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An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The policy context and the  
Stories, Pedagogies and Transformational Experience of Young Adults  
(A Case Study) in Nigeria

By

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A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree  
of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

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## Abstract

Nigeria is beset with many educational, economic and social challenges, including poverty, unemployment, gender inequality, lack of skills and poor access to education, especially among young people. Lifelong learning is widely recognised as a means of addressing social injustices and economic instability in the 21st century. Although there has been much public discourse on lifelong learning (LLL) in Nigeria, the subject is under-researched. This study examines LLL policies and the practices that influence young adult engagement in lifelong learning, the pedagogies that influence the development of LLL skills, as well as the impact of lifelong learning on the transformation of young adults, and their communities in Nigeria.

This study adopted a quasi-longitudinal case study that involved two methods of data collection: document analysis and semi-structured interviews, underpinned by a social constructivist perspective. The study involved analysis of three national policy documents in Nigeria: The National Policy on Education (2013); Nigeria-UNESCO: Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL) (2012); and the National Universities Commission (NUC) Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS) (2011). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 40 participants: national level policymakers (n=4); students (n=16), graduates (n=12), instructors (n=5), and management level officials (n=3) drawn from one institute (YCV) in Katsina State, Nigeria. The YCV is an LLL initiative that attempts to address social injustices and develop individuals' lifelong learning skills for personal and economic growth. The YCV is a successful adult education initiative that empowers distressed young adults in Nigeria.

While in Nigeria the predominant goal of LLL are social justice and economic growth this research shows that lifelong learning is difficult to implement in Nigeria. The triggers for participation in LLL are life transitions such as divorce, examination failures and few opportunities to find employment which demoralise young adults, as well as a need to update knowledge and provide community services. The findings suggest that pedagogy of practice informed by critical pedagogy promotes lifelong learning skills, and that the principles of critical pedagogy can transform graduates into becoming economically and socially active individuals within a very challenging economic, political and social context.

The study contributes to the existing literature about the potential of LLL based on critical pedagogy to offer transformational experiences to young adults/adults. These include economic and social transformation beyond self-transformation to promotion of peace building, societal cohesion, social security and community wellbeing; a transition from 'learning to earning; and a way to rebuild lives after divorce, particularly for women.

The study concluded that the challenges to implementing lifelong learning in Nigeria are not only cultural or peoples' attitude to learning but structural and institutional. The study recommends that the implementation of LLL should take into account local knowledge and structures based on critical pedagogy to address internal challenges rather than being guided by internationally agreed development targets.

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## **Author's declaration**

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Printed Name: \_\_\_\_Samir Halliru\_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

## **Dedication**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved parents, who have been my source of inspiration and my beloved family for their support and patience during the period of my Ph.D. studies. It is also dedicated to all those who suffer one form of social injustice or the other in Nigeria and beyond. It is also dedicated to my supervisory team (Dr. Bonnie Slade and Prof Mike Osborne) for their great passion for social justice and social change.

## Abbreviations

ABU	Ahmadu Bello University
Adult	Literacy Centres
BMAS	Bench Mark Academic Standard
BMAS	Bench Mark for Academic Standard
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CDCs	Community Development Council
DFID	Department of International Development
EFA	Education for All
EU	European Union
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
HDI	Human Development Index
HEC	Higher Education Council,
IEIs	Innovative Enterprise Institutes
JAMB	Joint Admission Matriculation Board
KSESP	Katsina State Education Sector Plan
LLL	Lifelong Learning
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NBS	National Bureau for Statistics
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCE	National Certificate of education
NCNE	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NECO	National Examination Council
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research Development Council
NEEDS	National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy
NEET	Neither in education, employment nor training
NMEC	National Agency on Mass Education Commission
NOUN	National Open University of Nigeria
NPE	National Policy on Education
NTI	National Teachers Institutes
NUC	National University Commission
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
RAYL	Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEEDs	State Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy
SIWES	Students Industrial Working Experience
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UDUS	Usman Danfodio University Sokoto
UMYUK	Ummaru Musa Yardua University, Katsina
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UTME	Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination
VEIs	Vocational Enterprise Institutions
WAEC	West African Examination Council
WB	World Bank
YCV	Youth Craft Village

# Chapter 1 Introduction

There is a growing interest around the world in lifelong learning as a means of addressing global economic, political and social development challenges. Medel-Anonuevo, Ohsako and Mauch (2001) argued that the forces of globalisation created outcomes that made learning new skills and competences of paramount importance. The 21st century witnesses the loud voices of nation states and international organisations such as UNESCO, OECD, European Union and the World Bank promoting lifelong learning (LLL).

The global discourses on lifelong learning focus on three key areas (economic prosperity, social stability/justice and development of critical skills for conscientisation). It is argued that lifelong learning impacts economic prosperity, employment and innovation (Aspin *et al.*, 2001; Coffield, 2000; Field, 2005; Green, 2006; OECD 1996; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2015). This LLL agenda comprises investing in education to develop human capital with the purpose of attaining economic development. This is part of the so-called knowledge-based economy as a means for improving jobs skills and economic development. The OECD championed the idea for lifelong learning as a tool for economic development and growth through a report entitled *Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning* (OECD, 1973). The report recommended that education should provide a:

curriculum that gives to each pupil a real choice between further study and work; after leaving compulsory school, access to post compulsory education should be guaranteed to the individual at appropriate times over his (sic) total life-cycle; increasing the participation of adults in tertiary education by recognizing the value of work experience and opening up the universities ... (p.28).

This is relevant because of the failure of formal education to provide equal educational opportunities. LLL is seen as a social policy drive to address social exclusion (Swinney, 2014). The OECD (1973) and UNESCO (1972) were the earlier loud voices on lifelong learning for human capital development and social justice. The more recent claims for LLL are the United Nations declarations such as the *Education For All*, Millennium Development Goals (2020) and Sustainable Development Goals (*Education 2030*), as will be discussed later.

Advocates of lifelong learning indicate that global forces of capitalism have created outcomes that lead to social injustices (social justice, equity and equalities) and argue that LLL can offer a solution to the problems caused by globalisation (Field, 2006; Green, 2000; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; Osborne, 2003; Swinney, 2014; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO 1972, UNESCO, 2015). The UNESCO Faure report (1972) '*Learning to Be: the world education today and tomorrow*' was a key initiative towards understanding lifelong learning as a solution for positive social change. It emphasizes the importance of learning throughout the life span, stressing the principles of *learning to live*, *learning to learn*, so as to be able to absorb new knowledge all through life; *learning to think freely and critically*; *learning to love the world and make it more human*; *learning to develop in and through creative work*" (UNESCO, 1972, p.145). This discourse is consistent with the radical views of Freire (1993), Field (2006), Gramsci (1971), and Mezirow (1991, 1994, and 2009). Freire (1993) and Illich (1971) advocated for the de-institutionalisation of the educational system, with a view of making education more accessible and empowering. The radical views of lifelong learning based on critical pedagogy, however, have not been so easy to put into practice.

UNESCO (1996) later claimed that the only way to meet the requirement of personal progress and development in the globalised world is for individuals to be able to learn throughout the life course:

A key to the twenty-first century, learning throughout life will be essential, for adapting to the evolving requirements of the labour market and for better mastery of the changing timeframes and rhythms of individual existence (p.100).

The ideas as discussed above are now found in the policy documents of many countries in the world. In this way, LLL policies can be said to 'travel' between territories, across an international/global landscape.

While the UNESCO position was concerned with addressing social inequalities, some have claimed it reflected neo-liberal ideals (Preece, 2009). Such global discourses on lifelong learning lead to restructuring of educational systems (Coetzee, 2014; European Commission, 2006; Higher Education Council, HEC, 1992; Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013). For



example, in Nigeria there were changes in the policy documents to meet *Education For All*, Millennium Development Goals (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015; Nigeria 2015 *Millennium Development End-point report*, 2015; NERDC, 2013) as part of a drive for LLL, as discussed in section 1.2 below and Chapter 5. These changes reflected both human capital development and social justice approach to lifelong learning. The *OECD Employment Outlook 2009: Tackling the Jobs Crisis* is another example of LLL policies. The international conference on Adult Education (*CONFINTEA V1*) held in Brazil and adopted the Belém Framework for Action (*BFA*) affirms the power and potential of adult learning and education for a viable future for all (UNESCO, 2015). The representative of 144 countries adopted the *Framework for Action (Education 2030)* towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all (p.7), as part of the humanitarian concern for social justice and empowerment. This recognised education as a public good and essential means for the promotion of peace, tolerance and sustainable development. It also recognised education as a key to addressing unemployment and poverty (UNESCO, 2015).

In addition, there has been an increased attention on the development of the capabilities of individuals to achieve self-fulfilment and self-direction through greater participation in learning at all spheres of life (Coffield, 2000; UNESCO. 2015). The UNESCO General Assembly in 2015 recommends that lifelong learning should aim to:

... is to equip people with the necessary capabilities to exercise and realize their rights and take control of their destinies. It promotes personal and professional development, thereby supporting more active engagement by adults with their societies, communities and environments. It fosters sustainable and inclusive economic growth and decent work prospects for individuals. It is therefore a crucial tool in alleviating poverty, improving health and well-being and contributing to sustainable learning societies (UNESCO, 2015, art. 8).

Osborne (2003) argued all the movement towards lifelong learning in Europe is associated to a lesser or greater degree to economic imperatives created by global competition and technological change. The challenge of the knowledge economy, individual responsibility and self-improvement, employability, flexibility of institutions and individuals, social inclusion and citizenship were

the drive. Indeed, the global discourse of lifelong learning can be seen in Nigerian policies, but there has been little research into how these policies are implemented or what the impact of the policies are on individuals, their communities and the nation. The focus of this empirical research is to investigate the national policy and practices that promote lifelong learning among young adults in Nigeria. The impulses for the entrenchment of lifelong learning were to address the human capital deficit and growing social injustices (poverty, unemployment, depreciated skills, exclusion and widening of social inequalities) within the socio-economic and cultural context of Nigeria, as will be discussed below.

## 1.1 Socio-Economic and Cultural Context of Nigeria

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa. There are more than 500 languages spoken in Nigeria, with the official language being English as former British colony (Federal Ministry of Education (FME) (2015). Nigeria became an independent country on 1st October 1960 and it has undergone political, social, economic and educational restructuring. Nigeria has a population of 180 million with an annual growth rate of 2.9 and a population density of 150 across 937,052.16 land square kilometres (National Bureau for Statistics (NBS), 2010). Table 1.1 below shows the rapid increase of Nigerian population from 1911 to 2010 as follows:

**Table 1-1 Nigeria population for 1911 to 2010**

Year	1911	1921	1931	1941	1952	1962	1963	1973	1991	2006	2010
POP	15.9	18.7	20.0	-	30.3	45.2	55.7	79.8	88.9	140.0	163

(National Bureau for Statistics, 2010, p.3)

The rate at which Nigeria's population is growing is alarming in relation to the distribution of social and economic resources. Nigeria pursues an open economic policy that is state controlled and private sector driven. Agriculture is Nigeria's dominant source of livelihood, but it is no longer the mainstay of the economy. The mainstay of the economy is now crude oil and Nigeria has been a major exporter since 1970. Nigeria is the 12th largest producer of petroleum in the world, the 8th largest exporter and has the 10th largest proven reserves (NBS, 2010). However, Nigeria is a mono-economy highly dependent on inflows from the sale of crude oil within a global market that is in decline.

Nigeria's over-reliance on oil has brought about impoverishment in the last two decades. This has resulted in high rates of poverty, unemployment, low literacy rates and massive corruption, especially in the public spheres (FME, 2003; NBS, 2010). These and other cultural factors have continued to widen social injustice and exclusion in the spheres of education, economic, political and social life.

It is important to note that Nigeria is a traditional society. The cultural practices show the values and beliefs respected by the members of the society. The various economic, cultural and traditional beliefs mostly transform into discrimination against women, persons with disabilities and people from a low-economic background. This is because Nigeria is a patriarchal society that reflects cultural norms and beliefs, which are discriminatory against women (Abdul *et al.*, 2012). For example, the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (2013) shows that cultural practices such as early marriage, childbearing, poor economy and heavy household burdens for women affect their enrolment and transitions to education. This shows marked gender inequality within Nigeria's socio-economic and cultural context. These gender inequalities are linked to various traditional practices of the divergence between ethnic and cultural groups in Nigeria. In relations to that, there were cultural traditions that show women do not have an identity of their own but derive those identities from men (Abdul *et al.*, 2012). Women and girls experience significant gender gaps in education, economic empowerment, and political participation, as discussed in section 1.1.1 below. Amidst those cultural and social norms, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2015) report shows that children from low-income families in the developing countries are likely to be out-of-school four times than those children from the wealthy family. It seems that culture or attitudes towards education are not only factors creating social exclusion but also poverty and economic conditions.

The challenges of poverty, cultural and social norms in the Nigerian society has led to the exclusion of women, the poor and people with disabilities and socially marginalised groups in educational provisions, as will be shown in the next few paragraphs. This study relates to the understanding of the role of the existing structure of lifelong learning in empowering women, people with disabilities and the socially disadvantaged group within the Nigerian context. The latter part of

this chapter will highlight the literacy, socio-economic and cultural context in Nigeria and its implication of the social exclusion.

Social exclusion is a situation, in which people or group of people are at risk of being excluded from good livelihood; employment; education, skills and cultural capital ... democratic participation; public goods ... humane treatment, respect, personal fulfilment, understanding' (Silver, 1994, p.541). Estivill (2003) maintained that social exclusions are rifts arising from the 'heart of the economy, politics, and society', which places people, groups and communities into disadvantage position in relation to power, access to resources and prevailing values within the society. Presumably, social exclusion creates a high level of illiteracy, poverty, unemployment, lack of access to education, failures in education, gender disparity and neglect of people at disadvantaged, as discussed in Nigeria's statistical reports below. Swinney (2014) shows that there is more to social exclusion as it is not only limited to views about poverty and disadvantage but also on social norms and attitudes toward political and social organisations. The next section will discuss the level of social inequalities and exclusions in Nigeria.

### 1.1.1 Literacy and Education Profile of Nigeria

The National Literacy Survey (2010) monitored by the NBS reported that literacy rates amongst the population are estimated to be at 56.9%, with a significant variation across genders. Table 1.2 below illustrates the literacy distribution amongst the population.

**Table 1-2 Literacy rate among male and female population (NMEC, 2008, p.12)**

Age group	Male	Literacy rate %	Female	Literacy rate %	Total	Literacy rate %
15-24 Yrs.	12,679,810	81.3	12, 566,870	62.8	25,246,680	71.2
25-49 Yrs.	17,885,366	68.8	18,965,389	37.1	36, 850,755	52.9
50+ Yrs.	6,550,636	40.9	6,238,496	14.6	12,789.132	28.9
Total	37,115,812	68.2	37,770,755	41.9	74,886,567	55.0

Table 1.2 shows that 45% of adults are considered illiterate in Nigeria. There is dramatic disparity between men and women in literacy profile. Probably, the weakness in these statistics is that literacy is measured based on the ability to

read and write in English to the detriment of literacy in other local languages. Added to this, UNICEF (2014) data suggests that more than 10.5 million Nigerian children were out of school, with the majority of these being girls residing in the northern region. The National Bureau for Statistics (2015) has indicated that primary school enrolment in Nigeria has fallen from 84.8% in 2005 to 57.4% in 2014. It also indicates that secondary school net enrolment was very low at 35% and is not increasing (NBS, 2015). With these statistics, it seems for every child out-of-school the country is losing an opportunity to produce successful workers of all types. It seems the situation of social exclusion within the context will deny the country potentialities for development. Presumably, once children and young adults are out-of-school that breeds social misfits and a potential danger for instability. (See for example, Ifeoma (2013) findings below).

Meanwhile, the literacy rate among the children 15 years is 59.57% as of 2015 (NBS, 2015). Access to education, combatting gender equality and low literacy rates have resulted in low levels of success despite a clamour for free education. Further, the adult literacy rate for the whole country stands at 55.0% with a significant variation across genders (NMEC, 2008). However, it seems that efforts and commitments to social justice to address the yearning of marginalised groups through free education are not yielding positive outcomes as seen from the above statistics. NBS (2015) report disparity between rural (69.7%) and urban areas (84.4%) in terms of access, enrolment and completion rate in primary education. The worst affected by the challenges of access to education and completion are girls with many going into marriage, cutting off their opportunity for education and further education.

The National Baseline Survey on Youth (2012) indicates girls enrol to education with less frequency than boys do. The report also shows high dropout rates for girls. With the above discrepancies and implementation of LLL policies in Nigeria, many children leave school with bleak prospects.

The NBS (2015) indicate educational disparity across geo-political zones within Nigeria. For example, whilst there are impressive reports in terms of access to education in the south-east (90.5%), south-south (88.1%), south-west (87%) and the north-central (80.2%), by contrast within the north-west (50.5%) and the north-east (42.5%) access was markedly lower. The situation in the north-east

was made worst by the Boko Haram insurgency in which schools were targeted. In Borno State (north-east) more than 200 young school girls were kidnapped by Boko Haram in April 2014. This was a serious setback to education in the area, though 80 or more students were rescued after two years of captivity. The north-east had the lowest literacy rate among young women (33.0%) and followed by the north-west at 35% in 2014 (NBS, 2015). The NBS (2015) further reported that the percentage of literate young women in the south-east (93.5 per cent) was much higher than in the rest of the regions.

It has been reported that over 90% of students that enrolled in senior secondary schools in Nigeria complete their studies with high hopes of successful transition to formal tertiary education (USAID, 2016). This is part of journey for lifelong learning as enshrined in the NPE (2013). However, reports suggest that graduates of secondary school have trouble in transitioning to tertiary education. One of the major outcomes is a failure to meet examination requirements for successful transition to tertiary education. Table 1.3 below presents data from the NBS (2014) for senior secondary school West African Examination Council (WAEC) results (2011 to 2013) of students that passed their examination with five credits including English Language and Mathematics from both genders.

**Table 1-3 Distribution of WAEC Result from 2011 - 2013 (NBS 2014)**

Year	Total number Sat			5 Credits and above plus English Lang.			5 Credits and above plus Mathematics			5 Credits and above plus Mathematics & English Lang.		
	M	F	%F	M	F	%F	M	F	%F	M	F	%F
2011	836011	688516	45.2	115404	116837	50.3	33465	28928	46.4	233712	226804	49.2
2012	923239	747553	44.7	91904	90418	49.6	48616	40210	45.3	319164	310822	49.3
2013	919672	750663	44.9	84759	82536	49.3	104744	83825	44.5	311299	299668	49.0

The youth pathway from secondary to tertiary institutions is impacted as students without English and Mathematics are not admitted to universities and colleges.

Moreover, even those students obtain the required O level credits face elimination either through the Joint Admission Matriculation Board (JAMB) or the quota system criteria. For example, the JAMB (2010) report indicates two million students sat for Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) for entrance into tertiary education in Nigeria, but less than one-third (520, 000) qualify to

enrolled in tertiary education. Tertiary institutions include universities, colleges, polytechnics and mono-technics, and there are 353 in Nigeria. Restrictive entry requirements, inadequate funding and limited space all affects transition to tertiary education. The manifestation of social injustice and inequalities in enrolment in tertiary institutions is glaring and it affects both sexes. Table 1.4 below provides a summary of number and percentage of candidates admitted to the Universities in Nigeria from 2008 - 2012.

**Table 1-4 Percentage of students admitted to Universities from 2008-2012**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Application</b>	<b>Admission</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
2008	1,054,082	118,691	11.3%
2009	1,306,005	190,786	14.5%
2010	1,404,111	192,255	13.7%
2011	1,575,522	28,809	12.2%
2012	1,579,176	234,526	14.8%

(JAMB Annual Report, 2012)

The NBS (2015) reported that the overall enrolment of students in tertiary education was 16.7% in 2014 and there was a 2.4% gap between enrolment rates for men (10.4%) and women (8%). Level of income is a strong determinate of participation in tertiary education. This shows that female low enrolment in education is a reflection of the pattern of social relations that exists between sexes in Nigeria. Presumably, culture in Nigeria has been used as a tool for the domestication of young girls and women, as discussed above. Table 1.5 indicates the disparity of students' enrolment and out-turn in tertiary institutions in Nigeria (NBS, 2014).

**Table 1-5 Summary of students' enrolment and out-turn in tertiary institutions in Nigeria (NBS, 2014, p.15)**

Year	College of Education						Polytechnic						Universities					
	Enrolment			Outturn			Enrolment			Outturn			Enrolment			Outturn		
	Female	Male	%	Female	Male	%	Female	Male	%	Female	Male	%	Female	Male	%	Female	Male	%
2010	311495	147495	47.4	29320	25547	46.6	36761	52470	41.2	22625	29147	43.7	70792	49411	41.1	12341	24345	33.6
2011	317274	156218	49.2	19006	18767	49.7	38237	52596	42.1	21423	31685	40.3	65823	49107	42.7	8864	19437	31.3
2012	353075	153017	30.2	26164	25863	49.7	44911	65994	40.4	22997	35412	39.4	83266	61684	42.6	10418	21968	32.2
2013	328642	158456	33.2	18714	13860	42.5	27711	40828	40.4	15697	21201	42.5	59143	46292	43.9	9068	48854	15.7



As illustrated above, the issue of access to education is still a challenge in Nigeria with gaps between males and females. The NBS (2015) indicates only 16.7% of the total number of students who completed secondary school have access to tertiary education.

The NBS (2010) noted that that 64.1% of young people were in school but lacked the appropriate skills to be able to maintain sustainable life. In addition, 21.3% of young people were out of school with no opportunity for employment or transition to further learning. Apparently, it is not surprising that literacy figures remain low, as problems with school enrolment, dropout rates and a lack of skills are critical issues in all parts of the country.

As well as literacy challenges, high dropout rates and inequality in access to education, there are other issues affecting Nigeria. For example, a study in Nigeria by Dabalen, Oni, and Adekola (2000) found young graduates to be poorly trained and unable to demonstrate on the job oral and written competences, problem solving skills, interpersonal skills and technical skills. In a report by Saint, Hartnett, and Strassner (2004) in Nigeria, it was reported that young graduates were ill-equipped to work or unable to demonstrate the abilities necessary for living in the 21st century. This suggests that academic standards have fallen to the extent that it is no longer a guarantee that graduates will be able to demonstrate a sense of self-direction, communication skills or technical competence. In a more recent quantitative study by Pitan and Adedeji (2012), it was found that there were gross inadequacies in the supply of skills, thereby suggesting that communication, IT, decision-making, critical thinking, interpersonal relationships, and entrepreneurial, technical and numeracy skills were critically deficient amongst graduates. These problems were traced back to teachers lacking the necessary competencies to integrate innovative teaching methods in the learning process (Yusuf and Balogun, 2011). A study by Folaranmi (2007) in Nigeria found that teachers lack effective teaching techniques to engage their students in learning, and the resultant effect is a lack of competencies amongst students after their studies. In his study of the problem of teaching and learning in the development of competencies amongst students in Nigeria, Osuolale (2014) found that teaching and learning environments are not conducive to learning because of an absence of infrastructure and facilities for practical learning and experimentation. It was revealed that teaching

approaches are teacher-centred and as a result, students find it difficult to solve problems reflective of real life challenges. The study further revealed that most teachers have a low awareness of developments in educational practice and are not committed due to a lack of motivation (Osuolale, 2014). These challenges concerning the low quality of graduates might be related to the advancement of capitalism. Since 2000, Nigeria has reignited its commitment and effort to revive its education system with the goal of attaining Education for All (EFA) (FME, 2015). The critical areas targeted by the Nigerian government in collaboration with its donor agencies and partners (e.g. UNESCO, UNICEF and DFID) are the review of policies that promote early childcare development and education (FME, 2015). This has been the most significant investment in basic education through universal primary education, and it is goal two of the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2015). According to MDG's report of 2015, primary school net enrolment rates in developing regions reached 91% in 2015 - up from 83% in 2000. This priority to promote access and lifelong learning whilst reducing problems affecting parents' ability to afford education is reflective of EFA. Secondly, there is determination to strengthen delivery processes by training teachers to enhance achievement through quality education. Finally, there has been vocationalisation of the national curriculum, with the goal being to promote entrepreneurialism as a means to reduce poverty and unemployment amongst the population.

Amidst challenges and efforts of lifelong learning in Nigeria, this study investigated how lifelong learning interventions transformed lives of the participants of this study from victims of extreme poverty, low engagement in education, failures in education, and lack of access to education, and gender inequalities to actors capable of transforming their lives and their community. The study examines policies, stories, pedagogies, and transformation experiences of the participants, (See Chapter 5, 6 and 7 respectively).

### **1.1.2 Unemployment and Poverty Profile of Nigeria**

Young adult unemployment is a global phenomenon affecting all parts of the world, including European countries and the United States of America. According to data made available by OECD (2013), young adult unemployment rates in countries such as Portugal and Italy are 35%, whereas in Spain and Greece it is

above 50%. Eichhorst *et al.* (2015, p.314) posited that young adults aged 15 to 24 who were neither in employment nor education (NEET) in 2012 ranged from 4 - 7% in the Netherlands, Denmark and Switzerland, with this being 18% or more in Italy and Greece.

Nigeria is not an exception in the global trend of unemployment. The country's population is still growing at an annual growth rate of 2.9% and it is affected by a high rate of unemployment and poverty (Bloom, 2010), as reported in Table 1.6 below.

Evidence from previous studies suggest that high unemployment rate is caused by a variety of factors (Dally and Marks, 2014; Eichhorst *et al.*, 2015; Fryer and Stambe, 2014; Feliksiak, 2010; Maguire *et al.*, 2013; National Bureau for Statistics (NBS), 2010; Qayyum and Siddiqui, 2007). Such factors include skill mismatches and depreciating skills-based job opportunities (Dally and Marks 2014; Feliksiak 2010; Qayyum and Siddiqui, 2007), overpopulation relative to physical resources of capital, land, and water and the importation of goods and services (Lewis, 2013). In an institutional ethnography study, Slade (2012) revealed that educated immigrants in Canada experience higher levels of unemployment because of a lack of Canadian work experience. The finding further shows that the immigrants with Canadian volunteer work experience do not transform into relevant employment opportunities (Slade, 2012). Nigeria is one of the major producers of crude oil and importers of petroleum products, yet it has dilapidated refineries and increasing levels of unemployment. Arguably, the wealth in the country does not translate into empowerment and liberation of the population from the shackles of poverty and unemployment, as presented in Table 1.6 and other statistics below. The NBS (2010) provides unemployment figures in Nigeria and Table 1.6 below shows these rates across states in Nigeria.

**Table 1-6 Unemployment rates in Nigerian States (NBS, 2010, p.19)**

State	Rate (%)	State	Rate (%)	State	Rate (%)
Abia	14.5	Ekiti	20.6	Nasarawa	10.1
Adamawa	29.4	Enugu	14.9	Niger	11.9
Akwalbom	34.1	Gombe	32.1	Ogun	8.5
Anambra	16.8	Imo	20.8	Ondo	14.9
Bauchi	37.2	Jigawa	26.5	Osun	12.6
Bayelsa	38.4	Kaduna	11.6	Oyo	14.9
Benue	8.5	Kano	27.6	Plateau	7.1
Borno	27.7	Katsina	37.3	Rivers	27.9
Cross-River	14.3	Kebbi	12.0	Sokoto	22.4
Delta	18.4	Kogi	19.0	Taraba	26.8
Ebonyi	12.0	Kwara	11.0	Yobe	27.3
Edo	12.2	Lagos	19.5	Zamfara	13.3

Table 1-6 shows that unemployment is affecting all states in Nigeria with the unemployment rate for the whole country standing at 23.9% (Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), 2010). The group most affected by unemployment is Nigeria's youth, which constitutes about 64 million people (NBS, 2010). This is despite the assertion of the National Youth Development Policy that, 'young adults are the greatest assets any nation can have' (National Youth Policy, 2009, p.2). It could be argued that the challenges facing the population might be caused by drifts, corruption, lack of innovation in teaching and learning and the challenges of global forces of capitalism.

The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2016) report that the human development index (HDI) ranking of Nigeria in 2015 was 152 out of 187 countries with 0.471 (HDI), signifying no improvement for most social indicators. The NBS (2014) report that the unemployment rates in Nigeria rose from 12.3% (2006) to 23.9% in 2011 and 24.3% in 2014. One third of young people aged 15 to 30 are unemployed (54%) (NBS, 2016) and their status is not likely to improve in the immediate future. Despite the policies, the situation is worrying with high-income inequality in the country.

According to NBS (2010), in spite of booming crude oil prices in the last few years, Nigeria is a rich country with the characteristics of a poor economy. More than half of the population lives in poverty. According to NBS (2010), 56.6% of the population are living below the poverty line on less than US\$1 per day, whereas the relative measure represents 69% of the population. The subjective measure puts the poverty profile at 92%. The subjective measures of poverty are

indicators of standard of living that people actually enjoy. This involves deficiencies in the consumption of necessities (food) and perceived over-indebtedness and scarcity. Whereas, the objective measures focus on people's access to resources (education, health care, and employment). These are arguably manifestations of social injustice within the country.

This data further shows that poverty in Nigeria is more prevalent in rural areas (NBS, 2010). In 2015, it was estimated that 48% of the population live in urban areas and 52% live in rural areas with 60% of their livelihood depends on agriculture (FME, 2015).

Reports show that young adults are affected by unemployment, underemployment, a lack of education and disengagement from education and training (National Bureau for Statistics, 2010; United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and United Nations Programme on Youth 2011). The factors responsible for the high rates of poverty and unemployment in Nigeria are corruption, industrial decay, neglect of the agricultural sector and inappropriate investment in education (Asaju, Arome, Anyio, 2014).

In addition to the aforementioned, the organisation and delivery methods of teaching and learning might also contribute to young people's lack of skills and subsequent unemployment. Evidence has suggested that educational institutions in Nigeria are faced with a myriad of challenges ranging from policy initiatives to the implementation of fair assessment within the teaching and learning process (Ezepue, 2008). This according to Ezepue (2008) has brought about declining academic standards, which has led to low-quality graduates and subsequent unemployment. Further evidence has found that an absence of training equipment, innovative teaching and learning methods, as well as a dearth of training institutions for the training of young people in Pakistan, are also factors related to unemployment and disengagement in education (Qayyum and Siddiqui, 2007).

Apparently, the above challenges have made young people's transition from schooling to working life difficult. This has had a serious negative impact on young people's personal growth and on Nigeria's societal wellbeing. For example, the unemployment rate amongst young people is 54% of the total 64

million young people in Nigeria (NBS, 2010). In addition, 64.1% of young people are in school but lack the appropriate skills to maintain a sustainable life. 21.3% of young people are out of school with no opportunity for employment or transition to further learning. These conditions, as described by the OECD (2009), increase the gap and the disproportionate participation of young people in economic activities and nation building, as well as in their personal growth and wellbeing. This has resulted in growing restlessness with young people frustrated by unemployment, a lack of skills and opportunity, increasing competition for jobs and disengagement from education and training (Bloom *et al.*, 2010). Ifeoma (2013) found that youth unemployment and disengagement from education and training is fuelling social vices such as robbery, destitution, political thuggery, kidnapping and social unrest in Nigeria. A similar study in the UK by Maguire *et al.* (2013) found that NEETs (young people not in education, employment or training) are likely to have poor health status and are more likely to engage in criminal activities. This suggests the importance of the continued engagement of young people into a productive life through education and training at all levels. Bloom *et al.* (2010) argues that for the future of a nation's youth to be bright, equal access and opportunities should become a priority at all levels of education.

It is in the context of unemployment, poverty, low literacy rates, and ineffective skills that the promotion of lifelong learning values becomes even more important. Medel-Anonuevo, Ohsako and Mauch (2001) argue that trends in the current global world are ever changing and that individuals cannot rely on the same skillsets over the years. The current global world requires core competencies and skills (lifelong learning skills) such as learning-to-learn, problem-solving, entrepreneurship and critical understanding skills at a time when 60% of trades and jobs are either not known or not available (Medel-Anonuevo, Ohsako and Mauch, 2001). The next section presents lifelong learning in the Nigerian context.

## **1.2 Lifelong Learning in a Nigerian Context**

Given the tempo of the forces of globalisation and global commitment to the promotion of lifelong learning (LLL), a review of the National Policy on Education, (policy document that guides the educational process in Nigeria)

becomes necessary. The Nigerian government finds it essential to align its education system with the development goals emerging from global partnerships and collaboration (NERDC, 2013). The impetus for the revision of NPE is to accommodate the global commitment for LLL through international protocols, such as the *EFA* goals, which emphasise early childhood development, girls' education and the education of marginalised groups. In addition, MDG goals one and three are also important to the NPE, which envisions youth and adults having equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes for empowerment and poverty reduction, as discussed in Chapter 5.

The above efforts of lifelong learning include the National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS), which commenced in 2004 (NEEDS, 2005). NEEDS is part of Nigeria's commitment to sustainable growth and poverty reduction. NEEDS is based on three pillars: (i) empowering people and improving social service delivery; (ii) fostering economic growth, in particular in the non-oil private sector; and (iii) enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of government and governance (National Planning Commission, 2005). This probably makes the broad goal of education to be human capital development. A one-year strategy plan for the development of education sectors (2010-2011) and a subsequent four-year strategy plan was developed for implementation in the education sector at all levels of government (federal, state and local government) (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013).

The strategy plans in the education sector in Nigeria expanded the role of education to be more in line with global LLL agenda with education being seen as:

... investment for economic, social and political development; an aggregate tool for the empowerment for the poor and the social marginalised groups; effective means of developing the full capacities and potentials of human resources, development of competent work force through acquisition of practical skills relevant to the world of work as a veritable means of developing sound and intelligent learning societies fit and relevant in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013, p. i).

This position entails providing access and developing institutional and individual capabilities. The transformation agenda in Nigeria sees education as the means

of promoting a market economy and competitiveness. This is relevant to the human capital model that promotes investment in education for the achievement of economic prosperity (Coffield, 2000; Green, 2006; OECD 1996; Reuters *et al.*, 2015). The second position addresses issues of social justice such as equal access and empowerment for marginalised groups to be able to fit into the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Social justice has its roots in human rights and equality. It refers to the ways in which human rights are manifested in everyday life and across society; and in an educational context; this is related to access, opportunities and attainment (European Commission, 2016, p.33). The models for lifelong learning (humanistic model) for ensuring equality (Allman; 1999; Freire, 1993; Green, 2006; Longworth and Osborne, 2010) and (human capital development) economic growth will be discussed in Chapter 2. The social justice aspect of education will be discussed in Chapter 2 and 5 respectively.

In an effort to incorporate lifelong learning principles in education, major policy reforms have been made in Nigeria. Lifelong learning policies reflect both achieving national economic progress and individual self-fulfilment and empowerment for equal access in order to move away from poverty and unemployment. This agrees with UNESCO's (1975) report that lifelong learning is for the improvement of the quality of life at both individual and group levels. The revision and update of the NPE (2007) to the NPE (2013) was informed by the need to use education to meet EFA, MDG and SDG goals to ensure social and economic transformation, wealth creation, poverty reduction, employment generation and values reorientation in response to UBE's provision of access education. Subsequent to this development is the global initiatives for *Education for All* and the achievement of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as part of the lifelong learning strategies, EFA and MDGs goals are discussed in Chapter 5, as part of the global influence of LLL in Nigeria.

Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC) (2013) suggests that NPE 2013 is aimed at providing access to education in order to empower marginalised groups as a means of ensuring social justice. It also indicates that its target is to end poverty, unemployment and gender disparities. The education policy reflects a global capitalist agenda of promoting human capital as a means of attaining economic prosperity, as discussed in section 2.3.1 (See Chapter 2). It maintains that the major way of achieving its target is through



education and sees formal, non-formal and informal (See Chapter 2), vocational training, distance education, and on-the-job training as significant processes. This is based on the view that lifelong learning is a process of individual development across lifespan and learning is from cradle to grave, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Maclachlan and Osborne, 2009; OECD, 1996; Preece, 2013; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002).

### **1.2.1 The Institutional Framework for Lifelong Learning in Nigeria**

Lifelong learning policies in Nigeria were formulated to address the challenges of access, literacy, numeracy, poverty, unemployment, and the promotion of social and economic development. The institutional framework for the promoting lifelong learning is through formal and non-formal education. The Federal Ministry of Education directs and formulates education policies in Nigeria through its various agencies. These agencies are the structures for the promotion of lifelong learning and include the Universal Basic Education Commission, the National University Commission (NUC), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), the National Agency on Mass Education Commission (NMEC) and the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE). The NMEC promotes adult and non-formal education whilst the other commissions promote formal and non-formal education. Therefore, to reflect the global discourse on lifelong learning, educational reforms were conducted to address social exclusion, literacy, poor skills, poverty, unemployment, and poor economic growth.

### **1.2.2 Educational Reforms and the Evolution of Lifelong Learning**

The NPE provides a structure for educational systems in Nigeria that aims to reflect the complementarity of formal and non-formal approaches to education. The aims and structures of formal and non-formal education are similar to both endeavours to widen access and promote opportunities to move from one part of the system of education to another. This is the main division that underpins the Nigerian educational system and through which the goal of universal basic education is pursued.

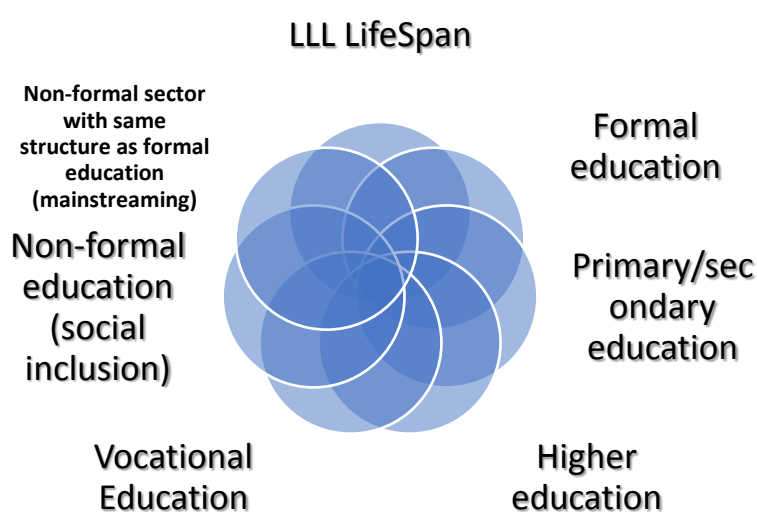
The Nigerian education system is divided into the following groupings/phases:

1. early child care and development for ages 0-4 years;
2. basic education for ages 5-15 years. This encompasses pre-primary of one year, six years of primary education and three years of junior secondary education;
3. post-basic education of three years in secondary schools and technical colleges;
4. tertiary education provided in colleges of education, mono-technics, polytechnics and universities;
5. Continuing education.

This formal education structure is a 6-3-3-4 system. It came into being in 1983 with the purpose of meeting the educational needs of citizens to equip them with skills for self-reliance. The 6-3-3-4 is a system of education in Nigeria, in which recipient of the education would spend six years in primary school, three years in junior secondary school, three years in senior secondary school, and four years in a tertiary institution.

Recently, a new system of education was introduced known as the 9-3-4 system, with the focus being to meet the Millennium Development Goals (2020). A non-formal structure was provided to complement the efforts of the formal structure of education. The non-formal education structure targets social inclusion to educational provisions. These institutions include the Vocational Enterprise Institutions (VEIs), Adult Literacy Centres; Innovative Enterprise Institutes (IEIs), National Teachers Institutes (NTI) and the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). The VEIs Adult Literacy Centres, Nomadic Education Centres and Innovative Enterprise Institutes (IEIs) were designed to provide entrepreneurship, self-employment, remedial education and second chance education to different sets of learners (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013). NTI and NOUN were designed to provide educational opportunities to different categories of workers such as teachers and administrators. The NPE (2013) maintains that open and distance learning in the form of sandwich programmes or distance learning is, 'to meet the special

needs of employers and employees by mounting special courses for employees' (NERDC, p.33). Formal tertiary institutions were also revised so that they offered integrated entrepreneurial, peace and conflict studies. This was seen as important for guaranteeing young people's development of knowledge and skills to make them globally competitive as well as capable of contributing to Nigeria's socio-economic development (National University Commissions, Benchmark Academic Standard, (National Universities Commission (NUC), 2011)). Figure 1.1 below illustrates the formal and non-formal educational provisions as a means of promoting lifelong learning.



