	76.9	94.0	95.5	95.2	96.8	93.7

Table 2: **Proportion of respondents considering ICT skills very useful, by educational level, %**

	Age at which full-time education ceased			
	by 15	**16-19**	**20+**	**still studying**
Using a computer	26.6	53.0	68.3	84.4
Using the Internet	20.1	43.0	57.8	76.2

Table 3: **Proportion of respondents considering intercultural skills very useful, by age, %**

	Age group			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	50+
Using foreign languages	52.5	41.2	39.1	33.3
Getting on with people from different cultures/countries	65.0	57.5	58.4	50.4
Cooperating with other people	85.1	82.5	82.2	69.4

Table 4: **Proportion of respondents considering intercultural skills very useful, by educational level, %**

	Age at which full-time education ceased			
	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
Using foreign languages	25.2	36.8	54.8	61.7
Getting on with people from different cultures/countries	44.1	56.3	67.0	69.9
Cooperating with other people	67.8	80.7	85.0	85.5

Table 5: **Proportion of respondents considering scientific/technological skills very useful, by age, %**

	Age group			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	50+
Using scientific/technological tools and equipment	41.6	37.8	37.2	21.4

Table 6: **Proportion of respondents considering scientific/technological skills very useful, by educational level, %**

	Age at which full-time education ceased			
	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
Using scientific/technological tools and equipment	20.8	33.7	41.7	44.2

Table 7: **Proportion of respondents considering social skills very useful, %**

	In public life	In private life	In both life spheres
Ability to express oneself well	92.2	88.9	85.4
Ability to assess situations and solve problems	88.8	88.2	82.8
Ability to take initiative	87.7	86.8	81.6
Organisational skills	85.2	82.5	76.9
Ability to manage people	66.3	53.7	48.5
Knowing how to learn	87.6	84.8	80.9

Table 8: **Self-reports on possession of general knowledge and the capacity to prove its possession, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
I have general knowledge	88.4	88.9	95.6	89.1	82.8	90.5	88.0	91.0	83.7	94.2	95.3	85.3	59.6	79.8	93.9	94.2	92.5	85.3
… and I can produce concrete evidence *	82.1	76.8	74.5	86.2	66.9	83.6	87.1	65.4	92.7	92.8	84.6	70.6	66.6	82.7	81.1	69.7	97.6	74.3
I do not have general knowledge	8.4	8.6	3.1	5.1	16.3	8.4	9.0	6.8	13.8	3.0	3.2	8.5	35.4	14.7	3.0	3.9	3.0	8.0
I do not know	3.2	2.5	1.3	5.8	0.9	1.1	3.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	1.4	6.2	5.0	5.5	3.1	1.9	4.5	6.7

*These percentages refer to the proportion of respondents reporting possession of the skill in question.

Table 9: **Proportion of respondents self-reporting possession of social skills together with the capacity to prove their possession, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Expressing oneself well	79.3	73.9	69.4	83.0	65.6	76.0	89.1	58.8	93.3	92.3	62.9	50.7	60.4	80.9	81.7	68.4	96.1	66.0
Assessing situations and solve problems	72.2	71.0	67.5	72.8	57.4	67.2	81.1	56.2	86.1	88.9	58.6	44.8	56.3	78.6	73.8	64.6	95.3	58.2
Taking initiatives	73.3	73.6	65.3	75.4	58.3	65.1	83.5	58.0	89.3	89.7	57.9	41.0	57.4	78.8	76.4	63.5	96.2	58.7
Organisational skills	75.9	74.4	67.5	78.9	59.4	66.7	84.6	61.5	89.3	89.1	63.1	48.6	59.1	79.8	77.7	68.4	97.0	59.3
Leading or managing people	75.8	76.6	68.6	79.9	54.2	61.2	83.3	64.4	88.8	89.6	65.8	56.7	64.4	80.6	80.8	69.8	96.9	65.8
Knowing how to learn	79.1	78.4	69.9	78.1	61.4	70.7	84.9	68.8	92.4	94.0	89.7	53.7	63.4	80.5	76.9	73.6	97.5	60.4

Note: These percentages refer to the proportion of respondents who say that they possess the skill in question and can show concrete evidence that this is so.

Table 10: **Self-reports on possession or lack of ICT skills, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Using a computer																		
I can use a computer	58.3	55.5	78.7	60.0	36.0	49.8	57.1	57.9	54.3	67.9	75.7	62.2	33.2	63.0	80.1	64.6	83.3	68.2
I cannot use a computer	40.6	43.1	20.9	37.6	62.8	49.6	42.4	40.6	45.0	30.4	23.8	36.7	66.6	35.8	19.2	34.8	13.9	30.4
I do not know	1.1	1.4	0.4	2.4	1.2	0.6	0.5	1.5	0.7	1.8	0.5	1.2	0.2	1.2	0.7	0.6	2.9	1.5
Using the Internet																		
I can use the Internet	49.6	46.3	74.2	51.4	27.0	43.6	45.0	52.0	46.0	59.9	68.0	55.0	24.7	59.1	76.0	55.0	79.6	59.7
I cannot use the Internet	48.7	51.5	25.0	45.5	71.2	55.7	54.1	45.5	52.3	38.1	30.9	43.4	75.2	39.2	22.7	43.7	18.0	38.0
I do not know	1.7	2.2	0.8	3.1	1.8	0.7	0.9	2.5	1.7	1.9	1.1	1.6	0.1	1.7	1.3	1.2	2.4	2.3

Table 11: **Self-reports on possession of ICT skills, by age group and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Educational level			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
Using a computer	85.7	75.0	64.0	26.3	21.3	62.6	80.4	93.9
Using the Internet	78.2	66.3	52.7	19.0	15.0	52.2	70.3	89.2

Table 12: **Proportion of respondents self-reporting the ability to use foreign languages and the capacity to prove their competence, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
I can use foreign languages	40.4	50.0	80.9	43.5	49.6	26.1	41.2	28.3	37.4	96.6	73.0	53.4	31.9	50.4	82.4	25.8	83.0	65.8
… and I can produce concrete evidence *	86.6	82.8	90.5	90.1	74.0	83.1	88.3	80.1	90.3	95.3	85.6	73.7	80.0	89.6	94.1	79.1	97.7	75.5
I cannot use foreign languages	57.5	48.9	18.2	52.6	49.6	72.9	57.6	68.7	60.1	2.9	25.9	43.5	67.9	47.5	16.7	72.8	14.0	30.4
I do not know	2.0	1.0	1.0	3.9	0.8	1.1	1.2	3.0	2.4	0.5	1.1	3.1	0.3	2.1	0.9	1.4	3.0	3.8

* These percentages refer to the proportion of respondents reporting possession of the skill in question.

Table 13: **Proportion of respondents self-reporting the ability to get on with people from different cultures/countries and the capacity to prove their competence, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
I can get on with people from different cultures/ countries	67.9	77.0	87.1	66.9	74.4	44.0	76.3	72.3	53.7	94.3	81.7	60.1	59.0	73.2	91.5	80.4	90.3	77.8
… and I can produce concrete evidence	69.9	67.6	51.6	73.1	51.1	66.5	80.4	57.4	84.3	89.9	50.0	41.9	62.3	78.8	69.4	62.2	94.7	54.7
I cannot get on with people from different cultures/ countries	25.1	17.5	5.6	20.9	21.9	50.5	19.6	16.5	39.7	2.8	13.6	30.4	34.1	17.7	4.0	15.2	2.1	14.2
I do not know	6.9	5.4	7.3	12.3	3.7	5.5	4.0	11.2	6.6	2.9	4.6	9.5	7.0	9.1	4.3	4.4	7.6	8.0

Table 14: **Respondents considering that using foreign languages or getting on with people from other cultures/countries is very useful in their lives as a whole, but reporting that they do not have these skills, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Educational level			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
It is very useful to be able to use foreign languages, but I cannot use them myself	58.6	46.9	47.4	39.8	40.9	44.9	52.1	73.8
It is very useful to be able to get on with people from other cultures/countries, but I cannot do so myself	60.2	46.2	44.1	35.5	38.9	42.9	48.2	62.9

Note: These percentages refer to the proportion of respondents reporting that they are unable to use foreign languages and with reference to their usefulness in public life (not in life as a whole).

Table 15: **Self-reports on ability to use foreign languages and get on with people from other cultures/countries, by age group and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Educational level			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
I can use foreign languages	59.8	48.5	38.1	25.6	13.6	36.9	66.1	73.7
I can get on with people from other cultures/countries	73.7	72.4	70.2	59.5	51.5	69.4	80.9	78.5

Table 16: **Respondents considering that using scientific/technological tools and equipment is very useful in the public sphere, but reporting that they do not have these skills, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Educational level			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
It is very useful to be able to use scientific/ technological tools and equipment, but I cannot do so	49.6	39.2	37.2	26.3	29.3	36.0	36.6	51.9

Note: These percentages refer to the proportion of respondents reporting that they do not possess the skill in question.

Table 17: **Proportion of respondents considering traditional skills and social skills very useful, by socio-economic group and life sphere, %**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
In public life			
Reading and writing	98.6	95.9	96.2
Doing arithmetic	97.3	92.9	90.2
General knowledge	98.3	84.8	84.2
Expressing oneself well	98.2	86.4	84.0
Assessing situations and solving problems	96.9	84.9	75.1
Taking initiative	95.4	82.4	75.6
Organisational skills	95.6	82.1	72.1
Leading or managing people	86.2	59.3	54.2
Knowing how to learn	96.1	83.5	78.0
In private life			
Reading and writing	97.6	96.7	95.8
Doing arithmetic	95.2	91.9	90.0
General knowledge	94.6	79.3	79.1
Expressing oneself well	95.9	79.0	80.6
Assessing situations and solving problems	94.8	82.9	79.5
Taking initiative	93.3	81.5	78.7
Organisational skills	91.4	73.9	72.4
Leading or managing people	69.4	45.6	39.6
Knowing how to learn	91.2	76.1	76.1

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 18: **Self-reports of the possession of traditional skills and social skills, by socio-economic group, %**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Reading and writing	99.5	98.7	98.2
Doing arithmetic	98.6	93.4	89.6
General knowledge	97.5	73.8	75.9
Expressing oneself well	95.1	74.4	73.9
Assessing situations and solving problems	95.2	75.3	71.7
Taking initiative	95.3	80.5	72.2
Organisational skills	94.9	69.9	63.4
Leading or managing people	82.9	44.7	36.8
Knowing how to learn	94.7	74.9	73.1

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 19: **Proportion of respondents considering intercultural skills very useful, by socio-economic group and life sphere, %**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
In public life			
Using foreign languages	78.7	44.5	46.7
Getting on with people from different cultures/countries	85.9	62.0	60.9
Cooperating with other people	94.4	88.6	79.2
In private life			
Using foreign languages	67.8	27.2	28.8
Getting on with people from different cultures/countries	74.1	47.7	44.7
Cooperating with other people	88.2	76.5	71.1

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 20: **Self-assessments of intercultural competence by those who think such skills are very useful, by life sphere and selected comparisons by sex, education level and macro-region, %**

'These skills are very useful in private life'	Able to use foreign languages	Able to get on with people from other cultures/countries	Able to cooperate with other people
Nordic women	61.4	76.5	95.7
Southern women	44.5	49.4	75.8
Young Nordics	65.6	76.3	95.0
Young Southerners	63.4	61.6	84.0
Highly educated Nordics	69.0	78.7	95.6
Highly educated Southerners	60.9	64.2	83.7
Low-educated Nordics	51.4	70.2	94.0
Low-educated Southerners	36.7	45.1	73.7
'These skills are very useful in public life'	Able to use foreign languages	Able to get on with people from other cultures/countries	Able to cooperate with other people
Nordic women	69.0	82.4	93.0
Southern women	68.6	70.4	85.1
Young Nordics	80.5	86.0	97.5
Young Southerners	88.9	84.5	93.2
Highly educated Nordics	74.6	84.6	94.1
Highly educated Southerners	84.8	85.3	93.1
Low-educated Nordic people	58.0	76.5	91.0
Low-educated Southerners	60.6	65.2	84.5

Note: For the purposes of Eurobarometer surveys, 'young people' means survey respondents aged 15-24.