**Figure 1-1 Structure of formal and non-formal educational provisions (NERDC, 2013)**

The formal and non-formal structures of education in Nigeria were designed to echo the EFA and MDG goals with the aim of promoting inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all. Both MDG and EFA emphasise lifelong learning to be a guiding principle for education, in all settings and at all levels so everyone has equitable access to education. The EFA and MDG goals are means of addressing all forms of exclusion, marginalisation, disparities, access inequalities and participation. They seek to provide flexible learning pathways for the recognition and validation of knowledge and skills acquired through non-formal and informal education. Based on the EFA and MDG goals, Nigerian educational policies reflect all of these intentions as a means of achieving equity in education. For example, the philosophy of education in Nigeria reflects the requirements of EFA and MDG goals:

... based on the development of the individual into a sound and effective citizen and the provision of equal opportunities for all citizens of the nations at the basic, secondary and tertiary levels both inside and outside the formal school system (NERDC, 2013, p.1)

As noted earlier, the NPE 2007 was revised in line with declarations to accommodate global challenges with education being the catalyst for national development. However, it is important to note that prior to this, Nigerian educational policies had been undergoing review since independence from the British Colonial administration in 1960. Woolman (2001) argues that the educational policies at the time of independence mainly targeted the development of a workforce for economic progress and the 'Africanisation' of the civil service. He shows that the legacy left by the colonial education system led to the first military coup in 1966. Fafunwa (1974) maintains that independence educational policies were narrow and failed to meet the needs of Nigerians. The problems noted in colonial educational policies that prompted reviews included irrelevant curricula, obsolete methods, high dropout rates and graduates with low initiative and creativity (Fafunwa, 1974). Uchendu (1979) further noted the challenges of inequality of access, rural-urban disparities, the educational gap between ethnic groups and differences in the curriculum of missionary based education.

The challenges of colonial education policies were the impetus for the convening of the 1969 National Curriculum Conference with a view to changing the colonial orientation of the Nigerian education system (NERDC, 2013; Nigerian Educational Research Council, 1972). The focus of the conference was the promotion of national consciousness and self-reliance through educational processes. The 1969 national curriculum marked the takeover of schools from missionaries and the establishment of many educational institutions. The NCC (1969) led to the emergence of the first National Policy on Education in 1977, with the focus of realising a self-reliant and self-sufficient nation to meet the country's developmental needs. This development made primary education free and compulsory for all children in order to address apathy towards education - the apathy being based on the view that western education was simply the Christianisation of the natives. As a result, the government took over schools run by Christian missionaries (Fafunwa, 1974).

The first NPE of 1977 was followed by the revised 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th editions, published in 1981, 1988, 2004 and 2007 respectively (NERDC, 2013). The chronology of educational reforms and their focus is illustrated in Table 1.7 below:

**Table 1-7 Chronology of Nigerian Educational Reforms and their Focus, 1960-2013 (Fafunwa, 1974; NERDC, 2004 and 2013)**

Chronology of Nigerian Educational Reforms and their Focus, 1960-2013	
Independence Policy on Education; civilian education policy	manpower development; Africanisation and achievement of the 3Rs (reading, writing and arithmetic)
National Policy on Education 1977 military educational reforms	self-reliance; self-sufficiency; free education to meet the developmental needs and achievement of the 3Rs
National Policy on Education 1981, civilian educational reforms	literacy; national consciousness; democratisation
National Policy on Education 1988 military educational reforms	self-independence; structural adjustment; economic development; inculcation of discipline
National Policy on Education 2004 civilian educational reforms	literacy; inculcation of values and attitudes for the survival of individuals and society; EFA goals; the achievement of social, political and economic development
National Policy on Education 2007 civilian educational reforms	literacy; inculcation of values for self-reliance; EFA goals; achievement of social, political and economic transformation through education (social justice and human capital development)
National Policy on Education 2013 civilian educational reforms	literacy; equal educational opportunities; gender equality; self-reliance; commitment to international protocols; EFA goals; MDGs; achievement of social, political and economic transformation through education (social justice and human capital development)

It is important to note that the present NPE (2013) is tasked with addressing problems of access, inequality, unemployment, poverty and economic development at all levels of education, reflecting global best practice.

To meet the goals of individual empowerment and development of the national economy, educational reforms highlighted measures to ensure the development of lifelong learning skills. For example, NERDC (2013) indicates that:

... educational activities shall be learner-centred for maximum self-development and self-fulfilment; teaching shall be practical, activity-based, experiential and IT supported; education shall be related to the overall community needs; all tiers of government shall promote the establishment and support of reading clubs in schools, community libraries and other resources that will enhance effective learning; special provision and incentives shall be made ... at all level of education system; continuing education shall be part and parcel of education system ... ( p.2).

This quote suggests the NPE's intention to support the promotion of LLL skills through learner-centred pedagogy and continued learning at all levels of education.

The NPE (2013), Nigeria-UNESCO Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL, 2012) and National University Commissions, Benchmark Academic Standard (NUC-BMAS 2011) are important national education policy documents, (See Chapter 5 analysis of policy context of lifelong learning in Nigeria). It is important to note that the National Policy on Education (NPE) in Nigeria is the prevailing national document guiding the effective administration and implementation of education at all levels. The NPE contains statements of intention as well as goals and requirements for quality education delivery in Nigeria (NERDC, 2013). The RYAL document is a national effort in collaboration with UNESCO to promote the achievement of EFA, whilst the BMAS document highlights learning outcomes and competencies expected of graduates (NUC, 2011). This study gathered empirical data to explore how these policies are implemented and whether there are any gaps between policies and practices.

Despite the discourses of lifelong learning in National Policy on Education in Nigeria, there is an absence of empirical research that examines policies and practices that promote lifelong learning. This research seeks to examine the policies and related practices that facilitate young adults' capacities for learning throughout life. The focus of attention in this study is how lifelong learning skills are developed amongst young adults in the Youth Craft Village in Katsina State. The study will look at the triggers for young adult engagement in lifelong learning activities and the impact of lifelong learning on the development of young adults and their communities.

### 1.3 Information on the Location of the Study

Katsina state was the main location of the present study. Katsina was created on the 23<sup>rd</sup> September 1987 out of Kaduna state. It has 34 local government areas. The state lies between latitudes 11°08'N and 13°22'N and longitudes 6°52'E and 9°20'E and occupies an area of about 24,194 square kilometres (KSESP, 2010). Katsina state shares boundaries with Kano, Jigawa, and Kaduna, Sokoto and Zamfara states, and shares a border with the Niger Republic to the North. According to the NPC (2006), the state has a total population of 5,801,584 comprising of 2,948,279 males and 2,853,305 females. Young people between 15-35 years constitute 50.2% of the population with there being 49.6% males and 50.4% females (NBS, 2012). The youth literacy for the state is 60.4% comprising 73.1% males and 47.4% female (National Youth Baseline Survey, 2010), thereby showing a marked disparity between male and female literacy rates.

Katsina state was known as the 'cradle of learning' and 'centre of scholarship' since the 14<sup>th</sup> century (KSESP, 2010). The Gobarau Islamic Learning Centre (Gobarau Minaret) was the centre of learning for the whole of Western Sudan and was established during the reign of the emir of Katsina, Muhammadu Korau (1348-1393). With the advent of Western education, the first education centre in Northern Nigeria was established in 1922 - Katsina Training College. The school is purported to be the oldest institution of higher learning in northern Nigeria, with the first Prime Minister of Nigeria (Alh Sir Abubakar Tabawa Balewa) and Premier of the Northern Region (Sir Ahmadu Bello Sardauna) graduating from it.

Despite Katsina being the 'cradle of learning', today it faces enormous challenges in education with a large number of school-aged children not enrolled in school (KSESP, 2010). KSESP (2010) reveals that many students leave primary and secondary school barely able to demonstrate any skills for future independence or self-reliance. The study also shows that students with the intention of furthering their education are challenged by poor results in their senior secondary school national examinations, as reflected in the national statistics above. From data available from the West African Examination Council (WAEC) and the National Examination Council (NECO), the results of 2006, 2007 and 2008 demonstrate this problem, as illustrated in Table 1.8.

**Table 1-8 SSCE results 2006-2008 (NBS, 2014)**

SSCE Results for Three Years				
Year	Examination	Number of student sat for exams	5 Credits and Above	Percentage
2006	WAEC	15,960	1,538	9.6
	NECO	16,650	5,970	35.6
2007	WAEC	15,585	2,908	18.7
	NECO	17,128	8,696	50.8
2008	WAEC	19,173	2,254	11.6
	NECO	19,524 1	15,524	80.67

Table 1.8 shows the number of the students that sat senior secondary school examinations and the problem of attainment rates in Katsina State. The state government established the Youth Craft Village with the aim of addressing social challenges and empowerment of the youth. This was in line with the National Policy of Education of addressing the educational needs of the socially marginalised population and the promotion of entrepreneurial skills for economic development.

### **1.3.1 Youth Craft Village (A Pilot Project) Model of Delivering Lifelong Learning in Katsina State Nigeria**

The National Policy on Education (2004 and 2013) empowers all three tiers of government to establish institutions to support lifelong learning. This has involved the creation of reading clubs in schools, community libraries and other resources to enhance effective learning and development of LLL skills amongst Nigerian citizens. The creation of the Youth Craft Village (YCV) model of delivering LLL followed the provision of the NPE and constitutional provisions that saw education as a concurrent legislative list with the powers of federal and state government. The Katsina State Education Sector Plan (KSESP), (2010) shows that all existing educational policies in the state are in accordance with the provision of NPE (2004 and 2013). According to KSESP (2010), the state has adopted the existing national policies in its education sector. These include the Universal Basic Education Act, Child Rights Act, National Policy on Gender in Basic Education, the national minimum qualification of teachers (NCE in Basic Education). The ideas from national and international development programmes such as Revitalising Youth and Adult Literacy (RYAL), MDGs (later Sustainable Development Goals (SDG)), State Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy (SEEDs) and NEEDs (KSESP, 2010; NERDC, 2013). In addition, specific



policies are periodically enacted according to need. The YCV was created to meet the lifelong learning needs of the young adults for the purpose of socio-economic development and reduction of unemployment, poverty and lack of skills amongst the youths.

The Youth Craft Village came into being following a decision of the Executive Council in 2008, and the institution was commissioned on the 6<sup>th</sup> December 2009. It came into operation in 2010 and has six departments to facilitate the development of skills, knowledge and attitudes of self-independence and enterprise (YCV, 2010). In acknowledgement of the importance of science and technology, Legal Notice No. 196 (1) was used to strength the YCV with the attachment of the institution to the Department of Science and Technology. This was in order to promote and harness scientific, technological and practical application of knowledge towards socio-economic advancement (YCV, Manual, 2016). This, according to YCV (2016), is to promote and maintain mutual and lasting synergy with appropriate states, federal and international agencies in the promotion of skills for economic development.

The Youth Craft Village is designed to prepare young disadvantaged adults for self-employment and further learning (YCV, 2016). It is funded by Katsina State Government and admits disadvantaged and marginalised youths aged 16 to 30 and trains them with appropriate skills for life (USAID, 2016). The institution also offers counselling to students, many of whom come from troubled backgrounds, and integrates them into mainstream educational processes. The programme was first established in 2009 (USAID, 2016) and the institution has trained over 10,000 young adults since then. The mission of the institution is to remove unemployed youths from the streets by providing them with the skills, knowledge and attitudes for self-employment and lifelong learning (YCV Manual, 2016). It provides the opportunity for young adults to gain self-direction, self-sustenance and self-actualisation. It also offers graduates of secondary school who did not obtain their required five credits to obtain knowledge and experience.

According to the NERDC (2013, p.17-18), as part of the lifelong learning mission of Nigeria, the goal of VEI institutions such as the YCV is to train post-basic education or secondary students. This training is for young adults to obtain skills,

knowledge and appropriate certification to pursue a career or trade and help them to think creatively and, ultimately, to transform knowledge into wealth. These also include ensuring understanding of how young adults' expertise fits into improving society and fulfilling national goals. The training also promotes increased access to education at tertiary levels, to enable students to acquire specialised craft skills, to enable students to acquire competencies to take advantage of life's opportunities and to acquire the drive for continuous education that transforms students into self-reliant wealth creators and providers of employment.

### **1.3.2 Recruitment/Admissions**

The YCV institution adopts a strategy for admission and recruitment of both male and female students based on guidelines from the Community Development Council (CDCs). Forms are distributed to communities to encourage learning and acquisition of lifelong learning skills (YCV, 2016). The target of this recruitment is disadvantaged and marginalised students aged 16 to 30 years of age for men and no age limit for students because of their perceived disadvantage. The goal is of training these people with skills for life such as employability, self-direction, time management, confidence, self-esteem and problem solving skills.

The Youth Craft Village institution admits different categories of learners. These include dropouts, unemployed youths, secondary school leavers and diploma and university degree holders. It offers free education to encourage participation and engagement in learning. The government provides stipends to students to support themselves. On graduation, the government supports at least 10 graduates from each department with capital to pursue career in their chosen field (YCV, 2016).

The Youth Craft Village institute has thirteen courses divided into formal and non-formal courses. The formal courses include Computer Studies (Affiliate of Information and Communication Technology Institute, Film and Photography (Run by Nigerian Film Corporation, Jos), Catering services, and GSM repairs. The non-formal courses include auto-mechanical studies, welding, fabrication and blacksmith, carpentry and joinery, leather works and shoe making, beauty saloon, tailoring and fashion design, tie and dye, wrought iron and furniture

design and pottery. The formal courses require O levels credit (secondary school requirement for entry into higher education) in some subjects, whereas the non-formal courses admit students without any qualifications. The duration of the courses varies from six months to a year.

The institution collaborates with a number of organisations and agencies. The YCV provides secondary services to universities and polytechnics in support of the Students Industrial Working Experience (SIWES) and course requirements. The YCV serves the following institutions in northern Nigeria: Hassan Usman Katsina Polytechnic, Ummaru Musa Yardua University, Katsina (UMYUK), Usman Danfodio University Sokoto, (UDUS), Ahmadu Bello University and Zaria (ABU) with (YCV, 2016). The institution works in partnership with development partners on the Youth Skills Programmes including UNICEF, UNESCO, DFID, FAO, the European Union, the Mafiata Foundation, the Nigerian Film Corporation, Jos, NMEC, NBTE (YCV, 2016). It offers skills acquisition training to National Youth Service Corps Members during their orientation exercise (YCV, 2016), and it also admits students from other states of the federation as well as students from the Niger Republic (YCV, 2016).

### **1.3.3 Language**

As noted, the YCV recruits men who are aged 16-30 and women of any age. Throughout this thesis, I will refer to this age range as ‘youth’, ‘young adult’ or ‘adult’. In the West there is great debate about at what age adult education begins, but in the context of Nigeria people aged 16 to 30 and above are considered viable candidates for the YCV (NERDC, 2013; YCV, 2016). The Nigerian National Youth Policy (2009), indicate that youth shall comprise of all young males and females aged 15 - 35 years, who are characterized by energy, enthusiasm, ambition and creativity. The age bracket covered by both NERDC (2013) and Nigerian National Youth Policy (2009) fall within ‘youth’, ‘young adult’ or ‘adult’ category. For the purpose of this thesis, I will use the term ‘young adults’. NERDC (2013) maintained that adult education is given to adults and youths of formal school age. The idea is to support adults and youths who never had the opportunity of formal education or had left school early. These include adults and youths who were unable to access conventional education and those requiring professional training to improve their skills. This shows adult

education in Nigeria begins with youths and adults, as discussed in section 5.1.2 in Chapter 5. In general, this group of young adult or youth, as defined by Nigerian National Youth Policy (2009) and NERDC (2013) have no formal voice, which leaves them susceptible to socially disruptive activities, such as political violence, unrest, crime, and drug use.

## **1.4 Purpose of the Research and Research Questions**

The overarching research objective of this empirical study is to critically examine policies and related practices that facilitate young adult learners and graduate capacities for learning through life at a Youth Craft Village in Katsina State. Over the following pages, I will critically examine the direction of lifelong learning policies in Nigeria. I will also report on the analysis of semi-structured interviews with policymakers, students, teachers, officials of institutions and graduates of lifelong learning training in Nigeria. The research questions are:

1. What is the policy context for lifelong learning in Nigeria?
2. What are the motivations of young adult learners' participation and engagement in lifelong learning at YCV?
3. What are learners' and instructors' perceptions of teaching and learning approaches that promote lifelong learning skills amongst young adult learners at YCV?
4. What are the outcomes and impacts of lifelong learning amongst graduates and their communities in Nigeria?

In this thesis, I explore the effects of personal, structural and institutional factors leading to the exclusion from education, training, and employment of women, people with disabilities and less privileged young adults in Nigeria. The illiteracy, unemployment, poverty level, lack of access to education, gender disparity and disengagement from education and training by young adults, as discussed above has a strong connection with the questions under investigation. It explores the personal stories of the participants of this study as well as their transformative experience after undertaking a lifelong learning programme. This

study is approached using a number of theoretical constructs from Freire's (1993) assumptions on the social justice model of converting oppression of people. It draws from Mezirow's (2009) transformative learning theory analytical 'toolkit'. The study also draws from Bourdieu on 'habitus', capital and reproduction of cultural arbitrary to enable understanding of social exclusion or inequalities within the Nigerian context (Bourdieu, 1990; Bourdieu, 2002). It also draws on Rae's (1999) entrepreneurship capability learning models to understand the transformative experience of the participants as lifelong learners, (See Chapter 3).

The impact of extreme poverty, low engagement in education, failures in education, and lack of access to education, disability and gender issues, and social exclusion are central to this thesis. However, Freire's (1993); Mezirow (2009) and Rae (1999) theories fall short to enable full analysis of gender, disability and poverty in relation to the impact of environment and social norms on social exclusion and social inequalities within the society (Bourdieu, 1990 and 1992), see Chapter 3. I will explore Bourdieu's (1990: 1992) theories of power and empowerment to analyse the effect of environmental, social and structural factors on women and young adults' low engagement in education, poverty, unemployment, and lifelong learning activities. The central argument in this thesis is that educational provisions in Nigeria should not only be on quantity and human capital development terms but rather should focus on the promotion of epistemological curiosity for practice that would increase the participants' inquisitiveness for the development of intellectual capacity towards their liberation and empowerment. In addition, LLL should reflect a commitment to social justice, fairness, equity, equality, collectiveness, conscientização, engagement, collaboration, and community wellbeing. It was based on the belief that adult education is one of the critical strategies of empowerment and, of addressing social exclusions. The drive for critical or social transformation-oriented adult education is the notion of empowerment.

Empowerment is about providing people with opportunities and powers to understand and challenge ideologies, structures and cultural practices that impede their liberation and empowerment. This would transform people from victims of life to actors and agents of change in the shaping and re-shaping of

their lives and communities (Bourdieu, 1990: 1992; Darlene *et al.*, 2013; Freire, 1993).

In this study, I have spoken to a number of young adults whose lives were transformed from victims of circumstance to contributors in shaping their lives and the lives of others, (See Chapter 6 and 7). The participants of this study have varied experiences ranging from gender challenges, failures in examination, poverty and other forms of social exclusions, which affected their lives (See Chapter 6 and 7). In the data section, I present the cultural, environmental, structural and social factors that influence the lives of the participants of this study. The study is guided by the belief that knowledge is socially constructed through personal experiences, engagement, dialogue and interaction, with the aim of understanding participants multiple experiences (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Freire, 1993; Illeris, 2009; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Mezirow, 2009). The study adopted exploratory case study (Yin 2003), which involve semi-structured interviews and document analysis because the study is not ‘finding’ knowledge, but instead is constructing knowledge through interactions and dialogue with the participants (See Chapter 4).

The study was motivated by my personal reflection and story, professional background as an adult educator and the huge national reports and statistics, as discussed above.

The motivation grew out of my personal experience as a young boy from a low-income background who struggled to be educated in order to bring about positive change within the deprived community. The experienced was that of struggle and sacrifices from my parents and I. I truly experienced the frustration experienced by those who struggle to be educated. I have made more than 5 attempts to get myself enrol in the university but all efforts proved abortive. I was persistent to continue to pursue my dreams of becoming a university graduate.

The interest in investigating LLL came largely because of my professional training as a teacher, educator, and practitioner in the field of adult education and community development in Nigeria. The topic emerged from teaching two courses (introduction to youth work and introduction to community studies) at

the university in Nigeria. I had to deconstruct the orthodox teaching approach by going to the field with my students. This brought about an understanding of critically examining how policy and practice that promotes lifelong learning and transformation within an economically and socially challenging context such as Nigeria.

As discussed above, Nigeria is beset with many educational, economic and social problems, including poverty, unemployment, gender inequality, lack of skills and poor access to education, especially among young people. LLL as a tool for addressing social injustices and economic instability has been part of public discourse in Nigeria but the area has been under-researched. It seems overwhelming to explore the live experience of the participants, who were affected by social exclusion and to understand their transformative experience after participating in a lifelong learning programme.

This study contributes to knowledge on lifelong learning for social justice and human capital development in Nigeria as well as the motivations for young adults' participation in lifelong learning. The study increases knowledge concerning critical pedagogy in empowering socially marginalised groups as well as increases knowledge of the role of LLL/adult education not only for personal transformation, but also for communal and societal transformation. It increases methodological knowledge in using qualitative methods to researching lifelong learning, particularly in Nigeria (See section 8.6 in Chapter 8).

## **1.5 Overview of the Thesis**

In this chapter (Chapter 1), I have presented the national context (socio-economic and cultural context) and background relating to the main features of lifelong learning policies in Nigeria. The information on the location of the study and the purpose of the study was also presented.

In Chapter 2, I present a conceptual framework for the thesis and reflect critically on the current discourse on lifelong learning, as well as map out the lifelong learning skills appropriate for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The chapter outlines existing empirical studies in the field of lifelong learning.

Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical assumptions that underpinned the study. It is based on key learning theories. These include Freire's (1993) banking education model; Lave and Wenger's (1991) community of practice model; Rae's (1999) entrepreneurship capability learning model and; Mezirow's (1991: 1994 and 2009) transformative learning theory. Bourdieu's (1990: 1992) analytical toolkits were also discussed in order to make sense of data on gender, disability, and poverty.

Chapter 4 defines the epistemological and ontological positions that were taken in the research. It presents the rationale for adopting a qualitative case study design and the research design as well as detailing experiences from data collection.

Chapter 5 presents data that emerge from the content analysis of three national documents and semi-structured interviews with four national policymakers on the policy context for lifelong learning in Nigeria. The National Policy on Education (2013); Nigeria-UNESCO: Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL), 2012; and the National Universities Commission (NUC) Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS), 2011).

Chapter 6 presents data on the motivation for young adults' engagement in lifelong learning at the YCV. The chapter identifies triggers for young adults' participation in lifelong learning and explores the pedagogical experiences of participants of YCV institutions and their role in stimulating LLL skills.

Chapter 7 presents data on the conditions of graduates prior to engagement in lifelong learning and the transformative outcomes LLL participation can have for graduates and their communities.

Chapter 8 pulls together the thesis as a whole, returning to the theoretical framework elaborated in Chapter 3. The chapter discusses the main findings of this study and their implications for wider practice and policy in Nigeria. It considers the contribution of the study to the broader field of adult education and its limitations.



## **Chapter 2      Definition of Concepts and Literature Review**

In this chapter, I present the concepts and related discussions on lifelong learning. The purpose of this literature review is to establish the link between present and previous research on lifelong learning. From the reviews, there was consensus that lifelong learning is meant to promote social justice and human capital development. This research is important because despite the public discourse on lifelong learning, there has been little empirical research on LLL in Nigeria.

### **2.1 The Concept of Learning**

The concept of learning does not lend itself to one simple comprehensive definition because scholars and theorists approach the concept from different epistemological perspectives and understandings. This makes the attainment of a single definition elusive (Ertmer and Newby, 2013; Illeris, 2003; Illeris, 2009; Jarvis, 2009; Marton and Saljo, 1976; Mezirow, 2009), with Illeris (2009) maintaining that the root of this problem is the approach of looking at learning as an internal activity.

Learning has been viewed, 'as a relatively permanent change that occurs in behaviour potential as a result of experience' (Jarvis, 2005, p.2). From a cognitive learning perspective learning is an internal activity involving the active storage of ideas in a storage system comprising of organisational structures called schemata (Baron and Byrne, 1987). The schemata play a number of functions in human cognition including storing information, regulating attention and filling in information gaps. The mind is thus the regulator that processes all the information received from the world around it (Baron and Byrne, 1987). Both Illeris (2009) and Jarvis (2009) critiqued these cognitive views of learning because it limited learning to internal processes of the mind and brain. Jarvis suggests that the social and interaction are part of the larger processes of learning and that human learning involves:

the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person - body (genetic, physical and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, meaning, beliefs and

senses) - experiences social situations, the content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person (p.103).

The above view of learning sees it as combination of processes beyond cognition to the integration of social factors. This builds on the developmental perspective that view learning as transformative processes occurring because of social interaction and other internal and external processes (Illeris, 2009 and Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Lave and Wenger (1991) and Mezirow (2009) maintain that learning is not solely in an individual's head, but rather is acquired through interactions, interrelations, networks and cultural assimilation. The idea of the individual mind as the source of learning has thus been rejected in preference to the idea of experience sharing (Jarvis, 2012), involving both internal (psychological and biological conditions) and external interactions within social, cultural and environmental contexts (Illeris, 2009; Jarvis, 2009). Arguably, these would be relevant to this study, especially in examining how internal, social, cultural and environmental norms enhance or affect learning and transformation of young adults.

Illeris (2009) pointed three dimensions of understanding learning. These include content, incentive and interaction dimensions. Content refers to knowledge and skills including opinions, attitudes and methods that contribute to building learning capacity, constructing meaning and acquiring ability. Incentive is the mental energy necessary for learning to take place and can include feelings, emotions and motivation. Finally, interaction provides the conditions that, 'initiate the learning process, including perception, transmission, experience, imitation, activity, and participation' (p.100).

Mezirow (1994) regards such processes of interpreting meaning from experience as a guide to action. According to Mezirow's (2009) transformative perspective of learning, learning involves experience, discovery, reflection, perspective taking, relationship building, and potentially a significant shift in one's beliefs, values and actions. This builds on Laird's assertion (1985) that learning is holistic

and requires the activation of a learner's intellect, emotions, intuition and imaginative knowledge within his or her individual environment.

Taking learning as a transformational process for learners through action, reflection, experience and practice (Freire, 1993; Illeris, 2009; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Mezirow, 2009; Rae, 1999; Wenger, 1998), this study examines transformative skills for learning through life in the YCV in Nigeria. It takes account of internal and external processes as influencing factors of learning (Illeris, 2009; Mezirow, 2009), and acknowledges learning as a process of interaction, relationships, reflection, practice and application of knowledge to real practice, as discussed in Chapter 3.

## **2.2 Concept of Lifelong Learning**

The term lifelong learning has evaded a precise definition because of its overarching and all-encompassing nature (Aspin and Chapman, 2000; Schuetze, 2006; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002). Aspin and Chapman (2000) suggest that instead of looking for an irrefutable definition of lifelong learning, it would be better to, 'look at the use of this concept in the discourse of those who employ it' (p.6). The difficulty with this is that the term is still used in many contexts ranging from educational, economic, social and cultural, which Field (2006) maintains is as a result of its loose definition. However, Aspin and Chapman (2000), Schuetze, (2006), Tuijnman and Bostrom (2002) note that the concept of lifelong learning is being confused with terms such as 'education permanente', recurrent education, continuing education, adult education and further education; and that this limits lifelong learning to non-formal education and second chance opportunities to the detriment of permanent lifelong learning.

Billett (2014) notes that to consider lifelong learning based on the aforementioned distorts any understanding of learning as an on-going process. He maintained that to associate lifelong learning solely with individual participation in formal and non-formal educational provisions shows a limited understanding of it. In fact, learning is occurring through all activities and interactions within an individual's life (Billett, 2014), including informal ways.

With the above debate LLL is seen as a systematic learning that takes place at three levels: formal, informal and non-formal (Preece, 2013; Schuetze, 2006; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002). Earlier work by Mocker and Spear (1982) note the fourth level - self-directed learning. These levels recognise that learning takes place in an individual's life in multiple ways (Hager, 2012).

Informal learning is when individuals acquire skills and knowledge from daily experiences and with the educative influences of resources within their environment (Smith, 2002), with this learning process being mostly self-directed.

Formal learning refers to institutionalised and structured learning at schools and colleges, with decisions about what and how to learn being guided by a fixed course structure.

In contrast, non-formal learning is any systematic, organised educational activity carried on outside of a formal educational system that promotes specified skill sets (Jarvis, 1985); and according to Cross (1991), includes community learning centre programmes, work place learning, seminars and workshops.

Self-directed learning relates to an individual's initiative to be autonomous by controlling their own learning situation (Sandars and Walsh, 2016). It creates a unique condition that informs individual capacity for reflection and development of viable approaches to learning. It describes a broad range of activities including self-planned, self-teaching, independent, informal, personalised or individualised learning and self-reflection (Brookfield, 1980; Cross, 1991). Self-directed learning emphasises a learner's experiences in relation to his or her potential to contribute to his or her own growth and development. In their meta-analysis of 59 studies, Murad *et al.*, (2010) revealed that self-directed learning was as effective as traditional methods of learning for knowledge learning outcomes but was less effective for development of meta-cognition. This builds on Knowles (1975) definition of self-directed learning as:

... a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes (p.18).

In his work on andragogy, which is the ‘art and science of helping adults to learn’ (p.38), Knowles (1975, p.38-39) suggests that adults could learn by themselves for a number of reasons. These include the adult self-concept from being a dependent personality to a self-directing human being; the reservoir of experience becomes a resource of learning; a readiness to learn towards the fulfilment of social roles; the immediacy of the application of learning. This process suggests that adult learners take control of their learning situation through identification of learning needs, the resources of learning; objectives of learning, implementation and evaluation of learning (Knowles, 1975; Merriam, 2001).

A further aspect of lifelong learning is its life-wide and -deep nature, this highlighting the openness through which such learning can be pursued. Maclachlan and Osborne (2009) maintain that lifelong learning involves learning through work or leisure, which adults engage in on a daily basis. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) Technical Committee backs this up further by reflecting that LLL as:

... a comprehensive and visionary concept which includes formal, non-formal and informal learning throughout the lifespan of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and vocational and professional life. It views education in its totality, and includes learning that occurs at home, school, community and workplace, and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing knowledge, skills and attitudes (SADC Technical Committee on Lifelong Education and Training cited in Aitchison, 2003, p.161).

With regards to lifelong learning being life-wide and -deep, Preece (2013) reflects that life-wide learning happens in all aspects of life (family, work, vocational and in the larger community) from infancy to adulthood. Added to this, Maclachlan and Osborne (2009) believe that the term life-wide learning is relatively new and underused, whereas, ‘the life-deep dimension implies the depth of learning and the lifelong learning need to focus on complex learning’ (p.575). Thus, lifelong learning is an all-encompassing form of learning that has:

... openness, which makes it available to all people and at all levels; continuity, which emphasises the linkages between various educational activities; integration: including all the education activities in the life span; flexibility in terms of objectives,

methodologies, time, and place, content and processes; and appropriateness of content that relates to the learner's life and/or work (Leong; 2008, p.543).

Such views of lifelong learning are an indication that people are learning throughout their lives whether intentionally or accidentally, as the doors of learning are always open and learning is on-going (Leong, 2008). Longworth and Davies (1996) comment that this concept suggests that learning should not only be continuous, but should empower learners to critically apply knowledge with confidence and a sense of creativity:

As the development of human potential through a continuously supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values, skills, and understanding they will require throughout their lifetime and apply them with confidence, creativity, and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances, and environments (p.22).

Longworth and Davies (1996) assert that real learning is not simply memorising facts and learning drills, but is the application of learning to produce ideas and for these to produce reflection. This is in line with the Commission for a Nation of Lifelong Learning's (1997) definition of lifelong learning being an uninterrupted process that stimulates and empowers individuals in all aspects of life.

From the perspectives of UNESCO (1996), the EU (2002) and OECD (1996), lifelong learning emphasises the survival of individuals within capitalist economies. OECD (1996) defines lifelong learning as:

... a means of personal development of the individuals, countering the risk of social cohesion, promoting democratic traditions, and responding to the challenges posed by increasing global and knowledge-based economic and social systems (p.292).

The OECD (1996) supports lifelong learning as a means of promoting democratic principles and the development of labour market skills to address the challenges of unemployment created by knowledge-based economies. As such, this concept promotes individualism rather than collectivism, and learning in this respect is non-formal rather than several processes of learning at different levels. In contrast, the World Bank (2003) maintained that lifelong learning is education

for a knowledge economy as it prepares learners to compete in such an economy by developing skills such as decision-making, problem solving and self-direction. These imply that the lifelong learning allows people to cope with the challenges of a fast-changing world (CEC, 2000; OECD, 2014; Preece, 2013).

## **2.3 Models of Lifelong Learning**

Lifelong learning has a wide scope (Aspin and Chapman, 2000; Field, 2006; Schuetze, 2006; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002) and has shifted from solely being in educational institutions to now including the provision of learning through non-formal and informal processes. This makes lifelong learning an all-encompassing process with life-wide and life-deep dimensions that promote social justice and the economic progress of nations (Coffield, 2000; CEC, 2000; MacLachlan and Osborne, 2009; (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013; OECD, 2015; OECD, 1996; Preece, 2013; UNESCO, 2013). Thus, scholars and international organisations contribute to the discussion of lifelong learning from economic, social, political and educational perspectives. As a result, the overarching debates on lifelong learning now centre on literacy, remediation, liberation, emancipation, employability, equity and equality, active citizenship, enhanced economic growth and prosperity, and the promotion of life skills (Aspin *et al.*, 2001; Coffield, 2000; Green, 2006; McIntosh, 2005; OECD, 1973; Spring, 2008; Tuijnman, 2006; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO 1972). There are several lifelong learning models with different philosophical underpinnings.

Models of lifelong learning have emerged in order to address social injustice, inequality, unemployment, illiteracy and marginalisation within societies (Aspin and Chapman, 2001; Freire, 1993; McIntosh, 2005; Spring, 2008). Whereas other models have emerged to ensure increases in production by promoting competition and privatisation in order to enhance economic growth (Regmi, 2015; Spring, 2008).

These models of lifelong learning view it as either a philosophical process of acquiring education for the emancipation of individuals, or as a means of promoting economic prosperity (Aspin, 2001; Coffield, 2000; Green, 2006; McIntosh, 2005; Tuijnman, 2006) through investment in education and training

(OECD 1996; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2015). In light of current trends of globalisation, these models are designed to give answers to contemporary challenges (Field, 2006; Green, 2000; Green, 1999; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; Osborne, 2003; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO 1972). An example of this is McIntosh's (2005) six proposed models of lifelong learning. These models are the functionalist, critical literacy, social justice, reflective learning compensatory and humanistic models. These different models would be drawn from in this study to enable understanding of educational policies and practices to empower people, communities and nation as a whole.

The functionalist model focuses on the formation of human capital by developing learners' knowledge and skills. This is achieved through vocational teaching in order to keep learners up-to-date with technological developments. This perspective regards lifelong learning as instrumental to the development of a highly skilled workforce that will support economic development.

The critical literacy model suggests the promotion of consciousness-raising to empower and liberate learners by developing their capacity to challenge the status quo. These ideas are found in the works of for example, Freire, (1993), Gramsci (1971) and Mezirow (2009).

The social justice model shares some common assumptions with the critical literacy model, whilst also advocating issues such as gender equality and human rights for learners to liberate and empower ethnic minorities and socially marginalised groups. This can be found in the work of Biesta (2011) and Hoppers (2009), who suggest that lifelong learning, should not only constitute human capital development, but should also focus on promoting active citizens who are free from oppression and marginalisation.

The reflective learning model focuses on the development of meta-level skills such as understanding, attention and the ability to reflect and organise time. It involves the development of an individual's critical understanding and reflection on theories and assumptions. This is reflected in Knapper and Cropley (2000), UNESCO (1996), Knapper and Cropley (2000) and the European Council (2006) when they note an attribute of lifelong learners is their ability to learn how to think and to learn how to learn.



The compensatory model aims at providing help to learners who have missed out on learning opportunities or who have a deficiency in a particular area. Such learning could be for example, the opportunity for vocational learning for learners who have little formal learning, or remedial training for learners applying for a course in further education but who are deficient in particular subject areas.

The humanistic model aims at developing the capacity of a learner's horizons in order to enrich his or her mind and give them opportunities. It is linked to the social justice, critical and compensatory models of lifelong learning. McIntosh's model (2005) follows other models from for example, Aspin *et al.* (2001) whose framework shows lifelong learning as having three major outcomes: the training of a highly skilled labour force to contribute to a society's economic growth, personal development for a more fulfilling life, and democratic participation and social inclusion in society. This third outcome is reflective of international organisations and scholars who have also promoted this, notably Coffield (2000), Field (2005); Longworth and Osborne (2010); McIntosh (2005); OECD (1996); UNESCO (1996) and UNESCO, (1972). Aspin *et al.* (2001) categorise four models of lifelong learning: a compensation model aimed at compensating missed learning opportunities, a continuing vocational education model aimed at providing solutions to unemployment, a social innovation model aimed at promoting democratic participation, equality and social justice in education, and a leisure-oriented model related to the progression and self-fulfilment of individuals within their lifetime (See also Coffield, (2000) and (1999), Coffield (2000) and McIntosh (2005).

One can argue that these different models seem to provide a remedy to the challenges of individual development and economic growth in a particular nation. Evidence from the analysis of National Policy on Education in Nigeria shows alignment with different models of LLL (Aspin *et al.*, 2001; Coffield, 2000; McIntosh, 2005; OECD, 1973; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO, 2015) with the aim of helping the less privileged by compensating their missed learning opportunities or building capacity of individuals for greater economic growth. The loud voices of this intention through EFA, MDG and SDG goals remain rhetoric with alarming rates of poverty, unemployment, lack of access to education and low human development index translating into lack of economic growth, as discussed in

Chapter 1. The implication of these *Eurocentric* LLL policies is the neglect of the indigenous approach to knowledge and promotion individualism. The relevance of this distinction is the understanding how LLL policy is being adopted and not reflecting the real essence of social justice in their outcome. The analysis of the life stories of the participants of this study (See Chapter 6 and 7 respectively) reflected a deviation from the principles these models were meant to serve.

In an earlier study, Coffield (2000) identified 10 models of lifelong learning: skills growth, personal development, social learning, learning market, local learning societies, social control, self-evaluation, centrality of learning, reformed system of education and structural change. The skills growth model views education as a means of up-skilling individuals to promote the economic growth and prosperity of a nation. This model is reflective of the belief that investment in education rather than in research leads to enhanced economic performance (Coffield, 2000). The personal development model suggests increasing the development of an individual's capabilities in order to achieve self-fulfilment through greater participation in learning in all aspects of life. Coffield (2000) suggests that Individual Learning Accounts (ILAs) are a good example of the personal development model as they encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning.

The social learning model stresses that innovation only through collaboration and competition is important because learning is the most creative aspect of being social (Coffield, 2000). This model promotes utilising social capital, i.e. the resources that people derive from their relationships with others (Field, 2005).

The learning market model emphasises individuals having greater choice and freedom in their learning and being able to pursue learning as consumers. Coffield (2000) argues that such a learning market business approach makes education providers behave like business entrepreneurs and is the commodification of knowledge, in which education is sold as a commodity (Caffentzis, 2008).

The local learning society's model of lifelong learning refers to the creation of learning opportunities throughout the life of an individual. This model is reflective of the past few decades of educational policy priorities in Europe in

the creation of learning societies to create learning opportunities for all (Green, 2000). Longworth (2001) notes that the result of the learning economy has been an explosion of information, knowledge and increased individualism, with this leading to significant movement from education and training to the creation of learning societies. Learning societies are learning commonwealths within a nation, city or community (Longworth undated), and their use as vehicles for promoting lifelong learning is noted in Longworth and Osborne (2010), the European Commission (2002), OECD'S *lifelong learning for all* (1996) and the UNESCO report *Learning - the Treasure Within* (1996).

The social control model emphasises the important role of educational institutions in promoting economic growth because:

... the fulsome rhetoric about the transformative powers of lifelong learning may be deceptive because easy talk about companies becoming learning organisations disguises a basic conflict of interest between employers and employees, and between the socially included and excluded (Coffield, 2000, p.16).

Coffield (2000) observes that the development of local learning societies addresses local needs and development within smaller and close-knit policy networks, as there is less emphasis on institutional competition. Longworth (1996) notes the features of a learning society as being continuing activity, responsibility, progress, development of capabilities, personal and shared values, teamwork and partnership in working together to improve performance. However, Coffield (2000) notes that local learning societies could render national initiatives to be perceived as irrelevant to local needs (See YCV's local initiative role in empowering young adults who were disenchanted by national initiatives in Chapter 6 and 7).