Table 21: **Self-assessments of ICT competence by those who think such skills are very useful, by life sphere and selected comparisons by sex, education level and macro-region, %**

'These skills are very useful in private life'	Able to use a computer	Able to use the internet
Nordic women	63.7	60.6
Southern women	48.8	38.6
Young Nordics	81.6	80.8
Young Southerners	78.6	67.8
Highly educated Nordics	75.0	70.0
Highly educated Southerners	73.8	62.2
Low-educated Nordics	52.7	49.2
Low-educated Southerners	39.8	30.7
'These skills are very useful in public life'	Able to use a computer	Able to use the Internet
Nordic women	70.8	64.0
Southern women	64.7	56.7
Young Nordics	88.7	84.6
Young Southerners	92.2	87.0
Highly educated Nordics	79.1	71.2
Highly educated Southerners	86.2	79.8
Low-educated Nordics	59.4	52.4
Low-educated Southerners	57.4	49.4

Note: For the purposes of Eurobarometer surveys, 'young people' means survey respondents aged 15-24.

Table 22: **Proportion of respondents seeking the guidance and support of a teacher or trainer for their learning to update professional skills, by country, %**

EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
54.9	51.3	63.2	51.0	57.2	53.0	49.7	53.2	58.1	53.6	59.6	50.6	45.3	49.1	60.5	64.0	61.8	70.1

Note: Seeking guidance and support = those who would take courses of any kind or would seek to learn from experienced colleagues.

Table 23: **Proportion of respondents seeking the guidance and support of a teacher or trainer for their learning to update professional skills, by age and educational level, %**

Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
63.5	58.9	54.3	33.3	42.1	54.4	60.0	66.8

Note: Seeking guidance and support = those who would take courses of any kind or would seek to learn from experienced colleagues.

Table 24: **Proportion of respondents preferring to take courses of any kind for learning to update professional skills, by age and educational level, %**

Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
59.0	53.9	49.6	30.7	36.2	49.6	56.3	64.0

Table 25: **Proportion of respondents preferring different kinds of courses for learning to update professional skills, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
Courses organised at a school, college, university or training centre	39.7	25.7	20.7	13.5	14.9	21.6	28.2	49.6
Courses organised at the workplace	13.6	19.2	19.9	11.4	13.9	20.3	17.9	9.6
Courses organised elsewhere	5.7	9.1	9.0	5.8	7.5	7.8	10.2	4.9

Table 26: **Proportion of respondents preferring differing environments for learning to update professional skills, by occupational group, %**

	self-employed	managers	other white collar employees	manual workers	homemakers	unemployed	students
A working environment	42.5	43.8	55.2	52.4	15.4	32.9	31.9
A non-working environment	41.1	48.5	38.0	35.1	42.8	51.7	60.2
Learning at the workplace	28.2	29.3	39.0	37.3	9.5	17.6	13.4
Other	16.4	7.7	6.8	12.5	41.8	15.5	2.9

Table 27: **Proportion of respondents preferring learning at the workplace for updating professional skills, by country, %**

EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
26.8	27.4	27.4	28.8	29.6	23.7	22.5	18.2	31.5	26.1	31.9	32.0	23.6	33.5	19.2	24.7	10.4	23.7

Table 28: **Proportion of respondents preferring differing environments for learning to update professional skills, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
A working environment	39.1	44.4	43.6	28.8	35.5	44.7	42.9	31.9
A non-working environment	51.7	46.1	41.3	28.3	31.2	41.3	48.0	60.2
Learning at the workplace	21.4	28.8	30.3	21.9	24.8	31.0	27.4	13.4
Other	9.2	9.5	15.0	43.0	33.3	13.9	9.1	7.9

Table 29: **Proportion of respondents having learned something in different contexts in the preceding year, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
In non-formal/informal environments	90.3	85.0	95.0	88.6	93.6	89.8	92.9	86.0	94.9	93.5	92.2	78.4	83.9	97.4	97.9	87.1	97.1	90.9
Only in non-formal/informal environments	24.8	16.9	17.2	21.3	35.3	18.6	23.4	31.8	25.8	25.1	28.6	26.6	33.2	22.5	14.1	32.8	20.2	26.5
In formal environments	38.8	37.5	65.9	37.9	25.0	37.7	33.5	41.3	40.0	41.7	44.4	41.4	21.4	57.9	62.3	40.9	75.8	53.1
Only in formal environments	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.3	1.3	0.1	0.6	0.2	2.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.2	0.2	0.2

Table 30: **Proportion of respondents having learned something on a company training placement or as part of an exchange programme in the preceding year, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Yes	7.1	7.5	12.5	5.9	4.6	5.5	12.8	3.7	6.7	7.9	8.3	7.6	4.1	12.3	8.3	4.9	22.1	8.4
No	54.4	46.7	62.5	41.5	56.8	51.2	49.1	72.4	58.8	51.4	59.1	65.3	62.6	59.5	56.9	70.1	76.3	75.5
Do not know	0.7	0.3	0.4	1.3	0.2	0.6	0.3	1.1	0.5	1.1	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.7	2.2	0.4	1.1	1.2
Not applicable	37.8	45.5	24.7	51.4	38.4	42.7	37.8	22.8	34.0	39.7	32.5	26.2	33.2	27.5	32.6	24.6	0.5	14.9

Table 31: **Proportion of respondents having learned something on a company training placement or as part of an exchange programme in the preceding year, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
Yes	20.5	8.0	5.6	1.0	1.2	5.3	9.6	26.1
No	48.1	58.6	58.8	51.3	53.7	57.4	54.7	43.0
Do not know	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	1.1	0.4
Not applicable	30.9	32.5	35.9	47.1	44.4	36.8	34.6	30.5

Table 32: **Looking for information on something that attracts one's interest as the best opportunity to learn new things, by age and life sphere, %**

	Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
In private life	32.6	30.8	29.2	18.8	13.8	28.5	35.2	37.0
In public life	31.6	25.5	24.5	15.9	12.4	22.8	31.1	36.7

Table 33: **The single most important learning opportunity to have come about in the past five years: respondents' views, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
New technologies such as the Internet, CD-ROM	43.2	52.8	51.2	39.0	45.4	29.9	44.4	32.4	46.7	56.7	59.8	37.2	38.1	32.8	49.0	48.2	52.9	43.3
New TV channels	2.2	1.6	1.4	1.4	2.5	2.2	2.9	6.1	1.1	1.2	3.0	2.7	2.6	1.7	2.6	3.4	2.9	2.6
More opportunities in the workplace	9.1	5.1	8.9	15.0	8.8	8.2	8.1	8.8	7.3	7.5	5.2	9.8	6.1	12.5	5.1	6.7	4.1	9.7
Easier access to courses at schools, colleges, universities and training centres	10.3	7.8	6.7	10.6	7.8	6.6	9.9	17.5	8.6	8.0	3.0	16.0	11.1	11.3	13.3	15.4	12.1	16.7
Courses on new subjects	3.4	3.8	1.9	3.8	4.2	4.8	1.8	6.2	3.5	7.5	2.9	3.6	3.5	13.3	2.0	2.3	1.0	1.4
New places to learn (Internet cafes, libraries, etc.)	2.5	3.1	2.3	1.7	2.3	2.7	1.9	2.4	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.4	1.4	5.6	2.5	1.1
New teaching/learning methods (where the learner are more active)	5.1	4.1	6.6	6.0	3.7	3.8	6.2	4.8	5.8	5.1	5.1	4.0	4.9	7.8	8.3	2.9	3.5	6.7
Internet chat rooms, inter-cultural exchange or other forms of sharing knowledge	1.9	1.9	1.1	3.1	1.1	1.1	2.7	0.8	1.0	1.6	4.3	2.3	2.2	1.2	0.4	0.9	0.5	1.4
You can learn in a wider range of contexts	6.1	3.4	12.8	5.0	4.6	7.2	7.9	6.2	8.9	1.2	5.5	6.6	2.9	4.9	12.5	2.6	10.7	5.7
Nothing has changed, there is just more information on what is available	5.2	3.6	1.1	3.2	4.4	14.1	6.2	2.6	7.1	1.0	3.1	4.4	4.4	2.5	1.2	2.0	3.3	1.7
There are fewer learning opportunities than there used to be	1.3	1.0	0.0	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.3	0.9	1.7	0.7	0.3	0.6	3.6	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.7
Other opportunities	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.6	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.3	1.2
Do not know	9.0	11.1	5.6	9.9	12.3	15.6	5.1	11.1	6.5	7.4	4.7	9.5	17.7	9.0	3.5	9.2	5.9	7.8

Table 34: **The single most important learning opportunity to have come about in the past five years respondents' views, by age and educational level, %**

	Age groups				Age at which full-time education ceased			
	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+	by 15	16-19	20+	still studying
New technologies such as the Internet, CD-ROM	47.0	47.8	45.4	35.6	33.5	44.1	49.5	51.8
New TV channels	1.7	1.7	1.7	3.2	3.3	2.0	1.9	0.8
More opportunities in the workplace	7.7	10.0	10.7	8.0	9.5	10.3	8.5	4.5
Easier access to courses at schools, colleges, universities and training centres	13.7	9.9	9.1	9.9	8.9	10.8	9.3	14.3
Courses on new subjects	4.3	3.1	3.2	3.2	2.5	3.5	3.8	4.2
New places to learn (Internet cafes, libraries, etc.)	2.9	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.5	3.1	2.4
New teaching/learning methods (where the learner are more active)	6.1	5.8	5.0	4.1	3.9	5.0	5.9	7.4
Internet chat rooms, intercultural exchange or other forms of sharing knowledge	2.2	2.1	1.5	2.0	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.4
You can learn in a wider range of contexts	5.5	5.2	6.9	6.6	5.9	5.5	7.4	6.2
Nothing has changed, there is just more information on what is available	3.3	4.9	5.3	6.3	7.0	5.1	4.0	2.7
There are fewer learning opportunities than there used to be	0.6	0.8	1.6	2.0	2.5	1.2	0.6	0.3
Other opportunities	0.3	0.4	0.4	1.3	1.1	0.5	0.6	0.3

Table 35: **Preferred ways to update professional skills: respondents' views, by socioeconomic group, %**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Doing a course organised at school, college, university or training centre	32.5	14.8	14
Doing a course organised at the workplace	15.8	22.9	5.0
Doing a course organised elsewhere	12.2	7.0	6.7
As secondment to another organisation, participating in an exchange programme for study, training or work experience abroad	6.4	1.9	2.5
Learning by using local facilities	4.2	3.6	6.4
Learning from an experienced colleague	3.3	6.1	3.0
Learning at home	4.2	2.3	4.3
Learning by doing everyday work	7.1	11.3	3.4
Learning through regularly changing tasks and responsibilities	5.0	4.4	1.6
Using workplace facilities for own personal use	1.9	2.8	1.6
Other ways	1.4	1.7	1.2
No desire to improve or update professional skills	0.7	6.5	7.9
I will never work for pay	0.2	0.8	17.2
Do not know	5.3	13.8	25.3

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 36: **Proportion of respondents reporting having learned something whilst working in the preceding year, by sex and labour market status and for those aged 55-59, %**

Inactive women	8.1	Highly educated women	56.6
Inactive men	15.0	Highly educated men	67.3
Women aged 55-59	12.1	Low-educated women	18.1
Men aged 55-59	21.6	Low-educated men	30.5

Table 37: **Proportion of respondents reporting having learned something at home in the preceding year, by sex and labour market status and for those aged 55-59, %**

Inactive women	73.8	Highly educated women	71.3
Inactive men	65.2	Highly educated men	65.4
Women aged 55-59	70.5	Low-educated women	72.6
Men aged 55-59	63.8	Low-educated men	66.0

Table 38: **Situations offering the best opportunity to learn new things: respondents' views by life sphere and socio-economic group, %**

	In private life			In public life		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Trying to deal with unexpected situations	41.0	42.0	38.2	35.1	32.6	30.0
Observing and analysing situations	27.0	29.5	35.0	23.2	18.3	21.1
Doing new things as using new machines and equipment	20.9	16.2	9.6	24.6	28.9	17.4
Watching how people do things and imitating them	13.2	18.5	18.4	11.4	22.9	21.0
Look for information on something that attracted one's interest	42.6	17.3	12.5	38.2	11.8	12.8
Contact with someone whose skills/ experiences are different from one's own	33.5	19.0	24.4	33.4	26.1	27.3
Doing things together with friends/colleagues	29.3	29.7	26.1	24.5	26.8	19.5
Managing or teaching other people	12.9	8.1	6.1	24.8	10.0	6.8
Trying to achieve a goal	23.7	19.3	12.1	25.0	22.7	9.9
Trying not to repeat one's mistakes	30.2	43.9	44.8	25.2	29.2	31.8
Other situations	1.5	0.4	4.0	1.4	2.4	4.8
Do not know	0.8	5.5	7.3	3.6	7.8	14.8

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 39: **Learning at the workplace in the preceding year: Nordic and Southern European respondents, by type of workplace learning, by educational level and for young people, %**

	Learned by attending training courses/ sessions at the workplace	Learned by working/learning on the job	Learned at the workplace by talking to colleagues during breaks, reading the newspaper, etc.
Nordic women	35.6	55.4	50.1
Southern European women	8.7	33.5	29.9
Young Nordics	28.3	64.5	55.3
Young Southerners	7.3	32.8	30.4
Highly educated Nordics	46.5	65.6	62.4
Highly educated Southerners	26.9	67.2	59.2
Low-educated Nordics	30.0	51.9	46.5
Low-educated Southerners	8.9	42.0	36.7

Note: For the purposes of Eurobarometer surveys, 'young people' means survey respondents aged 15-24.

Table 40: **Looking for information on something that attracts one's attention as the best opportunity to learn new things: Nordic and Southern European respondents' views by life sphere, educational level and for women, %**

	Women respondents		Low-educated respondents	
	Nordic	Southern European	Nordic	Southern European
In private life	34.3	17.2	27.7	14.6
In public life	29.1	19.6	22.9	16.7

Table 41: **Proportion of respondents participating and not participating in education and training in the preceding year, excluding students under 25, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Participated in education and training	*27.9*	*25.6*	*51.9*	*31.4*	*13.7*	*22.3*	*18.9*	*27.7*	*21.9*	*30.6*	*37.8*	*33.0*	*10.3*	*48.9*	*47.3*	*35.9*	*44.0*	*37.4*
Did not participate in education and training	*70.9*	*71.5*	*47.7*	*67.5*	*84.8*	*77.0*	*79.5*	*70.3*	*77.6*	*66.4*	*61.0*	*63.4*	*89.0*	*50.4*	*51.3*	*63.0*	*48.9*	*58.9*
Do not know	1.2	2.9	0.4	1.1	1.5	0.7	1.7	2.0	0.5	3.0	1.2	3.6	0.6	0.7	1.5	1.0	7.0	3.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 42: **Main motivations for undertaking education and training in the past, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Doing one's job better	13.6	12.5	27.8	16.1	9.9	9.2	9.9	12.6	11.0	17.2	16.8	13.7	5.4	23.8	22.2	16.8	24.0	20.2
Obtaining a certificate/ diploma/qualification	11.5	10.1	23.6	7.6	7.8	11.6	11.7	14.7	9.0	12.9	16.0	8.1	4.0	20.7	17.0	17.9	19.1	13.3
Achieving more personal satisfaction	8.5	7.0	23.9	7.0	2.6	6.6	5.7	12.8	9.4	9.3	9.7	7.7	2.4	10.3	17.3	12.7	15.4	11.6
Increasing one's general knowledge	9.4	9.8	20.3	7.8	5.5	10.3	6.0	11.0	9.9	13.1	17.0	10.3	2.1	16.1	18.7	10.5	22.3	18.9
Participated in education and training	*31.4*	*28.7*	*56.2*	*32.0*	*17.7*	*28.2*	*24.2*	*35.0*	*26.8*	*33.3*	*41.5*	*35.5*	*11.9*	*53.3*	*51.9*	*39.6*	*48.9*	*41.7*

Table 43: **Main source of the decision to take part in education and training in the preceding year, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Extrinsic source of decision	*53.3*	*50.3*	*45.6*	*65.4*	*46.4*	*38.3*	*50.4*	*45.1*	*51.1*	*46.2*	*47.0*	*46.4*	*51.4*	*48.0*	*45.5*	*56.4*	*26.4*	*55.3*
Required or paid for	*42.2*	*45.9*	*39.0*	*57.7*	*30.8*	*23.7*	*40.4*	*29.9*	*29.5*	*39.0*	*39.5*	*40.0*	*44.3*	*40.5*	*37.2*	*45.6*	*21.2*	*41.9*
Required	*29.3*	*36.4*	*18.4*	*37.9*	*23.3*	*13.4*	*26.3*	*19.7*	*25.6*	*31.4*	*33.4*	*25.0*	*30.4*	*24.0*	*19.1*	*34.1*	*14.7*	*25.0*
Required by employer or equivalent	21.5	25.7	14.8	27.1	16.1	9.7	16.1	15.3	21.2	22.6	26.1	17.9	18.6	16.2	15.6	26.1	7.8	16.7
Required by employment service or equivalent	3.7	3.1	1.9	7.2	1.9	1.0	5.4	1.9	0.9	1.9	1.8	4.1	6.7	2.8	1.9	3.2	1.0	2.9
Required by law	7.4	10.8	4.6	8.0	6.3	2.7	8.4	5.2	6.1	12.9	8.8	7.6	6.6	8.7	3.0	9.3	7.8	8.1
Paid for	*27.5*	*27.8*	*30.5*	*41.1*	*14.3*	*13.4*	*28.5*	*17.8*	*13.1*	*19.7*	*25.5*	*26.3*	*23.6*	*28.0*	*31.2*	*28.5*	*13.4*	*29.7*
Paid for by employer or equivalent	20.0	20.8	26.7	24.6	9.3	7.8	21.3	12.1	10.9	17.7	21.9	18.4	16.6	22.3	24.7	24.6	9.4	23.2
Paid for by employment service or equivalent	4.3	3.5	1.6	10.8	2.2	3.1	4.1	4.3	0.0	0.0	2.3	5.7	4.5	2.2	1.1	2.0	1.3	3.9
Paid for by governmental authorities	*3.1*	*2.6*	*3.1*	*5.8*	*1.9*	*1.0*	*2.3*	*1.3*	*1.0*	*1.4*	*0.9*	*5.5*	*4.2*	*2.6*	*5.3*	*2.8*	*2.0*	*6.1*
Advised by work or social relations	*23.8*	*14.5*	*16.0*	*29.2*	*25.7*	*21.3*	*22.5*	*26.8*	*30.8*	*14.9*	*13.8*	*15.8*	*14.0*	*16.8*	*19.0*	*22.7*	*13.4*	*30.2*
Advised by colleagues	9.0	5.6	8.1	9.6	13.5	8.9	8.4	13.4	12.7	6.5	4.5	7.8	6.1	7.2	7.1	8.5	4.2	14.9
Advised by friends	9.2	3.7	5.2	11.8	10.5	7.6	8.3	11.8	13.2	6.9	4.4	5.9	5.3	6.3	6.4	8.3	4.2	12.0
Advised by partner/family	13.0	6.7	7.1	15.1	9.8	12.0	12.4	14.9	15.8	6.8	8.1	7.6	3.5	8.9	10.1	14.3	11.7	13.1
Intrinsic source of decision	*43.8*	*45.0*	*52.0*	*31.2*	*53.6*	*59.1*	*44.4*	*49.5*	*47.6*	*47.7*	*48.7*	*48.2*	*45.0*	*48.5*	*51.3*	*42.5*	*68.7*	*40.5*