The self-evaluative model is related to a futuristic vision of learning societies and their development of a strategy that evaluates progress that has been attained (Coffield, 2000).

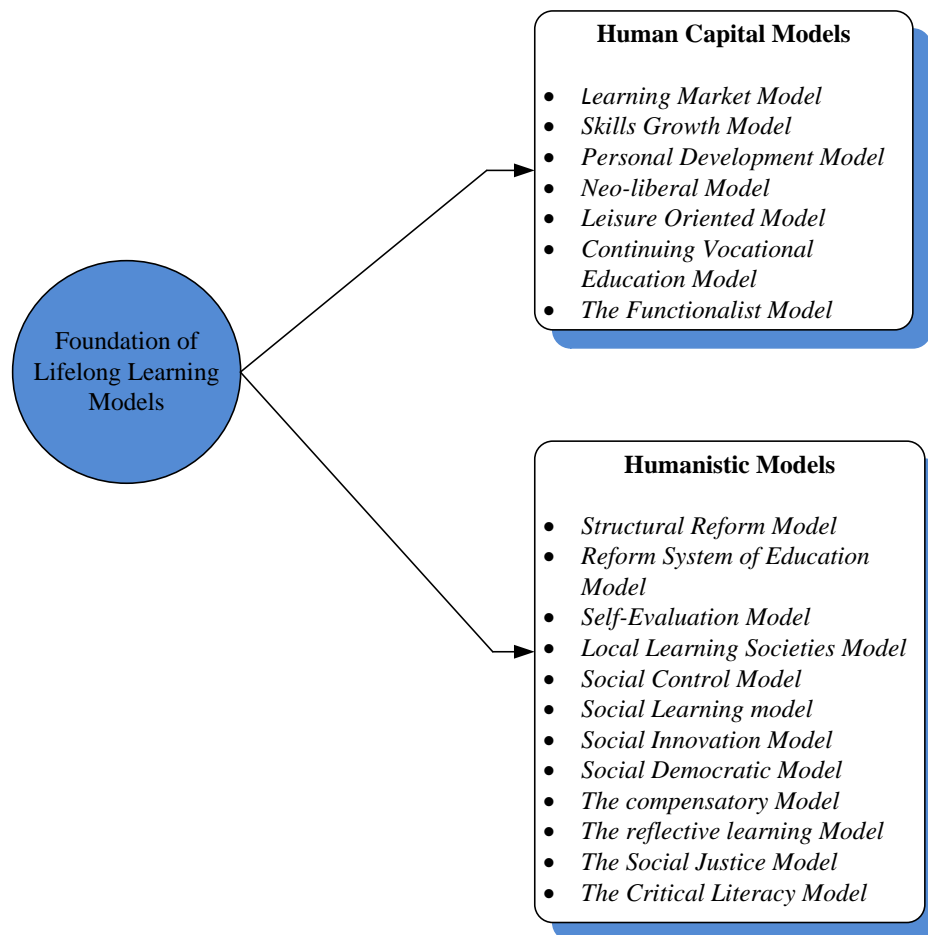
The centrality of the learning model is related to the vision of learning societies. This model focuses on increases in learner access to education within their community for personal development and progress (Coffield, 2000). Coffield (1998) observed that the centrality of learning should plan:

... to put learners first... invest in learning... widen participation... set targets... develop skills... open up access... raise standards and to develop a national framework of qualifications (Coffield, 1998, p.4).

The reformed system of education model suggests a reform of contemporary educational systems to achieve and sustain learning societies (Coffield, 2000).

The structural change model focuses on investment, budgetary and fiscal consolidation arising from economic crisis. For example, EU countries have engaged in structural reforms and investment to support jobs, skills and growth (Reuters *et al.*, 2015). Reuters *et al.* (2015) show EU countries using adult learning with vocational education reforms to promote social inclusion and equal opportunities whilst reducing poverty.

The discourse of lifelong learning from the above literature review is framed under two fundamental assumptions: The Human Capital Models and Humanistic Models of lifelong learning. This is presented in Figure 2.1 below:



**Figure 2-1 Categorisation of Lifelong learning models (Caffentzis, 2008; Coffield, 2000; Coffield, 1998; European Commission, 2002; Field, 2005; Freire, 1993; Green, 2000; Longworth, 1996; Longworth, 2001; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; OECD, 1996; Reuters *et al.*, 2015; UNESCO, 1996; UNESCO, 1972)**

The above models in Figure 2.1 depict the overarching categories within which specific models of lifelong learning are organised. These are categorised into two fundamental assumptions of lifelong learning (Human Capital and Humanist) that are discussed below.

### 2.3.1 Human Capital Models of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning as a human capital model promotes investment in education for countries to achieve economic prosperity (Coffield, 2000; Green, 2006; OECD 1996; Reuters *et al.*, 2015). Human capital models invest in the training of individuals and the institutions of the state. This presumably ensures individual development of adequate skills that can contribute to the economic sustainability of a nation. This idea has its roots in the conferences and policies of supranational organisations such as the OECD, World Bank and EU, which are themselves in operation in countries such as the UK and USA. The World Bank

and EU have used lifelong learning as a strategy for creating jobs and enhancing the economic growth of nations in knowledge-based economy societies (Regmi, 2015). As a result, lifelong learning has become a travelling global policy that has resulted in developing countries adopting it as an educational strategy. The World Bank Report (2003) serves as the roadmap for this implementation of lifelong learning in the developing world by 2020 to enable nations to compete economically amongst nations in the globalised world.

The economic view of lifelong learning has been influenced by human capital theory, with this suggesting a relationship between increased individual skills and economic growth (Regmi, 2015). He maintains that the human capital model is about competitiveness, privatisation and human capital formation.

Competitiveness amongst individuals and nations is seen as a condition for achieving economic prosperity (Spring, 2008); with lifelong learning being used to achieve competitiveness through international assessments, information-communication technology and the promotion of individual autonomy for learning and pursuing jobs (Regmi, 2015). This can lead to the privatisation of education, with the human capital model supporting private sector control and management of education (Stiglitz, 1999).

The human capital model has been criticised for promoting neoliberal globalisation that only focuses on economic prosperity competition and job creation (Preece, 2013; Spring, 2008). Lekoko and Modise (2011) argue that a neoliberal perspective of lifelong learning hinges on linearity, economics and the individualism of learning. This, according to Lekoko and Modise (2011), does not necessarily fit well with for example, the African system of education. African education promotes solidarity, communalism and collectivism, with its traditional models of lifelong learning being mostly humanitarian and community-based (Lekoko and Modise, 2011; Omolewa, 2009; Preece, 2006). Spring (2008) argues that the human capital policy of lifelong learning was primarily designed to introduce economic and political agendas that favoured developed nations. To him, these policies have no regard for the context of the developing world because they in fact increase the gap between rural and urban, and literate and illiterate. Arguably, these policies promote a narrow concept of education through which learners compete for education in order to satisfy employment requirements, rather than for liberation from the root

causes of their predicaments within a knowledge-based economy society. These efforts for human capital development arguably do not translate into reality in many of the developing societies such as Nigeria, (See Chapter 1). This shows the disempowerment of many young adults in Nigeria. Field (2006) argues that lifelong learning in a knowledge-based economy is not only a mechanism for empowerment, but also for the creation of new and powerful social exclusions and inequalities, as reflected in the socio-economic and cultural context of Nigeria in Chapter 1. Field (2006) maintains that the consequences of this are reflexive individualism - a situation in which individuals with the lowest or weakest form of skills are less likely to find paid employment. The data from this study, as shown in Chapter 6 and 7 indicates that even the highly educated young adults are becoming victims of social injustice in terms of access to employment opportunities (See Chapter 6 and 7 respectively). These show the creation of negative outcomes for different categories of young adults.

Lifelong learning in Nigeria is framed within the neo-liberal agenda by entrenching entrepreneurship education as part of LLL, as discussed in Chapter 5. This idea makes individuals to be responsible for themselves as a means to survive within the society. The idea is drawn from the major international treaties and documents such as *OECD Employment Outlook 2009: Tackling the Jobs Crisis* and the UNESCO Faure report (1972) *Learning to Be: the world education today and tomorrow* '. The UNESCO (2015) *Education 2030 agenda* promote 'inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all'. This is seen in the major national documents in Nigeria promoting EFA, MDG and SDG goals (See Chapter 1 and 5). However, despite this rhetoric, there is a widening level of individualism and inequalities in terms of access education, gender inequalities continue to increase. It is illogical for the government to allow individuals to cater for their lives (Allman, 1999; Freire, 1993). Field (2004) maintained that the danger for neo-liberal mantra of lifelong learning is providing a veneer of respectability granting its users the dubious benefit of public approval but offering nothing more than human resource development.

### **2.3.2 Humanistic Models of Lifelong Learning**

Humanistic lifelong learning models have their roots in a concern for human liberation from injustice, inequality and social exclusion (Green, 2006;

Rubenson, 2006; Tuijnman, 2003). Allman (1999) maintained social injustice and marginalisation are escalating in modern societies as a result of post-industrial activities. Addressing social injustice through promoting access to education, employment and social security is the first step of humanitarian efforts to social justice, equity and equality for all. The humanistic model of lifelong learning starts with the United Nations' Universal declaration of Human Rights (UN 1948), with Article 23 (1948, p.6) declaring:

Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment; everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work; everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself (sic) and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection ... (United Nations, 1948, p.6).

The Declaration also states in Article 26 that:

Everyone has the right to education and that education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit; education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality... strengthening of respect for...fundamental freedoms and promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups ... (UN, 1948, p.6).

The above declarations are the foundations of humanistic concerns in addressing social injustice and inequalities, and ensuring the safeguarding of human rights and freedom for all, as discussed above. As previously noted, the social justice efforts of lifelong learning policies in Nigeria are at the heart of achieving *Education for All*, MDG and subsequent SDG goals. UNESCO (1972) and UNESCO (1996) also note humanistic concerns underpinning lifelong learning, with UNESCO (1996) highlighting four pillars for learning throughout life in order to ensure social justice, equity and equality. These pillars are, '*Learning to know*', '*Learning to do*', '*Learning to live together*', and '*Learning to be*'. UNESCO (1972) and UNESCO's (1996) also emphasises, 'a social agenda designed to embrace equity and ... the notion of all kinds of *learning for all*' (Preece, 2009, p.3).



Policies on education in developing countries such as Nigeria have adopted humanitarian aspects in their education provisions. This is in order to try and address dissatisfaction with illiteracy, access, equality, poverty and unemployment. In fact, the NERDC (2013) suggests education as a tool for the empowerment of poor and socially marginalised groups.

It is important to note that both human capital and the humanistic model of lifelong learning promote lifelong learning skills amongst individuals. A number of theorists and researchers have written on these lifelong learning attributes that educational institutions seek to promote amongst learners. A total mapping of these lifelong learning skills follows in the next section after the justification for the promotion of LLL skills has been discussed.

## **2.4 Justification for the Promotion of LLL/Generic Graduate Attributes**

The idea of developing good quality educational training programmes is gaining attention because of concerns to ensure social justice, equity and equality (Field, 2005; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO 1972), along with the promotion of a viable economy (OECD 1996; World Bank, 2003). This is important because knowledge-based economies create both negative and positive outcomes for individuals and communities.

Most educational policies are concerned with developing lifelong learning values through formal, informal and non-formal educational processes (Coetzee, 2014), see section 2.2 above for the difference between formal, informal and non-formal educational processes. The challenges created by post-industrial societies such as poverty, unemployment and disengagement from education have made institutions and international organisations work towards the development of cognitive and social skill attributes of individuals (Coetzee, 2014; Green, 2000; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; UNESCO, 1996) in order for them to remain relevant within a knowledge-based economy. Medel-Anonuevo and Ohsako and Mauch (2001) suggest that the 21<sup>st</sup> century requires individuals to have specific skills because of the uncertain nature of jobs and opportunities. Globalisation, diversity and interconnected populations, along with intense growth in technology, have resulted in new demands for skills which has forced

educational systems to reassess the knowledge and skills learners need for success, along with the learning strategies and systems required for the promotion of such skills (Saavedra and Opfe, 2012). This in turn has highlighted the importance of equipping learners with the necessary attributes to be lifelong learners.

A lifelong learner is someone who possesses certain attributes to learn or has a willingness to engage and can act as an agent of change and innovation within society (Barrie, 2006; Coetzee, 2014; Steur, Jansen and Hofman, 2012). Such attributes for graduates are important because of their link to the employability and wellbeing of graduates (National Centre for Vocational Education Research, NCVER, 2003). The development of these attributes in order to develop lifelong learners is part of the policy discourse of lifelong learning (Aitchison, 2003; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; OECD, 1996; OECD, 1973; Preece, 2009; UNESCO, 1996; UNESCO, 1972). Evidence has shown that graduate attributes are not limited to employability skills, but also include generic skills ranging from basic to personal skills, values, ethics and expressions of choice (Barrie, 2006; and Steur, Jansen and Hofman 2012). Moreover, graduate attributes are now seen as including skills such as learning to learn, self-direction, creativity, critical thinking, initiative and enterprise skills, reflection, connecting new knowledge to what has been learnt previously, cognitive openness toward continuing learning and a willingness to acquire new knowledge and abilities (Coetzee, 2012, 2014; European Commission, 2006; Higher Education Council, HEC, 1992). Bowden (1999) considers graduate attributes as a distinguishable:

... set of broad outcomes or attributes that students should have had the opportunity to acquire by the end of their university experience, regardless of the formal program in which they have been enrolled. They include but extend beyond the disciplinary or technical expertise that has traditionally formed the basis of most university courses (p. 23).

This implies that these generic attributes can either be developed through formal, non-formal and informal learning, as discussed in section 2.2 above. Bowden (1999) suggests that individuals with such attributes are work-ready, environmentally aware, responsive, culturally and socially aware, and are active and innovative lifelong learners (p.23). The importance of these attributes was summarised in the findings of a study by Rigby *et al.* (2009) in which they

suggest that learners with these core skills can readily participate in a workforce, commit to lifelong learning and renewal, and be active and engaged citizens at both community and global levels. Furthermore, the findings of studies by Candy (1991), Coetzee (2014) and Steur, Jansen, and Hofman (2012) suggest that graduates with these attributes are motivated to commit to lifelong learning, reflection and self-directed tasks. With the growing interest in the development of such attributes, these are a salient theme in higher and vocational education (Freeman *et al.*, 2008), yet there is little agreement about the degree to which these attributes can be developed or whose responsibility it is to teach, develop and assess them. This argument of whose responsibility it is to teach lifelong learning skills and the impacts of these skills on individuals and their communities is investigated within this study.

## **2.5 General Summary of Lifelong Learning Attributes**

Lifelong learning is a priority of many national and international policies around the world in order to address social, economic and political problems (OECD, 2015; OECD, 1996; NERDC, 2013; UNESCO, 2013; UNESCO and MINEDAF, 2002; UNESCO, 1996; UNESCO, 1972). A plethora of studies articulate the generic attributes of graduates in higher and vocational education (Barrie, 2012; Bowden, 1999; Coetzee, 2014; NCVER, 2003; Steur, Jansen and Hofman, 2012) as a basis for developing lifelong learners in a knowledge-based economy society where skills and competencies are important. A lifelong learner is someone who is engaged with learning in any situation and at any time in his or her life by virtue of the capabilities and habits they have acquired over a period of time. These qualities allow lifelong learners to apply their learning to a variety of situations such as at home, work or leisure (Lawson *et al.*, 2006). In some societies, lifelong learning capabilities of learners are achieved through schooling or training whilst others believe in the life-wide nature of lifelong learning for gaining these skills (Maclachlan and Osborne, 2009; Schuetze, 2006; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002). These qualities are relevant to this study because of its interest in understanding how the participants develop LLL skills. It would help to show what skills are peculiar to the participants. This study shows the participants transformation from passive learners to developing positive attitudes towards learning such as curiosity, enhanced self-esteem, perseverance, confidence, independence, networking, reflective, taking

responsibility and voice in learning and the capacity to organise learning, (See Chapter 6 and 7). These are relevant to show how the participants of this study display capacity and skills for learning through life (Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Lawson, Askill-Williams, Murray-Harvey 2006). Longworth and Davies (1996) suggest that instilling lifelong learning attributes in learners sustains learning through a lifetime, whereas Freeman *et al.* (2008) argue about whose responsibility it is to teach and assess lifelong learning attributes. Husen (2002) suggests that initial skills training for learners should lay a foundation for relearning and learning-to-learn by providing a repertoire of skills, values and attributes for learning through formal, informal and non-formal learning situations. In contrast, Saavedra and Opfe (2012) argue that there is a limit to the skills and attitudes students can acquire through formal education.

The development of an ideal lifelong learner involves the interplay of psychological and personal factors. These factors are the ability to learn (meta-cognitive) and readiness, which involves a willingness on the part of the learners to learn (non-cognitive). The ability to learn involves higher order thinking, which makes a learner capable of relearning in new circumstances (Knapper and Cropley, 2000). This higher order thinking is referred to as metacognition, the ability of learners to reflect on their learning processes (knowledge, skills, ability and attitude to learning) and change them as necessary (Knapper and Cropley, 2000, p.46). A study by Coetzee (2014) suggests that a lifelong learner is someone who can reflect and act as a self-directed learner in the process of learning, with self-directed learning being the product of meta-cognition. However, a study by Tladi (2009) shows that lack of mental ability (meta-cognition) affects learners' participation in open and distance learning programmes. The ability (meta-cognition) to learn, according to Knapper and Cropley (2000, p.46), includes keeping track of one's own understanding of the issue under consideration, organising one's attention, organising available resources and reviewing one's own progress whilst learning a task.

Knapper and Cropley (2000) suggest that the promotion of lifelong learning goes beyond cognitive aspects, and includes non-cognitive qualities such as motivation, attitudes, values and self-image (p.46). This emphasises the willingness, readiness, interest and curiosity on the part of the learners to learn. The demarcation of these aspects of learning provides an impetus for identifying

the attributes of lifelong learners, as well as the factors responsible for their development. This analysis seems relevant to lifelong learning discourse because evidence suggests that self-directed learning as a feature of lifelong learning depends on individual willingness to act autonomously in defining a learning mission and searching for relevant knowledge (Ainoda, Onishi, and Yasuda, 2005). Motivation and related values develop within initial formal, non-formal and informal learning, with evidence suggesting that students' free interactions with their teachers and peers further develops their curiosity, interest and motivation for learning and self-regulation (Boekaerts and Cascallar, 2006). This shows the relevance of active teaching and learning approaches in the development of lifelong learning attributes, with Lawson, Askill-Williams, Murray-Harvey (2006) noting that the development of a student's capacity for learning is not possible without the influence of a positive learning environment.

In an earlier analysis of lifelong learning attributes by Candy, Crebert and O'Leary (1994), it was suggested that a lifelong learner is someone with:

... an inquiring mind, a love of learning, curiosity, a critical and self-monitoring spirit of their own learning. This also involves 'helicopter vision' that involves learners' mastery of a particular field and connecting it with other different fields of study; information literacy that involves understanding, evaluating, managing and using information; learning skills based on deep learning in contrast to surface learning that consists essentially of the acquisition of facts; and a sense of personal agency deriving from a favourable self-concept, self-organising skills and a positive attitude to learning (p.43).

These above attributes (Candy, Crebert and O'Leary (1994) mirror those noted by Lawson *et al.*, (2006, p.17). They suggest that lifelong learning attributes include literacy and communication skills, problem-solving skills, self-efficacy, initiative, enterprise skills and inter-personal skills.

Many researchers have argued that developing lifelong learning attributes provides a basis for learning throughout life. This is why Kirby *et al.* (2010) suggest a shift in emphasis towards teaching students how to learn. Their study indicates that effective lifelong learners are those who can:

Set goals, apply appropriate knowledge and skills; engage in self-direction and self-evaluation; locate required information, and adapt their learning strategies to different conditions (p.292-293).

These qualities offer an important base for the continuing search for knowledge by learners in order to remain functional members of their communities. Indeed, research by Coetzee and Botha (2013) found that lifelong learning attributes such as goal-directed behaviour, critical thinking and enterprising skills relate to increased academic engagement and motivation of learners.

Wagner (2008), in his interviews with business, non-profit and education leaders, identifies seven survival or lifelong learning skills that students need in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. These attributes include critical thinking and problem solving, collaboration and leadership, agility and adaptability, initiative and entrepreneurialism, effective oral and written communication, accessing and analysing information, curiosity and imagination.

Collins (2009), in his studies of radiologists, found that radiologists in learning situations are exposed to the opportunity to practice lifelong learning by teaching others and engaging in research. Collins mapped out the following as traits and skills for lifelong learners:

**Table 2-1 Traits and Skills of Lifelong Learners (Collins, 2009, p.61)**

<b>Traits and Skills of Lifelong Learners</b>	
<b>Traits</b>	<b>Skills</b>
Curiosity Venturesome and creative Innovative in practice Resourceful Motivated to learn Confident in ability to learn from others, share what they know, and accept feedback Willingness to make and learn from mistakes Persistent Flexible in thinking Interdependent and interpersonally competent as well as independent and self-sufficient Methodical and disciplined Logical and analytical Reflective and self-aware Adaptable to changing healthcare needs Responsible and accountable for work	Well-developed communication skills Self-directed learning skills, information-seeking and retrieval skills Higher-order thinking skills Metacognitive skills (skills for thinking about thinking) Able to develop and use defensible criteria for evaluating learning Able to work as a change agent Able to share good practices and knowledge

The Nigerian National Policy on Education (2013) promotes the development of personal, physical, emotional and psychological attributes of learners. It mentions the development of self-reliance, self-esteem, self-confidence, independent thinking, learning to learn, the capacity to manage information and entrepreneurial skills whilst also noting the capacity to create wealth, engage in civic responsibilities and develop moral values and national consciousness. Mwaikokesya, Osborne and Houston (2014) summarise lifelong learning attributes and capabilities as:

... information-handling, entrepreneurial skills, self-esteem, decision making, problem-solving and self-management; empathy and tolerance of others, creativity, a sense of humour, flexibility adaptability and versatility, critical judgment, thinking and vision, planning, practical skills, learning-to-learn, discussing and communicating informally, presenting and communicating formally (p.25).

The above attributes of lifelong learners seem comprehensive because they provide a summary of the abilities and habits expected of lifelong learners as members of a learning community. The development of these habits and abilities

depends on the learning providers, as well as the ability and willingness of learners to acquire such attributes.

According to McGarrah (2014, p.7), lifelong learning attributes can be grouped into three primary groupings of competencies: cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal. Cognitive competencies are commonly referred to as higher order thinking skills and include creativity, critical thinking and problem solving. Intrapersonal competencies include self-regulation and motivation, whilst interpersonal competencies include social and emotional competencies. The McGarrah (2014) framework is reflective of the earlier work of Knapper and Cropley (2000) in which they discuss the role of meta-cognitive and non-cognitive processes in the attainment of lifelong learning attributes. These attributes give a general picture of how lifelong learners develop within learning environments, as well as providing a basis for developing lifelong learners in vocational and higher education in Nigeria.

The reality of developing LLL attributes and their application to practice is a major challenge in Nigeria. This challenge is evident in Nigeria's growing rate of graduate and school leaver unemployment, underemployment, a high dropout rate and disengagement from education and training (National Bureau for Statistics, 2010; NMEC, 2008). The next section mapped out specific lifelong learning attributes to consider in this study.

## **2.6 Focus of this Research**

From the review of research and policies in lifelong learning, I have identified a number of lifelong learning attributes consistent throughout the literature. There seems to be overlap and interrelationships across the literature concerning lifelong learning attributes. However, it is important to note that majority of the literature is from the Western world. Lifelong learning policies continue to exert influence on the educational policies of developing countries such as Nigeria, notably through the work of UNESCO and the World Bank. This research focuses on entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills as lifelong learning attributes as they are emphasised in Nigerian educational policies as a means to tackle unemployment, poverty, depreciated skills, illiteracy,



inequalities and access to education (social justice and human capital development), as discussed in Chapters 1 and 5.

### **2.6.1 Entrepreneurship**

The concept of entrepreneurship does not lend itself to one specific definition. It is associated with terms such as entrepreneur, enterprise and small-scale business, and these are often used interchangeably (Henry, Hill and Leitch, 2005). In addition, the term entrepreneurship has been conceptualised from various perspectives. For example, Low and McMillan (1988) see it as the process of creating a new enterprise, which Bygrave (1989) refers to as the process of 'becoming', rather than a state of 'being' (p.21). Matlay (2005) defines it as a process of wealth creation, job generation and a superior quality of life through factors of production such as land, labour and capital; whilst Schoof (2006) views it as a process of exploiting an opportunity for the creation of wealth by acting upon a visible opportunity. These views show that entrepreneurship is essentially the organising of productive forces in order to exploit business opportunities for profit through innovation.

Entrepreneurship is the process of creating newness (innovation). This idea of newness can be viewed from two perspectives: newness of products and processes, and the discovery of new ventures for profit making (Ireland, Hitt and Sirmon, 2003). Scholars who subscribe to the first view see entrepreneurship as a process of innovating new products, processes and market opportunities as a means of wealth creation (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999). The second view is of entrepreneurship being a way of discovering opportunities for exploiting profits in order to create wealth (Meredith, Nelson, and Neck, 1982; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Tiernan *et al.*, 1996). Both views see entrepreneurship from the economic standpoint of creating business qualities amongst students, and therefore as a driver for innovation, growth and risk-taking with it being;

... an individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and taking calculated risks, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives (Vyakarnam, (2009, p.18).

From a lifelong learning perspective, entrepreneurship is about helping learners develop competencies and capabilities that help them engage in more enterprising, innovative and flexible activities (European Commission, 2016). Rae (2015) sees entrepreneurship as a process of creating, recognising and acting on opportunities with innovation, which he notes as being the activity of thinking and acting differently. A report by the European Commission (2016a) indicates that entrepreneurship is about developing learners' skills and mind-sets in order to enable them to turn creative ideas into action. To do this, necessary key competencies to be developed include personal development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employability. Rae (2015), EU, (2016b) and the European Commission's (2016a) definitions provide a comprehensive understanding of the term entrepreneurship as being about the development of competencies for creativity, social inclusion, employability and active citizenship. This extended view that incorporates lifelong learning values is relevant to this research, specifically the development of students' capabilities to do new, creative and innovative things that can have positive values on their needs as well as the needs of the larger communities (EU, 2016b).

Entrepreneurship as a lifelong learning constructs, as discussed in Chapter 1, is an explicit tool of addressing poverty, unemployment and the challenges of economic growth in Nigeria. This will be discussed in Chapter 5 analysis of the policy context of LLL in Nigeria.

### **Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment**

Over the last decades, increased attention has been given to entrepreneurship for self-employment as a lifelong learning attribute (Blanckflower, 2000; Greene and Saridakis, 2008). This interest in lifelong learning and entrepreneurship is within the context of the rise of global capitalism. The policy direction for lifelong learning, entrepreneurship and self-employment is viewed as an effective way of reducing unemployment by the development of human capital. Coffield (2000); Green (2006); OECD (1996); Reuters *et al.* (2015); and Riddell, Markowitscho, Weedon (2012) suggest that entrepreneurship for self-employment has the capacity to enable individuals to maintain a high level of economic competitiveness by constantly updating their skills and competencies, with Horne (2000) noting that:

Individuals are increasingly expected to seek out their own opportunities and actively create value, rather than reliably following rules and routines set by others. In many ways, we will have to act more as if we are self-employed (p.5).

As a result of this significance of entrepreneurship for self-employment, many countries across the globe see it as a possible way out of poverty, unemployment and economic disadvantage (Volkman, 2009). For this reason, governments and international organisations such as UNESCO, the OECD and the European Commission have focused their policies on entrepreneurship training to develop entrepreneurs with values such as innovation, self-reliance, self-direction risk-taking, financial management, openness to new information, networking and financial control (Benneworth, and Osborne, 2015; Blanckflower, 2000; Elenurm and Alas, 2008). Moreover, the findings of Blanckflower (2000) show that entrepreneurship training for self-employment promotes innovation, invention and ideas that then lead to the creation of jobs, access to information and wellbeing. However, further findings by Blanckflower (2000) show that in some countries there is a negative relationship between self-employment rates and the rate of unemployment. Blanckflower (2000) shows that the probability of being self-employed is higher amongst men than women and the least educated having the highest probability of being self-employed.

### **Criticism of Entrepreneurship Education**

Whilst the idea of entrepreneurship training for self-employment is seen as useful in many countries (Riddell, Markowitscho, Weedon, 2012), some scholars see it as simply a tool for the promotion of a capitalist economy (Allman, 1999; Freire, 1993). The idea of leaving individuals to be responsible for themselves increases social domination and injustice in contemporary societies. Allman (1999) argues that this is not only riddled with injustice and oppression, but is illogical as it makes no sense to leave individuals to fend for themselves within a globalised world.

Freire (1993) argues against using state control of people, yet presents entrepreneurship education as a deviation of the state from their responsibility of caring for all. Probably, if entrepreneurship learning is about the transformation of learner to be empowered and liberated from the shackles of

poverty and oppression is worth pursuing. Evidence has shown that increased training on information handling, risk bearing and entrepreneurship skills is found to increase the probability of survival of an individual's from difficult life situation (Blanckflower, 2000).

## Entrepreneurship Attributes

There is a growing body of literature that recognises the importance of entrepreneurship skills as attributes of lifelong learners (Barrie, 2006; Coetzee, 2014; Coetzee and Botha, 2013; Mwaikokesya, Osborne and Houston, 2014; Steur, Jansen and Hofman, 2012). A number of studies relate entrepreneurship skills to the manifestation of courage for risk taking, openness to new information, flexibility, networking and acquisition of capital (Elenurm and Alas, 2008), as well as to innovation, marketing, management and financial control (Chen, Gene and Crick, 1998). Rae (2015) also identifies entrepreneurship attributes such as sense of direction, curiosity and adventure, opportunity taking, overcoming problems, networking, learning from new experiences and gaining new knowledge and skills. These elements of entrepreneurship traits as lifelong learning attributes are mapped out as follows:

**Table 2-2 Entrepreneurship attributes (Barrie, 2006; Coetzee and Botha, 2013; Chen, Gene and Crick, 1998; Elenurm and Alas, 2008; Freire, 1993; Mezirow, 2009; Mwaikokesya, Osborne and Houston, 2014; Rae, 1999 and 2015)**

Entrepreneurship Attributes (Lifelong Learning)	
Innovation	Capability to do new, creative and innovative things that have positive outcomes
Self-reliance	Innovation
Self-direction	Invention
Risk-taking	Ideas that lead to the creation of jobs and access to information and wellbeing
Financial management	Perspective taking,
Openness to new information	Relationship building
Networking	Confidence
Financial control	Discovery
Evaluate opportunities	Reflection
Gather resources	Action
Initiate necessary action	
Mind-set to turn creative ideas into action	
Self-consciousness	
Experience sharing	

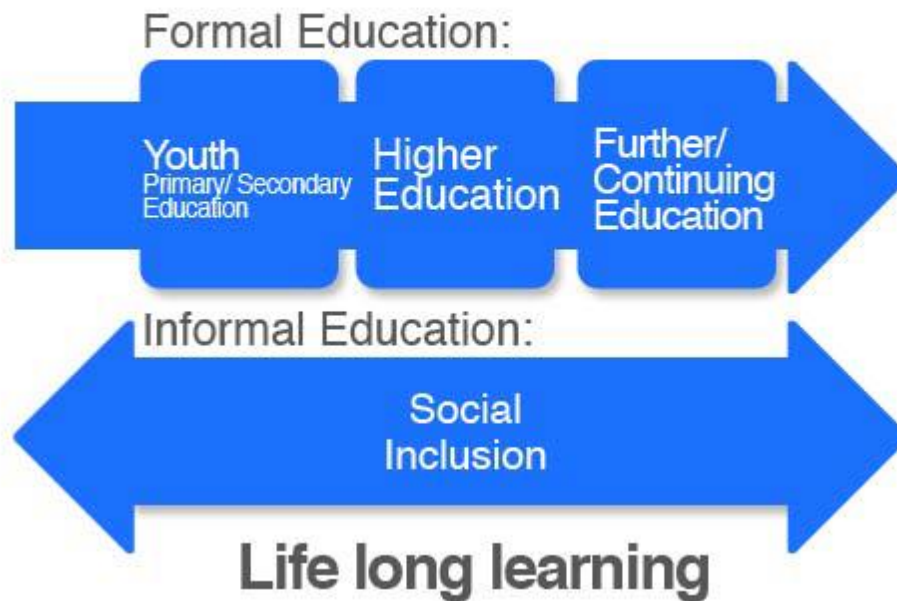
There are empirical studies that promote entrepreneurship skills as lifelong learning attributes, mostly from Western and Asian perspective. For instance, a quantitative study looked at ways of enhancing young graduates' interest in

entrepreneurship development in Malaysia (Zainalabidin *et al.*, 2012). This study found that graduates' exposure to business opportunities, marketing and entrepreneurial simulations enhanced and motivated self-employed business activity. An earlier study by Zainalabidin *et al.* (2011) on young agri-entrepreneurs found that these groups of farmers developed attributes such as risk taking and innovation in dealing with their business activities. The study also revealed that entrepreneurs who demonstrated these qualities were more likely to excel in self-employed business ventures. Entrepreneurship skills are seen as combination of personal and managerial skills, experience and behaviours that help an entrepreneur develop a spirit of initiative, risk propensity and innovative capacity to promote economic growth (Elenurm and Alas, 2008; Rezai, Mohamed and Shamsudin, 2011).

As earlier indicated, the mission of vocational education is to prepare people for the world of work as entrepreneurs (Billett, 2011; CEDEFOP, 2015; NERDC, 2004). In recent times, there has been renewed interest at local, national and international levels in promoting entrepreneurship skills in order to give individuals' knowledge of learning to live and work as productive citizens in a globalised world. Recent studies by the World Economic Forum, (2011) and Rezai, Mohamed and Shamsudin (2011) suggest that entrepreneurship education can take place within and outside of formal education systems. This emphasises the importance of informal training in the development of LLL attributes. The World Economic Forum Report (2011) showed important links between programmes at all levels of education including vocational, informal and out of school programmes.

The World Economic Forum Report (2011) suggests that entrepreneurship skills can be developed from different foundations in order to promote LLL skills. The following Figure (2.2) indicates the entrepreneurship-learning process.

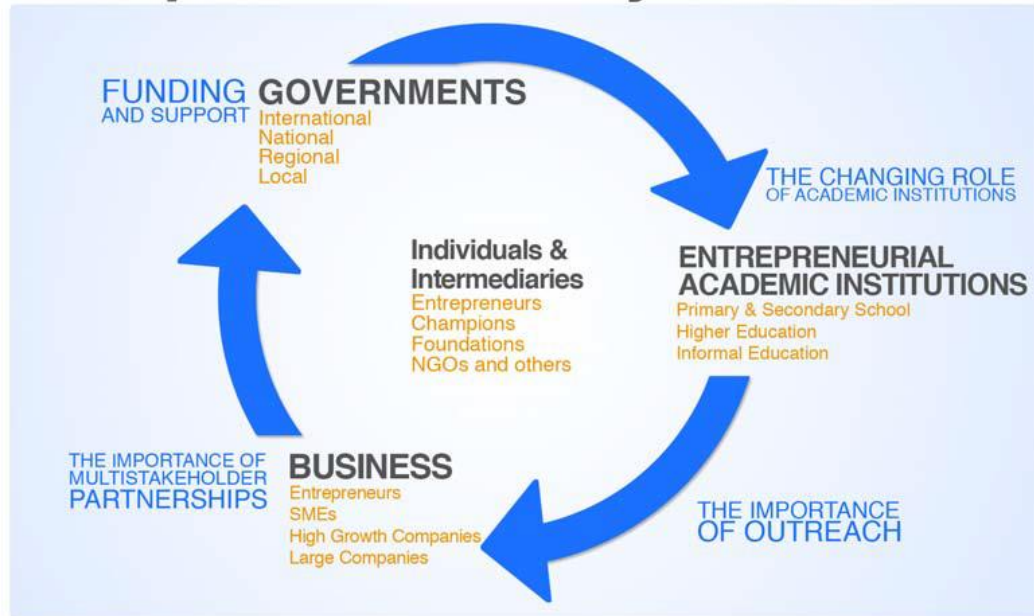
# Educational Lifespan



**Figure 2-2 Sources of entrepreneurship skills (World Economic Forum Report, 2011, p.10)**

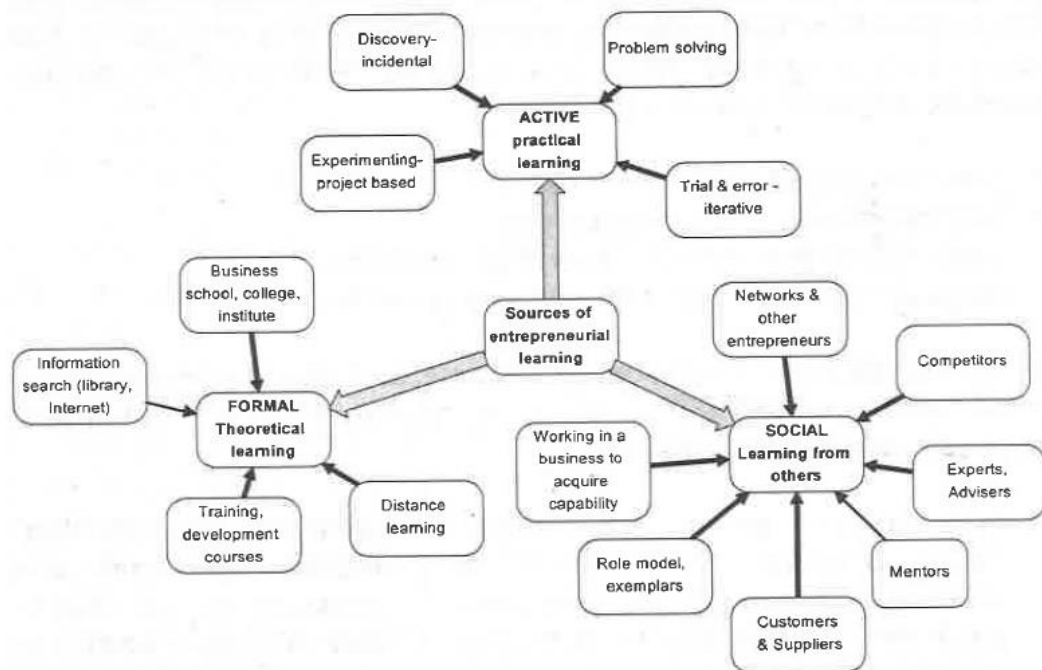
Figure 2.2 above shows that entrepreneurs grow and develop through a combination of learning within formal, non-formal and informal processes (World Economic Forum report, 2011), which are relevant to lifelong learning. This emphasises that lifelong learning is life-wide and its driving force is learner-centred activity. The OECD (1996) and Tuijnman and Bostrom (2002) suggest LLL is all encompassing because of its flexible, empowering, open and reflective nature. For example, the World Economic Forum Report (2011) suggests the building of an entrepreneurship ecosystem in which all stakeholders collaborate to create the right environment for the development of entrepreneurs (p.10). This would play a vital role in developing lifelong learning skills, with educational institutions providing a critical role within the entrepreneurial ecosystem to shape entrepreneurs (Chen, Gene and Crick, 1998; Elenurm and Alas, 2008; World Economic Forum report, 2011). This involves a nested system, as illustrated in the Figure below (2.3).

# Entrepreneurial Ecosystem



**Figure 2-3 Entrepreneurship ecosystems (World Economic Forum Report, 2011, p.11)**

Rezai, Mohamed and Shamsudin (2011) and the World Economic Forum Report (2011) maintain that vocational training courses are a critical component in promoting entrepreneurship. However, they also acknowledge the role of relevant stakeholders in promoting engagement with entrepreneurship skills. The World Economic Forum Report (2011) asserts that people outside of the education system working on formal and informal programmes also play a critical role in shaping young people's attitudes, skills and behaviours towards entrepreneurship. This shows that entrepreneurship skills are acquired, shaped and influenced by multiple learning processes. The World Economic roundtable discussions (2011) show that entrepreneurship skills might best be taught through interactive teaching methods within a cross-disciplinary approach. Rae (1999) argues that developing entrepreneurs through vocational education must involve a combination of different sources of learning such as active learning, social learning and formal learning. Rae (1999) developed an entrepreneurial learning model with these three variables, which enable the successful development of entrepreneurship skills from multiple sources. Figure 2.4 below shows sources of entrepreneurship capability learning.