Table 44: **Main benefits gained from past education and training experience, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Met new people	33.2	35.3	37.4	31.9	21.8	32.9	35.3	34.1	35.5	28.0	29.7	29.0	22.9	38.5	40.2	32.0	23.5	35.5
Could do job better	41.1	33.5	40.9	47.5	52.7	35.3	36.2	33.3	36.9	44.1	40.5	36.1	40.0	42.3	41.5	42.8	50.2	52.0
Obtained certificate/ qualification	24.0	21.4	25.7	16.5	27.3	30.7	28.7	24.9	17.6	29.1	30.0	20.8	36.2	22.6	20.0	29.8	24.8	23.0
Got personal satisfaction	35.7	31.2	50.0	33.1	25.9	39.7	33.9	40.0	35.7	35.0	27.3	37.1	20.9	26.5	32.1	41.4	29.6	30.0
Got general knowledge	35.3	39.9	38.8	28.7	42.8	39.6	31.9	26.8	45.8	27.8	49.8	35.9	20.3	44.4	38.3	30.7	35.5	42.0

Table 45: **Main motivations for future education and training, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Doing one's job better	27.1	21.2	41.8	29.9	29.8	22.4	21.6	28.9	29.9	29.0	32.7	26.8	21.2	35.5	31.8	26.2	33.9	36.5
Obtaining a certificate/ diploma/qualification	19.8	19.6	26.8	12.6	22.9	21.0	24.0	25.7	16.2	28.2	21.4	13.9	25.5	19.2	15.5	26.9	28.2	17.4
Achieving more personal satisfaction	31.1	25.2	44.1	28.3	22.9	32.1	28.0	32.0	40.4	31.0	26.7	21.7	22.0	18.0	30.8	34.9	36.9	25.8
Increasing one's general knowledge	30.9	30.4	36.9	30.1	29.8	37.1	26.9	21.4	35.8	35.0	41.5	20.7	18.5	27.3	37.2	27.9	29.9	29.8

Table 46: **Main obstacles to future education and training, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Nothing	28.9	25.6	45.7	29.6	27.4	35.1	22.7	24.5	27.8	27.2	35.2	34.6	24.8	32.9	38.2	27.6	25.2	22.8
All time-related obstacles	*36.7*	*33.9*	*27.7*	*35.8*	*42.2*	*35.2*	*36.1*	*38.3*	*40.9*	*38.2*	*33.9*	*28.3*	*31.9*	*31.5*	*27.8*	*39.4*	*43.3*	*36.8*
Job commitments	15.4	13.4	12.2	12.0	18.8	17.9	19.0	17.6	20.1	14.4	12.1	11.3	14.9	13.3	10.4	13.2	21.0	15.4
Family commitments	18.7	19.4	15.2	18.4	29.0	16.0	15.2	19.7	18.8	23.8	16.1	15.2	18.0	13.5	14.7	24.7	18.8	16.2
Threat to leisure	16.0	14.9	9.7	18.1	9.2	14.5	14.6	17.8	19.3	12.4	17.6	12.4	12.1	15.9	12.8	14.7	23.9	18.8
All job-related obstacles	*19.2*	*16.7*	*16.7*	*18.7*	*21.0*	*19.8*	*23.9*	*19.7*	*22.2*	*17.4*	*14.4*	*15.2*	*17.9*	*16.9*	*13.0*	*15.7*	*26.4*	*16.9*
All family-related obstacles	*21.3*	*21.3*	*17.3*	*21.6*	*30.9*	*17.4*	*19.0*	*21.3*	*21.7*	*25.1*	*17.2*	*17.9*	*19.9*	*16.5*	*15.6*	*26.2*	*22.8*	*17.8*
Perception of being too old to learn	12.8	16.2	5.3	14.5	17.5	10.6	13.9	16.4	10.1	10.3	14.9	10.8	13.9	16.0	11.2	11.8	7.6	10.8

Table 47: **Main incentives for future education and training, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Flexible working hours	0.6	15.2	21.3	22.5	11.6	29.5	18.7	19.2	16.9	13.1	15.8	22.2	15.2	23.6	20.6	21.6	39.0	22.4
Receiving a certificate/ diploma	17.5	17.3	13.4	17.0	20.4	15.8	20.2	20.5	17.0	20.2	23.5	11.1	11.6	17.4	15.8	17.5	19.1	15.4
Individualised study programme (adapted to needs)	20.3	13.9	33.1	25.0	11.1	21.2	14.6	22.3	19.9	14.5	22.2	20.9	11.5	22.0	32.7	19.5	26.1	22.9
Choice of learning methods	20.1	16.8	23.9	22.4	17.4	15.6	19.5	21.5	17.7	16.1	19.0	14.4	8.8	23.5	30.7	24.1	11.5	16.8
Access to good and tailored information and advice	14.1	8.7	18.7	14.4	12.9	15.1	17.7	13.3	15.0	12.6	9.1	13.0	10.7	20.0	20.1	10.4	10.2	13.3
Nothing	19.4	29.2	11.1	13.2	29.5	20.3	24.6	23.3	21.9	19.0	16.6	19.0	29.4	15.5	7.9	18.7	3.8	16.0

Table 48: **Main type of source of advice or request, by socio-economic group, %**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	EU15
Required by employer	27.4	46.0	8.9	21.5
Paid for by employer	28.5	31.7	7.4	20.0
Required by employment service	0.2	5.2	17.3	3.7
Paid for by employment service	1.5	5.9	4.8	4.3
Advised by colleagues	11.3	11.3	9.8	9.0
Advised by friends	6.8	6.7	17.1	9.2
Advised by partner/family	9.7	9.0	21.1	13.0

Note: Group 1 = highly educated people with a high-level job;
Group 2 = low-educated people with a low-level job;
Group 3 = low-educated people without a job.

Table 49: **Respondents' views on the statement 'lifelong learning is not important at all', by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Tend to disagree	87.9	76.6	87.9	95.3	76.7	90.0	86.3	75.6	88.0	90.5	81.7	78.1	83.9	80.2	90.4	85.5	94.6	73.1
Tend to agree	8.1	15.0	9.0	0.3	21.2	6.2	11.5	16.0	9.1	6.0	14.3	13.0	10.6	9.7	7.9	9.5	2.9	16.2
Do not know	4.1	8.5	3.1	4.5	2.2	3.8	2.2	8.4	2.9	3.5	4.0	8.9	5.5	10.1	1.5	4.9	2.5	10.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 50: **Proportion of respondents agreeing with a series of statements about lifelong learning, by country, % Lifelong learning is useful and important …**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
to live a full and satisfying life	83.7	70.1	89.3	79.4	90.5	91.1	85.0	85.7	90.3	79.8	54.1	76.1	89.1	84.3	96.8	84.0	92.0	88.6
to take one's life into one's hands	81.8	75.4	88.4	82.7	91.2	87.2	85.3	87.6	75.2	85.5	68.1	79.7	76.6	83.4	86.7	82.5	77.2	81.8
to cope with rapid changes in society	82.6	78.3	85.4	80.3	91.0	88.6	83.2	86.0	81.4	81.6	77.4	73.3	87.0	90.0	87.0	82.4	93.3	75.7
to avoid unemployment	76.6	71.5	80.2	69.0	88.6	88.8	76.1	92.1	74.9	70.0	57.7	78.3	81.0	87.3	83.3	81.3	91.7	74.6
to improve job and career prospects	89.1	81.6	91.5	87.3	93.1	92.0	88.5	91.8	91.2	89.0	78.9	85.6	90.1	89.2	92.9	90.9	93.0	80.7
to adapt to change in professional life	82.4	70.0	88.9	88.2	88.6	84.3	88.6	84.0	74.3	81.9	63.6	76.7	83.8	81.9	87.5	80.0	84.2	74.3
to help disadvantaged people	80.6	73.8	85.8	68.1	90.8	90.4	88.8	92.2	82.0	90.6	55.7	69.6	89.3	87.2	90.1	85.7	89.2	80.4

Note: The difference between 100% and the percentages in the table corresponds to those who either disagree or do not know.

Table 51: **Proportion of respondents who think that lifelong learning is for particular groups, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
is mainly for those who did not do well at school	45.4	43.3	23.8	45.3	61.1	86.5	46.4	43.8	39.9	59.3	18.7	32.3	47.4	32.8	32.1	34.3	13.1	36.6
is mainly for middle-aged people	23.4	24.3	10.7	29.1	28.7	70.7	12.1	18.7	16.6	25.0	7.8	18.7	19.7	12.5	8.5	10.4	4.9	17.1
should take place only when you are young	13.6	19.8	1.9	9.7	26.4	13.9	15.8	21.3	20.1	9.3	12.5	12.4	25.7	7.5	3.1	8.7	2.2	9.4

Note: The difference between 100% and the percentages in the table corresponds to those who either disagree or do not know.

Table 52: **Respondents' views on willingness to pay the costs of their learning out of their own pockets, by learning purpose, EU15, %**

To…	I would contribute some or all of the cost	I would pay all of the cost	I would pay some of the cost	I would pay none of the cost	Do not know	Not applicable	Total
keep job	37.7	12.9	24.8	46.7	2.7	12.8	100
improve private life	51.4	21.8	29.6	39.1	9.5	-	100
get promotion	38.7	11.7	27.0	48.7	12.6	-	100
learn language	46.7	18.6	28.0	44.9	8.4	-	100
set up business	45.2	23.0	22.2	41.2	13.6	-	100
learn for a hobby	46.3	21.5	24.8	44.4	9.3	-	100
career opportunities	48.2	16.4	31.8	40.5	11.3	-	100
get a certificate	48.1	18.1	30.0	42.2	9.7	-	100
pay rise	39.7	14.8	24.9	47.4	12.9	-	100
for retirement	34.8	11.7	23.1	50.9	14.3	-	100
learn for own work	43.6	12.9	30.6	46.0	10.4	-	100
return to work	39.7	14.8	24.9	45.5	14.8	-	100

Table 53: **Proportion of respondents not willing to pay anything towards the cost of their learning, by country and by aggregated learning purpose, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
for any work-related purpose	21.6	29.4	16.1	12.7	24.6	29.1	26.8	16.3	24.8	9.3	18.9	21.6	36.0	19.2	15.5	20.1	2.7	8.7
for any non-work-related purpose	20.3	26.8	8.8	13.0	23.6	29.6	27.0	15.1	19.1	9.8	16.0	18.9	38.5	20.1	9.9	19.3	1.9	7.4

Table 54: **Proportion of respondents who are ready to pay towards the cost of their learning, by country and learning purpose, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
To keep my job	37.7	30.7	46.9	53.1	40.6	35.7	22.7	34.6	29.9	60.3	39.8	43.6	28.6	42.5	36.6	38.5	53.5	38.3
To improve private life	51.4	50.7	68.9	53.8	50.1	42.0	44.7	56.0	47.7	70.6	53.4	48.2	40.9	59.1	66.8	60.7	75.0	55.5
To get promotion	38.7	32.9	40.6	47.1	41.6	39.7	24.4	41.0	32.5	54.5	41.2	51.1	32.7	35.8	37.4	44.1	61.0	39.6
To learn a language	46.7	44.1	60.2	46.5	54.0	42.2	40.5	41.9	56.9	66.7	46.8	47.7	35.5	53.5	58.3	43.0	73.2	50.1
To set up my own business	45.2	39.4	46.9	42.0	50.0	42.2	47.6	47.2	40.3	58.9	44.9	38.1	40.2	47.8	51.7	54.1	64.5	46.9
To learn for a hobby	46.3	47.6	67.9	48.2	34.0	33.1	41.3	48.9	40.6	57.6	61.5	46.3	29.2	52.2	69.4	56.9	81.7	58.8
For career opportunities	48.2	39.7	56.7	54.9	48.0	40.0	33.4	51.2	47.8	50.9	51.9	51.3	40.9	54.3	55.3	56.6	74.5	52.4
To get a certificate	48.1	42.3	57.9	51.8	52.4	47.7	34.2	54.1	43.7	64.9	52.2	47.7	39.4	49.7	54.7	58.0	70.4	49.4
To get a pay rise	39.7	32.1	47.4	49.4	46.6	41.0	22.3	41.5	34.8	55.0	39.0	47.5	38.6	39.6	40.5	44.3	67.8	41.3
For retirement	34.8	30.7	52.6	29.4	45.1	32.8	32.8	44.4	31.2	52.7	45.8	32.9	32.6	31.3	33.3	43.8	56.5	37.2
To learn for own work	43.6	36.0	42.9	51.7	50.3	45.1	29.0	47.7	42.7	57.4	38.7	45.2	36.2	39.8	36.1	48.4	70.7	40.7
To return to work	39.7	33.5	43.4	47.2	45.0	34.6	25.7	43.5	34.8	54.0	40.9	40.7	36.8	40.1	43.0	48.5	65.4	39.9
Average	43.3	38.3	52.7	47.9	46.5	39.7	33.2	46.0	40.2	58.6	46.3	45.0	36.0	45.5	48.6	49.7	67.9	45.8

Note: The remaining respondents are either not willing to pay at all or do not know.

Table 55: **Proportion of respondents who are not willing to pay towards the cost of their learning, by selected age group and learning purpose, %**

	EU15	25-29	55-59
To keep my job	46.7	41.2	49.1
To improve private life	39.1	34.0	42.3
To get promotion	48.7	41.2	56.2
To learn a language	44.9	36.6	49.1
To set up my own business	41.2	30.8	49.5
To learn for a hobby	44.4	41.8	45.2
For career opportunities	40.5	29.9	49.2
To get a certificate	42.2	32.0	52.2
To get a pay rise	47.4	42.0	50.3
For retirement	50.9	46.1	51.5
To learn for own work	46.0	38.7	52.1
To return to work	45.5	35.1	53.9

Table 56: **Proportion of respondents who are not willing to pay towards the cost of their learning, by income level and learning purpose, %**

	EU15	Very low	Low	High	Very high	Do not know/ refusal
To keep my job	46.7	53.3	49.3	43.5	38.3	46.8
To improve private life	39.1	45.9	42.0	37.2	26.0	40.5
To get promotion	48.7	53.9	51.1	43.8	43.2	49.1
To learn a language	44.9	53.2	49.3	42.1	35.9	43.4
To set up my own business	41.2	49.0	44.9	40.3	32.5	39.2
To learn for a hobby	44.4	51.1	46.1	43.2	35.2	44.7
For career opportunities	40.5	47.9	46.1	34.4	30.6	40.5
To get a certificate	42.2	50.1	46.7	37.3	31.8	42.2
To get a pay rise	47.4	53.2	50.3	42.5	39.7	48.1
For retirement	50.9	56.6	55.1	52.0	44.2	48.0
To learn for own work	46.0	52.9	50.4	41.7	38.4	45.2
To return to work	45.5	51.4	49.7	42.3	38.7	44.3

Table 57: **Respondents' views on the most useful source of information to improve learning and career prospects, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Teachers and trainers	19.9	15.7	18.7	16.9	23.9	33.6	20.9	22.2	19.6	11.2	9.8	10.9	23.0	18.0	25.0	17.4	6.2	17.0
Specialised material and interactive software	14.7	12.5	14.8	19.8	15.5	8.9	10.0	12.6	16.0	17.1	9.9	11.2	6.5	11.9	12.4	17.7	31.8	11.4
People who have done something similar	12.1	10.2	9.5	13.2	9.2	9.7	12.6	12.9	10.9	12.0	17.5	11.8	6.6	11.0	17.2	12.9	11.5	11.1
TV, radio, newspapers, magazines	11.6	10.7	10.8	12.9	13.0	9.5	9.5	12.1	10.8	11.7	10.4	8.0	15.6	18.6	14.4	13.1	8.8	8.6
I do not think any of these sources are very useful	8.0	14.0	3.9	3.8	8.0	8.4	15.2	5.9	9.8	3.6	8.8	11.1	8.6	3.8	2.6	5.3	1.4	9.2
Do not know	8.0	11.5	7.3	7.5	6.3	9.6	6.4	9.0	8.4	14.9	8.1	10.5	17.1	10.5	3.6	7.4	8.0	12.3
Personnel departments, line managers or employees	7.0	8.5	11.1	7.4	4.1	3.5	8.5	4.8	4.1	11.4	14.9	16.8	3.3	7.6	7.3	7.0	6.4	8.7
Career advisors or employment counsellors	5.5	4.7	9.0	4.2	9.2	4.5	7.1	8.2	4.4	5.5	6.4	2.0	6.6	6.6	3.9	6.7	10.0	2.0

Table 58: **Respondents having changed their principal activity in the preceding two years, by sex, age and occupation, %**

	EU15	Males	Females	Age				(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
				15-24	25-39	40-54	55+								
Have become full-time carers	12.3	8.0	16.3	8.7	16.0	11.9	11.1	9.4	9.8	10.8	11.5	26.0	12.5	11.4	5.9
Have started/resumed education and training	14.7	15.3	14.2	34.1	19.0	11.8	3.7	12.1	20.4	17.2	15.5	5.5	22.4	2.7	41.9
Have changed careers	10.4	11.7	9.3	14.4	17.3	11.5	1.7	14.8	13.2	20.3	16.4	2.8	18.2	0.9	7.0
Have changed employers	12.3	13.7	11.1	17.9	20.4	13.0	2.0	12.0	15.6	24.3	21.9	2.7	23.1	0.5	8.0
Now have a higher level job than two years ago	10.5	14.1	7.0	11.1	18.9	11.6	1.9	20.0	34.2	22.5	14.9	-	-	0.3	2.7

Key: (1) Self-employed (5) Full-time homemakers
(2) Managers (6) Unemployed
(3) Other white collars (7) Retired
(4) Manual workers (8) Students

Table 59: **Respondents' views on the usefulness of foreign language skills, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Foreign language skills are very useful ...																		
in private life	44.4	58.3	69.2	43.4	67.1	31.5	41.2	36.3	52.6	94.4	58.6	55.4	38.2	53.1	63.7	33.4	87.9	57.2
in public life	61.1	69.7	78.5	57.3	85.2	58.4	55.6	48.3	78.6	96.4	76.0	68.0	47.2	67.6	68.8	46.0	92.2	59.7
Average	52.8	64.0	73.9	50.4	76.2	45.0	48.4	42.3	65.6	95.4	67.3	61.7	42.7	60.4	66.3	39.7	90.1	58.5
Foreign languages skills are 'useful' or 'very useful' *	72.0	83.0	96.0	62.0	91.0	70.0	75.0	61.0	71.0	90.0	86.0	59.0	73.0	88.0	89.0	74.0	n.a.	n.a.

* Source: International Research Associates (2001). The data are rounded up to the nearest whole unit.

Table 60: **Respondents' views on the usefulness of computer skills, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
Using a computer is a very useful skill ...																		
in private life	57.2	56.7	74.3	56.1	59.0	46.6	47.7	61.0	57.8	72.2	73.1	60.5	39.2	61.3	70.4	68.3	84.2	59.4
in public life	67.6	64.7	79.4	65.1	73.9	63.4	62.4	64.8	74.4	76.7	80.0	68.9	43.0	72.6	71.8	70.4	92.7	67.2
Importance of using a computer in private life*	53.4	39.0	75.9	56.5	58.5	45.3	31.5	60.1	77.9	57.0	55.7	48.3	35.8	45.8	53.2	53.6	n.a.	n.a.
Importance of using a computer for work*	81.9	79.2	82.8	82.7	95.9	76.5	84.6	82.3	82.4	93.8	84.1	80.4	85.8	81.9	84.8	78.4	n.a.	n.a.

* Source: European Commission (2002).

Table 61: **Proportion of respondents reporting they can use a computer and those who do use computers, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
I can use a computer*	58.3	55.5	78.7	60.0	36.0	49.8	57.1	57.9	54.3	67.9	75.7	62.2	33.2	63.0	80.1	64.6	83.3	68.2
I use a PC**	50.0	48.0	76.0	48.0	29.0	37.0	50.0	44.0	50.0	59.0	74.0	51.0	32.0	66.0	76.0	56.0	n.a.	n.a.
I use a computer (for whatever use)***	40.5	41.2	64.9	40.8	22.1	30.9	36.5	35.4	35.4	45.0	63.5	39.7	25.6	53.7	68.6	48.2	n.a.	n.a.

* Source: 2003 Lifelong Learning Eurobarometer. The remainder cannot use a computer or do not know.
**Source: European Commission (2002). The data are rounded up to the nearest whole unit.
***Source: International Research Associates (2001).

Table 62: **Proportion of respondents reporting they can use the Internet and those who do use the Internet, by country, %**

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	N
I can use the Internet*	49.6	46.3	74.2	51.4	27.0	43.6	45.0	52.0	46.0	59.9	68.0	55.0	24.7	59.1	76.0	55.0	79.6	59.7
I use the Internet (regardless of where)**	53.0	50.0	77.0	60.0	22.0	42.0	49.0	64.0	40.0	56.0	73.0	65.0	42.0	69.0	70.0	60.0	n.a.	n.a.
I use Internet and e-mail***	25.7	22.8	52.8	20.3	11.2	15.7	19.6	25.2	21.6	33.4	50.1	26.8	11.7	47.7	61.0	39.9	n.a.	n.a.

* Source: 2003 Lifelong Learning Eurobarometer. The remainder cannot use the Internet or do not know.
** Source: European Commission (2002). The data are rounded up to the nearest whole unit.
*** Source: International Research Associates (2001).