**Figure 2-4 Entrepreneurial capability: Sources of learning (Rae, 1999, p.184)**

Figure 2.4 above suggests that learning entrepreneurship skills develop or grow through a combination of processes supporting and complementing each other. For example, Rae (1999) shows that entrepreneurship skills are not solely as a result of formal training in vocational or higher education, but may be as a result of experiential learning and networks of relationships with stakeholders. Bruderl and Preisendorfer (1998) suggest that network resources, activities and support are critical in developing and establishing new entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial skills. They found that network support increases the survival of a newly established self-employed business. This view is supported by Rae (1999), who suggests that expert advisors (e.g. accountants, bankers, lawyers, scientists, academics or business advisors) can be valuable in the training of entrepreneurs as a way of gaining expert-based learning (p.185). This suggests that learning entrepreneurship is not only lifelong learning, but is life-wide because it is not confined to educational institutions and happens in a variety of situations such as the workplace and in social and recreational situations (Dobson, 1982).

Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) refer to entrepreneurship learning as having elements of formal, non-formal and informal learning. The support and involvement of experts through such learning builds an effective entrepreneurship culture through which entrepreneurs develop ideas and



knowledge of establishing networks. Rae (1999) further argues that the, 'results of successful and unsuccessful decisions and actions taken by entrepreneurs can be reviewed and learned from' (p.184).

Previous research suggests a relationship between entrepreneurship, learning by doing, experiential learning, active practical learning, action-oriented practice, formal theoretical learning and social learning from others in developing entrepreneurial lifelong learners (Bruderl and Preisendorfer, 1998; Cope and Watts, 2000; Rae, 1999; Rae, 2000). Research further suggests that in adopting active learning practice, students learn best through sharing theories and experiences (DeFillipi, 2001; Raelin, 1997). Pittaway and Cope (2007) suggest that requiring learners to work as a team in developing ideas can develop into business propositions.

### **2.6.2 Learning-to-learn Attribute**

Recent trends in lifelong learning policies and research have recognised learning-to-learn skills as an essential skill for lifelong learners (Candy, Crebert, and O'leary, 1994; Cornford, 2002; European Council, 2006; Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Mwaikokesya, Osborne and Houston, 2014; UNESCO 1972; UNESCO, 1996). Learning-to-learn is a complex, lifelong process through which learners acquire skills and abilities for knowledge acquisition, problem solving and drawing meaning from experiences (Smith, 1994). It is a way of stimulating lifelong learning and the development of lifelong learners, with the European Commission (EC) (2006) defining learning-to-learn as:

.... the ability to pursue and persist in learning, to organise one's own learning, including through effective management of time and information, both individually and in groups. This competence includes awareness of one's learning process and needs, identifying available opportunities, and the ability to overcome obstacles in order to learn successfully. This competence means gaining, processing and assimilating new knowledge and skills as well as seeking and making use of guidance. Learning to learn engages learners to build on prior learning and life experiences in order to use and apply knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts: at home, at work, in education and training. Motivation and confidence are crucial to an individual's competence (p.8).

It has been argued that learning-to-learn skills as a lifelong learning attribute depend on the capacity to process information, which is centred on two psychological factors: cognitive and meta-cognitive skills (Cornford, 1999, 2002; Knapper and Cropley, 2000). The European Commission (2002) suggest learners need to possess meta-skills to enable them to adapt to change, make sense of vast quantities of information, and successfully construct and shape their learning process. Cornford (2002) argues that without establishing such skills, learning may not occur or may realistically be less effective. Shute (1994) maintains that learning processes establish relationships in understanding, from planning to encoding, storing, responding and application. Weinstein and Master-Stone (1994) suggest these involve thoughts

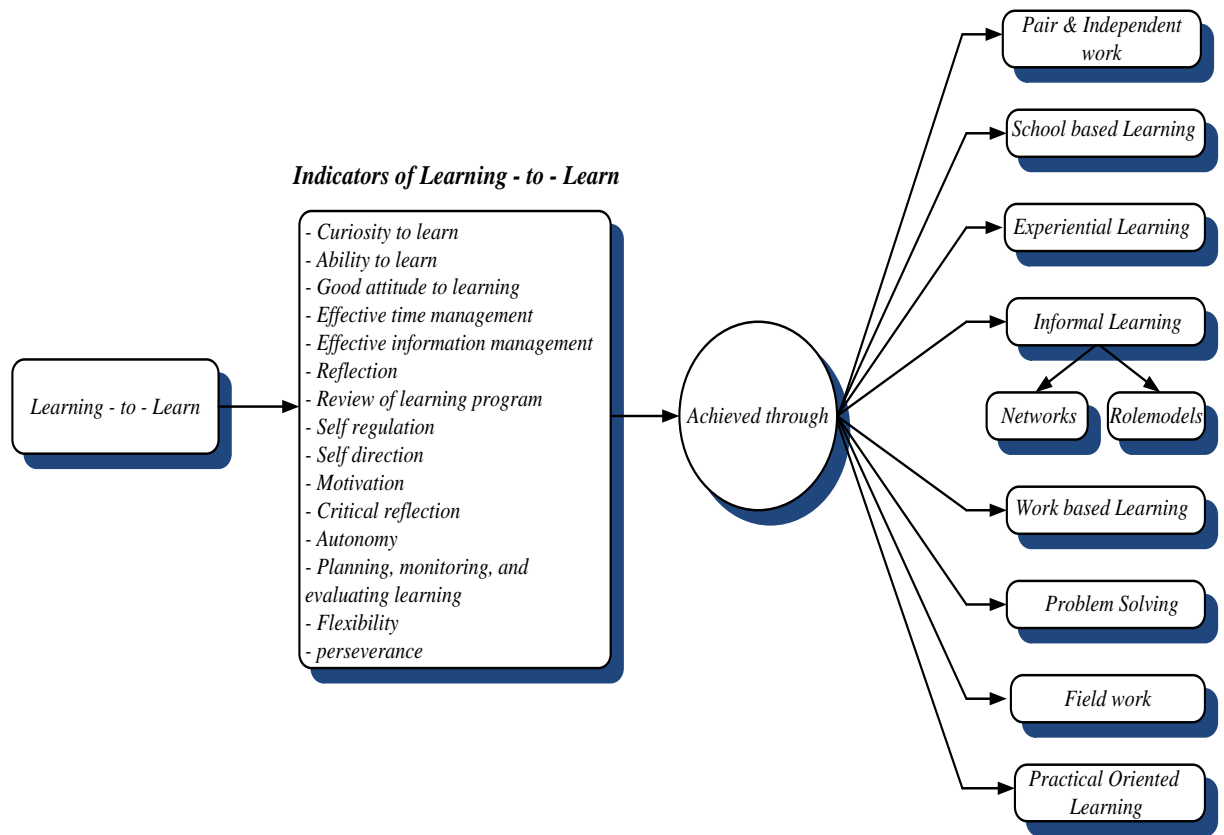
... thoughts, emotions, or behaviours that stimulate studying, understanding, knowledge, or skill acquisition, or reorganisation of one's knowledge base (p.3325).

A third psychological factor identified as non-cognitive connects with learning-to-learn by involving social skills such as motivation, attitudes, values and self-image (Knapper and Cropley, 2000), as well as learning relationships, organising learning and effective information and time management (Bryony and Ulf, 2008). This is the willingness and readiness on the part of a learner to learn, which is determined by his or her motivation and interest (Knapper and Cropley, 2000).

The EC (2006) suggests that building on learning-to-learn skills requires learners to access, gain, process and assimilate new knowledge and skills. The European Commission (2007) maintains that learning-to-learn skills require the acquisition of fundamental skills such as literacy, numeracy and ICT skills. It reported that the achievement of learning-to-learn skills was an indication of a learner's management of learning and time, critical reflection, perseverance and autonomous self-disciplined learning. This is reflective of other research that associates learning-to-learn skills with meta-cognitive skills such as self-regulation, self-direction and self-image (Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Rawson, 2000; Rožman and Koren, 2013).

Self-regulation learning is a learning process in which learners set their own learning goals and then monitor, regulate and control them (Rožman and Koren, 2013). These can be seen as a systematic way of directing thoughts, feelings or

actions with the aim of achieving learning objectives (Schunk, 2001). EC (2002) suggests that schools and institutions play a critical role in the promotion of learning-to-learn skills. The Figure below (2.5) shows some of the indicators of learning-to-learn and the processes through which they are achieved.



**Figure 2-5 indicators of learning-to-learn (Cornford, 2000; EC, 2002; Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Smith, 1994; Rožman and Koren, 2013; Weinstein and Master-Stone, 1994)**

Different studies indicate the interaction of formal and informal processes in the development of learning-to-learn skills (Cornford, 2002; EC, 2002; Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Rožman and Koren, 2013; Weinstein and Meyer, 1991; Weinstein and Meyer, 1994; Sternberg, 1998). Figure 2.5 above suggests the indicators of learning-to-learn, without which lifelong learning cannot occur (EC, 2002).

Rožman and Koren (2013) suggest that if learning is directed towards a goal or career, learners need to know and understand their motivations and preferred learning strategies, including their strengths and weaknesses. A study of post-graduate students enrolled in a knowledge management course in Celje in Slovenia showed that learners came to the learning situation with five essential goals to achieve before they graduate. These goals were: expanding knowledge in the subject area, the ability to acquire and share knowledge, the chance for

practical application of learning, knowledge of methodology and the opportunity for teamwork and communication (Rožman and Koren, 2013). In this respect, the present study has mapped out elements of learning-to-learn skills as lifelong learning attributes in Table 2.3 below:

**Table 2-3 Learning-to-learn attributes**

**Learning-to-learn traits (Lifelong learning)**

Ability to learn	Capacity to reflect on learning processes and change these if necessary
Maintaining curiosity and interest in skills	Capacity to track understanding
Knowledge acquisition abilities	Organise attention
Problem solving	Organise resources
Drawing meaning from experience	Review own progress within learning tasks
Awareness of learning processes and needs	Able to access, gain, process and assimilate new knowledge and skills
Identifying available opportunities	Management of learning and time
Ability to overcome obstacles in order to learn successfully	Critical reflection
Apply knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts	Perseverance
Motivation	Autonomous learning
Confidence	Self-discipline
Meta-skills to enable adaptation to change	Self-regulation
Ability to make sense of large quantities of information	Self-direction
Successfully construct and shape learning processes	Self-image

There seems to be an overlap between the entrepreneurship skills mapped out in Section 2.7.1 and the learning-to-learn skills above. This overlap shows entrepreneurship skills go beyond economic constructs, as shown in the works of the European Commission (2016a) and European Commission (2016b).

It is not known how these attributes relate to lifelong learning in Nigeria. In Nigeria, there is no research on learning-to-learn skills and entrepreneurship competencies as lifelong learning skills promoted by vocational and higher education institutions. There is also absent of research that has examined the impact of lifelong learning skills amongst young adults and their communities. This research is aiming to fill these gaps.

## **2.7 Research on Lifelong Learning**

### **2.7.1 Strategies that Facilitate the Development of Lifelong Learning Attributes**

The development of lifelong learning attributes has been linked with many pedagogical processes that influence their development (De Corte (1996); Lave and Wenger (1991); Rae (1999); Hager and Holland (2006); Weinstein and Meyer (1994); Wenger (1998)). A study by Rae and Carswell (2000) found that learning-by-doing helps build learners' experience and entrepreneurial attributes, whilst Kanji and Greenwood (2001) found that opportunity-centred learning is best achieved by actions conducted by the students. A recent study by Chang, Benamraoui, and Rieple (2014) found that learning through practice enabled students to develop entrepreneurial skills and knowledge of social interaction. Schlee, Curren and Harich (2009) found that many social entrepreneurship programmes emphasise classroom learning and offer few opportunities for students to practice and create ideas, thereby not developing a student's capacity to take risks. Rae and Carswell (2000) found that classroom teaching rarely promotes competences such as overcoming fear and the ability to deal with uncertain challenges.

The significance of open and flexible teaching and learning strategies found expression in the works of (De Corte, 1996; Hager and Holland, 2006). De Corte (1996) suggests that to develop lifelong skills, the teaching and learning environment should have a number of powerful features:

... a good balance between discovery learning and personal exploration and systematic instruction and guidance; progressive increase of share of self-regulation and opportunities to use a rich array of resources and for social interaction and collaboration; flexible adaptation of the instructional support to accommodate individual differences and stages of learning; facilitate the acquisition of general learning and thinking skills (p.123-124).

Hager and Holland (2006) argue that the development of lifelong learning attributes amongst students requires initiatives to improve teaching and learning. It seems that strategies to develop lifelong learning attributes lead to good learning outcomes and students being more reflective and self-directed (Hager and Holland, 2006). Hager and Holland (2006) argue that there is a strong

connection between the achievement of lifelong learning attributes by students and the teaching and learning strategies employed that exhibit:

... adult learning principles; holistic approaches to learning; problem-based learning; lifelong learning skills; learning how, why and exploring what if ... not just learning received facts; learner reflection, evaluation and articulation on learning experiences as a critical aspect of the learning process; active, learner-centred approaches in which integrated thinking and action occurs on tasks that are relevant and meaningful to learners; the teacher assuming multiple roles as mentor, coach, facilitator, evaluator, that include demonstrating/modelling the generic attributes to learners (p.8).

Wenger (1998) argues that not only does pedagogy influence learning, confidence and curiosity but it also promotes social interaction through which students learn to further their knowledge. For example, Chang, Benamraoui and Rieple (2014) found that learning by doing helped students develop their ability to work in a team and formulate strategies for applying their skills. However, evidence suggests that in the post-compulsory vocational education sector in Australia, only a small number of teachers employ teaching strategies that promote the development of learning-to-learn skills (Kearns *et al.*, 1999). Thus, Cornford (2002) sees ineffective curriculum and a lack of teacher exposure to student-centred approach as factors for not employing strategies that promote lifelong learning skills.

In making a case for strategies for the development of learning-to-learn skills, Sternberg (1998) suggests that metacognitive skills that require planning, monitoring and evaluation are only likely to be achieved through work experience. In his study, Gellin (2003) found that college students who learnt informally through peer interaction on campus were more likely to have increased critical thinking and problem solving skills. Evidence suggests that graduates manifest knowledge and learning-to-learn skills through rigorous engagement with practical work in their chosen occupational careers (Cornford and Gunn 1998; Fitt, 1968). Cornford (2002) suggests that it is possible for learners to be exposed to learning-to-learn skills through teaching and learning, and concludes that proficiency involving cognitive and metacognitive skills could be built upon through the learning environment and occupationally focused learning.

There is a lack of substantial evidence showing the best approaches for developing cognitive and metacognitive skills through teaching. However, Weinstein and Meyer (1994) suggest two approaches: the adjunct and the meta-curricular approaches. The adjunct approach involves the teaching of specific skills separate from subjects taught in schools. This suggests that specific activities be designed to develop such skills for example, through workshops, seminars, laboratory sessions, or verbal reasoning that would expose learners to autonomy, self-regulation, perseverance, and time and information management. For example, many introductory-level college mathematics courses in the United States offer sessions on how to study and learn mathematical skills (Weinstein and Meyer, 1994). The adjunct approach is usually a freestanding session that focuses on developing learning-to-learn skills. It can be argued though that this approach may not be an effective way of transferring learning-to-learn skills.

The meta-curriculum approach involves teaching cognitive and metacognitive skills strategies with a subject such as Mathematics or English. This may facilitate acquisition of relevant cognitive and metacognitive skills through the application of these skills within a practical context, for example a teacher demonstrating strategies for understanding and remembering. Weinstein and Meyer (1994) suggest that such active engagement develops learners' 'motivation for initiating, maintaining and intensifying interest for self-efficacy' and application of learning to the real life situations.

Cornford (1999) suggests that rather than assuming learning-to-learn skills can develop naturally, arguably, they should instead be deliberately planned and delivered. Weinstein and Meyer's (1994) approach is consistent with the findings of CRELL (2006), as discussed above, with evidence suggesting that these skills need to be effectively learned and applied to specific contexts so that learners' effectively learn them (Carrell, 1998). As suggested by the literature, learning-to-learn skills are a pre-requisite for effective lifelong learning to occur (Cornford, 2002; EC, 2002; Knapper and Cropley, 2000). Evidence suggests that these competencies develop learners who are more effective, flexible and self-organised and who will be capable of learning in many situations (Hofmann, 2008). The findings of a study by Rožman and Koren (2013) show that learners appreciate teaching and learning methods such as conversation/discussion, case

studies, working in pairs, independent student work, presentations, problem-solving, field work, and inviting guests from companies and organisation to give talks as a basis of building their confidence and interest in learning.

### **2.7.2 Benefits and Barriers of Lifelong Learning**

Lifelong learning has been linked to a wide range of benefits for individuals and economies (Coffield, 2000; Field, 2009; Green, 2006). Evidence shows that participation in learning has significant impact on the health and social wellbeing of individuals (Dench and Regan, 2000). Findings by Dench and Regan (2000) suggest that 80% of people who participate in learning experience an increase in self-confidence, enjoyment of life, satisfaction and positive changes in their lives. In a related study by Feinstein *et al.* (2008), it was found that participation in learning contributes to positive changes in behaviours and attitudes such as increased civic participation and healthier lifestyles. Further evidence reports the impacts of learning on optimism and subjective wellbeing (Moody, 2004), along with an improved sense of self-efficacy (Hammond and Feinstein, 2006).

Pro Skills (2006) found that lifelong learning has significant impact on young adults' integration into a community, as well as improving their psychological and overall living conditions. The qualitative research findings of the Benefits of Lifelong Learning survey (Manninen *et al.*, 2014) show that participation in liberal adult education seems to generate multiple benefits for individuals in terms of an increase in control of their lives, efficient networks, identified improved health and increased participation in social life. The findings further showed individual benefits in terms of improved confidence and greater self-awareness.

In a study by Tuckett and McAuley (2005), it was found that lifelong learning has an impact on developing an individual's skills and knowledge to make informed choices during periods of crisis and transition. Hammond and Feinstein (2006) found that young adults who participated in adult learning experienced positive transformations in terms of wellbeing, optimism, efficacy and self-confidence. DeCoulon, Marcenaro-Gutierrez and Vignoles (2007) investigated the employment impacts of basic skills amongst men and women. They found an



increase in literacy is associated with a 3.5% higher probability of being employed for women. CEDEFOP (2015) holds that lifelong learning promotes and allows the acquisition of qualifications, workplace skills and experience, as well 'as a swift transition from learning to earning' (p.2). The European Union (2013) recognises the potential of lifelong learning in the promotion of young adult employment, and recommends guidance on entrepreneurship and self-employment for young people as part of its agenda for sustaining learning and employment throughout life. Arguably, most of the benefits are individual based but this study intend to look at the benefits for individuals and wider community.

In their quantitative study, Panagiotounis *et al.* (2017) examined the role of LLL in integrating socially vulnerable young people. The findings suggest that lifelong learning helps socially vulnerable people form a new personality in their community. In her qualitative studies of how YouthBanks empower young people in Northern Ireland, Gormally (2010) found that young people who benefitted this initiative, had an increase in confidence levels, opportunities for self-reflection, accredited training and an appreciation of having dedicated local resources to work with others to take positive local action. The finding also suggests that empowerment programmes for young people are an ongoing process that requires openness and flexibility.

However, Field (2009) argues that an analysis of learning benefits can be challenged because it is not always possible to conclude that learning is the primary cause of a benefit. In contrast, the economic benefits of learning are well established in the literature (Field, 2009; Sabate, 2008), with evidence showing that learning leads to an increase in income and productivity amongst individuals (Field, 2012; Sabate, 2008). This impact of LLL has focused on individual gains rather than its impact on the larger community. However, there were claims that on a societal level, that LLL being a means of preventing and reducing the problems associated with post-industrial societies, such as social injustice and inequalities (Longworth and Osborne, 2010). This research examined the benefits of LLL for individuals and community transformation.

In Nigeria Shamsideen (2016) conducted a quantitative study with one hundred adult learners randomly selected from Lagos State University on the benefit of

adult education. The findings show that adult education is a powerful tool for development and these include poverty reduction, civic and social engagement. The study, however, did not have a theoretical basis. Mbagwu (2013) conceptually highlighted the areas LLL should target, including functional literacy, health and wellbeing, political education, generating income and family life and financial management. The study, however, just listed assumptions without examining the extent to which adult education programme promote these skills among the adult learners. Jinna and Maikano (2014) examined the concept of adult education in national development. The study unfortunately draws similar conclusion word to word with Shamsideen (2016) that adult education is tool for development and addressing poverty reduction, civic and social engagement. The three Studies by Jinna and Maikano (2014), Mbagwu (2013), and Shamsideen (2016) were not comprehensive in addressing the gap of empirical literature on lifelong learning in Nigeria.

In his motivational expectancy model, Pintrich (1988) suggests that motivation helps to activate and maintain learning activities. Manninen *et al.* (2014) found that the activating elements for learning activities are learners' personal traits such as curiosity and self-image, and directing factors such as task value and the learners' interest in a specific learning activity. Panagiotounis *et al.* (2016) found that the cost of a training programme, flexibility of training and support are important incentives for participation in learning. Dench and Regan (2000) found that learners engage in learning in order to increase their knowledge and ability to deal with life challenges, to utilise their time, to take control of their lives and to support themselves and their families. In their research, McCombs and Marzano (1990) found that for a student to be motivated to engage in lifelong learning, learning has to be personally relevant to their interests and goals, and that they must be shown that they have the skills and capacity to accomplish learning goals. In addition, they must be seen as agents who can accomplish personal goals, be motivated to develop self-regulation skills, and be able to control emotions and moods that can facilitate or interfere with learning and motivation. Finally, learning must provide appropriate opportunities for encoding, processing and recalling information. In McCombs' (1991) study, it was found that students were motivated for lifelong learning if learning needs were adaptive and flexible to a range of settings and contexts.

In her research, Cross (1991) found three barriers to lifelong learning. These barriers were attitudinal barriers that reflect on a lack of ability, motivation and interest in gaining new skills; situational barriers as personal factors such as poor health, lack of time and limited resources and institutional barriers that discourage learners from participating in learning (e.g. inflexible course schedules, complex enrolment procedures or a lack of information). Moreover, Dench and Regan (2000) found that a lack of time, resources, interest or availability of a course were major barriers to lifelong learning. In a recent study, DiSilvestro (2013) found that limited finances also present barriers to lifelong learning. This finding was also noted by the National Adult Learner Survey 2010 and McNair (2012) that cost is a significant potential barrier for around two-thirds of those aged 16-39 in their engagement with lifelong learning. A number of studies pointed adults barriers to participation in lifelong learning and these include health conditions, poverty, attitudinal, institutional and structural barriers (Clover and Hall, 2000; Hillage and Aston, 2001; Laal, 2011). The challenges such as illiteracy, poverty, unemployment and social inequalities are the major problems affecting Nigeria. This might impacts on LLL, for example, low income families especially, might prepare to educate boys to the detriment of girls. This might create a situation for young girls' engagement in street hawking to generate income for the family, which exposes them to vulnerability (Ofoha, 2013).

### **2.7.3 Studies on Lifelong learning**

Most research into vocational education institutions focuses on the experience of the graduates (Abdullah *et al.*, 2015; Deba *et al.*, 2014; Leach, 2012). A study conducted by Leach (2012) investigates such experience using qualitative email interviews with 35 participants. The study revealed that the participants' professional learning and development was achieved through teamwork with teachers and colleagues, and that good planning and management of learning lead to successful outcomes in the learners' subsequent careers. However, a study by Abdallah (2015) revealed that whilst teamwork is an approach adopted within vocational learning institutions, its implementation is not necessarily comprehensive.

With regards to vocational education teaching approaches, Deba *et al.* (2014) note that there is a demand for vocational education programme graduates to developed interpersonal skills and effective job performance skills. Such a demand is dependent on the vocational educators equipping learners with these skills with appropriate instructional pedagogies. A popular research area within vocational education is how pedagogical approaches adopted contribute to the acquisition of career competencies in secondary and higher vocational education institutes (Kuijpers, Meijers, and Winters, 2009). The findings of Kuijpers, Meijers and Winters (2009) revealed that career-directed learning at school and dialogue with learners about concrete experiences contributed the most to the development of learners' competencies. Furthermore, a learning environment promoting practice-based learning that offered learners a chance to have a say in what and how they learnt also contributed to their career development. This study's limitation was however, that it could not point to suitable pedagogical approaches for the development of relevant competencies within vocational education training.

CEDEFOP (2015) suggests that learning pedagogies in vocational education training motivate non-academic learners and those learning a trade for employment. Earlier study by Barrie (2005) revealed that developing graduate attributes required a learner-centred approach to teaching and learning. A study of learners' motivation, support systems and practical oriented/learner-driven pedagogy used by Dutch and Danish vocational education training respectively showed a decline in dropout rates from 28% to 21% (CEDEFOP, 2015) because of the teaching approaches adopted. This shows the extent to which teaching approaches and follow up with learners in vocational education training motivates and sustains learning throughout life. Barrie (2005), CEDEFOP (2015) and Kuijpers, Meijers and Winters (2009) were mainly concerned with the frequency and quantity of learners' responses to their teaching approaches, rather than views of how they engaged and coped with learning and teaching approaches. A finding of a study by Marton and Saljo (1976) found two levels of engagement with learning amongst university students: surface and deep approaches to learning. The surface approach to learning is characterised by rote learning, memorisation and reproduction, alongside of a lack of reflection and application of learning into practice. Mann (2001) argues that such an

approach to learning and teaching produces passive learners who do not engage totally in their learning. On the other hand, a deep approach is a learning approach directed towards comprehension of the learning materials (Marton and Saljo, 1976).

Deba *et al.* (2014) study was consistent with the expectation that educational institutions are for the transformation of learners into an employment resource, with appropriate knowledge, skills and experience for employment and self-directedness (Leach, 2012) in a practically orientated situation. This view is supported by the belief that a person is entrepreneurial and independent, and is capable of engaging in lifelong learning as a way of maintaining their employment status (Brooks and Everret, 2008). This shows the inextricable link between education, training and the employability of learners - especially when using vocational education to train learners as entrepreneurs and lifelong learners with a capacity for being self-employed. The OECD (2015) argues that where education, training and employability are seen as separate activities, education system graduates may find the transition to employment difficult. It suggests that to better prepare young people for employment, education and training needs to be flexible, responsive to the needs of employment and offer high-quality career guidance along with further learning so that the skills taught match the requirements of prospective jobs.

The OECD (2015) contends that being employed or self-employed requires not only proficiency in cognitive skills, but also an ability to apply these skills to solve problems through soft skills such as communication and teamwork. It was found that young people with lifelong learning attributes across Europe were more likely to achieve security and increased employability through education and training (Lewis, Smithson and Kugelberg, 2002). Recent research has also suggested that quality vocational education training improves and ensures a transition from training to work in all sectors of an economy (Quintini and Manfredi, 2009). If Lewis, Smithson and Kugelberg's (2002) and Quintini and Manfredi's (2009) findings are accurate, education and training are central to employment or self-employment, and any learner who leaves school without achieving his or her full potential as a lifelong learner may be less likely to excel in their chosen career. Various reports as seen in Chapter 1 indicate that most learners who finished get poor results and as a result, they are affected by

poverty and unemployment. They become frustrated and most continue to create tension with the society.

Vocational and higher education training institutions are primarily designed to develop students' competencies for the world of work and learning. These competencies include self-direction, autonomy, employability, high-level reasoning, continuing learning and entrepreneurship skills for participation in an economy (Giroux, 1985; Moodie, 2002; NERDC, 2004, 2013; Tran and Nyland, 2013). A study conducted by Fjellström (2014) in Sweden used observation and focus groups to find out students' perceptions of vocational learning competencies and how these were taught. The study indicated a gap between the proficiencies developed and the learning objectives: the competencies developed in the programme seemed to better fit the demands of the building industry rather than the self-employability of the learners. The findings showed on the one hand, a strong connection between learning and support from teachers; but on the other, individual initiatives not being supported within the learning environment. In Nigeria, there seems to be lack of research that considers how LLL skills are acquired. However, a quantitative study by Folaranmi (2007) in Nigeria shows that teachers lack effective teaching techniques to engage their students in learning. His study did not reflect on what technique and the implications of those to development of skills. Osulale's (2014) study highlighted lack of conducive learning environments because of an absence of infrastructure and facilities for practical learning and experimentation.

In showing the relevance of vocational education to practice, Lawy's (2010) findings show a gap between policy and practice amongst participants in vocational education. It was argued by Winch (2012) that vocational education should prepare participants for lifelong learning and employment, and it should offer practical experiences in both simulated and operational environments. This would be reflective of the aims of vocational and higher education as being the promotion of lifelong learning values to enhance employability, access, equality and sustainability in learning (Billett, 2011; CEDEFOP, 2015; National Policy on Education, 2013; Winch, 2012).

It is important to acknowledge other important studies on lifelong learning attributes that were conducted in the context of higher education. Brooks (2006) conducted a study in the UK that focused on graduates' decisions about education and training after graduation. The findings of the study revealed that the experience of university influenced learners' engagement with lifelong learning (i.e. the decision to undertake further education and training). He noted however that student debt imposed a limitation for further learning, even though the previous supportive environment had motivated learners to continue with their learning. This finding reveals that stratification of higher education has an impact on the choices for further learning after graduation, and that economic, social, psychological factors and choice of institute shape learners' engagement in lifelong learning. In their report on the National Adult Learning Survey (NALS 2002) Fitzgerald, Taylor and La Valle (2003) suggest that young adults are more likely than any group to engage in lifelong learning, and are motivated to do so by their interest in the subject matter.

A recent study conducted by Mwaikokesya (2014) in Tanzania investigated the extent to which undergraduate students develop lifelong learning attributes. Using a mixed methods approach (questionnaire, diary and interviews), the study was specifically conducted within the context of higher education. The finding of the study revealed a dearth of national and institutional policies promoting lifelong learning attributes in higher education. Furthermore, it revealed that educational policies focus on the development of such abilities as reading, writing and arithmetic (3Rs), as opposed to complex issues such as learning to live and learning to do. The findings further showed policy tension between quality and quantity in higher education, and that teaching approaches were dominated by a teacher-centred approach. Whilst the study revealed that over time the majority of the participants showed significant improvement in information skills, there was a decline of 35% in student engagement in entrepreneurship activities. The findings further revealed that a number of factors such as poverty, family and peers affected learners' development of lifelong learning attributes, and particularly entrepreneurship and information skills.

The Mwaikokesya (2014) study in Tanzania focused on undergraduate students' development of lifelong learning using variables such as learning to learn,

information and entrepreneurship skills. The study used surveys to look at student characteristics rather than how they applied such attributes to practice. The methods adopted by the study did not provide a deep analysis of how learners develop lifelong learning attributes, or what supports their development and application to practice. Moreover, it did not address the impact of lifelong learning attributes on the participants and their communities, as it instead focused on student characteristics. As a result, this research is generally associated with a positivist paradigm that promotes a single reality (Bryman, 2008). The study would have been more interesting if it had used qualitative methods to identify multiple realities about how undergraduate students develop lifelong learning attributes. Both Brooks (2006) and Mwaikokesya's (2014) studies were limited by lack of a rigour in practice and teaching approaches that would support learner development of lifelong learning attributes. Neither study looked at the triggers for participation in lifelong learning, nor the impact of lifelong learning in participant transformation.

There are limited studies that show in depth examination of the triggers for young adult participation in LLL or of the factors that can limit their confidence, self-esteem and capacity for practice and learning throughout life. This study will look at the pedagogies that can help or limit the development of LLL skills, as well as the impact of learning in the transformation of learners and their communities within Nigeria. This study applies qualitative methods to examine perspectives of learning through learners' voices. This is particularly relevant as most research in Nigeria is quantitative in nature (See Shamsideen, 2016) as cited above.

The models of LLL (social justice and economic development) as discussed above were to provide an understanding of the policy context of LLL in Nigeria. It would help to make sense of the policy perspective of LLL in terms of achieving the objectives of social justice and economic development in line with the global rhetoric of LLL (Coffield, 2000; Green, 2000; OECD, 1973; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2015; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; Osborne, 2003; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO 1972). The problem of unemployment, poverty, depreciated skills, and lack of access to education were pronounced among young people in Nigeria, as discussed in Chapter 1. These models would provide



answers to which extent these policies address the problems articulated within the Nigerian context.

## 2.8 Summary

This chapter defines the concepts of learning, lifelong learning and models of LLL and suggest their relevance to this study. The literature reflects three perspectives of lifelong learning. The first perspective sees LLL as a tool of promoting neo-liberal ideas. This involves the use of education to build individuals for economic competitiveness to promote economic prosperity (Coffield, 2000; Green, 2006; OECD 1996; Reuters *et al.*, 2015). The second aspect projects LLL as a tool for promoting consciousness and social progress in society (Freire, 1993; Field, 2006; Gramsci, 1971; Mezirow, 1991, 1994, 2009). The third perspective builds on the argument of using lifelong learning for the public's good and is related to the ideas of radical scholars. Lifelong learning is a way of addressing the challenges of socially marginalised and disadvantage groups within society through promoting access, empowerment, equal educational opportunities and the promotion of learning cities (Field, 2006; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; Osborne, 2003; UNESCO, 1972; UNESCO, 1996).

The chapter mapped out lifelong learning attributes individuals and students require in the 21<sup>st</sup> century as a means of tackling uncertain economic, social and political challenges created by the global forces of capitalism (NERDC, 2013; OECD, 2015; OECD, 1996; UNESCO, 2013; UNESCO, 2002; UNESCO, 1996; UNESCO, 1972; UNESCO, 2015). This study narrow discussions on entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills as lifelong learning attributes as a means of tackling unemployment, poverty, depreciated skills, illiteracy, inequalities and access to education in Nigeria.

The chapter also discussed a range of studies on lifelong learning from international literature to enable understanding of what is available in the field.

The next chapter will present the theoretical assumptions on which this study is based.

## Chapter 3 Theoretical Framework

In this Chapter, I present the theories and theoretical assumptions underpinning this research. From the conceptual analysis in Chapter 2, lifelong learning seems an all-encompassing and complex process of understanding that requires different theoretical underpinnings (Bourdieu, 1992; Illeris, 2009; Jarvis, 2009; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Mezirow, 2009; Rae, 1999; Wenger, 1998; Wenger, 2002). This study examines policies and the practices that influence young adults' engagement in lifelong learning, the pedagogies that influence the development of LLL skills and the impact of lifelong learning on the transformation of graduates, and their communities. The huge varying experiences and situations of the participants of this study in relation to social exclusion, learning, pedagogy, and impacts of LLL as discussed in Chapter 6 and 7 would not fit into one overarching theory. This requires a combination of theories to understand the influence of social norms on the subject under investigation. This combination of theories is presented below.

Illeris (2009) notes that a variety of internal and external factors that can influence human learning. These factors include psychological (desire, interest, feelings, emotions, motivation, necessity or compulsion) and interactions (perception, transmission, experience, imitation, activity and participation) that influence learning. This study's philosophical foundation is that learning does not lie solely in an individual's head (Lave and Wenger, 1991), but is rather a process of practice and social interaction (Rae, 1999). Moreover, the study subscribes to Mezirow's (2009) view that learning is transformative when it changes individual mind-sets, expectations and assumptions. Learning is impactful if learners can identify meaning from their experience, as well as gained a sense of self and others as agents of change in their learning engagement. Although Illeris (2009), Mezirow (2009), Rae (1999) highlighted the role of external factors in guiding individuals' actions, they are, limited in their discussion on the influence of social norms and power within the socio-economic and cultural environment on learning and empowerment. The theoretical work of Bourdieu (1990 and 1992) provides a macro framing for theoretical assumptions in this chapter to enable discussion of the findings and stories of divorced women, people with disabilities and young people affected by poverty concerning education and social exclusion, as highlighted in Chapter 1. Bourdieu

(1992) argued that power is culturally and symbolically created through interplay of agencies and structures within social system. This is guided by 'habitus' or social norms as will be discussed in section 3.2.4 below.

As discussed in Chapter 2, lifelong learning is a complex process that occurs in formal, non-formal, informal and self-directed learning ways. Understanding the development of lifelong learning skills and their impact on individuals and communities using qualitative methods requires multiple theories to facilitate understanding of the matter under investigation (Agee, 2009).

### **3.1 Justification**

The theoretical framework of this study underlines the researcher's assumptions of reality and social world. For example, Freire (1993), Mezirow (2009), Rae (1999), and Wenger (1998) emphasise the importance of learning vis-à-vis learners' interrelationships and interactions within the social world. They also emphasise the importance of social contexts in the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Whilst Rae (1999) and Mezirow (2009) highlight triggers of learning such as disorientating dilemmas, motivation and social recognition as conditions triggering individuals into taking action towards their transformation and ultimately development of entrepreneurial and learning-to-learn skills. Rae (1999) and Mezirow (1994: 2009) demonstrate how critical reflection is central in the development of such skills. Mezirow (2009), Rae (1999), and Wenger (1998) also note the relevance of networking, negotiated learning, experience-sharing and the medium of instruction in the development of lifelong learning skills. These assumptions underpin that human existence is social, and that individuals experience multiple realities within the social environment. There is no one truth.

Drawing from these assumptions provides a comprehensive understanding of the triggers for LLL; the views of how humans learn to develop LLL skills and the outcomes of such learning towards transformation. The theories and concepts chosen to underpin this study provide the basis for understanding how young adults develop lifelong learning attributes (entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills) within the context of Nigeria's socio-economic conditions. Lave and Wenger's (1991) and Rae's (1999) work facilitates the understanding of the

process of developing lifelong learning attributes amongst young adults. Mezirow's work (1991; 1994; 2009) is the basis to understanding the triggers for young adults' engagement in learning. Probably, this would be the basis for understanding transformative impacts of lifelong learning attributes on graduates (young adults) and their communities within a context where poverty, unemployment and lack of access to education and training are on-going challenges.

The theories drawn upon in this study will facilitate an understanding of the processes that promote the development of lifelong learning attributes, as well as their application and their impact in the transformation of graduates' lives (Bourdieu, 1992; Freire, 1993; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Mezirow, 1991, 1994, 2009; Rae, 1999; Wenger, 1998). Bourdieu's work would help to challenge the effects of social norms on the life situation of the participants.

## **3.2 Theoretical Frameworks**

Theorists such as Rae (1999), Mezirow (1991; 2009), Freire (1993), and Bourdieu (1990) talked about reasons for learning and effects of social norms and positions in the struggle for living within society. Although having different views these theorists provide an insight into the nature of life for individuals within a social system. In this chapter, I will highlight the ideas of these scholars.

This study draws firstly on Rae's (1999) entrepreneurship capability learning models. This model explains the triggers that influence young adults' engagement in entrepreneurship learning. The model also provides an explanation of the process of developing and sustaining lifelong learning skills, such as entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills. The model emerged from a case study research using personal narratives of entrepreneurs in the UK who had developed successful entrepreneurial skills and subsequent ventures (Rae, 1999). Rae's (1999) motivation was the need to find solutions to address a lack of sustainable learning skills applicable to building self-employed and entrepreneurship ventures. It highlights the processes of developing lifelong learning attributes among students. This is explored in detail in section 3.2.1 below.

Secondly, this study draws upon Lave and Wenger's (1991) community of practice, which was initially introduced as 'situated learning theory'. The model emerged after cognitive learning theories and educational practices failed to sufficiently respond to interrelationship questions in the acquisition of knowledge (Lave and Wenger, 1991), and from multi- apprenticeship case studies (Yucatec midwives in Mexico, Vai and Gola tailors in Liberia, naval quartermasters in the US, meat cutters and non-drinking alcoholics in the US). It was argued that learning could occur through informal processes, especially when the learners shared a mutual interest (Lave and Wenger, 1991). This model will be explored in detail in section 3.2.2 below.

Thirdly, Mezirow's (1991; 2009) transformative learning theory is drawn upon, and this work is significant within adult education discourse. Mezirow first introduced this in 1978 in an article entitled 'Perspective Transformation' in *Adult Education Quarterly* (Mezirow, 1978). The motivation for the development of the concept was:

... the recognition of a critical dimension of learning in adulthood that enables us to recognise and reassess the structure of assumptions and expectations that frame our thinking, feeling and acting (Mezirow, 2009, p.90).

Transformative learning takes a psychological, social and cognitive approach when looking at learning development. It is based on the belief that adult learners interact with their environment to actively construct knowledge, in contrast to simply responding to existing knowledge. Mezirow (1990) argues that meaning is acquired through interactions, interrelations, networks and cultural assimilation. Mezirow (2009) was influenced by Freire's (1993) 'conscientisation model' and Kuhn's paradigms of 'consciousness raising' in the women's movement (Mezirow, 2009). Reference will be made to Freire's (1993) work as appropriate in this study, as discussed in section 3.2.3 below.

Fourthly, drawing upon the writings of Bourdieu on 'habitus', capital and reproduction of cultural arbitrary (human behaviour is purely a product of culture, and that culture is a completely personal whim, rather than reason) to enable understanding of social exclusion or inequalities and lifelong learning within Nigerian context. Bourdieu (1990) maintained that the effects of actions

and interactions of agents struggling in power arenas (field) over resources and social positions create social exclusion and inequalities within society. These actions and interactions are shaped by the habitus, capital of individuals, social context as well as the dynamism of individuals' participation within the social system (Crossley, 2003). Bourdieu (2002) argued that social relationships are integrally power relations because power intertwines all aspects of social relationships, interactions, and obligations. Bourdieu maintained that relationships exist only through agents actions and these relationships are maintained because they play an important role within the social world (See section 3.2.4 below).

### **3.2.1 The Entrepreneurship Capability Learning Model**

In his model, Rae (1999) highlights four factors or triggers for people's engagement in entrepreneurship learning. These include social recognition, sense of obligation, frustration and the desire to be wealthy. Social recognition involves young adults' efforts to prove themselves to others who may have doubted their abilities to progress, or to take control of unexpected situations. A sense of obligation involves young adults' desires to take control of their own lives and not be dependent on anyone. Frustration can result from being blocked by certain factors to achieve dreams, and it may also be a triggering event. Finally, the desire to be wealthy is the desire to be more financially secure, or in control of a particular financial position. Boshier and Collins (1985) previously elaborated similar factors in their six factors model, with these being social contact, social stimulation, professional advancement, community service, external expectation and cognitive interest. Social contact highlights an adult's need to consolidate friendship, to be accepted by others, to gain insight into personal problems or to improve a social position.

Social stimulation highlights the desire for relief from boredom or overcoming the frustration of non-stimulating days. Professional development helps maintain an adult's need to secure professional advancement in order to achieve higher job status or to gain knowledge that will help others. Community service links to the need to become an effective citizen by preparing for community service, or to gain insight into human relationships. External expectations are the ability to comply with instructions outlined by others, such as participating in learning on

the instruction of for example, an employer, social worker, friend, religious leader or counsellor. The last factor of Boshier and Collins' model (1985) is cognitive interest, i.e. enjoying learning for its own sake because of the desire to satisfy an enquiring mind or seek knowledge for its own sake. This will be further explored alongside of Mezirow's (2009) triggers for transformation in the latter part of this Chapter.

Rae (1999) indicate the elements of entrepreneurship capability learning to include ambition, values and motivation, confidence and self-belief, achievement, actively learning, relationships and known capabilities. Rae (2015) maintains that the transformation of learners into entrepreneurs is achievable if they reflect on the need for independence, self-confidence, motivation and achievement in their entrepreneurial endeavours. It has been argued that this position is too simplistic and fails to acknowledge pressing social circumstances as motivation for LLL.

Rae (1999) maintained that lifelong learning skills such as entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn are not the only result of formal training in vocational or higher education, but are also the result of other informal networks and relationships. He highlights three sources of LLL skills: active practical learning, social learning from others and formal theoretical learning (See Figure 2.4, Entrepreneurial Capability: Source of Learning in Chapter 2).

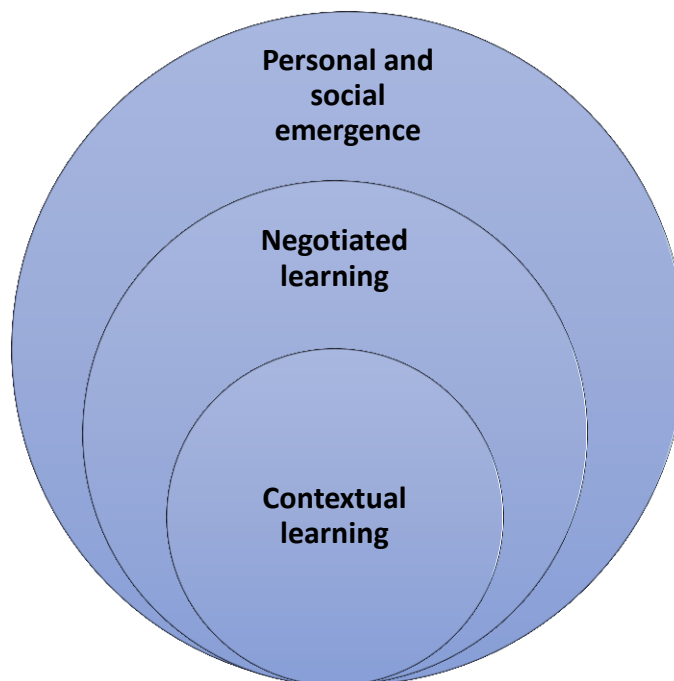
Active practical learning is a learner-centred process that facilitates knowing through multiple ways (both formal and informal). It was identified as a new paradigm that could provide students with opportunities to learn independently as well as from one another (Froyd and Simpson, 2008). Rae (1999) suggested that learners develop LLL skills from multiple sources. This is subject to the learner's ability to experiment and discover, problem solve, learn through trial and error and apply what has been learnt. He maintained that active learning gives learners' freedom, independence, self-confidence, autonomy and the opportunity for authentic practice.

Meanwhile, the social process of learning from others involves learning from role models, networks, mentors, experts, competitors, customers and suppliers. Rae (1999) emphasised the importance of relationships and interactions with others

when developing LLL skills, as learners need to continue to be inspired by others from whom they will then continue to learn. This emphasises the importance of social interactions and relationships in the development of LLL skills as opposed to the cognitive perspective of learning, where learning only takes place in a student's head, as discussed in Chapter 2.

Formal theoretical learning is the last assumption of the capability model of learning. This involves attending development courses, information searches on the Internet and in libraries, attending business schools and undertaking distance-learning programmes. Rae (2015) maintains that this has increased in importance as a result of the rapid development of the Internet, thereby allowing greater access to learning and to people, with this ultimately facilitating the development of LLL skills.

Rae (2015) has developed three major themes in the development of lifelong learners, as illustrated below in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3-1 Entrepreneurship learning's three major themes (Rae, 2015, p.33)**

Rae (2015) maintains that it is through personal and social emergence that people shape their identity, which then expresses their sense of self and future



aspirations. He notes that personal and social identity develops over time, and is influenced by life experiences such as change and learning.

Rae (2015) argues that the identity of entrepreneurial skills is negotiated with others through self (personal life stories) and social perceptions. In addition, he notes that family and significant others are important in shaping lifelong learners identity and actions. However, these can also be constraints through assumptions of some stereotyping roles (Rae, 2015). An example of this would be the stereotyping of the role of women in communities that then limits their development and practice of entrepreneurial skills (Rae, 2015). He maintains that such tensions between current and future identities play a key role in shaping the development of entrepreneurial skills.

Rae (1999: 2015) contends that learning is shaped by the environment and situation in which it takes place. This context of learning awareness provides potential opportunities for people to connect with a negotiated enterprise as they learn within the social world (Rae 1999; 2015). However, Rae (2015) also maintains that contextualising learning may be discouraging if the social context does not appreciate innovation or entrepreneurial activity, and in such a situation people need to learn how to change their context in order to succeed. I argue that understanding this model would help to mirror the stories and experiences of the participants of this study in shaping their identities as lifelong learners and agent of social change, (See Chapter 6 and 7).

An entrepreneurship capability-learning model is popularly used in research. An example of this is Mwaikokesya's (2014) longitudinal study, which investigated the process of undergraduate students' development of lifelong learning attributes in Tanzania. The study was conducted in 2014 with a sample of 839 students (621 males and 218 females who completed questionnaires) and 59 participants for semi-structured interviews from a university in Tanzania. The participants for semi-structured interviews were students (23), lecturers (26), librarians (4) and senior staff who were influential in the university's policies (3). The findings of the study suggest that the importance of social factors such as poverty, the influence of family and friends on the acquisition of some LLL skills such as information and entrepreneurial skills. This is related to Rae's

(1999) argument on the role of social learning from others in the development of lifelong learning skills, see Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2.

### **3.2.2 Community of Practice**

The second framework used in this study talks about relationships achieved from participation in group learning. This study draws upon Lave and Wenger (1991), who maintain that ‘knowing’ and ‘understanding’ are influenced by specific pedagogical approaches that promote participation and practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) reject the cognitive learning assumption that states:

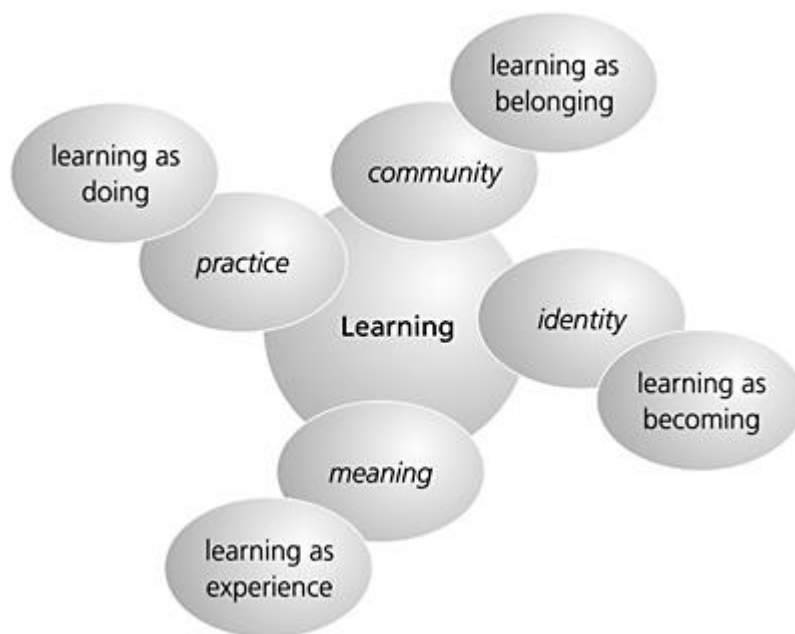
... it is an individual mind that acquires mastery over processes of reasoning and description by internalising and manipulating structures (p.15).

This cognitive assumption emphasises learning as occurring within a formal structure mediated through a teacher working from a rigid curriculum. Wenger (1998) views this as the process of storing knowledge as information in students, with students being assessed only through individual testing, and any form of collaboration being considered as cheating. This implies a position of separation of a person from the world in which he or she lives. This resonates with the idea teacher thinks, decides and judges for students, as discussed below. Lave and Wenger (1991) reject this notion of separating knowledge from practice, situational or social engagement; arguing that learning is an activity that takes place because of co-participation, mutual engagement and networks of relationships.

Wenger (1998) argues that central to learning is engagement in social practice as the basic process through which people learn and become experts. From this, the unit of analysis in a community of practice is neither the individual nor the social institution, but rather an informal process that people create as they pursue shared ventures. Wenger (1998) thus criticises the assumption that learning is an individual process that has a beginning and an end, and that it is detached from the rest of a learner’s activities.

Wenger (2011) suggests that community of practice is an aspect of lifelong learning that facilitates people continuing to learn together. He points to three

dimensions of community of practice (internal, external and overtime) as affecting educational practice. The internal dimension centres on organising educational experiences in schools based on practice through participation. To Wenger (2011), learning is only effective if it acknowledges practice along with the experience of learners as co-constructors of knowledge. The external dimension presents participation and experience-sharing as a source of motivation and subsequent acquisition of skills. Over the lifetime of students, community of practice serves their lifelong learning needs by focusing on topics of continuing interest that reach beyond formal learning processes (Wenger, 2011). The binding process of this kind of learning is based on a model of relationship of ‘mutual engagement’, ‘joint enterprise’ and ‘a shared repertoire’ of practices (Wenger, 2011). Moreover, Wenger (1998) argues that common knowledge is achievable when four interconnected and mutually defined elements of learning are available, with these not necessarily being sequential, as illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.



**Figure 3-2 The components of the social theory of learning (Wenger, 1998, p.5)**

As shown in Figure 3.2 above, learning is a process of interaction that enables negotiation of meaning, engagement in practice and formation of new identities. Community of practice refers to:

a group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a particular topic, and who deepen their understanding and knowledge of this area by interacting on an on-going basis (Wenger *et al.*, 2002, p.4).

The formation of a community of practice can be temporary or long lasting, and intentional or unintentional. Wenger (1998) argues that community practice is an integral part of people's daily lives, and is an informal and pervasive form of the learning process. This is the perspective of 'knowing' and 'learning' formed by individuals and groups engaging in collective learning within a shared domain of interest.

Fuller (2007) critiques Lave and Wenger's (1991) assumption that learning only takes place inside a learning community. Wenger (2011) contends that learning has extended interactions that go beyond geographical locations. Moreover, to him a community of practice involves an increase in the flow of information through new technologies such as the Internet. Such learning is seen to have lifelong effects beyond those of a formal structure or set geographical location. The concept of a community of practice is often critiqued for its lack of definitional clarity (Murillo, 2011). Researchers have continued to employ community of practice in a number of fields including situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991), teaching English as a second language (Haneda, 2006), school and education (Paechter, 2006) and development work (Johnson, 2007). Cox (2005) also criticised Wenger (1998) for considering a community of practice as being related to informal relations and understanding mediated by mutual engagement and joint enterprise, with his focus being on the impact on individual identity. By contextualising community of practice in this way it would serve as effective way of understanding how shared values and common interest could promote lifelong learning skills through online and informal groupings (See section 6.5.1 and 6.5.2 in Chapter 6). I particularly selected this theory because it responds to the need of my research. It sees learning as a process of participation that involves mutual engagement, sharing and networks of relationships rather than promoting individualism. It would also enable understanding that learning is beyond geographical boundaries (formal learning) but also include other informal means (online) as a mean of developing LLL skills. It also enables understanding of the processes through which learners formed their identities. This deconstructs power relations in the process of learning and acquisition of knowledge.

The community of practice model, remains relevant and is still widely used by researchers (Handley *et al.*, 2007; James, Busher and Suttill, 2015; Tett, 2016).

James, Busher and Suttill (2015) for instance, conducted a UK based multi-site research using Lave and Wenger's (1991) social interactionist framework (Wenger, 1998). The project was a study of mature students' perspectives on changing their learning identities through relationships with their tutors and each other during their participation in Access to Higher Education courses. The findings suggested that students participate and interact in supportive and collaborative ways with the aim of developing their skills, and it was noted that tutors also guided and supported their students. It was additionally noted that there were inequalities of power relations within the communities of practice, which were largely dominated by the institution's structure.

A case study by Tett (2016) investigated the impact of participation in literacy projects amongst adults in Scotland. The study revealed that pedagogies that promote practices make learners to change views about themselves and their world.

Handley *et al.* (2007) developed a framework on the basis of 'learning as participation in practice' (LPP) based upon the work of Lave and Wenger (1991). This showed how management consultants acquire practices and identities suitable to their clients. Handley *et al.* (2007) established how learning was being regulated by a consulting firm as well as individuals, and showed that any 'failure to learn' may have been as a result of a consultant's efforts to construct a coherent sense of self. In a study by Klieme and Vieluf (2009), it was found that effective practice in learning shapes students' learning environments and influences their motivation and achievement.

Lave and Wenger (1991) note the significance of the medium of instruction - the language of teaching - in the acquisition of skills. They found that learners' familiarity with a language used to teach skills allows interactions with others, which results in involved and organised learning situations.

Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) have argued that learning is an informal process mediated through interaction, practice and participation as a result of 'mutual engagement', 'joint enterprise' and 'shared repertoire practice'. This research will draw on these ideas to help understand the learning at the YCV. This shows that interaction within the learning situation

could not only promote LLL skills but also bounded relations among learners, as discussed in Chapter 6 (section 6.5).

### **3.2.3 Transformative Learning Theory**

Transformative learning theory seeks to provide an explanation for and understanding of the processes that lead to adults' transformation through learning. It is also important in helping to understand how learning and its impact affects self and community transformation. It is relevant in understanding the developmental process of adult learners through trigger events, critical reflection, frames of reference, meaning and ultimately transformative perspectives (Mezirow, 1991; 1994; 2009). This theory would explain how teaching and learning processes could help learners achieve personal transformation that could lead to social change. Magro (2015) and Mathuna (2017) maintain that the transformative learning model continues to offer practical and theoretical groundings for individual liberation, transformation and emancipation within society. The main assumption of the transformative learning theory is based on the belief that individuals (learners) interpret and reinterpret their experiences in order to learn and make meaning of the world (Mezirow, 1994).

Transformation, as suggested by Mezirow (1991, 1994 and 2009), starts with triggering events or dilemmas. Mezirow (2009) argues that transformation begins with feelings of being dissatisfied with a situation, and that this often occurs in the form of personal crises such as death, divorce, unemployment, frustration, conflict, poverty or consequences of events related to learning, as reflected in the data section (6.2) in Chapter 6. Mezirow (2009) maintains that these triggers or disorientating dilemmas create self-examination that results in an awareness that then leads to actions. Mezirow (1994) suggests that it is through interactions and the experience of social change that individuals make decisions on their own. Dirk (1998) argues that the core learning processes in transformative theory are those of reflection, reasoning rationally and reasoning critically in an assumption of circumstances. Mezirow (1990) suggests that transformative learning is an enhanced level of awareness in the context of one's beliefs, feelings, critique of assumptions and assessment of alternative perspectives. Arguably, the social and cultural context of this study (poverty, deprivation,

frustration and lack of access to education in Nigeria) influenced people's feelings, values and meaning making.

In his empirical study of women returning to higher education, Mezirow (1991; 2009) found that transformation and consciousness-raising often occur through a number of phases. It is important to note that Mezirow (2009) does not necessitate the phases being sequential. These phases are:

A disorientating dilemma; self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame, sometimes turning to religion for support; a critical assessment of assumptions; recognition of one's discontent and the process of transformation is shared and others have negotiated a similar change; exploration of options for new roles, relations, and action; planning a course of action; acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans; provisionally trying out new roles; renegotiating relationships and negotiating new relationships; building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationship; reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective (p.94).

These transformation phases define individual transitions towards consciousness-raising through disorientating dilemmas caused by major events or crises that then develop new meaning (Mezirow, 1994). These are triggers for critical reflection and the creation of new meaning through the interpretation of experience. Mezirow thus sees learning as a process of interpreting experience as a guide for action to be taken. This links to Hillier's (2002) model of adult education, which considers that education has a transformative potential if people learn to make changes in their personal, social and political life through critical reflection and action.

Critical reflection, as argued by Mezirow (2009), is the foundation of transformative learning. Critical reflection emphasises the culture of experiencing rapid social changes through which adult individuals think rationally, and then decide whether to take action or not (Mezirow, 1994). The action may be making decisions linked to changing circumstances for example, poverty, unemployment or illiteracy. Such critical reflection implies that individuals navigate uncertain and complex social lives, and employment challenges that make them change their perspective of life (Barnett, 2009; Mezirow, 1991: 1994: 1997: 2009; Tiruneh, Verburch and Elen 2014). This is

important in making individuals to develop ability to engage in self-directed, lifelong learning and meaningful life activities. I argued that the ability to have critical reflection is one of the key lifelong learning attributes associated with graduates of any learning programme. I will draw on these perspectives in Chapter 6 and 7 to understand the level of empowerment and transformation achieved by the participants of YCV.

Mezirow (2009) highlighted two elements of transformative learning: critical reflection and free participation in dialectical discourse. Critical reflection or self-reflection on one's assumptions is a critique of the presuppositions upon which an individual's beliefs have been built (Mezirow, 2009). The second element, participating fully and freely in dialectical discourse to validate reflective judgement, implies that the role of adult education is to create opportunities for critical reflection and participation in social, economic and political life. In fact, Mezirow (2009) contends that adult education:

... must be dedicated to effecting social change, modifying oppressive practices, norms, institutions and socio-economic structures to allow everyone to participate more fully and freely in reflective discourse and acquiring critical dispassion and reflective judgment. Transformative learning focuses on creating the foundation insight and understanding essential for learning how to take effective social action in democracy (p.94).

Meanwhile, other elements of critical reflection are knowledge, skills, and attitudes that facilitate purposeful thinking, problem-solving, self-direction and decision-making (Howes, 2017; Tiruneh, Verburch and Elen 2014), which are linked to LLL attributes discussed in 2.6.1 and 2.6.2 respectively (See Chapter 2).

A further assumption of the transformative learning theory is that it is a process of making meaning shaped by frames of reference (Mezirow, 2009). Frames of reference are cultural and language structures through which individuals give meaning to their experiences. Individuals acquire a body of experience, feelings and understandings that define their world and therefore their construction of meaning. Transformative learning is a process of effecting changes to an individual's mind-set, assumptions and expectations (frames of reference) in



order to make the person more inclusive, open, reflective and emotionally able to change their beliefs and points of view (p.92).

A meaning perspective refers to ‘the structure of cultural assumptions within which new experience is assimilated to - and transformed by - one’s past experience (Mezirow, 1991, p.101). This includes three sets of code: socio-linguistic (norms, ideologies, customs, theories, political orientations and secondary socialisation); psychological (personality traits, self, concept, schema, scripts, emotional responses, repressed parental prohibition) and epistemic (learning styles, sensory preference, concrete and abstract, working alone or together). A meaning scheme is the result of a set of beliefs, judgments or feelings that shape a particular interpretation. Arguably, individuals often resist learning things that do not conform to their structures with these being for example, religious codes, and commitment to spiritual or transcendental world views, holistic interpretation or aesthetic codes. Mezirow (1991) thus argued that culture could either dictate a process of transformation or deny the opportunity for people to review meaning perspectives. Thus, it could be argued that culture is not just used to preserve certain values of the society, but could be used to negatively affect transformation of people within the social system. However, the triggering events can make individuals challenge existing cultures that hamper their transformation.

In his transformative learning theory, Mezirow (1991) discusses perspective transformation as a process of change and development within an individual’s reflective and critical thinking capacities to question assumptions and appreciate diverse perspectives. In his earlier work, Mezirow (1978) saw perspective transformation as a structural change in the way individuals see themselves and their relationships towards meaning perspective. These changes include discriminating and integrating individual experiences (Mezirow, 1978)

### **Education for Transformative Learning: Role Teaching and learning**

The promotion of transformative learning competences requires educators to be aware of their own assumptions. Scholars such as Freire, (1993), Gramsci, (1970), and Mezirow (1991: 1994: 1997) argue that educators cannot be neutral in the creation of community where adult learners are critical, reflective and

conscious. In fact, their role in facilitating transformative learning for the creation of a society in which individuals can participate in making meaning of their experiences through redefining problems from different perspectives is key to learning (Mezirow (1994, 1997). This development of learners to think effectively and participate in discourse is a necessary element of transformative learning, and it requires an approach very different from the ones associated with the teaching of children (Knowles, 1970; Mezirow, 1997).

Mezirow (1997) maintains that there are ideal conditions for learners' participation in discourse. These include receiving accurate and complete information, freedom from coercion, the ability to reason and critically reflect on assumptions, self-knowledge, role reciprocity, and a mutual goal of discussion (Mezirow, 1989, p.171, Mezirow, 1997). Related to these conditions is Freire's (1993) idea of problem-posing education. He maintains that in problem-posing education, teachers reform their reflections in response to the reflection of their students. Freire (1993) maintains that for students to achieve confidence, curiosity and critical thinking skills, teachers must be partners to their students in their learning (Freire, 1993, p.75). He notes that in no way does sharing and collaboration between students and teachers diminish the spirit of struggle, courage and capacity for love (Freire, 1993). Freire (1993) argues that when students lack epistemological curiosity for practice, it is difficult to increase their curiosity to develop intellectual tools that will enable them to comprehend an object of knowledge. Indeed, the findings of a study by Stein (1995) show that participants in literacy and empowerment programme want more access to information. This is information that will change their view of the world and give them voice, confidence and capacity for decision-making and acting independently, whilst developing their capacity for learning-to-learn.

Mezirow (1997) maintains that for transformation to occur, educators have to define their role as facilitators rather than as authority figures. In situation of a teacher as an authority figure knowledge is considered:

... a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing (Freire, 1993, p.72).

Freire (1993) is against a situation where learning is left to the teacher and through which he/she teaches, thinks, knows, talks, disciplines, chooses, determines and acts on behalf of learners who are seen simply as recipients of knowledge. This shows that the influence of power relation that takes away learners freedom and sense of empowerment. Mezirow (1997) argues that to promote transformation, facilitators should encourage learners to create norms that promote order, justice and civility. These norms should promote learners' responsibility in helping each other to learn, in welcoming diversity, in fostering peer collaboration and in giving opportunity for equal participation in learning.

Mezirow (1990; 2009) notes a distinction between instrumental and communicative learning in facilitating transformation. Instrumental learning is the manipulation of a learning environment in order to improve performance. Mezirow (2009) argues that instrumental learning evolved to satisfy scientific and mathematical enquiry, as instrumental learning is deductive in nature with the intent being to ascertain the truth. Freire (1993) perceives this as:

... instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat'...Worse yet, it turns them into 'containers', into 'receptacles' to be 'filled' by the teacher (p.72).

A teacher in the above scenario does the thinking with the students being thought about. According to Freire (1993) lack of reciprocal communication between teachers and learners in learning creates lack of creativity and liberation of learners. Arguably, the best that such learning environment can offer is misguided system of rules and storing deposits. It is illogical to regulate the classroom world in such a way, as this is not reflective of the real world outside of the classroom (Freire, 1993).

Communicative learning, in contrast to instrumental learning, is the understanding of what someone means when they communicate values, ideals and feelings (Mezirow, 1990). Communicative learning focuses on arriving at best judgements and not trying to ascertain 'the truth' - as in instrumental learning (Mezirow, 2009). In communicative learning, learners attempt to understand meaning through speech, writing, art and practice. Freire (1993) maintains that to transform learners into curious beings:

We must not negate practice for the sake of theory. To do so would reduce theory to a pure verbalism or intellectualism ... to negate theory for the sake of practice, as in the use of dialogue as conversation, is to run the risk of losing oneself in the disconnectedness of practice. It is for this reason that I never advocate either a theoretic elitism or a practice ungrounded in theory, but the unity between theory and practice (p.19).

Freire (1993) does not advocate the use of only theory or practice, but a unity between them. Indeed, the essence of communicative learning is the liberation of learners by dealing with the understanding of concepts such as freedom, justice, love, labour, autonomy, commitment and democracy (Mezirow, 1990). Freire (1993) argues that through communication life holds meaning, and without it, education:

...annul(s) the students' creative power and to stimulate their credulity serves the interests of the oppressors, who care neither to have the world revealed nor to see it transformed. The oppressors use their "humanitarianism" to preserve a profitable situation. Thus they react almost instinctively against any experiment in education which stimulates the critical faculties and is not content with a partial view of reality but always seeks out the ties which link one point to another and one problem to another (pp.73-74).

From the above argument, it is noted any education that does not give learners power to creatively learn and develop skills necessary for empowerment is serving the interest of the oppressors (Freire, 1993; Mezirow, 2009). Thus, education that oppresses learners would continue to disempower them. The lack of empowerment of learners would promote misfit within the society that would continue to create poverty and unemployment. This affects young adults' development of knowledge and skills to make informed choices. Presumably, learning built on transformative perspective might the tendency reduce social injustice and inequalities within the society.

### **Foundation/Impact of Transformation**

The goal of transformation is for learners to acquire the capacity for autonomous thinking (Mezirow, 1997). This includes the ability to:

Recognize cause-effect relationships; use informal logic in making analogies and generalizations; become aware of and control their own emotions; become empathic of others, use imagination to construct narratives; and think abstractly; think hypothetically; and become

critically reflective of what they read, see, and hear (Mezirow, 1997, p.9).

Previously, Freire (1993) elaborated that transformation learning should be emancipatory, liberating and empowering. Freire argued against education that took away learners' freedom through promoting the passivity of the learners. Critical reflection, liberation and consciousness-raising are central to Freire's (1993) notion of problem solving and dialogue.

Transformative learning theory has been critiqued by Brookfield (1991) who argues that for learning to count as critical reflection or critical learning (transformative), a learner must have the power to analyse his or her own situation. Despite such criticism, transformative learning theories have attracted global attention. For example, Magro (2015) investigated how teachers in Canada conceptualised teaching social justice and peace education using Mezirow's transformative learning theory. Magro's (2015) study was conducted from 2012-2014 using qualitative interviews. The findings of the study revealed that the pedagogy of language liberation helps to empower learners in telling their stories and learning about their heritage. It also empowers learners and helps them develop greater self-confidence, as well as the academic and social skills needed to succeed in college and in a career. The study concluded that in teaching social justice and peace education, problem solving, critical thinking, creativity and compassion are needed.

A case study by Mathuna (2017) used transformative learning theory to investigate the experiences of adult learners engaged in higher education within an Irish university. The findings showed that adult learners were able to reflect critically on their life experiences, and also identify having experienced changes in their personal, academic and social life. However, the study did not specifically highlight if the changes experienced by the participants had any impact on the larger community.

The thrust of critical or social transformation oriented adult education is the notion of empowerment. Darlene *et al.* (2013) argued that empowerment is not about giving power to someone because if one has the capacity to give power he/she may have the capacity to take the power back. Empowerment through

adult education as premised upon what Freire (1993) called ‘conscientização’ (consciousness) as discussed earlier. Freire (1993) and Mezirow (1978) maintained that empowerment is providing people with opportunities to explore, understand and challenge ideologies, structures and cultural practices that impede their liberation and empowerment. Darlene *et al.* (2013) suggest that empowerment works towards the increased capacity of people to engage in meaningful interactions, decision-making, civic engagement and social action within the social world. This will lead to the discussion of Bourdieu’s writing in order to understand the effects of social norms and structure on social exclusions and disempowerment of individuals within the social world (Nigeria).

### **3.2.4 Bourdieu’s Habitus, Capital and the Reproduction of Cultural Arbitrary Theory**

As previously discussed in Chapter 1, Nigeria is struggling with issues of poverty, unemployment and low engagement in education. These challenges affect disadvantaged groups, mostly young adults, poor, women and people with disabilities. From the analysis of the stories of the participants coming from this thesis (See Chapter 6 and 7), it shows that the stories of these participants would not fit into one overarching theory. For example, Freire (1993), Mezirow (2009) and Rae (1999) theories were limited in highlighting the effect of social norms and structures on social exclusion and lifelong learning. These brought about the need to employ structural analysis using Bourdieu’s theoretical work with a view to challenge the effects of social norms on the lives of women, people with disabilities and poor young adults with regards social exclusions and lifelong learning. Bourdieu’s (1990: 1992) theoretical work would provide a macro framing to enable understanding of the effects of power and social structures (culture, traditions, economy and political structure) on social exclusions and inequalities within Nigerian society. Bourdieu (1992) maintained that:

... societies which claim to recognise individuals only as equals in right, the educational system and its modern nobility only contribute to disguise, and thus legitimise, in a more subtle way the arbitrariness of the distribution of powers and privileges which perpetuates itself through the socially uneven allocation of school titles and degrees (p.x).

On this background, I will draw upon Bourdieu's (1990: 1992) habitus, forms of capital and the reproduction of cultural arbitrary as a guide to understand social exclusion from education and other aspects of life suffered by women and people with disabilities and poor young adults within Nigerian context. This is against the backdrop that education has an influence in the reproduction of social inequality and social exclusion within the society (Bourdieu, 1992).

Bourdieu is a French philosopher who studied in Algeria. He used his early fieldwork to support many of his later '*theories of practice*'. Bourdieu (1992) maintained that theories could be used to examine social phenomenon all over the world with practice as the starting point. Bourdieu tries to make sense into seemingly irresolvable antagonism between subjectivist and objectivist modes of knowledge, separation of the analysis of the symbolic from that of materiality, and the continued divorce of theory from research. I will discuss Bourdieu's assumptions on habitus, forms of capital and reproduction of cultural arbitrary.

### **Habitus**

The main assumptions of Bourdieu are that power is culturally and symbolically created through the interplay of agencies and structures. According to Bourdieu (1992), this happens through '*habitus*' or socialised norms that guide individuals' behaviour, thinking or actions. Habitus is a system that manifests dispositions, propensities that organise the ways through which individuals perceive the social world and react to it. Lizardo (2004) maintained that social class, religion, nationality, ethnicity, education and profession reflect on live reality through which individuals lived. These social norms define inclusion, exclusion and status in certain social system.

As earlier stated by Bourdieu in '*The Logic of Practice*' (1990) habitus are:

Systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles which generate and organize practices and representations that can be objectively adapted to their outcomes without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations necessary in order to attain them. Objectively "regulated" and "regular" without being in any way the product of obedience to rules, they can be collectively orchestrated without being the product of the organising action of a conductor (p.53).

The habitus is created through a social process rather than individual leading to patterns that are enduring. The habitus exists in individuals because of the

actions and interactions of an individual within the social structure (Bourdieu, 2002). Habitus allows individuals to act in certain situations as well as limiting their options for action. Bourdieu (1984) earlier maintained that habitus is created and reproduced unconsciously, 'without any deliberate pursuit of coherence ... without any conscious concentration' (p.170). Bourdieu argued that habitus is assimilated through socialisation and this reflects socio-economic and cultural conditions that exist within the social world. The socialisation process through habitus reflects not only values and practices related to individual problems or socio-economic conditions, gender and class but also influence of physical and cultural environment through which an individual lived. Bourdieu argued that individuals are always agent within and their actions should not be seen as individual, but guided by the logic of the position in the field. In this research, I established how the logic of practice determined by the socio-economic and cultural positions within the field (See Chapter 1, Nigerian context) affects the actions and inactions of individuals (Chapter 6 and 7) within the social system.

Bourdieu's (1992) theoretical efforts brought about two dichotomies that served as the centre stage of understanding structure and agency. These include micro and macro analysis level framing of understanding the social process. Bourdieu forsakes problem of personal spontaneity and social constraint (freedom and necessity, choice and obligation), and to sidestep the common alternatives of individual and structure. This brought about micro- and macro analysis that forces a polarized, dualistic social ontology. Bourdieu argued that dialectic and relationship between the structure and agency determines individual, group or class actions within the habitus. Applying Bourdieu's theory in this study will help to give more nuances between individual challenges and effect of structure, socio-economic and cultural context (social norms) in relation to social exclusion.

### **Forms of capital**

In Bourdieu's work, the concept of capital is a very important construct that extends beyond the notion of material capital or assets to anything that gives individual or group power and status over others within a particular social order (Bourdieu, 1986: 1992). Bourdieu identified three forms of capital that are equally important and transferable. Capital are resources (powers) available and worthy of being sought in the field of struggle. Bourdieu (1990) argued that only



those individuals capable of mobilising relevant resources would be able to take part in struggles. This suggests that people who do not have enough resources (material or non-material) can be subject to social exclusion in education and employment within a particular social order. These forms of capital are cultural, social and symbolic capital.

Cultural capital refers to the collection of symbolic elements such as skills, tastes, posture, mannerisms, material belongings and credentials that individuals acquire through belonging to a particular social class (Bourdieu, 2002). These forms of knowledge are seen as legitimate by the dominant in society. Bourdieu (1986) argued that unequal distribution of cultural capital leads to the unequal power relations as well as unequal distribution of economic and social resources. Gaventa (2003) observed that cultural capital provides means for a non-economic form of domination, which in essence hides the causes of inequality. Bourdieu (1986) maintained that 'prolonging education beyond the minimum necessary for the reproduction of the labour-power least valorised at a given moment' (p.49). From this analysis, it is clear that certain forms of cultural capital affect individuals' social mobility concerning income, employment, and educational achievement.

Bourdieu (1990) argued that the construction of reality is influenced by one's position within the social arena (Field as referred), which is shaped by cultural, economic and social conditions. Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) defined a field as a social arena through which power struggle for the control of cultural, social and economic capital takes place. Within the field, there are strong relations of domination through struggle over control of desirable resources and legitimization of actions in accordance with the rules of the game.

Social capital is the resources derived for belonging to certain social networks and maintenance of strategic relations within such networks (Bourdieu, 1990; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). The social capital enables access to resources through a network of relationships and mutual acquaintance, which bring about the creation of obligations. However, the disadvantage of social capital as argued by Bourdieu (1986) is that 'the recognised spokesmen' (sic) are authorised to 'shield the group as a whole from discredit by expelling or excommunicating embarrassing individuals' (p.53). This suggests the importance of social capital is dependent on the social position one occupies within the

social system or social network. The vested interest within society can continue to dominate the oppressed group through their influence.

Symbolic capital is a form of capital perhaps is known as 'capital of honour and prestige'. It is the accumulation of all other forms of capital and the possession of these capitals is seen as legitimate within a given social system (Bourdieu, 1992). Bourdieu (1989) maintained that this form of capital enables those who possess it 'to impose on other minds a vision of social divisions' (p.23). It is a notion of power relations that enable the dominant group to create a reality and impose this reality on others. Bourdieu defines symbolic power/capital as:

... the ability to conserve or transform social reality by shaping its representations, i.e., by inculcating cognitive instruments of construction of reality that hide or highlight its inherent arbitrariness (Bourdieu, 2002, p.553-554).

Status and power arguably held by individuals within society afforded certain social recognition that others value. These are the legitimate existing social hierarchies and domination.

### **Reproduction of the cultural arbitrary**

Reproduction of the cultural arbitrary is the outcome of the interaction of the habitus and capital within the social system. The cultural arbitrary emphasises the power of the political, social and economic system within society, whilst individuals within those given societies perceived these systems as logical. Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) maintained that the 'power to impose cultural arbitrary rests ... on the power relations between the groups or classes making up the' social formation (p.11). Because of the power vested upon the dominant groups by the system, they tend to socialised their children to possess the necessary capital and habitus to succeed in attaining dominant positions in the society to the detriment of people with less capital (Bourdieu 1988; Bourdieu 2002). These as argued by Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) contributes, 'by reproducing the cultural arbitrary which it inculcates towards reproducing the power relations which are the basis of its power of arbitrary imposition' (p.11).

From the analysis, this implies that people who are dominated or oppressed do not have the means to acquire capital necessary to be successful in powerful positions. It seems that oppressed groups are mostly raised in an environment that would not enable their upward movement to power position. In fact, the

oppressed perceived the world order as natural and they see themselves as unfit for powerful positions in society (Bourdieu 1988; Bourdieu 2002).

The habitus, capital and reproduction of the cultural arbitrary would provide a powerful explanation of micro and macro influence on understanding individual's actions, reasons and inactions for behaving in a particular way.

Bourdieu (2001) maintained that one of the obvious reproductions of cultural arbitrary is the domination of women through social and cultural processes that make their bodies and practices as inferior. Bourdieu (2001) argued that how society is structured using a dichotomy between the masculine and the feminine defines norms that institutionalised subordinating practices. Bourdieu maintained that male dominance or women oppression is a systematic property of culture and social order not necessarily a possession or attribute of men in some individuated, biological, or material sense. Social order is produced and reproduced through unequal relations of domination, which are recognised as a natural and inevitable outcome (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). However, Bourdieu acknowledges that cultural arbitraries not only exclude but also acknowledges the body's involvement in this exclusion.

In his earlier work, Bourdieu (1977) suggests that the reproduction of social order is maintained through mutual benefiting and naturalisation of practice and structure. This according to Bourdieu's belief relies upon individuals' sense of reality and their sense of limits (Bourdieu, 1977:1984). The reproduction of social order always maintained an emphasis on the cultural, political and structural factors that promote social inequalities within the society.

Bourdieu's theoretical toolkits were particularly selected to critically challenge the effects of social norms on gender inequality, disability and poverty within the Nigerian context (See Chapter 6 and 7). These would enable understanding of the role of power relations in the empowerment or disempowerment of individuals in Nigeria. It is illogical to blame individuals for the problems affecting them without recourse to the influence of social norms within the social system. It was noted in Chapter 1, that there is massive structural issues affecting young adults concerning education, employment and wellbeing.

Bourdieu's theory is well suited for adding to our understanding of the complexity of the issues analysed in this study. It would help to understand the link between the structure of a class and the mental structures in the minds of

the individuals in that class, for example, the choice of a distressed or divorced woman, disabled person to join education as a way out of difficult life situation (See Chapter 6 and 7). This would reflect how the agency of individual impacts on the social system or structure of the society. As reflected, (See Chapter 6 and 7) the change of the individual might have an impact on the habitus in relation to peace, societal cohesion, and community wellbeing.