Bibliography

Bainbridge, Steve et al. *Learning for employment: second report on vocational education and training policy in Europe: executive summary*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2004. (Cedefop Reference, 51). Available from Internet: http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/publication/download/panorama/4027_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Cedefop. *Consultation process on the European Commission's Memorandum on lifelong learning: analysis of national reports*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2002 (Cedefop Panorama series, 5127).

Cedefop. *Lifelong learning: citizens' views*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2003. Available from Internet: http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/publication/download/panorama/4025_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Chisholm, Lynne: *Getting to work on lifelong learning: policy, practice and partnership: summary conference report* / Cedefop. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2004. Available from Internet: http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/publication/download/panorama/4033_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Council of the European Union. *The concrete future objectives of education and training systems: report from the Education Council to the European Council*. Brussels: Council of the European Union, 2001. Available from Internet: http://register.consilium.eu.int/pdf/en/01/st05/05980en1.pdf [cited 5.7.2004].
See also: Council of the European Union. Detailed work programme on the follow-up of the objectives of education and training systems in Europe. Brussels: Council of the European Union, 2002. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/2002/progobj_en.pdf [cited 5.7.2004].

Council of the European Union. *Council resolution of 27 June 2002 on lifelong learning*. Official Journal of the European Communities, C 163, 2002, p.1-3. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/pri/en/oj/dat/2002/c_163/c_16320020709en00010003.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Department for Education and Skills. *National adult learning survey* (NALS) 2002. London: DfEE, 2003.

Europeans and their attitudes to education and training. Brussels: European Commission - Public Opinion Analysis, 1997. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_112_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Education and training 2010: diverse systems, shared goals: the education and training contribution to the Lisbon strategy*. Brussels: European Commission, 2003a. Available from Internet: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Implementation of 'Education & Training 2010' work programme: working group 'Mobility and European cooperation'*: progress report, November 2003. Brussels: European Commission - DG Education and Culture, 2003b. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/doc/mobility_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Implementation of 'Education & Training 2010' work programme: working group 'Basic skills, entrepreneurship and foreign languages'*: progress report, November 2003. Brussels: European Commission - DG Education and Culture, 2003c. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/doc/basic-skills_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Implementing lifelong learning strategies in Europe: progress report on the follow-up to the Council resolution of 2002: EU and EFTA/EEA countries*. Brussels: European Commission - DG Education and Culture, 2003. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/doc/synthesis_efta_eea_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Implementing lifelong learning strategies in Europe: progress report on the follow-up to the 2002: Council resolution on lifelong learning: acceding and candidate countries*. Brussels: European Commission - DG Education and Culture, 2003. Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/doc/synthesis_acc_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Internet and the public at large: results and comments.* Brussels: European Commission, 2002. (Flash Eurobarometer, 135). Available from Internet: http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/flash/fl135_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *Making a European area of lifelong learning a reality*. Brussels: European Commission, 2001. Available from Internet: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lll/life/index_en.html [cited 8.6.2004].

European Commission. *A memorandum on lifelong learning: Commission staff working paper.* Brussels: European Commission, 2000. (SEC (2000) 1832). Available from Internet: http://www.bologna-berlin2003.de/pdf/MemorandumEng.pdf [cited 10.6.2004].

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. *A new organisation of time over working life: summary*. Dublin: EFILWC, 2003. Available from Internet: http://www.eurofound.eu.int/publications/files/EF0364EN.pdf [cited 5.7.2004].

European Opinion Research Group. *Les Européens et les technologies de l'information et de la communication dans le cadre de l'emploi* [Europeans and information and communication tech-

nologies in the context of employment]. Report from special Eurobarometer 56.0. Brussels: European Commission, 2001. Available from Internet: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_159_fr.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Eurostat. *Continuing vocational training in enterprises in the European Union and Norway (CVTS2)*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2002. (Statistics in focus: theme 3, 3/2002). Available from Internet: http://www.eu-datashop.de/download/EN/sta_kurz/thema3/nk_02_03.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Eurostat. *Information society statistics: 2003 edition: data 1997-2002*. Brussels: Eurostat, 2003.

Eurostat. *NewCronos database.* Luxembourg: Eurostat, 2003.

Exploration of the life-course. A Dutch government report cited on website of Dublin Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from Internet: www.eurofound.eu.int/publications/files/EF0364EN.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

International Research Associates. *Les Européens et les langues: rapport d'une enquête spéciale de l'Eurobaromètre*. [Europeans and languages]. Report from special Eurobarometer 54.0. Brussels: European Commission, 2001. Available from Internet: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_147_fr.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

OECD. *Beyond rhetoric: adult learning policies and practices.* Paris: OECD, 2003a.

OECD. *Literacy skills for the world of tomorrow: further results from PISA 2000.* Paris: OECD, 2003b.

OECD. *Trends in international migration: continuous reporting system on migration: annual report: 2001 edition.* Paris: OECD, 2001.

Sultana, R. *Guidance policies in the knowledge society: trends, challenges and responses across Europe: a Cedefop synthesis report.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2004. (Cedefop Panorama, 5152). Available from Internet: http://www2.trainingvillage.gr/etv/publication/download/panorama/5152_en.pdf [cited 8.6.2004].

Tessaring, Manfred; Descy, Pascaline. *Training in Europe: second report on vocational training research in Europe 2000: background report: vol 1-3.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2001a. (Cedefop reference, 3008).

Tessaring, Manfred; Descy, Pascaline. *Training in Europe: second report on vocational training research in Europe 2000: synthesis report.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2001b. (Cedefop reference, 6).

Tuijnman, Albert C.; Hellström, Zenia. *Curious minds: Nordic adult education compared.* Copenhagen: Nordisk Ministerr_d, 2001.

Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training)

Lifelong learning: citizens' views in close-up

Findings from a dedicated Eurobarometer survey

Lynne Chisholm

Anne Larson

Anne-France Mossoux

Luxembourg:

Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

2004 - VI, 152 pp. - 17.6 x 25 cm

ISBN 92-896-0309-7

Cat. No: TI-61-04-848-EN-C

Free of charge - 4038 EN -

getting to work on LIFE LONG LEARNING
POLICY, PRACTICE & PARTNERSHIP

04 05 16
TI-61-04-848-EN-C

This report presents the detailed findings of the 2003 Lifelong Learning Eurobarometer, which covers 15 EU Member States, Iceland and Norway. It focuses on Europian citizens' attitudes to and participation in adult learning of all kinds, paying special attention to learning related to work, employment and career but setting this family in an integrated approach to education and training throughout life. This is the first time that comparative information on lifelong learning from citizens' own standpoint has become available, which makes the data a base reference point for the future studies and analyses. The report focuses on three themes: skills for a knowledge society; the diversity of learning contexts; and the participation in and motivation for learning. It also highlights information on a number of topical policy issues: citizens' opinions on lifelong learning and their willingness to contribute to its financing; guidance and counselling; mobility as a learning tool; foreign languages and IT. The material and analysis in this report therefore enriches the basis for evidence-based policy-making and the effective implementation of lifelong learning in Europe.

EN

Lifelong learning: citizens' views in close-up

CEDEFOP
European Centre for the
Development of Vocational Training

Europe 123, GR-570 01 Thessaloniki (Pylea)
Postal address: PO Box 22427, GR-551 02 Thessaloniki
Tel. (30) 23 10 49 01 11, Fax (30) 23 10 49 00 20
E-mail: info@cedefop.eu.int
Homepage: www.cedefop.eu.int
Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

Free of charge – On request from Cedefop 4038 EN

Publications Office
Publications.eu.int

ISBN 92-896-0309-7

A.	YOUR SURVEY NUMBER		(61 – 65)
B.	COUNTRY CODE		(66 – 67)
C.	OUR SURVEY NUMBER	5 9 0	(68 – 70)
D.	INTERVIEW NUMBER		(71 – 76)
E.	SPLIT BALLOT		(77)
	A	☐ 1	
	B	☐ 2	

Q.1. What is your nationality? Please tell me the country(ies) that applies(y).
(MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

Belgium	1, (78 – 94)	
Denmark	2,	
Germany	3,	
Greece	4,	
Spain	5,	
France	6,	
Ireland	7,	
Italy	8,	➔ **GO TO Q.2**
Luxembourg	9,	
Netherlands	10,	
Portugal	11,	
United Kingdom (Great Britain, Northern Ireland)	12,	
Austria	13,	
Sweden	14,	
Finland	15,	
Other countries	16,	➔ **CLOSE INTERVIEW**
DK	17,	

EB58.2 – Q.1. – TREND

We are going to talk about changes which might have happened in your life within the last two years.

Q.4. For each statement, please tell me if it applies to you or not.

	READ OUT	YES	NO	DK
1	Within the last two years, I have started to look full-time after someone (children, elderly or sick people, etc.)	1	2	3 (110)
2	I have become self-employed within the last two years	1	2	3 (111)
3	I have lost my job within the last two years and I have not found another one yet	1	2	3 (112)
4	I have started or resumed education or training within the last two years	1	2	3 (113)
5	I have retired within the last two years	1	2	3 (114)
6	I have changed career within the last two years	1	2	3 (115)
7	I have done a period of voluntary, social or military service within the last two years	1	2	3 (116)
8	I have changed employer within the last two years	1	2	3 (117)
9	I have taken a career break for family, personal or health reasons within the last two years	1	2	3 (118)
10	I have a higher level job than two years ago	1	2	3 (119)
11	I have a lower level job than two years ago	1	2	3 (120)

EB59.0 – NEW

D.15. a) What is your current occupation?

IF "NOT DOING ANY PAID WORK CURRENTLY", CODE 1 TO 4 IN D.15.a.

b) Did you do any paid work in the past? What was your last occupation?