### **3.3 Summary**

This chapter has outlined a broad-based and multi-faceted framework that draws from a range of theoretical assumptions from the works of Rae (1999); Lave and Wenger (1991); Freire (1993); Mezirow (1991:1994: 2009) and Bourdieu (1990: 1992). This provides an understanding of triggers for students' engagement in learning as well the pedagogical and social processes that influence lifelong learning. The huge varying experiences of the participants of this study in relation to social exclusion, learning, pedagogy and impacts of LLL would not fit into an overarching theory. This requires a combination of theories to understand the influence of social norms on the subject under investigation. Bourdieu's habitus, capital and reproduction of cultural arbitrary provides explanations on micro and macro influence of individual's actions, reasons and inactions for behaving in a particular ways. These frameworks enable understanding of the processes of students' development of LLL skills as well as the impacts of LLL on the transformation of graduates and their communities. These include changes and experiences in personal, academic and social life. These are guided by the belief that knowledge is socially constructed through personal experience, engagement, dialogue and interaction using multiple subjectivities within society (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006).

The study employs these theories to enable understanding of personal and structural factors on young adults' social exclusion as well as their transformation as result of participation LLL. These theories would provide a macro framing to enable discussion of personal stories of participants of this study (women, people with disabilities and poor young adults) as well as the role

of social norms in the reproduction of social inequality and social exclusion (See Chapter 6 and 7).

The next chapter presents the methods and methodology adopted for the study in the light of the above theoretical perspectives.

## Chapter 4    Philosophy, Methodology and Methods

In this Chapter, I present the underlying philosophy, methodology, and the research design used to explore the realities of how policy and practices support lifelong learning in Nigeria, and the stories, pedagogies and transformational experiences of Young Adults. The study adopts two qualitative research methods (document analysis and semi-structured interviews) to achieve its objectives. I will explain the ethical consideration, pilot study and the recruitment of the participants of the study. I will describe the procedure for transcription and translation of the recorded interviews. In addition, I will explain how, through analysis, the themes and sub-themes emerged from the data.

### 4.1 Philosophical Foundation

An epistemology is a philosophical foundation that shapes the research process, and how knowledge is conceived within a research (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Burrell and Morgan, 2005). Epistemology answers questions about *how* do we ‘know’, exploring the processes through which knowledge claims come to be made. Ontology, by contrast addresses the *nature* or *foundations* of reality and the social world. Admiraal and Wubbels (2005) maintained that the subjectivity or objectivity of knowledge is influenced by both epistemological and ontological position that deals with questions of being, the nature of reality within the social world. To understand ‘reality’ and how knowledge is created, researchers employ either naturalistic (constructivism) or rationalistic (positivism) philosophical positions or both of these together.

The naturalistic philosophical position is based on the assumption that reality is socially constructed and subjective, and that it is achieved through human interaction and interpretation of phenomenon that then result in a divergence of views (Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1981). Crotty (1998, p.58) argues that ‘reality as a social construct shapes the way we see things ... and gives us a definite view of the world’, so it thus encompasses multiple realities. This philosophy underpinning the present inquiry will be discussed in section 4.1.1 below.

The rationalistic philosophy rests on the assumption of a single reality. Reality is understood using the principles of natural sciences (Bryman, 2008; Guba, 1981; Waring, 2012), whereas knowledge is achieved through direct experimentation, testing and observation of phenomenon (Bryman, 2008; Maxwell, 2004; Thomas, 2006; Waring 2012). Crotty (1998) maintains that positivist epistemologies rest on the belief that truth exists in itself, regardless as to whether or not people are there to uncover it. It is associated with physical sciences where the researcher is positioned as objective.

#### **4.1.1 Theoretical Foundation: Social Constructivist**

This study is informed by constructivist perspectives. Social constructivism assumes that knowledge and meaning are socially constructed and that reality consists of people's subjective experiences of the social world (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). This research critically examines young adults and graduates' perspectives and experiences related to engagement in LLL and pedagogies that influenced development of lifelong learning skills, as a result of participation in YCV programmes in Nigeria. The study will look at the transformative experiences of the participants. It is based on the belief that knowledge is socially constructed through personal experiences, engagement, dialogue and interaction, with the aim being to gather different experiences (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). I conducted this research through the active participation of the participants and myself as an insider in the whole process. To situate my research within this framework, I adopted some key learning theories that maintained that learning is a product of interaction and meaning making. Learning is not something that lies in the head rather something that emerged from the interaction with the social world. These include Freire's (1993) banking education model; Lave and Wenger's (1991) and Wenger (1998) community of practice models; Rae's (1999) entrepreneurship capability learning model and; Mezirow's (1991: 1994 and 2009) transformative learning theory and Bourdieu's (1990: 1992) habitus and capital, as discussed in Chapter 3.

These four key theories of learning set the stage for dialogue and knowledge sharing with the participants of this study. Working with these theories helps me to establish a good rapport with the participants to encourage them to share

their personal stories and experiences (Admiraal and Wubbels, 2005). Interactive discussion with participants makes interactions deeper, facilitates free speaking, and reduces shyness. The dialogue, use of local language and the time spent with the participants impacted on the data collection. I collected a large volume of data from the participants' stories, triggers for participation in learning, pedagogical experiences and the impacts of LLL on their transformation as lifelong learners. The graduates also spoke freely and confidently about the transformation, they experienced as a result of lifelong learning. The process of interaction and dialogue with the participants made me feel part of the community and it was very helpful. Something that strikes me is that, when I show more interest in what the participants were saying, they feel free and confident to say more about their lives and activities. The theories adopted had a great impact on the recruitment and interviews process, because they promote dialogue (See section 4.4 below for detail of the research process and the impact of the theories on practicalities).

Such insights are based on the premise that 'reality is socially constructed' (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006, p.3), and that the truth about social reality can be negotiated through dialogue with participants (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). Reality varies across the participants because there is no absolute truth, as against the principles and ethos of natural sciences (Bryman, 2008), and as described as follows:

The world of nature, as explored by the natural scientist, does not "mean" anything to molecules, atoms and electrons. But the observational field of the social scientist - social reality - has a specific meaning and relevance structure for the human beings living, acting and thinking within it. By a series of common-sense constructs they have pre-selected and pre-interpreted this world which they experience as the reality of their daily lives. It is these thought objects of theirs which determine their behaviour by motivating it. The thought objects constructed by the social scientist, in order to grasp this social reality, have to be founded upon the thought objects constructed by the common sense thinking of men (sic) living their daily life within the social world (Schutz, 1962, p.59).

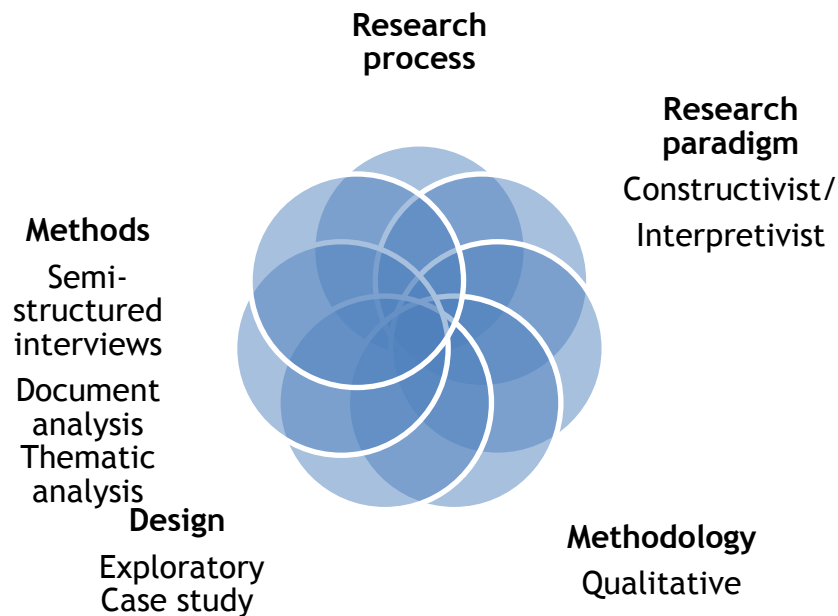
With the epistemological and ontological assumptions that underpin this study, a qualitative research design was adopted. This offered an opportunity for flexibility, reflection (Creswell, 2014), learning and multiple subjectivities within a rich data set of the phenomenon being investigated (Creswell, 2014;



Mason, 2006; Palinkas, *et al.*, 2015; Thomas, 2006). This approach offers multiple perspectives and realities as constructed by the participants interviewed in this study. It is believed that all participants bring a unique interpretation and construction of reality, and thus this study is not ‘finding’ knowledge, but instead is constructing knowledge through interactions and dialogue with the participants. As Creswell (2007) observes:

In this worldview, individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences ... These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views ... Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. In other words, they are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives (pp. 20 - 21).

All participants bring a unique interpretation and construction of reality. Constructivism has been selected as part of the study’s theoretical foundation based on the belief that objectivity is impossible in human research (Cousin, 2009). However, it is often criticised for its inability to provide validity, reliability and generalisability (Kelliher, 2011). Generalisability is not the intention of this research, but instead understanding the phenomenon in question through qualitative methods, focussed on humans and their constructions of reality. Figure 4.1 presents the pictorial representation of the research process adopted in this study.



**Figure 4-1 Pictorial Representation of the Research Methodology (Admiraal and Wubbels, 2005; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Burrell and Morgan, 2005 Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1981; Yin, 2008)**

Figure 4.1 depicts the cyclical process of this research using the social constructivist/interpretivist paradigm. Social constructivists maintain that knowledge is created through the harmonisation of previous knowledge with new knowledge, which can be achieved through interactions (Gray, 2004). With this in mind, I carry out this research through the use of semi-structured interviews with participants and document analysis. Underpinning this is the construction of meaning and social realities (Merriam, 2009). The paradigm adopted for the research determines the selection of the methods, design and the procedure for data analysis. I called the process cyclical because of the link between the stage one to the last stage. I had to always come back to the first stage to ensure there is a connection between all the stages (See section 4.4). The following section explains the whole research process depicted in figure 4.1 above.

## 4.2 Qualitative Methodology

Qualitative methods are considered to be effective ways of ‘exploring and understanding the meaning individuals and groups ascribe to a social or human problem’ (Creswell, 2014, p.4). Qualitative research has been criticised for a lack of rigour when measuring phenomenon in terms of quantities, frequencies (Denzin, 2013), or closed questions (quantitative hypothesis) (Creswell, 2014). However, this is because it is interested in processes and the social dynamics of

the changing world (Mason, 2006, p.16). A qualitative approach is the most suitable for this study as it allows for 'complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few ideas' (Creswell 2014, p.8).

The qualitative approach adopted in this study was chosen to build understanding how policies and practices support lifelong learning in Nigeria, particularly, the policy context; and the stories, pedagogies and transformational experience of young adults' capacity for learning through life. The approach is suitable because the voices of the participants are critical and central to the study (Creswell, 2014). This approach promotes flexibility, learning, interaction and interpretation of reality (Creswell, 2014; Palinkas *et al.*, 2015). The approach helps to gather information from the multiple experiences and perceptions of the participants within their natural environment (Yin, 2009, p.94). There is limited research that adopts qualitative methods in Nigeria, so this study will be one of the first to examine the feelings, experiences, and stories of those who engage with lifelong learning, and to consider the impact LLL has on them.

In essence, I rejected quantitative methods associated with positivism. Arguably, because they are mainly concerned with measuring phenomenon and expressing those measurements based on objectivity, reliability and the generalisation of findings (Maxwell, 2004; Thomas, 2006). The major characteristics of quantitative studies are the testing of a hypothesis, the use of inferences and then the selection of large samples with the aim of making generalisations. It is therefore, more about a single reality that requires a hypothesis to be tested or a question to be answered in advance of the investigation being conducted (Admiraal and Wubbels, 2005; Guba, 1981), through null or alternate hypothesis. My intention was not a generalisation or measuring phenomenon in quantitative terms.

The reflective processes that underscore the strength of a qualitative approach are important to this study, and represent what Geertz (1973, p.10) refers to as the 'microscopic details of social aspects of individual lives'. These are what Denzin and Lincoln (2013) argued to be based on multiple truths that are socially constructed reflecting the value-laden nature of the realities humans build. This feature of qualitative research has helped to provide meanings related to the

development of LLL skills as a result of young adult learners' participation in the YCV courses. As suggested by Creswell (2011) and Sloan and Bowe, (2013), these personal experiences, meanings, and perceptions can be adequately captured using qualitative methods. It is thus argued that a qualitative approach is the most appropriate and suitable approach for studying participants within their natural settings (Harwell, 2011), and to elicit their opinions and perceptions of their learning environments and communities in Katsina State in Nigeria. The research uses an exploratory case study design to understand the phenomenon as will be discussed in the next paragraph.

#### **4.2.1 Research Design: Exploratory Case Study**

A case study research design 'as a systematic means of inquiry' (Yin, 1984) was adopted to investigate how policies and practices support the young adult development of lifelong learning skills in Nigeria, particularly the students and graduates of YCV in Katsina State. A case study technique is important in investigating 'a contemporary phenomenon with its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident' (Yin, 2008, p.18). The Katsina State Youth Craft Village was considered as a bounded system with distinct units (Mills, Durespos and Wiebe, 2010). Examining the students' and graduates' experience provides a multi-perspective account of the training in the YCV and its influence on the participants' development of LLL skills. The case study approach adopted is powerful in answering 'how' and 'why' questions (Yin 2009) in relation to the subject being investigated i.e. the students' and graduates' development of LLL skills and their impact on them and their communities. The approach allows researchers to identify similarities and differences without necessarily making direct comparisons (Yin 2009).

A case study research allows 'multiple sources of evidence to be used' (Yin, 1984, p.4). For example, the present research benefited from document analysis and semi-structured interviews methods to collect the data. It allows rich, vivid, descriptive and in-depth analysis of a phenomenon (Geertz, 1973), especially when this involves interviewing as it allows researchers to have direct contact with those they are enquiring about, and to explore meanings with them. It was noted that case studies ensure collaboration between a researcher and

participants whilst providing an enabling environment for participants to share their stories (Yin, 2008).

Although case studies have been criticised on the grounds that they do not offer reliability or generality of findings, the intention of this study was not the generalisation of findings, but the understanding of subjective meanings and socially constructed human experiences (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006).

Using a case study to look at different levels of phenomenon offers a holistic approach when dealing with isolated factors (Yin, 2003). In this study, it enabled me to look at different levels and isolated factors for the participants. The adoption of a case study design offers me a flexibility that helps to generate rich data sets for the study (Yin, 1994: 2003).

An explorative case study was relevant to this study because it investigates distinct phenomena characterised by a lack of detailed research (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010). As explained earlier (section 1.2.2 in Chapter 1), despite the policy discourse on LLL in Nigeria, there was an absence of empirical studies that look into policy documents (content analysis) and examines empirically the impact of the policies (LLL) on individuals, communities, and nation at large. Yin (1994) suggests that content analysis is particularly relevant to case study research. The content analysis was used in this study to support understanding of empirical data generated from the interviews (Angers and Machtmes, 2005; Eisner, 1991; Silverman, 2000; Yin, 1994; Weiss, 1998), as discussed in section 4.4.2 (document analysis) below. The content analysis was used to establish the policy context of lifelong learning in Nigeria in order to support the empirical data.

The exploratory case study allows understanding of cause and effect relations in a wide range of situations (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010), especially where a new field of scientific investigation is not either been clearly ‘identified or formulated’ (p.2). The theme (lifelong learning for social justice and human capital development) in the present research has never been investigated in Nigeria. Apparently, an exploratory case study was the most suitable approach. Yin (2003) shows exploratory case study is used to explore situations in which

interventions being evaluated has no clear or single set of outcome. In the case of the present research, there were divergent outcomes, (See Chapter 6 and 7 respectively). It helps in the exploration of the hitherto unknown (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010, Yin 2003).

An exploratory case study is justified by the absence of preliminary propositions and hypotheses (Yin, 2003). This is relevant to present research, as the study is looking for 'complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few ideas' (Creswell 2014, p.8) and also is interested in social dynamics of the changing world (Mason, 2006, p.16) through subjective experience of the participants. The exploratory case study adopted in this study is useful not only on the evaluation of outcomes of intervention (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010; Yin, 2003:2009), but also to observe, explain and explore emerging phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin 2003). The approach provides a greater understanding of why and how the participants (young adults) of this study were disgruntled or dissatisfied, and what were the factors important for their transformation. The approach provides a systematic way of looking at events and reporting the findings. The exploratory case study allows one or more questions being investigated (Yin, 2003). Exploratory case study as known for exploring cause and effect relation in real contexts and situations (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010; Yin, 1994: 2003: 2009) might have merits and demerits within the context of a study.

Exploratory case study approach as a system of gathering data about a particular person, groups, event or social setting (Berg, Lune and Lune, 2004), has given me an opportunity to understand how a system operates or functions in the real situations. In this situation, there was an understanding of how young adults find their conditions despite the presence of lifelong learning policies in Nigeria. The exploratory case study in this study determines not only the nature of the problem in the study of young adults but helps to provide a better understanding of the problem (Yin, 2003).

Moreover, the exploratory case study was found effective, as it lays a foundation for further studies in the field. For example, see section 8.8.2 (Chapter 8), recommendations were offered for a further national survey on the activities of

NEETs and empirical qualitative research on young adults in a number of areas (See section 8.8.2).

Exploratory studies give a researcher the opportunity to change direction as a result of unveiling new data or insights. For example, I was able to explore the gender, disability and poverty issues as it affects lifelong learning (See Chapter 6 and 7). I found the exploratory case study approach helpful in exploring the topic of my research with a greater depth.

The exploratory case study was utilized to test the effectiveness or weakness of the theories adopted in this study (See Chapter 3). Adopting exploratory case approach gives strength to the theories and research methods employed (Yin, 2009). The use of the exploratory case study in this research is because there was an absence of empirical research that examines policies and practices that promote LLL as well as the transformation of young adults Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010; Yin, 2003). The approach gives an opportunity to tackled new problems on which little or no previous research has been conducted.

However, an exploratory case study was found to have demerits. It can be open to bias (Yin, 1994: 2009) arising from personal and social views of a researcher. It was important I acknowledged those shortcomings in my research, as discussed in section 4.4.2 (Positionality and reflexivity) below. Recognising these influences are significant in exploratory case study research (Griffiths, 1998; Hammersley, 1993).

The findings of the exploratory case study were not generalisable, as noted in section 4.2 above, generalisation was not my intention but an understanding of subjective meanings and socially constructed human experiences (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006).

The study also adopts a quasi-longitudinal design that involves interviewing participants at different stages in the LLL process (Walker, 2008). This entails semi-structured interviews with students at the beginning of the programme and graduates who have completed the programme. Lynn (2009) submits that such a design is effective for a study whose focus is to identify the processes and changes that students and graduates go through as part of their LLL journeys. In

this research, the quasi-longitudinal design examines changes the participants of this study experienced through their participation in LLL. I interviewed participants who were currently in the programme and those who completed the programme. Romenella and Tushman (1986) maintained that data collection using quasi-longitudinal design could establish multiple views that motive changes in the participants of this study.

## **Piloting**

Piloting is important for testing methods, recruitment and data analysis procedures (Cohen *et al.*, 2011; Kim, 2010). Kim (2010) maintained that piloting is relevant to test the fitness of methods, recruitment and transcription process. I have benefited from a pilot study conducted with different sets of participants.

The piloting process started with an ethical application to test the methods with a small number of participants. The School of Education Ethics Committee of the University of Glasgow gave approval for a pilot study on 3<sup>rd</sup> March 2016. I recruited a small group of Nigerian students studying in the UK to understand the implications of their prior learning experience in the development of LLL skills. The piloting asks the participants how their current learning in the UK helped them to achieve LLL skills and transformation in their lives.

The recruitment process started with an informal network connection with Nigerian students via telephone calls and Facebook on 5<sup>th</sup> March 2016. Six participants agreed to be recruited for semi-structured interviews and focus groups. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in Glasgow with the students from two different universities. The first interview was conducted on the 11<sup>th</sup> March 2016; the second interview on the 12<sup>th</sup> March 2016 at the Glasgow Caledonia University Library. The last interview was conducted on 21<sup>st</sup> March 2016 at the University of Glasgow Library. The participants of this study were analysed with respect to their roles, age, gender and level of education in section 4.2.2 below.

It was difficult to gather participants for focus groups because of busy and conflicting schedules. With some persistence, I was able to recruit a group of Nigerian students in Dundee to participate in the focus groups. The focus groups



were conducted on 18<sup>th</sup> March 2016 in Dundee at the University of Abertay's library. Both the semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> March 2016.

Meanwhile, the methods of data analysis were tested with the analysis conducted based on Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps of thematic analysis (See section 4.4.3). The interviews and focus group were conducted in English language. The audio-recorded interviews were organised and transcribed to represent the original words of the participants. After listening to the audio recording, the data was transcribed. The coding process started with the codes being sorted and organised into themes and sub-themes, with this being guided by Braun and Clarke (2006). After the initial coding and theme identification, the findings were reported. The piloting was found to be effective in testing the methods and data analysis procedure.

A number of lessons were learned from the process, which had some important implications for the main study. The data collection tools were adjusted: instead of using a combination of semi-structured interviews and focus groups, I decided to adopt semi-structured interviews and document analysis in the main study, (See 4.4.1 semi-structured interviews and 4.4.2 document analysis). I learned that it is difficult to organise focus groups because agreement amongst participants on dates/time is challenging.

Interactions with participants in the pilot study were informed by a dialogic approach (Freire, 1993; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Mezirow, 2009). The participants were given freedom and encouragement to speak, which allowed me to elicit useful learning for the main study. The English language content of the interviews was very clear and was not a challenge during the transcription process. Through dialogue with pilot study participants, I settled on conducting interviews for the main study in a local language (Hausa), in order to have clear and vivid responses from the participants, by allowing them to speak in their own tongue. One of the main challenges identified during the pilot study was delays: it can very difficult to agree on time and spaces for interviews with participants. Notwithstanding the challenges, piloting my data collection procedures produced lessons that prepared me for the main study in Nigeria.

### 4.2.2 Selection and Recruitment of Participants

Robinson (2014) argues that a provisional decision on the number of participants to be recruited for qualitative research is necessary to allow for flexibility. She maintains that instead of a fixed number of participants, it is better to have a minimum and maximum range requirement. In the initial stages, I decided upon a range of 30-45 participants for the purpose of interviews. Table 4.1 below illustrates this.

**Table 4-1 Initial Plan for the Recruitment of Participants**

Participants	Methods	Number
Current learners	Interviews	8-16
Tutors	Interviews	5
Institutions management (YCV)	Interviews	3
Graduates	Interviews	9-16
Policy makers	Interviews	5
Total		30-45

In the end, 40 participants were recruited on the basis of purposeful and snowball sampling (Creswell, 2007; Mason, 2002; Silverman, 2013). The inclusion criteria included participants who were students, instructors, management officials or graduates of the YCV in Katsina state, Nigeria (See Table 4.2 and 4.3 below). Another four participants, who supported data from the content analysis, were national level policymakers based in Abuja (the capital of Nigeria), (See Table 4.4 below). They shed light on the policy context of LLL in Nigeria. They were contacted through letters and personal contact.

Snowball selection was part of the recruitment strategy. At the proposal stage, the intention was to recruit some of the participants through adverts in the public domain such as posters in public spaces (mosques and shops) and adverts on local radio stations and on Facebook. The adverts were written in Hausa language to enable the participants to understand the purpose of the study and what was expected of them. Robinson (2014) maintains that direct contact, print media and online adverts are becoming a popular means of recruiting participants. Abrams (2010) support this advertising approach especially in reaching marginalised populations such as transient youths, young adults, homeless people, drug users, sex workers and incarcerated, institutionalised, or

cognitively-impaired individuals. However, I experienced some challenges reaching participants; the graduates were especially difficult to make contact with because they are not stationed in one place, unlike those enrolled in LLL programmes. The adverts were not very successful with regard to the recruitment of graduates. In the recruitment of graduates, a very small number responded to the Facebook advert, perhaps because in Nigeria people are not used to being asked to participate in research through Facebook or radio.

Hamilton and Bowers (2006) have highlighted the challenges I encountered during the advert-led recruitment process. Members of the communities I was recruiting may have been fearful of fraudulent claims. Perhaps poverty levels in the communities I studied may also have created a barrier for recruitment: the online methods that were employed may not have been visible to community members, due to lower levels of access to the internet. Finally, the approach employed is grounded in Western norms and practices, and that may limit its effectiveness when implemented in Nigeria. Following Hamilton and Bowers (2006), then, the recruitment process perhaps meant more participants with access to the internet and likely higher education levels.

To correct these limitations, snowball selection (chain referral) was integrated into the recruitment process, in order to access those who were proving more difficult to reach (Abrams, 2010; Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981; Robinson, 2014). Snowball sampling, or chain referral strategy, involves asking participants to recommend acquaintances who share similar characteristics and who could provide useful information (May, 1997; Robinson, 2014). This approach has assisted me to access social groupings who were not responding to an advertisement (Heckathorn, 2002).

There were five distinct groups of participants in this study.

The *first* group involved current students recruited from the YCV in Katsina state, Nigeria, and consists of 16 participants (L1-L16) (See Table 4.2). The YCV served as the main gatekeeper for access to these participants, and emails and personal calls were made to gain the approval of the school's management. This approval supported the completion of the study's ethics application at the University of Glasgow.

On the 31<sup>st</sup> of September, a meeting took place between myself and the coordinator/head of the YCV to discuss the purpose of this research and my intention to conduct interviews. Permission was given to work with the YCV in this research, and recruitment advertisements seeking volunteers for interviews were subsequently placed around the school. Information was also shared with individual departments. Participants who responded to the adverts were drawn from both formal and non-formal courses at the Institute. These involved seven departments: computer science, catering services, film and photography (formal courses); and carpentry, leather work, welding fabrication and tie and dye (non-formal courses). These participants were recruited using adverts, purposive sampling and snowballing to answer research questions two and three (Abrams, 2010; Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981; Robinson, 2014).

The *second* group recruited were instructors. They were recruited using both purposive sampling and snowballing to respond to research question three about the perception of teaching and learning approaches on the development of LLL skills in students. The group consisted of five teachers recruited from Computer Science, Catering Services and the Tie and Dye departments.

The *third* group recruited were management level officials from the Institution. They were interviewed to provide accounts of how the Institution responds to the needs of its students and potential applicants. These participants were recruited using purposive sampling (Abrams, 2010; Robinson, 2014).

Table 4.2 below shows the characteristics of the first three groups of participants, all attached to the YCV in Katsina state i.e. current learners, instructors and management level officials.

**Table 4-2 Demographic Information (current learners, instructors and management)**

Demographic Information of the participants at the YCV				
Participants	Level of Education	Gender	Age	Course
L1	Dip. in Pub Adm.	Male	27	Computer Science
L2	Sec. School	Male	20	Computer Science
L3	Sec. School	Female	20	Computer Science
L4	BSC Chemistry	Female	23	Catering Studies
L5	Sec. School	Female	23	Catering Studies
L6	Sec. School	Female	28	Catering Studies
L7	Dip. in Social Dev.	Male	22	Leather Work
L8	BSC Accounting	Male	29	Leather Work
L9	Sec. School	Female	20	Tie and Dye
L10	Sec. School	Male	29	Tie and Dye
L11	Sec. School	Male	28	Welding Fabrication
L12	Sec. School	Male	25	Film and Photography
L13	Sec. School	Male	27	Carpentry
L14	Sec. School	Male	26	Leather Work
L15	BSC English & Lit.	Female	23	Film and Photography
L16	Sec. School	Male	20	Welding Fabrication
Participants	Qualification	Gender	Role/Designation	
T1	NCE/B.ED	Male	Instructor	
T2	Dip and HND	Male	Instructor	
T3	Diploma	Female	Instructor	
T4	Diploma	Male	Instructor	
T5	Secondary Edu/Cert	Female	Instructor	
Official of Inst.1	B.Ed./MSc	Male	Director formal & Non-formal Edu.	
Official of Inst.2	BSC	Male	Administrative Officer	
Official of Inst.3	BSC/MSc	Male	Coordinator/Head of the Institute	

The *fourth* group recruited were YCV graduates. They were recruited using snowball sampling, as the advert strategy proved ineffective. The recruitment challenges noted previously were a factor here (concern about fraud and low levels of access to the internet), and for some participants, there was a fear of the unknown. Interestingly, some of the participants described a lack of awareness that social media was and can be used to advertise research studies. The reason for recruiting this group of participants through snowball sampling was not related to sensitiveness or privacy (Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981). Instead, it resulted from factors such as the social background and access to or familiarity with online recruitment, as suggested by Hamilton and Bowers (2006).

Recruiting the YCV graduates therefore required ‘insiders’ to identify potential participants through formal and informal assistance (Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981). A wide range of literature attributes importance to ‘insiders’ referring the researcher to potential participants (Abrams, 2010; May, 1997; Robinson, 2014). The graduates were recruited to help address research question four, which relates to LLL outcomes for individual graduates and their communities. As suggested in the literature (noted in Chapter 2), graduate attributes and their applicability are important because of their link to employability skills of the graduates (Barrie, 2012; Coetzee, 2014; NCVER, 2003). Table 4.3 below shows detailed characteristics of the 12 YCV graduates recruited for the interviews.

**Table 4-3 Demographic Information (graduates)**

Demographic Information of the Participants (Graduates)			
Participants	Level of Education	Gender	Age
G1	Secondary Education	Male	33 Years
G2	Secondary Education/On-going NCE	Male	27 Years
G3	Secondary Education	Male	32 Years
G4	Secondary Education	Male	32 Years
G5	Secondary Edu/Withdrawn from HE	Male	33 Years
G6	Primary education/Quranic Education	Female	27 Years
G7	Secondary education	Female	25 years
G8	Secondary Education/ongoing Dip. Library and information Science	Female	26 years
G9	Secondary Education	Male	28 years
G10	Secondary education	Male	28 years
G11	Secondary education	Male	27 years
G12	Secondary education	Female	17 years

The *final* group involved national level policymakers. These were recruited using purposive sampling and personal networking to respond to research question one, in order to support content analysis of LLL policies (See Chapter 5).

Potential participants were contacted by email or telephone, with follow-up letters being sent to the Executive Secretary of NUC and the Executive Secretary of NMEC, the Federal Ministry of Education and the National Board of Technical Education (NBTE). The last two of this list did not respond to letters, emails or telephone calls. As a result, this group comprised four participants recruited from the NUC and NMEC. These participants were recruited from Abuja in order provide data on policy context of LLL in Nigeria. Table 4.4 below notes the characteristics of the national policymakers.

**Table 4-4 Demographic Information (national policymakers)**

Demographic Information of the Participants (National Policymakers)		
Participants	Gender	Organisation
P1	Female	NUC
P2	Male	NMEC
P3	Male	NMEC
P4	Male	NMEC

### **4.3 Ethical considerations**

Ethical considerations are important in protecting research participants. Ethical self-assessment and review ensure the credibility of research. According to Seidman (2013) a researcher is duty bound to protect participants from any potential danger or harm during or after research. This study was given ethical approval from the College of Social Science Ethics Committee of the University of Glasgow on 12<sup>th</sup> August 2016. This study complied with the ethical considerations outlined in this application, in order to ensure ethical and professional practice was upheld during the research.

This research ensured that the confidentiality and anonymity of the research participants was upheld throughout (Polonsky and Waller, 2014). All the data generated from the interviews with the participants were treated as confidential and anonymised. This was achieved by assigning participants of the study pseudonyms and codes. The participants were referred to as L1, L2, G1, G2 and P1, as indicated in tables above. The protection of the participants complied with the University of Glasgow's Code of Good Practice in Research.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants before carrying out the research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). The consent form was given to participants to keep and was read out in local language (Hausa) to participants, to ensure any literacy issues were mitigated. The participants offered their consent and agreed to be audio-recorded. All the interviews were recorded in order to capture answers and discussions precisely. The consent form given to the participants contained a full account of the research process and the purpose of the study. The consent letter was translated into local language to ensure the participants were clear about what they are committing themselves to. The participants were very happy and willing to participate in the research, because the information was clear to them. All interviews were conducted in good spirit, as discussed in section 4.4 (data collection) below.

### **4.4 Data Collection**

This study engaged with participants in order to hear about their experiences, with the goal of identifying the multiple realities constructed across the



participants (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). The study used transcripts of semi-structured interviews and documents as sources of data, with most of the data collected in a local language (Hausa). I will discuss the translation process in the data analysis section 4.4.3 below.

Interviews are common research tools for examining just about every aspect of human life (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2014). Interviews for research can be structured, unstructured or semi-structured interviews (Bryman, 2008). Structured interviews are such that a researcher asks sets of questions in their logical order, with little or no flexibility for deviation from these question sets. Unstructured interviews are casual, often opportunistic, interviews with no specific questions to ask and a commitment to follow participants' lines of thought. Semi-structured interviews blend the structured and unstructured approaches and involve constructing a set of themes or starting questions to guide interaction and dialogue between a researcher and the participants (Bryman, 2008). This allows participants to shape the direction and terms of the interview, but also for the interviewer to cover topics that are important to the aims of the research. For the purpose of this study, I employed semi-structured interviews in order to provide opportunities for learning, interaction and dialogue with my participants. Dialogue is an interactional exchange of ideas that give a researcher the opportunity to probe participants for clarity. Critical learning and community of practice theories informed my use of this technique in order to give the participants freedom to speak unhindered. The use of local language facilitated this dialogue (Bryman, 2001; Devault and Gross, 2006; Mason, 2006).

#### **4.4.1 The Semi-structured interviews**

The process of arranging and conducting semi-structured interviews required persistence. I had to patiently follow procedures for me to fit with the needs of YCV management. The first agreement that I reached to start the interviews with management level participants did not work out as planned. I spent three days going to the institute to conduct the interviews but was unable to secure a single interview. I was told that management levels officials were too busy with administrative work. I subsequently suspended attempts to interview

management official until after I finished with students and teachers. The Head of the school gave me permission to continue with my plan of recruiting and interviewing students and teachers. The instructors were accessible and agreed to participate in the research.

Students at the YCV were responsive to invitations to be interviewed. I started the interviews by explaining the purpose of the research to the participants and conducting the informed consent protocols. All the students agreed to be recorded in the interviews without expressing any concern. It is interesting to note that all of the students were happy to be interviewed in local language. However, two of the students said they preferred to be interviewed in English. I respected their choice as part of my ethical obligations, as discussed in section 4.3 above, and therefore two interviews were conducted in English language.

The use of local language for interviews offered me the opportunity for dialogue with participants. The participants spoke freely and confidently and this produced extensive and rich data. Using the local language enabled participants to express their views on their motivation for learning and their perceptions of teaching and learning in building their lifelong learning skills. Holmes *et al.* (2013) supported the methodological position on the use of local language in doctoral study. He notes that by using a range of languages doctoral students can generate rich data sets.

Fontana and Frey (2000) and Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011), point out that discussion in semi-structured interviews facilitates free flow of ideas, voices, intonation and body language of the participants. These aspects of dialogic interaction with participants were applied in the research. Opdenakker (2006) argues that semi-structured interviews give a researcher the opportunity to probe for extra information. Following this insight, I used prompts to pursue clarity and ask more questions. The students and instructors were very helpful and cooperative within our dialogic interactions. The only challenge I experienced when interviewing students was participants failing to show up or arriving late. These challenges were also experienced during the pilot study I concluded in the UK and are a common challenge in qualitative research.

When interviewing key administrators and policymakers, I experienced waiting periods of up to four hours. One of the administrators at the YCV agreed to participate voluntarily but after a few minutes into the interview, he withdrew because he had an activity to attend. As already noted the interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants, however, on one occasion a policymaker asked for one statement not to be quoted concerning the statement. It is interesting to note that interviews with the policymakers sometimes proved difficult. Not only was access difficult, once interviews began policymakers tended to dominate discussions. They always avoided prompts. During the interviews, some took phone calls and attended to staff. Such interruptions affected the flow of the interviews. As a result the national policymakers' views did not produce as much information as was hoped. My experience with interviews with the policymakers was contrary to the claim by Kezar (2003) and Drew (2014) that elites easy and potential sources of data for researchers. Contrary to such claims, this study found that policymakers are difficult to access, as well as difficult to engage in focussed interviews.

It is important to note that despite the benefits of using semi-structured interviews in the present study the method was not without challenges. It was stressful and time consuming talking to a participant for 45-60 minutes (Irvine, Drew, and Sainsbury, 2012; Seidman, 2013). It was also difficult to transcribe and translate longer interviews (I will return to the transcription and translation processes in section 4.4.3 below).

All interviews were conducted in offices and public places such as mosques or workshops. During most of the interviews conducted in offices, I experienced people coming and going. I tried to ensure quiet settings for the interviews with the graduates but there was often a little noise in the background of the recordings. The dynamics of the space in which interviews are conducted is very important. I realised a conducive space for interviews had an impact on the quality of recording. I experienced that the space through which I interviews students were quiet and there was no interference. The students speak comfortably and freely without difficulties. Most of the graduates were located in different areas and I have to drive to meet them.

#### 4.4.2 Document Analysis

Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing documents (Bowen, 2009). Corbin and Strauss (2008) argued that documents provide meaning, understanding to empirical knowledge when examined and interpreted appropriately. The types of documents that can form part of document evidence include policy documents, curricula, annual reports and institution mission statements (Bryman, 2008; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007). This study selected three national documents and the YCV Course Manual for analysis. These include *The National Policy on Education* (2013); *Nigeria-UNESCO: Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL)*, 2012; and *the National Universities Commission (NUC) Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS)*, 2011). The analysis also looked at some statistical reports such as National Bureau for Statistics (2010: 2012: 2014: 2015: 2016), as seen in Chapter 1. This was supported by Yin (1994), who suggests that document analysis is particularly relevant in qualitative case study research. He contends that it can produce rich descriptions of phenomenon or events. In the context of this research, document analysis is being used to have an understanding of Nigeria's policy context for lifelong learning. As suggested by Eisner (1991, p.110), analysing documents can provide 'a confluence of evidence that supports empirical data collected'. According to Silverman (2000), such analysis helps in the interpretive processes to turn talk into text. In this study, content analysis was supported by empirical data from interviews.

The document analysis used in this study allowed me to review the data that is presented about the policy context for LLL in Nigeria. Weiss (1998) maintains that documents are a good place to search for additional answers that support information gathered from interviews. Angers and Machtmes (2005) stress the need to combine data obtained from interviews and observation with document analysis data. I found the use of document analysis helpful in this study because the documents served to complement the interviews with the national policymakers. Bowen (2009) maintains that documents may be essential sources of data for studies designed within the ambit of interpretivist perspective, because they might be the only source supporting evidence from practice.

The analytical procedures adopted in this study are based on Braun and Clarke (2006), Bowen (2009), and Labuschagne's (2003) works. These works support finding, selecting, appraising and synthesising data contained in documents, into themes (See section 4.4.3). The documents used for analysis in this study present excerpts and quotations, and these have been organised into themes with specific examples (Labuschagne, 2003). Combined, these perspectives allowed me to construct a process for generating rich data on the policy context for lifelong learning in Nigeria.

Yin (1994) maintains that document analysis is prone to selectivity bias, this study subscribes to Bowen's (2009) view that document analysis is efficient and cost effective, however, some documents might provide insufficient details.

#### **4.4.3 Data Analysis**

Data analysis in this study involved the examination of secondary and primary qualitative data guided by constructivism paradigms, as noted in section 4.2 above. Crowe, Inder and Porter (2015) maintained that thematic analysis provides opportunities to organise and interpret qualitative data to create narratives that bring together commonalities and differences within participants' experiences. The study employed thematic analysis based on Braun and Clarke's (2006) six stages of thematic analysis. The six stages are: familiarisation, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and renaming themes and then producing a report.

The first stage of data analysis in this study was the transcription and translation of the interview data. I listened to the recording multiple times in order to become familiar with the data. During the transcribing and translating process, it was very important for me to listening carefully to ensure no aspects of language or cultural inflection were missed from the participants' expressions. According to O'Connor and Gibson (2003), such steps are important for ensuring clarity to maintain participants' patterns of speech. The translation process was time consuming and it was very stressful listening to one hour interviews many times. I undertook transcription and translation myself because of the promise I had taken to protect participants. While time consuming, the task of translating and transcribing was helpful for building detailed familiarity with the data.

During the process, I took notes relating to potential initial codes and linked these with quotes from the transcripts.

After completing transcription and translation, began to develop my thematic analysis, following Braun and Clarke's (2006) model. I generated codes and looked for associations, constructing themes that gave meaning to the data. Cobin and Strauss (2008) note that a code is a short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative or salient meaning to data, whereas a theme is a pattern that describes a phenomenon in relation to research question. Cobin and Strauss (2008) maintain that our ability to show how themes develop systematically leads to important findings. The document analysis follows a similar pattern of themes emerging from the policy documents. The codes identified were placed under a main overarching theme that give answers to the research question, as exemplified in Table 4.5 below.

**Table 4-5 Example of the process of themes development from data**

<p>Question</p> <p>Can you share with me some of the changes you experienced after undergoing the training?</p>	
Quotes	Codes/Phrases
I had a successful one year course full of life and experience of interaction .... It has really changed my life and has helped me to recover from my previous shock; it reduces my anxiety (G5)	experience of interactions/ recovery from shock
It was a great decision as it serves as a source of emotional relief and freedom! I barely remember my previous frustrations because I have something doing; it was really a big relief for me (G6)	emotional relief and freedom/I barely remember my ... frustrations
I find <u>relief</u> and I am so doing well and I <u>forget all about being withdrawn from school</u> ; I truly find happiness! G10	recovery from the shock of withdrawal
For the fact that I have attended the school, I have a sense of <u>relief from what was disturbing me</u> and I know the value of hard work. <u>As a person with disability I don't want to be engaged in begging</u> (G12)	relief from emotion/overcoming effects of disability
Well as you can see, I feel empowered! I don't actually feel in anyway deprived. (G9)	feeling empowered/ overcoming effects of disability
To me the change that we experienced is beyond establishing self-employment ... but you know <u>the interaction you have with people is a very important things and I learnt how to accommodate the tolerant and non-tolerant people and you learn to work hard</u> (G8)	effects of social interaction on tolerance

The eight related codes, given as an example in Table 4.5, were further analysed to arrive at an overarching theme that represented all the codes. This theme gives deeper meaning to the data. The codes shown in Table 4.5 describe the narratives of the participants' transformational experiences as a result of

participation in LLL. From the codes presented above, I developed an overarching theme known as ‘Social and Emotional Empowerment of Women and Vulnerable’. This is what Braun and Clarke (2006) called defining and naming themes during searching and reviewing stage. I have really benefitted from the Braun and Clarke model of data analysis.

The last phase of the thematic analysis model offered the opportunity to report findings supported by quotations from study participants. This process of reporting is evident in the following three chapters, organised into policy context for lifelong learning in Nigeria (Chapter 5); current students’ stories/motivations and pedagogical experiences (Chapter 6); and life stories and transformative outcomes of lifelong learning (Chapter 7).

#### **4.4.4 Positionality and Reflexivity**

As one of the subject matter (young person), I have personal experiences and beliefs on the implications of poverty, failure in education and lack of adequate opportunity for access to education on lifelong learning. However, I am looking for multiple perspectives from different young adults whose ‘voice is never heard’ on the level of social exclusion, they experience over time. My position is that reality is socially constructed through interaction, dialogue and interpretation of phenomenon from a divergent perspective (Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1981). This study was motivated by different factors as follows.

Firstly, this study grew out of my personal experience as a young boy from a low-economic background who struggled to be educated in order to bring about positive change within deprived communities. The experienced was that of struggles and sacrifices of my parents and I. I truly experienced the frustration experienced by those who struggle to be educated. I have made more than five attempts to secure a place at university but all efforts proved abortive. I was persistent to pursue my dreams of becoming a university graduate, lawyer and human right activist. I was not offered a space to study Law but I was given a space to study Adult Education and Community Development. The passion for social justice was built in me through the study of Adult education from Nigeria to the United Kingdom.



Secondly, the interest was also triggered by my professional practice as a teacher, educator and practitioner in the field of adult education and community development in Nigeria. The topic emerged from teaching two University core courses (Introduction to Youth Work and Introduction to Community Studies) in Nigeria. Through the process of teaching these courses, I deconstructed the orthodox teaching approach (Banking approach) by engaging my students in field practice in order to experience the world out there. This brought about an understanding of critically examining how policy and practice promotes lifelong learning and transform young adults within the economically, educationally and socially challenging context such as Nigeria. It is important to state that my philosophical stands were shaped by the ideas of Freire, Gramsci and Mezirow.

Lastly, I was also motivated by huge national statistics that show young people suffer educational, economic and social exclusion (See Chapter 1), and as a result of that, they become affected by poverty, unemployment, gender inequality, lack of skills and poor access to education. I always wanted to understand more about what the experience of these young adults are, what their situation is and how does lifelong learning policies and practices transform and change their lives for the better. It is a belief that social research cannot be carried out in isolation of researcher's biographies and the social world, through which they live (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). This is true for qualitative research where the researcher cannot be separated from the research process (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). This makes me aware of how my personal experience, interest, emotion and subjectivity may influence the research process. Griffiths (1998) argued that researchers' standpoint is inevitable in the researcher, but the real problem is failing to acknowledge them in the research process.

In this research, I adopt an insider approach, as a young person from the context of the study. I have been working as a lecturer in adult education and community development in one of the universities in Nigeria. My position as an insider is in line with Sultana (2007), who argued that it is always important to pay attention to positionality, reflexivity, knowledge production and power relations in the research process in order to undertake ethical research.

My positioning as a researcher insider demand careful consideration of ethical issues that might arise in the process of conducting the research. As Hammersley (1993) pointed the researcher's position as an insider to a culture or particular context, being studied carries ethical risks which might affect the research process. It is difficult to dissociate my position as an insider with experience and understanding of the context of the research. However, I always reflect on my position to avoid forcing my personal experiences and understanding to affect the research process.

I honestly comply with the ethics as part of ethical requirement of qualitative research. Throughout the research, I have work hard to ensure I create a conducive atmosphere that would prevent any power imbalances between myself and the participants of the study. As indicated in section 4.4.1 above through dialogue and interaction with the participants, I ensured friendly and free conversations, which was helpful in achieving the study objectives. It is important to note that most of the research conducted in Nigeria are quantitative and one-sided process. Presumably, providing the participants of this study with new experience made them share their personal stories and dissatisfaction with the practices that affect their empowerment. I learned that giving research participants an opportunity to be on the driver's seat (fully involved) would yield positive outcomes.

The research process was interesting by observing all the ethical consideration; however, I conducted the research in a very difficult place (Nigeria), it was conducted at the time when Nigeria was experiencing major security challenges. It was a very unsafe period with challenges such as Boko Haram militancy, kidnapping, robbery, farmers and herders clashes, ethnic engineered crisis, political clashes and the activities of militants in the Niger-Delta Region. In the process of my data collection, I had to drive over 800 miles through difficult terrain but the fact that I am local that was my strength. I was able to conduct the research while being mindful of safety measures as part of the ethics of the research.

I have learned so much from this research process as the findings suggest divergence perspective from the participants in constructing their reality about the social world. While conducting analysis, I always reflect on my standpoint in order to bring about the best interpretation of the data from the study.

## 4.5 Summary

This Chapter outline the philosophy that guides the practicalities of research methodology and the methods for this research. This study assumes that knowledge and meaning are socially constructed and that reality consists of people's subjective experiences of the social world (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). This claim enables me to used qualitative research methods (Semi-structured interviews and document analysis) based on exploratory case study. This is the reason why, I investigate how policies and practices support young adult development of lifelong learning skills in Nigeria, particularly the students and graduates of YCV in Katsina State. This research design allows understanding of cause and effect relations in a wide range of situations (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010), especially where the phenomena under investigation is characterised by lack of detailed research (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010). There was absence of empirical study that looks into policy documents (content analysis) and examines empirically the impact of the policies (LLL) on individuals, communities and nation at large. Employing document analysis part of the case study design was guided by Yin (1994) who suggests that content analysis is particularly relevant to case study research. The content analysis helps to establish case for the empirical study. This study maintained that subjective meanings are not imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives (Creswell, 2007, pp.20-21).

The practical aspects of the research include conducting a pilot study to test the relevance of the methods in investigating this new phenomenon. I started the pilot with the aim of testing the methods with Nigerians students studying in the UK on the 12th March 2016 and concluded on the 21st March 2016. The pilot has strong implication for the main study in Nigeria in terms of recruitment and practicalities. With the pilot study, I change focus groups because it was impracticable and I maintained semi-structured interviews with document analysis.

In the initial stage of the recruitment and selection of the participants for main study in Nigeria, I decided upon a range (minimum and maximum) of 30-45

participants for the purpose of semi-structured interviews (Robinson, 2014). In the end, 40 participants were recruited based on purposeful and snowball sampling (Creswell, 2007; Mason, 2002; Silverman, 2013). There was an adjustment because the initial plan for adverts on local radio stations and on Facebook, did work well. I employ snowballing or chain referral in order to complete the recruitment process. Five distinct groups of participants were recruited for interviews and they include students, instructors, administrators, graduates and national level policymakers. Ethical consideration was given throughout the whole process of the interviews. I ensure that the confidentiality and anonymity of the research participants of this study was upheld throughout (Polonsky and Waller, 2014).

The semi-structured interviews with the participants were mostly conducted in local language (Hausa). In the light of literature (Bowen, 2009; Braun and Clarke, 2006; Crowe, Inder and Porter, 2015; Labischagne 2003), I organised the data into themes and sub-themes in order to have deeper meaning. I employ thematic analysis by organising and interpreting the data to create narratives that bring together commonalities and differences from the extract of semi-structured interviews and document analysis. I employ the six stage of thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke. The six stages include familiarisation, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and renaming themes and then producing a report.

In this research, I adopt an insider approach, as a young person from the context of the study and working as a lecturer in adult education and community development in one of the universities in Nigeria. My position as an insider was to acknowledge my standpoint in order to conduct ethical research.

It is important to note that each element of the research process - the philosophical foundations, methodology, data analysis and reporting - are interlinked and interconnected. Meanwhile, data analysis is a concurrent activity as all the phases highlighted by Braun and Clarke (2006) are functionally linked to each other. A comprehensive data analysis includes phases and processes, as exemplified above. I ensure the data analysis offer coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting accounts of the stories of the participants with sufficient evidence from the extracts (interviews and document analysis) to demonstrate the prevalence of the theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

I present the data in Chapter 5, 6 and 7 carrying the narratives that through analysis emerged from the data.

## Chapter 5 Policy Context of Lifelong Learning in Nigeria

This chapter presents data collected with a view to understanding how lifelong learning (LLL) policies are shaped in Nigeria. It examines the policy context of LLL and how global discourses informed LLL in Nigeria. It presents data from content analysis of three national policy documents and supported by semi-structured interviews with four national policymakers (Coded P1-P4) at the National University Commission (NUC) and National Commission for Mass Literacy (NMEC).

### 5.1 Lifelong Learning Policy Context in Nigeria

Reflecting the literature on lifelong learning efforts in Nigeria noted in Chapter 1, this section highlights major themes within the discourse of lifelong learning in Nigeria. Moreover, it responds to research question one (What is the policy context of lifelong learning in Nigeria?) through content analysis of three national policy documents. This is supported with semi-structured interviews with four national policymakers (coded P1-P4) at the National University Commission (NUC) and National Commission for Mass Literacy (NMEC). The three national policy documents are: (1) *National Policy on Education* 2013; (2) *Nigeria-UNESCO: Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL)*, 2012; and (3), *the National Universities Commission (NUC) Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS)*, 2011. Table 5.1 below summarises the policy context for lifelong learning in Nigeria, as identified from these documents and semi-structured interviews with policymakers.

**Table 5-1 Effort and focus of LLL**

Efforts and focus of Lifelong Learning in Nigeria	
Themes	Sub-Themes
Lifelong Learning at Early Level of Education	Education for Social justice: Access, Equality and Literacy Education for Active Citizenship and Survival
Lifelong learning at higher Level for the Young Adults	Education for Functional literacy and Continuing Education Education for Individual Empowerment and National Development

This study's analysis of lifelong learning efforts has been divided into two parts. The first focuses on lifelong learning at early levels of education. This covers LLL for social justice in relation to children's literacy, access, equality and gender equality in education. The second part focuses on lifelong learning for young adults' development of skills and knowledge for sustainable livelihood and economic growth. This covers higher, and adult and non-formal education provisions for individual empowerment and national development. The adult and non-formal education provision also touches on the social justice issues of equitable access and literacy.

Lifelong learning efforts focus on humanistic and human capital development philosophy, as discussed in Chapter 2. These have been influenced by the need to meet international protocols to help end internal challenges (poverty, unemployment, lack of access to education and poor economic growth) in Nigeria. As noted in Chapter 1, the education system in Nigeria was based on the 6-3-3-4 system of education (it is now a 9-3-4 system) in the formal education sector (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC)), with there being non-formal provision at all levels of education to promote LLL.

### **5.1.1 Lifelong Learning at Early Levels of Education**

The content analysis of this study revealed that national efforts at lifelong learning at early levels of education centre on social justice and individual development towards active citizenship. These include increase in literacy, inclusion, access and equal educational opportunities for all. Active citizenship reflects concepts such as entrepreneurship, wealth creation, civic responsibilities, moral values and 'national consciousness for harmonious co-existence' as a priority in early levels of education in Nigeria.

#### **Education for Social justice: Access, Equality and Literacy**

Social justice in an educational context is related to educational provisions that provide access, equal educational opportunities and attainment, as seen in Chapter 2 (European Commissions, 2016). The discourse of lifelong learning as a tool for social justice reflects the provisions that promote social inclusion,

democratic participation and equality, as noted in Chapter 2 (McIntosh, 2005; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; Osborne, 2003).

Content analysis in this study revealed a national policy commitment to ensuring that children have equitable access to education with related increases in literacy rates and gender equality. As revealed from the analysis, the NPE was influenced by international treaties to be committed to EFA goals 1 and 2, which form the root of social justice in education, as noted below:

Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

Ensuring that by 2015 all children, with special emphasis on girls, children, in difficult circumstances and from ethnic minorities, have access to complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality (Nigeria: Education for All 2015 National Review Report, p.13).

These extracts illustrate Nigeria's commitment to a lifelong learning policy in its efforts to make education free and accessible to all children, especially for those from disadvantaged or marginalised backgrounds. The national policymakers' interviews also suggest a commitment to increased access and inclusion that was influenced by internal dissatisfaction. P2 reported that:

You know, statistics shows 10.5 children and mainly girls, are out of school. Part of the policy is ensuring access, inclusion to education ... to all respective of age, tribe or religion, as a right (P2).

It's all about access and equality by ensuring no child is left hanging around on the streets without any education ... It is written all over the policy, but the achievement of this commitment is quite challenging (P3).

These quotes indicate policy commitment to EFA and MDG goals to ensure children access to free education as one of their rights. It is important to note that the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria articulates that the NPE should ensure equal and adequate educational opportunities at all level of education. This includes the provision of compulsory, free and universal primary education, free university education and free adult literacy programmes.



Policy in Nigeria indicates a major drive to achieve up to 95% of girls having access to education. This focus is to address issues such as girl hawkers, housekeepers and groups of the population that are hard to reach. As indicated by the Nigeria-UNESCO Country Programming Document (2012-2013), part of the drive for equal educational opportunities resulted in the government making US\$500m available for basic education. This reflects the influence of global agendas on lifelong learning via the World Bank, the United Nations and UNESCO and resonates with Preece's (2011) argument that policy priorities within Africa are influenced by funding agencies, policymakers and practitioners.

The content analysis revealed that the NPE and its related policies both strengthen and harness policy and capacity for lifelong learning:

...it draws and effectively utilise resources from international and local development partners such as World Bank, USAID, UNIDO, UNICEF, UNDP, DFID, JICA, KOICA, Nigeria/Sao Tome and Principe Joint Development Authority, and NGO's (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), p.47).

This extract suggests educational policies in Nigeria draw their guiding philosophies, goals and inspirations from their international development partners. It was noted earlier that the Nigerian national policy on education was reviewed to accommodate global lifelong learning principles. This analysis revealed commitment to the implementation of international protocols such as *Education for All* (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). This suggests that the global trends of lifelong learning and the knowledge-based economy have strong influences on the direction of education reforms in Nigeria.

The value of lifelong learning to a knowledge-based economy is explicit in Nigeria's educational policy goals. The EFA and MDGs goals have set a new agenda for policy change and the implementation of lifelong learning protocols in Nigeria at all levels of education. As indicated in Chapter 1, Nigeria is a large country with over 180m inhabitants of whom large segments are experiencing poverty and unemployment, along with low literacy rates (NBS, 2010; National Literacy Survey, 2010; NMEC, 2008). Arguably, population growth has put pressure on an already challenged educational system that shows disparity in terms of educational access and gender equality. Against this background,

international organisations continue to influence the goals and philosophy of Nigeria's educational system, with the national policymakers' interviewed in this study confirming the influence of supra-international organisations on Nigeria's lifelong learning policy goals:

No country will fold its hand while its citizens are poor and illiterate! Our lifelong learning policies are basically drawn from international partners and national NGOs. In a meeting with countries such as Ethiopia, Senegal and Ghana, we discovered about 60% of initiatives on lifelong learning and empowerment were coming from international partners (P2).

Nigeria is a signatory to many international pacts on lifelong learning such as EFA, MDGs and SDG, therefore what do you expect? Definitely our policies will be influenced by their efforts to address common problems of illiteracy, poverty, access and gender equality (P4).

These extracts add weight to Nigeria's part within the global community, and its alignment with global trends of achieving just and equitable societies through education. This study's analysis revealed that such global trends have great influence on the goals of education to end poverty, gender inequality and lack of access to education. However, these discourses in fact deflect the focus of African lifelong learning traditions of learning at every stage of one's life to a narrow focus on universal basic education which sees learning as formal and non-formal processes without valuing informal learning.

It is also important to note the influence of international organisations such as UNESCO in promoting lifelong learning. This analysis revealed that UNESCO and the World Bank play a key role in lifelong learning in Nigeria in terms of the provision of knowledge expertise, monitoring and training of government officials. The analysis revealed that to achieve the goals of the Dakar Framework for Action and the MDGs, UNESCO provided a huge reservoir of expertise, knowledge, experiences and practices. It was especially notable how UNESCO provided support in many areas in line with Nigeria's national development priorities, as revealed below:

Mobilization of stronger and sustainable support to literacy through an effective advocacy and communication strategy; development of Strategic Framework for Literacy and NFE; technical support for identifying and addressing the capacity gaps in (a) policy, planning and management, (b) programme design and delivery, (c) human

resource development, (d) data and information management system, and (e) quality assurance through effective assessment, monitoring and evaluation, and f) promotion of multilingual literacy; building effective and sustainable partnerships for literacy and NFE; identification of innovations and best practices in literacy and NFE for possible scaling-up in Nigeria; development of a comprehensive literacy programme for Nigeria (Nigeria-UNESCO, 2012, p.8).

This extract suggests the important role of international partners in the provision of expertise in order to achieve literacy targets. International partners provide technical support for addressing policy, planning and management through building the capacity of the policymakers. For example, the policymakers indicated the benefits from the human resource development training at the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL):

UNESCO has a reputation for building up officials to support lifelong learning activities in this country! I am one of the beneficiaries. They helped in developing a strategic framework for its implementation, organised workshops on how to bring in public and private partnership in support of literacy, and supported workshops on the multilingual aspects of non-formal education (P3).

There is a great international influence on lifelong learning in Nigeria; for example, UNESCO and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) in conjunction with Nigeria initiated a literacy initiative for youth empowerment. The programme is targeted to empower youth educationally and to understand and discover themselves as well as their strengths and weaknesses as part of the principles of survival (P2).

Well, you know UNESCO is an agency and it has over the years developed a reputation for helping experts assist member countries in developing and implementing programmes for adult and non-formal education (P4).

These extracts indicate how UNESCO and related international donor agencies have provided technical expertise for the execution of lifelong learning programmes with the aim of providing access and equal educational opportunities. Even though the participants indicated that UNESCO does not provide funds for the support of literacy and related programme, they remarked that:

Based on reputation and trust, UNESCO continues to have influence in adult education and lifelong learning (P4).

P4 also noted that UNESCO has continued to be visible in helping to reach marginalised groups through programmes such as literacy by the radio, and pointed out that UNESCO is:

The visible capacity building of policymakers, adult literacy planners, curriculum developers and facilitators in ensuring youth and adult access to skills (P4).

P3 reflected that:

Literacy by radio is one of the very important activities UNESCO supported in order to target many people, including women at home (P3).

As part of Nigeria's drive for creating access through formal and non-formal education, there was an increase of 30% in the national budget, with a commitment to increase school enrolment of children from 18% to 70% (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). There were also efforts in revitalising adult and youth literacy, the Nigerian Government provides UNESCO with over \$6 million US dollars) in the form of a self-benefitting Fund-in-Trust. The participants revealed that the Fund-in-Trust is one the important ways of achieving literacy, access and equal educational opportunities, as illustrated below:

UNESCO has built a reputation to be trusted with the 6 million for that project. They have built that reputation and this is not the first time they are doing this in Nigeria. You know, it really helps in the achievement of the objectives of literacy, access and equal opportunities. I am telling you with all sincerity of purpose, I am a government official, and if such money was domicile with us we may not get any additional support ... (P3).

Of course, UNESCO is a programme agency, not a funding agency, but it has a very good reputation of ensuring successful implementation of literacy activities through Fund-in-Trust. It is a great success! (P4).

These extracts suggest the significant influence of UNESCO in the execution of lifelong learning activities in Nigeria. It also suggests that UNESCO and related organisations have established enough reputation to warrant entrusting them with large financial funds to be used for lifelong learning through the NMEC.

Moreover, there was also an allocation of funds through a 2% charge of the Federal Government's Consolidated Revenue Fund (FGCRF) for formal and non-

formal education sectors. The national policymakers revealed that there was knowledge of the provision of funding to promote LLL, but there were misconceptions and misinterpretations of the inclusion of non-formal education in the allocation of fund:

...as specified in the 2005 Act...Section 9 (2-3) shows UBEC as a commission and clearing house for the collection of 2% consolidated revenue for the funding of lifelong learning that should be shared among all stakeholders and non-formal education. The Universal Basic Education Law should include early child education, nine years of basic education, adult education and nomadic education as components of this, but the NMEC was never given any funds for that until 2014 or 2015 (P2).

...laws specifically say that 2% of the consolidated revenue should be set aside for basic education of which non-formal education is included. Before this, we have never collected any support for the promotion of non-formal education... until 2015 when UBEC gave an intervention. I think the problem is with the interpretation of the policies (P3).

These extracts suggest provision of a fund to support access to educational opportunities based on equality has been well-received, but that there are problems as to who is going to benefit from it due to their being misconceptions of what education covers, i.e. formal, non-formal or both types of education. P2 reported that such misconceptions could have their roots in the constitution of the Technical Committee for Lifelong Learning policies and reflected that:

It is right to say that our approach to educational policy is more formal in nature but this is also evident in non-formal education. ... Even when technical committees on education are inaugurated, you will discover five or six members of the committee are experts in primary and secondary education, with only few experts from the non-formal education sector (P2).

Participants revealed that basic education is given to all children up to the age of 15 free as a means of ensuring access and equal educational opportunities for all:

Developing in the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion; provision of compulsory, free and universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school age; reducing the incidence of drop-out from formal school system; catering through appropriate forms of complementary

approaches to the promotion of basic education, for learning needs of young persons who for one reason or another have had to interrupt their schooling; and ensuring the acquisition of the appropriate level of literacy, numeracy, communicative and life skills, as well as the ethical, moral, security and civic values needed for the laying of a solid foundation for lifelong learning (Nigerian Educational Research and Development (NERDC), p.4).

This extract shows the NPE's commitment to lifelong learning based on social justice principles, and that education should promote access, literacy, numeracy and ethical values in order to establish a clear foundation for lifelong learning. Therefore, as expressed by P3:

It was very clear from the policy that there shouldn't be any discrimination! The policy makes provision to allow almajiri (*children living on the streets*) and hawkers to remain within their environment (P3).

This data resonates with McIntosh's (2005) notion of social justice in education. This notion emphasises the provision of education as a human right with the aim of educating and empowering socially marginalised groups. This idea is found in the works of Aspin *et al.* (2001), Osborne (2003), and Coffield (2000) who report lifelong learning to address social exclusion and ensure equitable distribution of learning opportunities.

The focus of national policy is on addressing literacy challenges and high dropout rates of children within formal education. Given the need to address these challenges, the NPE (2013) maintains that all tiers of government, agencies and parents should encourage the education of girls and discourage 'boy dropout syndrome' (NPE, 2013, p.9-10). This resonates with the SDG targets 4 and 5 relating to provision for lifelong learning opportunities for all. These goals are:

Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning.

Opportunities for all achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls (United Nations p.7-8).

The national policymakers confirmed the direction of lifelong learning in addressing illiteracy, poverty and dropout rates as exemplified in the comments below:

Yes, the policy has to be in-line with global demands for addressing illiteracy. Nigeria is among the E9 countries with the highest illiteracy rate, poverty, early school leavers (dropouts) and poor quality outcomes in both formal and non-formal education (P2).

That's right! The drive is towards literacy programmes that give opportunity to the non-literate! The aim is to eradicate illiteracy and ensure non-formal education gives opportunities for learning and re-learning. Once reading and writing skills are achieved, that lays the foundation for lifelong learning (P4).

It appears from these quotes there is a strong commitment to lifelong learning in terms of improving literacy rates and LLL opportunities for all, as well as addressing 'dropout syndrome', but as noted by P3, the achievement of this commitment is a difficulty, with P4 noting that this difficulty, 'has always been a lack of political will'.

As part of the move to increase literacy, access and equality in education, the NPE (2013) promotes education as a drive for addressing the children of nomads who are disadvantaged by their constant movement. The goals are to provide migrant children with access to functional skills and to improve their survival skills. In line with this objective, participants revealed:

In view of that and for Nigeria as a country to demonstrate its readiness to support a lifelong learning policy drive, in 2005 the Universal Education Act was enacted to specifically address the issues affecting not only nomadic children, but also adult literacy rates, youth and vulnerable youth education and women in difficult circumstances. These people are meant to have access to education and life skills for living (P2).

Curriculum is designed to address concerns for children at a disadvantage ... girls and out-of-school boys, as well as the children of nomads (P3).

However, despite all these efforts to ensure literacy, access and equal opportunities, marginalisation and inequalities are still increasing. For example, the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) report (2014) showed that more than 10.5 million children were out-of-school with the majority of these being girls in the northern part of Nigeria. In addition, it was reported by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2015) that in

countries from the global south poor children are four times more likely to be out of school than children from rich backgrounds.

Preece (2011) argues that the narrow focus of lifelong learning to universal basic education under MDGs ignores other aspects of education. As noted in this study the focus on basic education is to the detriment of adult education and lifelong learning. This narrow focus for education toward basic literacy essential means there is no adequate resources for compulsory schooling or lifelong learning at higher level of education. Despite the claim *for education for all* at all level of education, the narrow focus of policy, poverty, social background and lack of economic opportunities for parents might stand as a barrier to the achievement of lifelong learning objectives.

### **Education for Active Citizenship and Survival**

Education for active citizenship and survival is linked to the educational provisions that build civic engagement as a means of establishing a peaceful and economically viable society. This idea finds meaning in the works of Biesta (2011), who sees lifelong learning as the means of developing active, functional and law-abiding citizens. This reflects the development of individuals and institutions of the state to ensure economic sustainability and peaceful co-existence (Green, 2006; OECD 1996; Reuters *et al.*, 2015). This study's content analysis reveals that the goal of education at an early level is related to children's development of knowledge and skills for survival such as entrepreneurship, moral ethics and the capability of independent thinking. The visions and goals of basic education as exemplified in Section 2 (13) of the NPE (2013) reveal the following:

Provide the child with diverse basis knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship, wealth generation and educational advancement; develop...the performance of civic responsibilities and inculcate values and raise morally upright individuals capable of independent thinking, and who appreciate the dignity of labour...inspires national consciousness and harmonious co-existence ... (Nigeria Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), p.4-5).

This extract suggests the promotion of lifelong learning skills as a learner's right from initial early levels of education. The objectives involve the development of skills for human capital development and wealth generation, alongside the



development of civic responsibility and consciousness for peaceful co-existence within their country. A policymaker indicated:

We think we targeted three things known as 3H syndrome ... deficiency of the hand, deficiency of the heart and deficiency of the head ... the policies basically target the development of these skills (P2).

This quote shows policies target building a learner's capacity to utilise their talents in pursuit of creativity, building ethical and moral conduct skills, and building learning capacity and thus participation in the affairs of the country.

As seen in Chapter 1, the NPE (2013) suggests that education should be learner-centred and activity-oriented at all levels to support the promotion of lifelong learning skills. However, there remains the critical problem that graduates at all levels of education are deficient in decision-making, critical thinking, interpersonal relationships, entrepreneurial skills, technical skills and numeracy skills (Dabalen, Oni, and Adekola 2000; Pitan and Adededeji 2012; Saint, Hartnett, and Strassner 2004). This issue will be addressed in Chapter 6, when pedagogies capable of promoting lifelong learning skills are discussed.

### **5.1.2 Lifelong Learning at Higher Levels for Young Adults**

The NPE (2013) ambitiously created clear guidelines for lifelong learning opportunities to cater for the different categories of youths and adults at all levels of education. This concern was influenced by need to address social injustices such as poverty, unemployment and a lack of access to education for young people (Bloom *et al.*, 2010; Ifeoma, 2013; NBS, 2010). There are in fact references all through the NPE, *NUC Bench Mark for Academic Standard* (2011) and *Nigeria-UNESCO Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy* (RAYL, 2012)) documents to lifelong learning. There were discourse on concepts such as functional literacy, continuing education, self-employment, self-direction, self-reliance, entrepreneurship, scholarship, community development, remedial and lifelong learning opportunities and education for social and economic transformation of individuals and nation at large.

The following section discusses the lifelong learning opportunities for young adults for functional literacy and continuing education. This is followed by

discussion of education for individual development of skills for social and economic development. The section will conclude by outlining national policy efforts in promoting learning to young adults.

### **Education for Functional literacy and Continuing Education**

The focus of lifelong learning for young adults comprises the promotion of life skills for survival and continuing education on the basis of promoting access to education and gender equality. This involves functional literacy for social and economic wellbeing and continuing education for marginalised young adults. The policy concerns for empowering young adults are in line with global efforts towards lifelong learning, as reflected in EFA goals 3, 4 and 5, MDGs 1 and 3. The EFA goals were emphasised and recognised by the NPE (2013) as addressing the learning needs of distressed and marginalised young adults by providing educational opportunities to ease poverty, unemployment and difficult living conditions. The specific goals are provided in the following table:

**Table 5-2 EFA and MDG goals alignment to National Policy on Education (2013) (*Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p.15, Nigeria 2015 Millennium Development End-point report, 2015*)**

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**Education For All and Millennium Development Goals for LLL**

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EFA goal 1: Expand early childhood care and education;

EFA goal 2: Provide free and compulsory primary education for all;

EFA goal 3: Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes;

EFA goal 4: Achieving 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;

EFA goal 5: Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015;

EFA goal 6: Improve the quality of education

MDG Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;

MDG Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education;

MDG Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Considering the MDG goals and the National Policy on Education (2013) it can be seen that they are aligned. The NPE has recognised the importance of young adults and adults' equitable access to education and continuing education as a means of their empowerment in the midst of economic downturn. Policy stresses the importance of building young adults capacity for continuing education. This echoes the Nigerian education system commitment to social justice as means of addressing poverty and vulnerability. The national policymakers indicated the importance of learning in empowering vulnerable groups for creativity and employability, as exemplified below:

Yes, as part of the process of learning from cradle to grave... one of the issues apart from basic literacy is the issue of developing minds for creativity and employability skills (P2).

The policy targeted 4-5 million vulnerable youths and adults! It is not just about having ability in reading and writing - it goes beyond that. It involves empowering youths and adults to become economically functional. It is about giving access and life skills (P3).

In addition, P4 reflected the same position held by P2 and P3, when he said;

Well, our main goal is to ensure that illiteracy in this country is drastically reduced and that youths and adults are empowered with the necessary skills and competences as a foundation for lifelong learning (P4).

The thrust of lifelong learning, then, is based upon ensuring the development of skills to address poverty, unemployment and vulnerability amongst young adults. It appears that the issue of access to learning is critical to the development of these skills:

You know mostly, life skills cover self-reliance, financial control, love, peace, generosity, faithfulness, orderliness and patience; and all those aspects that make a man responsible for sustaining himself, his family and community ....; at the end of the day, we are trying to emphasise through a curriculum that a girl is a potential mother so she must have skills for life ... that prepare her potential ... the skills of home economics, fashion design ... (P2).

Financial literacy has been here for a very long time, but when we were revising our policies and curriculum... we felt that financial literacy needed to be better embedded. It is all about how to manage income, how to invest, how to save and how to borrow so that they can be independent and self-sustaining (P3).

It is part of the effort of the lifelong learning policy to ensure youths are educated on health, nutrition, the environment, peace, information to relating to agriculture, enterprising and small-scale enterprises skills ... (P4).

The policymakers acknowledge the promotion of functional and life skills amongst marginalised young men and women, along with the need for young people to be functional and released from difficult circumstances created by poverty and unemployment. P1 indicates the concern of the National Council on Education on tertiary education's production of non-functional graduates. This

underpins the aim of injecting entrepreneurship, as a lifelong learning skill into the curriculum of tertiary institutions is to empower students to become job creators, not just job seekers. However, from the analysis of National University Commissions, Bench Mark for Academic Standard (BMAS, 2012) the learning outcomes for the students was the capacity to describe of concepts such as entrepreneurship, self-reliance and self-independence rather than the practical application of skills.

The NPE (2013), Nigeria-UNESCO RAYL (2012) and NUC BMAS (2011), tie the idea of entrepreneurship to business skills. These ideas are related to economic perspectives, as seen in Chapter 2. For example, Henry, Hill and Leitch (2005) and Matlay (2005) discuss wealth creation, job generation and profit-making initiatives to sustain business activity. These views are opposite to lifelong learning perspectives of European Commissions (2016b), Rae (2015), and the European Commission (2016), who all suggests that entrepreneurship, as a lifelong learning attribute is a way of helping learners to develop capabilities that make them more enterprising, innovative and flexible in their lives.

It is important to note that the scope under the purview of EFA goals as shown by NPE (2013) covers three learning domains: primary and secondary education, non-formal education and tertiary education including vocational education institutions. UNESCO (2007) shows EFA goals could be achieved through formal, non-formal and informal learning. Moreover, the participants suggest increased access and continuing education for women and girls, in line with EFA goals four and five. The NPE (2013) and *Education for All* 2015 national review for Nigeria has shown commitment to:

Achieving 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults (Federal Ministry of Education (FME), 2015, p.13).

Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education ... and achieving gender equality in education in literacy by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full access to and achievement in basic education of good quality (FME, 2015, p.13).

The above extracts highlight the Federal Ministry of Education's commitment to lifelong learning with emphasis on women's and girls' access to quality

educational opportunities. As indicated in the NPE (2013) and Nigeria-UNESCO RAYL (2012) documents, LLL policies are committed to ensuring women and girls' access to basic and continuing education. This is relevant to Sustainable Development Goals, to which Nigeria is a major signatory. The SDGs related to education are to 'ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all; and achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls' (United Nations, 2015, p.2-6). With this suggesting that the education sector needs to comply with global requirements for lifelong learning through creation of access and empowering women and girls.

The content analysis of policy revealed different categories of people targeted by education in compliance with EFA and MDG goals through formal education and adult and non-formal education, as revealed below:

The target groups include migrant folks, *almajiri* pupils, illiterate and semi-literate adults, youths and adolescents; persons who left the formal school system ... now willing to come back and continue schooling; and other categories of disadvantaged groups; who are unable to have access to the conventional educational system and therefore require other forms of educational programmes to cater for their particular/peculiar needs and circumstances; remedial education and lifelong learning education for youths and adults who did not complete secondary education; and provide in-service, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals ... to improve their skills (NERDC, 2013, p.20).

The extract above suggests the different categories of participants are targeted with a view of addressing social injustice and promotion of LLL in Nigeria. In relation to addressing lifelong learning needs of young adults, the policy analysis further revealed that:

The ultimate beneficiaries will be those who have not been reached, or marginalized and/or excluded by the education system, mainly young girls and women, youth and out-of-school children, and vulnerable populations and groups who have suffered from decades of prejudice, marginalisation, discrimination and even exclusion, particularly in urban slums and rural areas (Nigeria-UNESCO RAYL (2012)).

This extract suggests that there is a drive to reach excluded parts of the population by providing continuing education opportunities. This entails to

address gender inequalities in access to education and occupational opportunities as well as addressing educational disparity between rural and urban areas. This is relative to MDG's goal one - to promote gender equality and empower women. Further evidence from the policymakers' interviews elaborates on the goals of lifelong learning towards access, inclusion and addressing the needs of different categories of young adults, as illustrated below:

Of course, the RYAL project has continued to make itself the sphere of non-formal education, especially reaching to those who are marginalised or excluded from formal education ...the concern is to address marginalisation (P4).

For improving literacy in Nigeria, UNESCO brought forward the idea of literacy radio in order to capture hard-to-reach people ... including women at home (P3).

The above quotes suggest the drive towards inclusion by reaching large number of people through non-formal ways. This is important in ensuring equitable access to learning and increasing people's literacy level on health, environment and financial management.

All the policymakers reported efforts for creating opportunity for continuing education and mainstreaming for graduates of formal and non-formal education, as exemplified below:

You know it is clear in the national policy that there should be opportunity for mainstreaming or continuing education through non-formal modes such as distance learning (P4).

In efforts to support access to education, the National Policy makes provision for youths and adults who have passed through non-formal education (vocational or others) to mainstream .... It is not just to empower them economically! Yes, you can set an enterprise or mainstream to formal learning. It is a two-way process: either stay mainstream or go to the formal sector by sitting for professional exams (P3).

The issue of mainstreaming promoting social inclusion is notable, with P2 reporting that:

The government, in collaboration with UNESCO, promotes non-formal pathways to offer learning opportunities for out of school children, youths and adult (P2).

There is still a problem with mainstreaming! I think adequate policy provisions need to be set up in a way for students to be accepted in formal education with their non-formal requirements (P3).

This suggests a challenge for young adults trying to mainstream to formal education.

### **Education for Individual Empowerment and National Development**

Education for individual empowerment and national development is an important aspect of educational policies in Nigeria. The content analysis of policy indicates that investment in education as a means of individual wellbeing and national economic development is a priority. The goal of education, as illustrated by NPE (2013) is:

Education as an investment for economic, social and political development; an aggregate tool for the empowerment for the poor and the social marginalised groups; effective means of developing the full capacities and potentials of human resources, development of competent work force through acquisition of practical skills relevant to the world of work as a veritable means of developing sound and intelligent learning societies fit and relevant in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Nigeria Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013, p. i).

This extract indicates the aim of education is synonymous with human capital development model of lifelong learning (Aspin *et al.*, 2001; Coffield, 2000; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2015) as discussed in Chapter 2. This suggests developing individuals' capacities through education to serve as human resources for national economic and political development and the creation of learning societies capable of withstanding the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The second aspect of the quote indicates also the intent of LLL policies in Nigeria in ensuring social justice through empowering marginalised groups.

The human capital development aspect of educational policies in Nigeria is reflected in the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) 2009-2012) as seen in Chapter 1. Nigeria-UNESCO RAYL (2012) document



underscores, 'education as a vehicle of both individual empowerment and national development' (p.5) and critical to this is social service delivery priorities with two main expected outcomes:

Policies, investments and institutional changes enable access to quality social services to achieve national development targets, including progressive realization of MDGs, and; changes in individual/household behaviour reflect growing public engagement - especially of the poor and disadvantaged - in the achievement of better social outcomes (Nigeria-UNESCO RAYL, 2012, p.5).

This extract suggests that the promotion of better social outcomes as priorities in the reduction of poverty and unemployment amongst socially disadvantaged populations. There is a clear intention to create better lives through individual empowerment. These are part of the National Economic Empowerment Strategies (NEEDS) as embedded in the NPE (2013). The aim is human capital development and the creation of a learning society. To meet these demands, the Federal Ministry of Education designed a roadmap for the development of Nigerian education in 2009 (NPE, 2013). This was followed by a one-year strategy (2010-2011) and then a four-year (2011-2015) strategy. As part of these efforts, the strategies used were for formal and non-formal education to lay a foundation for national rediscovery (Nigerian National Planning Commission (NNPC, 2004). The following values were incorporated in the education sector at different levels: enterprise, competition, and efficiency at all levels; equity and care for the weak and vulnerable; moral rectitude, respect for traditional values, and pride in Nigeria's culture and value system for public service that results in effective service delivery to citizens (NNPC, 2004, p.3). Prior to 2004, there was no clear framework for the achievement of lifelong learning objectives. However, with the review of the NERDC (2013), the goals of both formal and non-formal education were clearly integrated with lifelong learning principles, as revealed below:

Contribute to manpower (sic) training for national development; provide accessible and affordable learning opportunities through formal and informal; career counselling and lifelong learning opportunities for knowledge and skills for self-reliance; promote scholarship, entrepreneurship and community service, national unity and social interaction (NERDC,2013).