	D.15.a. CURRENT OCCUPATION (121 – 122)	D.15.b. LAST OCCUPATION (123 – 124)
NON-ACTIVE		
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	1	
Student	2	
Unemployed or temporarily not working	3	
Retired or unable to work through illness	4	
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	5	1
Fisherman	6	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect, etc.)	7	3
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	8	4
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	9	5
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	10	6
General management, director or top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	11	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	12	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	13	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesmen, driver, etc.)	14	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	15	11
Supervisor	16	12
Skilled manual worker	17	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	18	14
NEVER DID ANY PAID WORK		15

EB58.2 – D.15. a&b – DEMO TREND

ASK ALL

Q.5. People can learn new things in different situations.

a) From the following list, which three of these do you think offer the best opportunities to learn new things in your private/family/social life? (SHOW CARD – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

b) And outside your private/family/social life? (SHOW SAME CARD – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

	READ OUT	Q.5.a. IN YOUR PRIVATE/FAMILY/ SOCIAL LIFE (125 – 136)	Q.5.b. OUTSIDE YOUR PRIVATE/FAMILY/ SOCIAL LIFE (137 – 148)
1	Trying to deal with unexpected situations	1,	1,
2	Observing and analysing situations (on TV, in meetings, etc.)	2,	2,
3	Doing new things as using new machines or equipment	3,	3,
4	Watching how people do things and imitating them	4,	4,
5	Looking for information (on the Internet, in a library, etc.) about something that attracted your interest	5,	5,
6	Coming into contact with someone whose skills, backgrounds or experiences are different from yours (doctors, car mechanics, people from other cultures, etc.)	6,	6,
7	Doing things together with friends/colleagues (organising a party, working as a team, etc.)	7,	7,
8	Managing or teaching other people	8,	8,
9	Trying to achieve a goal (at sport, at work, etc.)	9,	9,
10	Trying not to repeat mistakes you have made	10,	10,
11	Other situations (SPONTANEOUS)	11,	11,
12	DK	12,	12,

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.6. For each of the following, please tell me if you think you have learned something in this context in the past twelve months, or not? (SHOW CARD)

	READ OUT	YES	NO	DK	NOT APPLICABLE / HAVE NOT BEEN
1	At school, college or university	1	2	3	4 (149)
2	Attending training courses/sessions in your workplace	1	2	3	4 (150)
3	Attending training courses/sessions elsewhere	1	2	3	4 (151)
4	As training placement in a company or as part of an exchange programme	1	2	3	4 (152)
5	Following a programme combining periods of study with workplace-based learning	1	2	3	4 (153)
6	Working (learning on the job)	1	2	3	4 (154)
7	At the workplace (talking to colleagues during breaks, reading newspapers, etc.)	1	2	3	4 (155)
8	Involvement in social or political work (trade union, political party, church or charity work, others associations, etc.)	1	2	3	4 (156)
9	Being at home (watching TV, doing housework, hobbies, looking after the family, etc.)	1	2	3	4 (157)
10	Travelling, studying, working or living abroad	1	2	3	4 (158)
11	Getting together with other people (other people's homes, pubs, etc.)	1	2	3	4 (159)
12	Using local libraries, learning resource centres, arts workshops nearby	1	2	3	4 (160)
13	Leisure activities	1	2	3	4 (161)
14	A period of voluntary, social or military service	1	2	3	4 (162)

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.7. a) Have you done any studies or training in the past twelve months?
Please choose the <u>three</u> answers that best describe your own situation.
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

Yes, to meet new people ..... 1, (163 – 179)

Yes, to be less likely to lose my job / to be less likely to be forced into retirement 2,

Yes, to better enjoy my free time / retirement 3,

Yes, to be able to do my job better 4,

Yes, to obtain a certificate, diploma or qualification 5,

Yes, to be able to take greater responsibilities / increase my chances of promotion 6,

Yes, to better manage my everyday life 7,

Yes, to change the type of work I do altogether, including starting my own business (for retraining, etc.) 8,

Yes, to achieve more personal satisfaction 9,

Yes, to get a job 10,

Yes, to improve my chance of getting another job, including one which would suit me more 11,

Yes, to increase my general knowledge 12,

Yes, for other reasons (SPONTANEOUS) 13,

No, I have not, but I would like to 14,

No, I am not particularly interested 15,

No, for other reasons (SPONTANEOUS) 16,

DK 17,

EB59.0 – NEW

IF "YES", CODE 1 TO 13 IN Q.7.a., OTHERS GO TO Q.9.

Q.7. b) Were you advised or required to do these studies or training?
Please choose the three answers that best describe your own situation.
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

Yes, it was required by my employer/trade union/professional association.....1, (180 – 192)

Yes, it was paid for by my employer/trade union/professional association.....2,

Yes, it was required by the employment service (APPROPRIATE NAME IN EACH COUNTRY – B: ONEM/FOREM, F: ANPE).....3,

Yes, it was paid for by the employment service (APPROPRIATE NAME IN EACH COUNTRY – B: ONEM/FOREM, F: ANPE).....4,

Yes, it was required by law.....5,

Yes, I got allowances from the government 6,

Yes, my colleagues advised me to do it 7,

Yes, my friends advised me to do it.....8,

Yes, my partner/family advised me to do it.....9,

No, but all my friends were doing studies/training, I did not want to be left out 10,

No, but I saw colleagues getting ahead more quickly than me.....11,

No, I decided to do it on my own initiative 12,

DK 13,

EB59.0 – NEW

IF "YES", CODE 1 TO 13 IN Q.7.a., OTHERS GO TO Q.9.

Q.8. What have been the three main benefits of the studies or training that you have undertaken in the past twelve months? (SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

I have met new people ..... 1, (193 – 207)

I am less likely to lose my job/I was not forced into retirement 2,

I can better enjoy my free time/retirement 3,

I can do my job better 4,

I obtained a certificate, diploma or qualification 5,

I can now take on greater responsibilities/
I was promoted after finishing the studies/training 6,

I can better manage my everyday life 7,

I could change the type of work I did altogether, including starting
my own business (for retraining, etc.) 8,

It has given me a lot of personal satisfaction 9,

I found a job/I found another job more easily, including one which suited me more 10,

I gained general knowledge 11,

I don't think I have benefited much from it (SPONTANEOUS) 12,

Nothing yet, because it is not yet completed (SPONTANEOUS) 13,

Other benefit (SPONTANEOUS) 14,

DK 15,

EB59.0 – NEW

ASK ALL

Q.9. Imagine you wanted to do some studies or training in the future.
What would be the three main reasons for you to do so?
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

To meet new people .....1, (208 – 222)

To be less likely to lose my job/to be forced into retirement.....2,

To better enjoy my free time/retirement 3,

To be able to do my job better 4,

To obtain a certificate, diploma or qualification 5,

To take on greater responsibilities/increase my chances of promotion.....6,

To better manage my everyday life.....7,

To change the type of work I do altogether, including
starting my own business (for retraining, etc.) 8,

To achieve more personal satisfaction.....9,

To find a job 10,

To find another job more easily, including one which would suit me more.....11,

To increase my general knowledge 12,

Other reason (SPONTANEOUS) 13,

I'd never want to do any studies or training (SPONTANEOUS).....14,

DK.....15,

EB59.0 – NEW

DO NOT ASK IF "RETIRED", CODE 4 IN D.15. a.

Q.10. Imagine you wanted to improve or update your professional skills, either in your current job or in your future choice of profession.
How would you best like to do this? (SHOW CARD – READ OUT – ONE ANSWER ONLY)

Doing a course organised at a school, college, university or training centre	1 (223 – 224)
Doing a course organised at my workplace	2
Doing course organised elsewhere	3
Secondment to another organisation or participating in an exchange programme for study, training or work experience abroad	4
Learning by using local facilities	5
Being taught by an experienced colleague	6
Learning at home (open or distance learning, etc.)	7
Learning by doing my everyday work	8
Learning through regularly changing tasks and responsibilities (job rotation schemes, etc.)	9
Using workplace facilities for my own personal use	10
Other way (SPONTANEOUS)	11
I'd never want to improve or update my professional skills (SPONTANEOUS)	12
I'm never going to work for pay (SPONTANEOUS)	13
DK	14

EB59.0 – NEW

ASK ALL

Q.11. Suppose that you wanted to take part in some kind of studies or training.
What could be the three most likely obstacles for you?
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

There would not be any obstacles .....1, (225 – 241)

My job commitments take up too much energy.....2,

My employer would not support me 3,

My family commitments take up too much energy 4,

My family would not support me 5,

I would have to give up some or all of my free time or leisure activities.....6,

I would not like people to know about it in case I didn't do well 7,

I think I am too old to learn.....8,

I have not the necessary qualifications to take up the studies
or training course I would like to 9,

I have never been good at studying.....10,

I would not want to go back to something that is like school.....11,

There are no courses that suit my needs.....12,

There are no courses available nearby, I could not get to them 13,

I would need some equipment that I do not have (computer, etc.) 14,

I do not know what I could do that would be interesting or useful.....15,

Other obstacle (SPONTANEOUS).....16,

DK.....17,

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.12. What would encourage you most to take up studies or training again?
Which three of the following statements come closest to your own opinion?
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – MAX. 3 ANSWERS)

Flexible working hours to allow for study time.....1, (242 – 257)

Help at work so that I have the time and energy to study 2,

Care facilities for children and family members whilst I am studying 3,

Receiving a certificate or a diploma in recognition of my achievements 4,

Being convinced that it would be socially recognised or valued.....5,

If my employer or the employment office (APPROPRIATE NAME IN EACH COUNTRY – B: ONEM/FOREM, F: ANPE) required me to do so 6,

Availability of courses that are suited to my present level of knowledge and skills 7,

Availability of flexible study opportunities (part-time, distance learning, etc.).....8,

Being able to choose the methods of study that suit me best 9,

Having access to good quality information and advice tailored to my needs 10,

Having the support of a tutor or a mentor 11,

Having access to a computer, the Internet.....12,

If it did not cost me as much to study (SPONTANEOUS) 13,

Other (SPONTANEOUS) 14,

Nothing could encourage me to take up studies or training again (SPONTANEOUS).....15,

DK.....16,

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.13. In your opinion, what is the most useful source of information to help improve your learning and career prospects? (SHOW CARD – READ OUT – ONE ANSWER ONLY)

Personnel departments, line managers or employees themselves ..... 1 (258 – 259)

Specialized material and interactive softwares available from libraries, the employment service, the Internet, etc. 2

TV, radio, newspapers, magazines including advertisements 3

Teachers and trainers 4

Career advisors or employment counsellors 5

Career fairs and exhibitions on education (open days, etc.) 6

Celebrities and public figures (TV stars, singers, politicians, etc.) 7

Family 8

Friends and colleagues 9

People who have done something similar 10

Other source (SPONTANEOUS) 11

I don't think any of these sources are very useful (SPONTANEOUS) 12

DK 13

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.14. Imagine you had to study, in each of the following situation, would you be willing to pay all, some or none of the cost of that course to…? (SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

	READ OUT	I WOULD PAY ALL OF THE COST	I WOULD PAY SOME OF THE COST	I WOULD PAY NONE OF THE COST	DK
1	keep your present job	1	2	3	4 (260)
2	give you a better private life	1	2	3	4 (261)
3	get a promotion	1	2	3	4 (262)
4	learn a new language	1	2	3	4 (263)
5	set up your own business	1	2	3	4 (264)
6	give you new knowledge for a hobby	1	2	3	4 (265)
7	open up job and career opportunities	1	2	3	4 (266)
8	get a recognised certificate, diploma or qualification	1	2	3	4 (267)
9	get a pay rise	1	2	3	4 (268)
10	prepare yourself for retirement	1	2	3	4 (269)
11	give you new knowledge in your field of work	1	2	3	4 (270)
12	to get you back into the job market	1	2	3	4 (271)

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.15. a) Please, tell me for each of the following, if it is very useful to you in your family or private life, or not, to…?

	READ OUT	VERY USEFUL	NOT VERY USEFUL	DK
1	be able to read or write	1	2	3 (272)
2	be able to do arithmetic	1	2	3 (273)
3	use a computer	1	2	3 (274)
4	use the Internet	1	2	3 (275)
5	use scientific/technological tools and equipment	1	2	3 (276)
6	be able to express oneself well	1	2	3 (277)
7	use foreign languages	1	2	3 (278)
8	be able to assess situations and solve problems	1	2	3 (279)
9	be able to take initiatives	1	2	3 (280)
10	have organisational skills	1	2	3 (281)
11	be able to get on with people from different cultures/countries	1	2	3 (282)
12	be able to co-operate with other people	1	2	3 (283)
13	be able to manage people	1	2	3 (284)
14	have general knowledge	1	2	3 (285)
15	know how to learn	1	2	3 (286)

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.15. b) And outside your family or private life is it very useful or not to…?

	READ OUT	VERY USEFUL	NOT VERY USEFUL	DK
1	be able to read or write	1	2	3 (287)
2	be able to do arithmetic	1	2	3 (288)
3	use a computer	1	2	3 (289)
4	use the Internet	1	2	3 (290)
5	use scientific/technological tools and equipment	1	2	3 (291)
6	be able to express oneself well	1	2	3 (292)
7	use foreign languages	1	2	3 (293)
8	be able to assess situations and solve problems	1	2	3 (294)
9	be able to take initiatives	1	2	3 (295)
10	have organisational skills	1	2	3 (296)
11	be able to get on with people from different cultures/countries	1	2	3 (297)
12	be able to co-operate with other people	1	2	3 (298)
13	be able to lead/manage people	1	2	3 (299)
14	have general knowledge	1	2	3 (300)
15	know how to learn	1	2	3 (301)

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.16. a) For each of the following skills, please tell me if you possess it, or not?

IF "YES", CODE 1 IN Q.16.a.

b) If you were asked, would you be able to produce concrete evidence that you possess it (showing diploma/certificate, record of achievement/portfolio, employer's reference/employee performance assessment document, or objects/products that you have made/created or using the skills in practice, etc.), or not?

	READ OUT	Q.16.a. POSSESS THIS SKILL			Q.16.b. WOULD BE ABLE TO PRODUCE CONCRETE EVIDENCE		
		YES	NO	DK	YES	NO	DK
1	Be able to read or write	1	2	3 (302)	1	2	3 (317)
2	Be able to do arithmetic	1	2	3 (303)	1	2	3 (318)
3	Use a computer	1	2	3 (304)	1	2	3 (319)
4	Use the Internet	1	2	3 (305)	1	2	3 (320)
5	Use scientific/technological tools and equipment	1	2	3 (306)	1	2	3 (321)
6	Be able to express oneself well	1	2	3 (307)	1	2	3 (322)
7	Use foreign languages	1	2	3 (308)	1	2	3 (323)
8	Be able to assess situations and solve problems	1	2	3 (309)	1	2	3 (324)
9	Be able to take initiatives	1	2	3 (310)	1	2	3 (325)
10	Have organisational skills	1	2	3 (311)	1	2	3 (326)
11	Be able to get on with people from different cultures/countries	1	2	3 (312)	1	2	3 (327)
12	Be able to co-operate with other people	1	2	3 (313)	1	2	3 (328)
13	Be able to manage people	1	2	3 (314)	1	2	3 (329)
14	Have general knowledge	1	2	3 (315)	1	2	3 (330)
15	Know how to learn	1	2	3 (316)	1	2	3 (331)

EB59.0 – NEW

ASK ALL

Q.17. In your opinion, which of the following studying or training opportunities is the most important to have come about in the past five years?
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – ONE ANSWER ONLY)

New technologies such as the Internet, CD-ROM.....1 (332 – 333)

New TV channels (Discovery Channel, etc.- APPROPRIATE NAME IN EACH COUNTRY)....2

More opportunities in the workplace (new equipment, changes in work organisation, etc.).....3

Easier access to courses at schools, colleges, universities and training centres.....4

Courses on new subjects.....5

New places to learn (Internet cafes, libraries, museums, etc.).....6

New teaching/learning methods (where the learner is more active) 7

Internet chat rooms, intercultural exchanges or other forms of sharing knowledge 8

You can learn in a wider range of contexts and situations.....9

Nothing has changed, there is just more information

about what is available (SPONTANEOUS).....10

In my opinion, there are fewer learning opportunities

than there used to be (SPONTANEOUS) 11

Other opportunity (SPONTANEOUS) 12

DK.....13

EB59.0 – NEW

Q.18. For each of the following statements, please tell me if you tend to agree or tend to disagree. Lifelong learning…

	READ OUT	TEND TO AGREE	TEND TO DISAGREE	DK
1	is important in order to live a full and satisfying life	1	2	3 (334)
2	is important to improve the lives of disadvantaged people	1	2	3 (335)
3	helps people to avoid unemployment	1	2	3 (336)
4	enables people to take their lives into their own hands	1	2	3 (337)
5	helps people to cope with rapid changes in society	1	2	3 (338)
6	is mainly for people who did not do well in school	1	2	3 (339)
7	helps to improve job and career prospects	1	2	3 (340)
8	is mainly for middle-aged people	1	2	3 (341)
9	is important because these days no one can expect to do the same things throughout their working life	1	2	3 (342)
10	should take place only when you are young	1	2	3 (343)
11	is not at all important	1	2	3 (344)

EB59.0 – NEW

D.10. Gender

Male ..... 1 (370) **GO TO Q.29**.

Female ..... 2 **GO TO Q.25**.

EB58.2 – D.10. – DEMO TREND

D.11. How old are you?

(INT.: IF REFUSE, ESTIMATE)

		(372 – 373)

EB58.2 – D.11. – DEMO TREND

D.7. Could you give me the letter which corresponds best to your own current situation?
(SHOW CARD – READ OUT – ONE ANSWER ONLY)

Married ..... 1 (482 – 483)

Remarried 2

Unmarried, currently living with partner 3

Unmarried, having never lived with a partner 4

Unmarried, having previously lived with a partner, but now on my own 5

Divorced 6

Separated 7

Widowed 8

Other (SPONTANEOUS) 9

Refusal (SPONTANEOUS) 10

EB58.2 – D.7. – DEMO TREND

DEMOGRAPHICS

ASK ALL

D.1. In political matters people talk of "the left" and "the right".
How would you place your views on this scale? (SHOW CARD)
(INT.: DO NOT PROMPT – IF CONTACT HESITATES, TRY AGAIN)

LEFT									RIGHT
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Refusal.....11 (532 – 533)

DK.....12

EB58.2 – D.1. – DEMO TREND

NO QUESTIONS D.2. TO D.6.

D.7. ASKED BEFORE Q.50.

D.8. How old were you when you stopped full-time education? (INT.:IF "STILL STUDYING", CODE '00')

		(534 – 535)

EB58.2 – D.8. – DEMO TREND

NO QUESTION D.9.

D.10. ASKED BEFORE Q.25.

D.11. ASKED BEFORE Q.26.

NO QUESTIONS D.12. TO D.14.

D.15. a&b ASKED BEFORE Q.5. a&b

NO QUESTIONS D.16. TO D.18.

D.19. Are you in your household, the person who contributes most to the household income?
(READ OUT)

Yes.....1 (536)

No.....2

Both equally.....3

DK.....4

EB58.2 – D.19. – DEMO TREND

NO QUESTION D.20.

IF "YES", CODE 2 IN D.19.

D.21. a) What is the current occupation of the person who contributes most to the household income?

IF "NOT DOING ANY PAID WORK CURRENTLY", CODE 1 TO 4 IN D.21.a.

b) Did he/she do any paid work in the past? What was his/her last occupation?

	D.21.a. CURRENT OCCUPATION (537 – 538)	D.21.b. LAST OCCUPATION (539 – 540)
NON-ACTIVE	1	
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working		
Student	2	
Unemployed or temporarily not working	3	
Retired or unable to work through illness	4	
SELF EMPLOYED	5	1
Farmer		
Fisherman	6	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect, etc.)	7	3
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	8	4
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	9	5
EMPLOYED	10	6
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)		
General management, director or top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	11	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	12	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	13	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesmen, driver, etc.)	14	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	15	11
Supervisor	16	12
Skilled manual worker	17	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	18	14
NEVER DID ANY PAID WORK		15

EB58.2 – D.21. a&b – DEMO TREND

NO QUESTIONS D.22. TO D.24.

D.25. Would you say you live in a...? (READ OUT)

rural area or village 1 (541)
small or middle sized town 2
large town 3
DK 4

EB58.2 – D.25. – DEMO TREND

NO QUESTIONS D.26. TO D.28.

D.29. We also need some information about the income of this household to be able to analyse the survey results for different types of households. Here is a list of income groups. (SHOW CARD) Please count the total wages and salaries PER MONTH of all members of this household; all pensions and social insurance benefits; child allowances and any other income like rents, etc...Of course, your answer as all other replies in this interview will be treated confidentially and referring back to you or your household will be impossible. Please give me the letter of the income group your household falls into BEFORE tax and other deductions.

B .....1 (542 – 543)
T 2
P 3
F 4
E 5
H 6
L 7
N 8
R 9
M 10
S 11
K 12
Refusal 13
DK 14

EB58.2 – D.29. – DEMO TREND

INTERVIEW PROTOCOLE

P.1. – DATE OF INTERVIEW	DAY (544 – 545)		MONTH (546 – 547)	

P.2. – TIME OF THE BEGINNING OF THE INTERVIEW	HOUR (548 – 549)		MINUTES (550 – 551)	
(INT.:USE 24 HOUR CLOCK)				

P.3. – NUMBER OF MINUTES THE INTERVIEW LASTED	MINUTES (552 – 554)		

P.4. Number of persons present during the interview, including interviewer.

Two (interviewer and respondent).....1 (555)

Three 2

Four 3

Five or more.....4

P.5. Respondent cooperation

Excellent 1 (556)

Fair.....2

Average 3

Bad 4

P.6. Size of locality (LOCAL CODES)

		(557 – 558)

P.7. Region (LOCAL CODES)

		(559 – 560)

P.8. Postal code

								(561 – 568)

P.9. Sample point number

								(569 – 576)

P.10. Interviewer number

								(577 – 584)

P.11. Weighting factor

								(585 – 592)

P.12. a) Fixed telephone available in the household?

Yes.....1 (593)

No.....2

b) Mobile telephone available in the household?

Yes.....1 (594)

No.....2

ASK ONLY IN LUXEMBOURG, BELGIUM AND FINLAND

P.13. Language of interview

	(595)