This extract suggests that lifelong learning efforts are a means of ensuring access to education for national development through self-reliance, scholarship, entrepreneurship and community service. It is thought that lifelong learning skills might provide answers to the challenges of national development such as poverty, unemployment, disengagement of education and employment and depreciated skills amongst young adults. This indicates an increased quest for promoting employability skills and economic proficiency through promotion of entrepreneurship, scholarship and community service skills in formal and non-formal education processes. These ideas were buttressed by national policymakers' interviews, as illustrated below:

There is a drive towards the provision of knowledge, skills and values for a good life. It was realised in 2006 that graduates were coming out of the university system and unsuccessfully looking for jobs, and that questions the credibility of the experiences and knowledge they acquired ... As a change to policy direction, the National Council on Education in its annual meeting with all stakeholders has taken a decision on the needs for tertiary institutions to equip graduates for functionality. It includes the creation of independent minds in terms of their employability, so that they can sustain themselves as well as open doors for others. The idea of entrepreneurship came up not for only for the universities, but for all post-secondary education (P1).

This quote suggests that the inability of graduates to display a sense of skills for creativity and independence has put into question the knowledge and skills provided at tertiary level. Those concerns ignited the policy's need to promote functionality and creativity of graduates through promotion of entrepreneurship skills. The content analysis of policy in this study revealed that the goal of tertiary education is produce creative minds that will contribute to national development, as illustrated below:

The guiding principle ... is the development of creative minds, innovative and entrepreneurial personalities who are prepared for leadership responsibilities in industry, government and non-profit organizations; and who are developed to establish new ventures, reinvent organizations, create new jobs, add social and economic value and nurture a sustainable enterprise culture (National University Commissions (NUC), 2011, p.6).

The extract suggests the need to empower graduates with skills at all levels of education irrespective of their backgrounds, and to develop ideas that enable them to engage in income-yielding ventures. This lifelong learning effort within

tertiary education is to change the orientation of graduates toward white-collar mentality to 'self-jobs' creation mentality. P1 reported that:

Creativity, innovative and problem-solving skills in graduates is what is required to end unemployment challenges (P1).

... basically the intention is to solve the problem of unemployment and create competition (P4).

... poverty and unemployment levels in Nigeria have attracted tremendous policy attention! The government is ensuring that more attention is given to lifelong learning with a focus on up-skilling to survive in difficult times (P3).

The above findings relating to promoting human capital development were reflected in both the content analysis and the national policymakers' interviews. These findings help explain the expansion towards individuals surviving by themselves, and thereby creating a culture of individualism, which then arguably leads to another level of inequality. This would be a drive towards a neo-liberal perspective of lifelong learning, which is reflected in Chapter 2. This perspective of lifelong learning resonates with Coffield's (2000) skills growth model of lifelong learning, and the neo-liberal market model of Green (2006). The skills growth model suggests education as a means of building individual capacities to promote economic growth, which is also about promotion of competition and survival of the fittest (Coffield, 2000; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; McIntosh, 2005; UNESCO's report *Learning - the Treasure Within* 1996).

Arguably, education is not seen as a means of liberation of individuals from the shackles of domination orchestrated by neo-liberalism, but instead as a means of promoting economic growth. It is worthy to note Allman (1999) rejects the idea of allowing individuals to survive by themselves. She notes that this leads to escalation of further social injustice within society.

### **Expected Outcomes/Benefits of Lifelong Learning from National Policies**

The policy analysis revealed the importance of education for individual empowerment and national development and social justice, as indicated in the NPE (2013) and Nigeria-UNESCO Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL), 2012).

The policy stresses education's priority as a driving force for self-employment, self-reliance, entrepreneurship, scholarship, continuing education, community development and social and economic transformations (NPE, 2013; NUC, Bench Mark for Academic Standard BMAS, 2011; Nigeria-UNESCO (RAYL), 2012). From the analysis of BMAS, learning outcomes for students include the development of entrepreneurial mind-sets and necessary competences for self-reliance, attitudes, resources and network capacities to run and starts income-yielding ventures. As highlighted in the Bench Mark for Academic Standard, these skills are developed through lectures, mentoring and then practical application within existing business scenarios.

These ideas resonate with the promotion of capitalism as a means of promoting and widening individualism and inequalities in the modern society. However, it is important to note that both Nigeria-UNESCO (RAYL) (2012) and NPE (2013) highlighted the benefits of education for individual progress and national development, as exemplified below:

These include: **human benefits** (fulfilment of human rights, self-esteem, empowerment, social well-being, leadership, and critical spirit); **political benefits** (increased political participation, embracing of democratic values, good governance, conflict resolution, peace and reconciliation); **cultural benefits** (cultural transformation and innovation, promotion and preservation of cultural diversity); **social benefits** (maintaining good health, increased family stability, improvements in education, gender equality, social cohesion, inclusion and empowerment); and **economic benefits** (wealth creation, economic growth, increased individual income, sustainable development) (Nigeria-UNESCO (RAYL), 2012, p.6). Bold text in original

This extract interestingly suggests lifelong learning values that resonate with the literature review in Chapter 2, confirming the benefits of lifelong learning as reflected from previous reviews (Coffield, 2000; Dench and Regan, 2000; Field, 2009; Green, 2006; Pro Skills, 2006). Dench and Regan (2000) indicate that 80% of people who participated in learning experience increased self-confidence, enjoyment of life, enhanced satisfaction and positive changes in their lives. In a related study by Feinstein *et al.* (2008), it is suggested that learning contributes to positive changes in behaviours and attitudes, such as increased civic participation and healthier living. The economic benefits of learning are long established in the works of Field (2009) and Sabate (2008).

## 5.2 Summary

The chapter examines the policy context of lifelong learning in Nigeria. A number of themes emerged from the data analysis including the influence of international organisations on the LLL Philosophy, the emphasis on social justice of promoting literacy, access to education and gender equality, and human capital development through investment in education to promote entrepreneurship and self-reliance skills. The analysis revealed a lack of recognition of informal learning structure, confusion and misinterpretation of the scope of LLL and discrepancies in LLL policies.

There has been a shift in educational reforms with emphasis on social justice of addressing illiteracy, dropout, access and declining skills, poverty and unemployment. Lifelong learning is seen as a means to empower young adults to achieve economic prosperity and to contribute to national economic development. Further, educational policies have been influenced by global trends in LLL in form of literacy, educational for all, gender equality and ending poverty. However, these global discourses on LLL tend to have been limited in Africa to universal basic education. The emphasis given to formal and non-formal education is to the detriment of informal education.

The study also revealed a confusion and misinterpretation in the inclusion of non-formal education in the allocation of funds for the promotion of LLL.

The next Chapter presents the triggers for young adults' participation in lifelong learning and the role of educational processes in building lifelong learning skills amongst the participants of this research. It will also present how pedagogies and practices promote or inhibit students' development of lifelong learning skills.

## **Chapter 6 Current Students' Motivations and Pedagogical Experiences**

This Chapter presents the philosophy, mission and analysis of the curricula and structures of the Youth Craft Village Institute's (YCV) courses. The Chapter examines the triggers for students' participation in lifelong learning at the YCV in Katsina State as well as their perspectives of teaching processes that promote entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills as lifelong learning attributes. The Chapter addresses research questions two and three respectively. Part 1 of this Chapter examines the triggers that resulted in the participants taking actions necessary for their transformations. It also examines the prior learning experiences of the participants that impeded their confidence, self-esteem and capacity for practice. Part 2 examines the teaching and learning strategies that helped the participants develop LLL skills, as well as other influences in the development of these.

### **6.1 Philosophy and Mission of YCV**

#### **6.1.1 The YCV Institute's Philosophy, Course Structure and Curriculums**

This section presents the philosophy, mission, and structure and course curriculums of YCV by using information from the Institute's Course Manual supported by data from interviews with the management officials of the Institute (Officials 1-3). This provides an insight into the nature of the programmes, their aims and objectives, admission procedures, expectations of students' learning and methods of delivery and assessment.

According to NERDC (2004: 2013), the national policy on education emphasises the need for the development of young people to be creative, enterprising and capable of contributing to economic and sustainable development. Alongside this, the philosophy of Nigerian education suggests that education should be an instrument of national and social development. Reflecting this, the Katsina State government established the Youth Craft Village as an educational institution for the achievement of the national objectives of promoting social justice, individual growth and national economic development, as discussed in Chapter 1. Such institutes provide opportunities for young people empowerment and

development. In line with the NPE (2013), these institutes offer courses aimed at developing young people with the appropriate skills and attitudes for career development, access to education and continuous learning.

The Youth Craft Village is designed to prepare young disadvantaged adults for self-employment and further learning (YCV, 2016). It is funded by the Katsina State Government and admits disadvantaged and marginalised youths aged 16 to 30 and trains them with appropriate skills for life (USAID, 2016). The institution also offers counselling to students, many of whom come from troubled backgrounds, and integrates them into mainstream educational processes. The programme was first established in 2009 (USAID, 2016) and the institution has trained over 10,000 young adults since then. The notion of the programme is to empower young adults through education and improve their livelihood and improve economic development. Thus, to restore the reflective confidence of youth to become useful and productive in the national labour market with a sense of responsibility.

In addition to the goals of formal and non-formal education highlighted in Chapter 5 (section 5.1.2, p.153), the specific goals of Vocational Enterprise Institutes such as YCV are to:

... provides courses of instruction and training in engineering, other technologies, applied sciences, business and management, leading to the production of trained manpower; provide the technical knowledge and skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic development; give training that impart the necessary skills for the production of technicians, technologists and other skilled personnel who shall be enterprising and self-reliant; train people who can apply scientific knowledge to solve environmental problems for the convenience of (humanity) and give exposure on professional studies ... (NERDC, 2013, p.30).

The mission of the YCV is to remove unemployed youths from the streets by providing them with the skills, knowledge and attitudes for self-employment and lifelong learning (YCV Manual, 2016). It provides the opportunity for young adults to gain self-direction, self-sustenance and self-actualisation. It also offers graduates of secondary school who did not obtain their required five credits to obtain knowledge and experience, as discussed in Chapter 1. This is part of the

philosophy of lifelong learning in Nigeria, as indicated in the NERDC (2013, p.17-18).

### **6.1.2 Nature of the Courses**

YCV courses target young men and women who are disadvantaged (YCV, Manual, 2016) to widen social justice. They are targeted to offer them an opportunity for learning and develop their creative thinking and transform their knowledge into wealth and opportunities. The YCV aims at ensuring young adults develop life skills and related expertise that will help improve society, fulfil national goals and facilitate the ability to be self-employed.

The YCV Institute has thirteen courses, and these are divided into formal and non-formal offerings, with a duration varying from six months to a year. The formal courses include Computer Studies (leading to Affiliate of Information and Communication Technology Institute), Film and Photography (Run by the Nigerian Film Corporation, Jos), Catering Services and GSM Repairs. Non-formal courses include Auto-Mechanical Studies, Welding, Fabrication and Blacksmithing, Carpentry and Joinery, Leather Works and Shoe-making, Beauty, Tailoring and Fashion Design, Tie and Dye, Wrought Iron Furniture Design and Pottery. The formal courses require specific pre-requisites, whereas the non-formal courses admit students without any or with minimal qualifications.

Interviews with the management of the YCV shared how the programme provides opportunities for everyone:

Our policy is very clear: we admit different category of applicants, including those without qualifications in order to motivate them to obtain skills and qualifications. That's why we have formal and non-formal courses (Official 3).

Of course, the intention is to provide an opportunity for people without qualifications to feel included. It is the issue of providing access; if you placed a qualification requirement you would end up preventing many people from attending (Official 2).

The quotes indicate the provision of opportunity for all to access education without credit level requirements based on social justice principles. All the officials noted the issue of access to education for all people. It was also



acknowledged that a high priority is given to female participants, as illustrated below:

It is interesting to tell you that we give priority to women ... (Official 3)  
The reason is to provide open access to women of all ages to support their communities... there is no age limit for women's enrolment (Official 1).

The YCV (2016) clearly notes that 'both male and female students have equal opportunities ... no gender disparities' (p.3). However, Official 1 reported that even with such positive opportunities 'the trend was that there were courses where you had 100% women and others with men only at 20%, like catering services courses.

The YCV Institute provides free education to all its participants in order to create opportunities for all. This provision of free education is in line with the NPE (2013) and the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), which suggests that education at all levels (formal and non-formal) should be free as soon as practicable. Katsina State Government finances all educational programmes, with all the officials in this study indicating the importance of free education to support educationally, economically and socially distressed young people.

### **6.1.3 Goals and Expectations**

The overall goal of the YCV Institute is to remove unemployed youths from the streets by providing skills, knowledge and appropriate attitudes for self-employment by promoting and providing them with access to education and continuing learning opportunities (YCV, 2016). NERDC (2013) indicates that institutions such as the YCV are designed to achieve the following objectives: the promotion of industry specific skills, knowledge and appropriate certification to pursue trades or careers; creative thinking for wealth creation, sound economic bases and increased access; and entrepreneurial skills with the opportunity for continuous education. Data from the interviews with officials of the Institute elaborates on the skills expected of students and graduates, as exemplified below:

I will say our expectation is we want students to take away the right attitudes and skills to be enterprising and to be able to support others. This should be in a sustainable way so that no one takes advantage of these youths (Official 1).

Yes, it has to do with developing skills of self-independence to reduce crime rates among the youth. You know, there is a serious problem with the vulnerability of youths to being engaged in bad activities (Official 2).

The expectation is that students always strive to be independent and self-reliant. One cannot be an entrepreneur without being independent (Official 3).

This data shows that participants are expected to be innovative and enterprising, as well as being capable of helping themselves and others. It also shows that the major problem of a lack of skills amongst youths makes them vulnerable. Official 2 recounted that:

It is not all about entrepreneurship skills alone, but the discipline to become a good citizen capable of tolerating others.

Another official reflected that:

It is all about being self-reliant, independent and capable of turning ideas into products! I believe all these improve a youth's capacity for civic participation without being involved in thuggery and unwanted behaviours (Official 3).

Discipline and compliance are critical issues in the Institute and students are expected to be highly self-disciplined. Official 3 reported that:

We have our standards and guidelines. Being disciplined is a priority here and misbehaviour is not tolerated. It carries sanctions ranging from suspension to dismissal.

Another official revealed that:

If somebody violates or fails to comply with the Institute's rules and regulations, he or she can be forced to withdraw depending on the magnitude of the violation (Official 1).

This data suggests students are being controlled through rules and regulations in order to support their development of life skills appropriate for engaging in continuing learning and entrepreneurship activities.

#### **6.1.4 Methods of Delivery and Assessment**

The YCV Manual suggests that for students to develop skills, their courses' methods of delivery should be practically orientated and student-focused (YCV, 2016). This is relevant to the provision *National Policy on Education* (2013), which observed that education should be learner-centred, activity-based, practical, and experiential and supported by information technology, as discussed in Chapter 1. Officials reported a shift in paradigms amongst learners in the process of their teaching and learning experiences, as exemplified below:

Before we met them... students were in a teacher-centred learning process. We are now able to make this a learner-centred process and that is what we are doing and that is exactly what is happening (Official 1).

Of course, there is a great consideration for the students to be involved in practical activities. You know the problem we discovered is that most educational institutions focus on rote- learning and that is the reason for poor skills among graduates (Official 3).

These quotes indicate a shift in methods of teaching that give priority to students and practice. One participant noted the failures of a dominant teacher-centred practice of teaching:

We run a practical oriented learning, which is unfortunately not being offered in most institutions (Official 3).

I think most students don't consider themselves... they don't ask for challenges and I don't blame them! It is the system of training they were in, but we look at that problem and provide opportunities for students to participate (Official 3).

This student-centred learning and opportunity for practical application of learning was reflected in interviews with students and instructors as will be seen later.

Official 2 noted that:

It is interesting for our students because here, learning through practice constitutes 70% and academic learning 30%. This is a paradigm shift from teacher-centred to student-centred learning (Official 2).

The data also reveals the process of learning from others. The participants reported that the Institute regularly invites banks and government agencies to give the students first-hand knowledge of entrepreneurship activities. Official 2 noted:

We always engage the services of SMEDAN (Small Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria) to educate our students on entrepreneurship plans (Official 2).

He further elaborated:

We are in partnership with the Bank of Industry (BON) who groups our students into cooperatives to provide access to credit facilities (Official 2).

Official 3 noted that to further enhance practical learning, YVC works in partnership with business incubation centres, thereby introducing students to these flexible centres designed to support the growth of small-scale businesses through their infrastructure and services.

The focus on practical learning is reflected in assessment procedures, with participants confirming that these were a mix of practical and theoretical assessments in a 70/30 ratio. This demonstrates the curricula are practice-oriented not just in delivery, but also in assessment.

## **6.2 Motivation to Study at YCV**

Motivation is the reason or reasons driving particular actions or behaviours. The participants indicated a number of disorienting dilemmas and triggers which culminate in their (Mezirow, 1991 and 2009) engagement in lifelong learning at the Youth Craft Village. Four overriding themes concerning the motivations for the current learners' engagement in lifelong learning at YCV emerged from the data: 1) life transitions, 2) unemployment and career change, 3) a quest for learning, and 4) community service and fulfilling dreams.

Table 6.1 below summarises the main motivations for participants' learning at YCV.

Table 6-1 The triggers for current learners' participation in LLL

**Summary of Main and Sub-Themes for Learning at YCV**

**Motivations and triggers for young adult learners' participation in LLL**

Themes	Sub-themes
Life transitions	Economic and social stress of divorce Stress of Examination failures Pressure from family and friends
Unemployment and career change	Insecure employment Dissatisfaction with current employment or career change Need for self-employment and security
Quest for learning	Passion for learning The need to be up-to-date The need to specialise in another field
Community service and fulfilling dreams	Desire to help others to learn Wanting to make a difference Fulfilling a longstanding dream

This section addresses research question two: the current learners' narratives and motivations for participation in learning.

### 6.2.1 Life Transitions

Life transitions are planned or unplanned events that individuals experience during their lives. These events have their own set of personal and environmental challenges, which Mezirow (2009) argued, cause disorientating dilemmas capable of unsettling people. In this study, the participants reported problems resulting from divorce and its economic and social challenges, examination failures, tensions resulting from pressures from families or friends and unemployment as major life transitions. Two female participants reported that they experienced divorce and economic and social stresses. The significant life transitions involved moving from matrimonial homes to single homes and then dealing with single motherhood. Six participants (one female and five males) described frustration, boredom and difficult circumstances experienced as a result of examination failures. Four participants (one female and three male) reported pressures from families or friends that were the impetus for

them return to learning. All of these served as triggers for the participants as they saw re-entering learning as the only option available to them. This finding resonates with Mezirow's (2009) idea that potential life transitions caused by personal crises (death, divorce or frustrations) as well as environmental factors (poverty or events resulting from learning failures) (Bourdieu, 1992); can serve as triggers for people to take particular courses of action.

Economic and social stress of divorce was an issue for some of the participants; it was a key motivating factor for women returning to education. Divorce makes people vulnerable to distress and economic crisis, with resultant dissatisfaction with life situations. L5 (23 years old) is divorced and was dissatisfied with her circumstances, reflecting that:

I got married in 2013 and have two children. I then divorced and became stressed with the situation of living under the care of my parents again (L5).

She spoke with emotion about being a single mother of two children who had to be taken care of and observed that in her situation going back to school was her only option. She reflected that:

You always feel at fault. I would be happy to learn some skills to secure my independence economically and to be able to support my children ... and basically for me to become independent (L5).

A similar situation was expressed by L6, as demonstrated below:

Life is very difficult now and I am living with my parents after being divorced. I have a little daughter to look after and protect, and I just want be self-employed or gainfully employed. I need money... seriously (*laughter*) to support my little girl! That's the reason for me enrolling at school. I have seen no option other than education that can give me something positive, but not all education can do that (L6).

These quotes illustrate the need for self-esteem and economic empowerment and possibly the need to deal with the societal perception (of divorcees) as major push factors for these divorced women returning to education. Thus, it could show that the situation is not the same for male divorcees. Women suffer from the challenge of societal perception for being divorced, this is due to the effect of cultural dominations, which Bourdieu (2001) maintained that the

cultural processes make the bodies and practices of women as inferior (See section 3.2.4, Chapter 3). This shows that social and cultural process within the Nigerian society makes women to suffer economic and social setbacks. Structurally, it is the social settings or habitus and reproduction of cultural arbitrary at micro and macro level that influence women or individual actions and inaction (See Bourdieu, 1990: 1992). This social and cultural process has a strong implication on the wellbeing of women (See Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey, 2013, in section 1.1 socio-economic and cultural context of Nigeria).

It is important that the participants (women) had frequently reflected on education that gives people independence and empowerment as the only option to move on from difficult life situations. It seems from the data that it is women who are most affected in this way, economically, socially and educationally. The participants emotionally described the dilemmas stemming from their divorces. Thus, it could be argued that these cultural, economic and social limitations affect women's decision-making power within the society. However, factors post-divorce such as the need for self-esteem, economic security and the need to support loved ones appeared to be the triggers for these young women's return to learning and going against cultural and social assumptions that affect their empowerment (See Darlene *et al.*, Freire, 1993; Mezirow, 1978, in Chapter 3). These experiences and triggers reflect Mezirow's (1991; 1994 and 2009) notion of transformative perspectives of women returning to college in the USA. The disorientating dilemmas expressed by the participants in the present study are stress from social, economic and cultural conditions. Identifying these challenges is a central part of empowerment (transformation), as the participants showed a willingness to take a course of action to acquire knowledge and skills in order to change their lives (Mezirow, 2009). The fact that these women express a desire to change their lives shows that they believe change is possible and they see social structures around them as changeable.

Structurally, the power vested upon men (*sic*) tends to socialised them to possess capital (power) and habitus to succeed to the detriment of women (See Bourdieu 1988; Bourdieu 2002). Although men within the context of this study, suffer economic and social challenges not necessary because of divorce but

other factors such as unemployment, exams failures, and poverty, as discussed below (See 6.2.2).

A further life transition reported by this study's participants was the stress of examination failures or failure to achieve certain marks to enter further education upon completion of secondary education. Generally, school leavers finish school with high hopes of proceeding to the next level of education, but these hopes can be dashed by failure in examinations or in failing to achieve cut-off marks criteria. Not meeting educational requirements or examination failures were noted as having negative consequences including frustration, unhappiness and boredom, as exemplified in the following quotes:

I attempted to secure admission to university, but couldn't get the required points for entry! It was really frustrating and I feel I don't like school again, but later I felt rather than waiting idle ... I should enrol in YCV to acquire some skills and competences for self-employment and then self-dependence (L2).

I sat an examination for entry to University to read BSc Accounting, but failed to get the required grade point for entry. I felt unhappy, as some of my friends had found their next steps! After being at home doing nothing and with no prospects, I decided I needed to do something. I decided to come to this school in order to get skills that will help me in the future (L3).

These quotes indicate that frustration, boredom and unhappiness resulting from exams failure can serve as triggers, particularly for young adults in difficult circumstances, to return to another form of learning. This frustration and boredom caused by examination failures show structural undertone. For example, Nigeria is blessed with economic resources but no adequate investment for the training of teachers and the infrastructure for conducive learning is not available (Section 6.3 below show the student reflections on the effect of their prior learning experiences on their educational success and achievement). This gave an edge to the people who own capital of honour and prestige opportunity to educate their children in the best private school to the detriment of the wards of the poor (Bourdieu, 1989). This is what Bourdieu (1992) referred to as the notion of power relations that enable people in authority to create a reality for their wards that exposes the children from the poor class to social exclusion. These realities created by the dominant group



lead to another level of frustration to students from the poor economic background, who are eliminated out of education either by cut off marks or lack of funding to pursue education. Despite the rhetoric for free education, people experienced some level of social exclusions. Bourdieu (1992) was very clear to argue that any societies which claim to recognize individuals only as equals in right, the educational system and its modern nobility only contribute to disguise (See section 3.2.4 in Chapter 3).

An additional pressure seemed to be that these participants felt that lack of engagement was frustrating especially when many of their friends seemed to be progressing well with their lives, as illustrated below:

It was disheartening that I couldn't meet university entry requirements, and specifically the requirement for entry into a School of Nursing. I was being idle while some of my friends were busy with school. I looked for an alternative and so joined this school to start doing something (L9).

It was noted that in addition to cut off marks and quota systems, funding could restrict potential students from further learning. As a result, some participants began to look for option of either going into an entrepreneurship activity or trying to continue with learning in non-university institution. This shows ways of using education as an escape from boredom and frustration, as revealed by L2, L3 and L9 above. These participants used alternative educational options to overcome the frustration and boredom of living without education as a result of failures in the past. L2 reported that:

I have a dream and the only way of getting closer to my dream is taking this route. Yeah, I realise my parents cannot afford to pay for a university education. With the skills I acquire, I will generate income to support myself (L2).

The participant dreamt of acquiring university education but this was affected by lack of funds and strict university requirements. It can be argued that structural factors such as poverty and parent economic wellbeing create social inequalities in relation to access to education. These are the factors affecting many young people's dreams, but for L2, the dream of going to university was rekindled by studying at a non-university institution. This served as a second resort because the reality created to the people is that no matter the level of

education one possess if he/she has not been to university is seen as an inferior. However, despite this stereotyping those who have been to the university are enrolling in this kind of education because of unemployment, as discussed in section 6.2.2 below.

Pressure from family and friends was an issue for some participants. Another life transition issue as expressed by the participants was pressure from family members or friends. One participant, L14, was dismissed from school because for his failure to fulfil academic requirements. This participant was tagged unproductive by his family because he was unable to do something meaningful with his life. L14 narrated that:

Eh ... honestly, I made my decision because I was tired of being idle and because of the pressure from relatives that I am unproductive... That made me re-engage with learning again, especially learning to be independent (L14).

Participant L14 recounted that these pressures encourage him to start school again after being discourage by the experienced of failures. Participants' engagement with learning seems to help them regain their lost self-esteem, as illustrated below:

To be honest, you feel your friends are moving ahead of you and that is really disturbing as it takes away your confidence of being with friends. Some even look down on you, so I had to find a way out (L12).

Similar concerns were expressed by L3 and L9 above. L3 who raised the issue of entry requirement also reported feeling, 'unhappy because some of my friends had found their way' (L3). Such events resonate with external pressures, as highlighted by Boshier and Collins (1985), being linked to complying with pressures directly or indirectly. For example, L6 reported:

You know one of my friends invited me to join the school, but I told her I don't like that school because it is for deviants. I told her I wanted to go to another school. I was later motivated by the success she recorded. I just gave it a go, while regretting missing my first chance (L6).

The initial perception of one of the participants was that the school is for the deviants. This shows that the school adopted principles of social justices of

caring for all. This shows that it gave different groups of young adults' opportunity for complimenting what they lack. For example, it demonstrates a commitment of empowering distressed young people, especially women, disabled and economically and socially frustrated young adults.

Participants' experiences of major life transitions such as divorce, examination failures and pressures from family or friends are relevant because they may lead them to entrepreneurship learning as a way out of their situations. These transitions created economic, educational and social difficulties and these brought the participants' aspiration to be out of these difficult situations. This resonates with Rae's (2015) notion of entrepreneurship capability learning, which suggests that after experiencing a change in circumstances resulting in frustration and pressure, people seem to take control of their lives by taking action and returning to learning. Rae (2015) maintains that this 'taking control' includes working to achieve social recognition to contradict those people who doubted the person's ability; for example, L14 was said to be unproductive by his family, resulting in his becoming determined to prove that he was capable of achieving a productive life by re-engagement with learning. This is also reflective of Boshier and Collins' work (1985) on social contact perspectives, which suggests that adults sometimes participate in learning in order to improve their relationships and social position. A lack of certain cultural capital affects individuals' social mobility in relations with income, employment, level of education with the society (Bourdieu, 1990).

### **6.2.2 Unemployment and Career Change**

Four of the study's participants reported precariousness in their employment, with three others reporting the need for career change due to health issues or the need for job security. The participants reported unemployment as a major triggering event for their return to learning. They talked about the effects of unemployment, the desire for a career change, the need for job security and the need to avoid an employment situation that exposes the participants to serious health challenges. The social context of this study was surrounded by a high unemployment rate among young adults, as discussed in Chapter 1 (See CBN, 2010; NBS, 2014). Four participants reflected on the challenges of unemployment as a trigger for learning, as exemplified below:

It was just disturbing... I wasn't really doing anything; not continuing with my studies and not getting my dream job... I was in a dilemma looking for a way out of my situation... I joined this institution not because of learning entrepreneurship skills alone, but also wanting the opportunity to continue with learning to support and secure my future (L1).

L1 further added:

It was awful. I attempted to enrol into the Nigerian army three times and into other sectors, but still could not secure employment... if you have good thinking skills; you need to look for alternatives (L1).

The quote suggests the extent to which unemployment can unsettle participants. The impact of unemployment made life difficult for these young adults. This seems to be caused by an inherent social norm of corruption, neglect of indigenous knowledge, trade, and skills, lack of appreciating people's experiences as well as nepotism. For example, Chapter 1, section 1.1.2 noted the causes of unemployment (Dally and Marks, 2014; Eichhorst *et al.*, 2015; Fryer and Stambe, 2014; Feliksiak, 2010; Maguire *et al.*, 2013; National Bureau for Statistics (NBS), 2010; Qayyum and Siddiqui, 2007). I argued that the decolonisation of education might help improve opportunity for young adults to engage in other sectors of the economy. L10, who was from a rural area, highlighted the struggle for employment and the effect of nepotism below:

The only option I thought available for me was to apply to the police. I couldn't secure a place in the police service because it is all about who you know and who can put you forward (L10).

L10 had raised the issue of influence of social status in securing employment but L10's situation was worsened by the loss of his parents:

It is an endless struggle for me. I lost my mother and then my dad in 2008. I had to consider the option of returning to learning so I could be self-employed (L10).

Participant's reflections indicate the loss of self-worth because of problems posed by unemployment. This was also reported by L14 who said:

No one respects you if don't have anything. You always feel so low and look for something that can help (L14).

This shows the effects of social context on the frustration experienced by young adults by reducing their self-esteem. These participants critically assessed their life situations and in doing so, took steps towards their liberation (Mezirow, 2009) by re-engaging with education. The participants frequently reported wanting to change poor life situations by returning to learning. L13 recounting:

I don't have anything to do and I am also from a poor background... I started thinking of returning to education for self-employment. I felt I had to find something to do as a matter of urgency. It is really working well for me now (L13).

This quote indicates the urgency the participant felt to move away from unemployment through learning that would involve participants provisionally trying out new roles and building up competencies.

Other participants reported displeasure with their precarious employment situations and show their desire for a change of career, as illustrated below:

I was working in a bread-making factory, earning very little and not having proper time off on a Saturday or Sunday. I didn't seem to have any future because I was not on a proper salary list... I earned only what I worked for, if absent for being sick I received no pay. Honestly, my parents were not happy with the situation and they forced me to rethink my situation. I totally agreed with their concerns... I had to look at other options (L16).

... I am working... actually I don't like my job. It is stressful... If I can have another job, I can depend on myself... I just feel I need to acquire a skill or skills ... especially the ones that can produce some product of my own and live an independent life (L8).

One can argue that social process (poverty and life conditions) rather than individuals create social challenges within the society (Bourdieu, 1992). This data indicates the stress, lack of security and possible health implications from a participant's job that serves as stimuli for learning. The personal experiences of the participants indicate the challenges of working longer hours with no social security and freedom. L8 is a graduate accountant who felt dissatisfied with his job and wanted another job that would give him free time and independence. In addition, L16 was unhappy with a job that subjected him to long working hours, no security and potential health problems. L16 believed that if he continued to work long hours, it would affect his health and so participation in education

could alleviate his situation and allow him to have a better job opportunity. Personal challenges (frustration, stress and fear) reported by the participants were complicated by the social norms (poverty, unemployment, lack of security and possible health challenges) within the social system (Bourdieu, 1992). This shows that the participants (young adults) take those challenges as ground toward engagement in learning to prevent health problems, whilst gaining independence and social security. There was a reasonable sense of self-empowerment among the participants to void structures that disempower them.

Participant L4, who holds a Diploma and BSc in Chemistry, reported:

It is not necessary for me to work in the government, and part of my reasons for the change was that I wanted to change career from chemistry to agricultural science (L4).

This data indicates that there are no specific characteristics of people that are not affected by unemployment - they can be poorly or well-educated. It seems that unemployment has a significant impact as a push factor for returning to education to different categories of people. This analysis reflects that school leavers, university and non-university graduates are all affected by the challenges of unemployment.

### **6.2.3 Quest for Learning**

Quest for learning refers to the interest and curiosity to willingly learn for its own sake (Boshier and Collins, 1985; Mezirow, 2009). The data in this study reveals evidence of a quest or love for learning as a motivating factor in some of the current learners' participation and engagement in learning. Some participants reported learning new skills as being their passion, as well as the need to be up-to-date or for specialising in another field, as shown below:

I just decided to find something to do with my time before I started my National Service, which is expected of every graduate. I already have a passion for learning new things, and that's why I am learning these new skills. I truly believe it is very important that what you do for a living is something you like and are passionate about (L15).

You know I am always interested in learning new skills! I never miss any opportunity for learning. I have been excited to learn throughout

my schooling life, and so this has prompted me to re-join learning at this level after graduation from university (L4).

These quotes indicate the participants' interest in learning new skills because of passion for learning. For example, L15 noted she was, 'passionate about learning', whilst L4 indicated her, 'love for learning' as the reason for her returning to school. Moreover, L1 indicates that he returned to learning because, 'learning supports and secures a future.' As Cross (1991) maintained there are never just one reason for an adult's participation in learning. Some of these participants have mentioned others reasons - quest for learning is also one of them. Other participants revealed an interest in learning as a motivating factor for returning to school, as demonstrated below:

I was a local tailor earning very little, but contented. You see, I am from a local village and I thought of learning new skills to keep myself up-to-date because you never know the condition you will find yourself in in the future in the absence of modern skills. I am always interested in learning and that really promoted my interest to specialise in different areas (L7).

This quote indicates the participant's love for learning that also helps keep him up-to-date within his immediate environment. It also indicates the need to specialise in a particular area of learning. The participant was from a rural area, had obtained a Diploma in Social Development and was still interested in further learning. Another participant suggested that his love for learning and being enterprising was sparked by innate interest and motivation by others' success stories:

I realised in the early stages of my life that I was enterprising and I was interested in learning technical skills. When I was in secondary school, I spent my holidays learning auto-mechanical skills in a garage close to my house. The story of other people's successes helped me develop interest in this programme because I saw it as an avenue through which I could follow my love for being enterprising (L11).

This participant's motivation is his love for learning for its own sake and the successes of others. This is reflective of Boshier and Collins' (1985) cognitive interest or learning-oriented model, along with Mezirow's (2009) universal dimensions of rationality and adult understanding of the influences for transformation. Boshier and Collins' (1985) model suggests that adults seek knowledge for its own sake to satisfy an enquiring mind, which resonates with

Mezirow's (2009) ubiquitous dimensions of rationality and adult understanding of transformational influences. This theory suggests the need for some adults to learn for its own sake, which is reflective of participant L11's comment.

#### **6.2.4 Community Service and the Fulfilment of Dreams**

Some participants were motivated to learn by their aspiration to serve their community and fulfil their dreams. These dreams included becoming an entrepreneur, helping others to learn and wanting to make a difference in other people's lives. These factors are motivating factors for returning to learning, as exemplified below:

I wanted to fulfil my dream of becoming a professional photographer running and maintaining my own enterprise (L15).

I love to learn new skills. It is my desire and interest to help others to succeed. I have a dream of establishing a women's centre within the community to support women... especially less privileged ones, and that's why I'm here (L4).

Apart from learning to be independent, I am just interested in helping others! It is part of my dream because as a graduate of Accounting with a Postgraduate Diploma in Islamic Banking and Finance, I will be able to make a difference in other people's lives (L8).

L15 indicated her longstanding dream of becoming an entrepreneur even though she holds a BSc English Literature, wanting to become a professional photographer. Other participants such as L4 and L8 indicated their desire to become entrepreneurs coupled with their wish to help others to learn. L2 stated that as a representative of his community, he would, 'extend the same learning opportunities to those who are not able to be here.'

The participants' need to provide community services to help others to learn and make a difference resonates with Boshier and Collins' (1985) community service model. Their model illustrates adults' quest to become effective citizens capable of providing community service to people, as expressed by participants L4 and L8. This data accords with aspects of both Mezirow's (2009) and Rae's (2015) models of motivation to participate in learning, in which adults plan to take a course of action by acquiring knowledge and skills to fulfil their life dreams.



### **6.2.5 Summary**

The data reveals multiple reasons for the study's participants returning to learning, and these can be summarised, as economic and social reasons, reducing frustration and boredom of examination failures, unemployment, quest for learning and community service. From this study, it was noted that no one participant has a single motive for returning to education. The participants, motivated by poor economic situations, tended to be across all genders and there was only a little difference between the well-educated and the low educated ones. The participants who stressed the quest for learning and fulfilling life dreams tended to be well educated, with the exceptions of L2 and L11 who were secondary school leavers from rural areas. The participants that were distressed by economic situations caused by divorce are women and they were also indirectly motivated by the success of their friends. There was group of participants who had three motivations. These include a career change, a quest for learning and community service. This data reflects a number of theories including those from Mezirow (2009) on perspective transformation, Rae's (2015) entrepreneurship capability learning model and Boshier and Collins' (1985) six models of motivation for adult participation in learning.

## **6.3 Reflections on the Effects of Prior Learning Experiences**

The data reveals a range of feelings from the participants about their educational experiences before they attended the YCV Institute. Many of the participants described negative prior learning experiences that they claimed impeded their confidence, self-esteem, and capacity for practice. The data reveal three overriding themes within these prior learning experiences: (1) stressful experiences; (2) overcrowded learning situations; and (3) the imposition of sanctions.

### **6.3.1 Stressful Learning Experiences**

A stressful learning experience is any which is considered a threat to self-adequacy, autonomy and the inclusion of students in a learning process (Aherne, 2001). Many of the participants reported previous stressful learning experiences

that they claimed had impeded their levels of confidence, self-esteem and capacity to practice, as revealed below:

My previous learning was based on theories with no opportunity for practice. It was very stressful because you were subjected to long hours of learning by just listening to teachers. You always were scared of self-expression and opportunity was not available (L7).

I honestly don't know what was obtained from my prior learning in terms of teaching and learning facilities. You will feel like you don't know anything ... it was boring (L13).

The quotes above suggest that these participants had difficult learning experiences that were characterised by teacher domination and control, and a lack of opportunity to practice what was being learned. This data supports Freire's (1993) description of teacher-dominated learning. Further evidence revealed that many participants' prior learning experiences were boring, as exemplified below:

.... in my past experience of learning, I was irritated and bored sitting down listening to the teacher; I realised I always became happy if the teacher did not come to class ... (L9).

I always remember my prior education. I felt unhappy learning because it was just boring and stressful, and many of us were discouraged from learning (L11).

These quotes suggest that the boring nature of prior learning situations discouraged some students from learning. This resonates with Freire's (1993) idea of 'banking' education, which makes students docile and mere recipient of facts from a 'knowledgeable' source (i.e. a teacher).

Participants also reported that they did not feel they had the right to question the teachers, with participant L4 reporting that:

In my previous programme, it was just reading and reading. You were reading for tests or exams and you just got bored... you know sometimes you didn't have the courage to ask questions (L4).

Freire (1993) maintains that teachers who spoon-feed students whether knowingly or unknowingly are disempowering their students. The data reported by L9, L11 and L4 reflects that boredom in learning does not allow students to

gain in confidence or engage in practice. L4 is a university graduate, but the learning processes she experienced at all levels were that of domestication, a situation when learning is used to control students and it discourages independent thinking and self-discovery. As a result, domestication transforms students into people with lack of self-confidence, initiative and creativity as such they can easily be manipulated (Freire, 1993). Such experiences are antithetical to Freire's (1993) assertion that meaningful learning involves engaging students in critical thinking, alongside the quest for mutual harmonisation between learning and practical application. L6 reported that:

I wasn't serious about learning and wasn't confident in the past! I just finished with poor results because I did not have good support or guidance from my teachers (L6).

Freire (1993, p.75) maintains that for students to achieve confidence, curiosity and critical thinking skills, teachers must be their partners in learning; and this was notably not reflected in this study's participants' prior learning experiences.

### **6.3.2 Overcrowded Learning Situations**

The data in this study reveals that most of the participants experienced learning in overcrowded spaces, as illustrated below:

When I recall my previous experience as a technology student, I would be told lots of facts but we didn't practice. The equipment was not there and there were over a hundred students in a class. It was discouraging and easy to lose interest (L2).

... Entrepreneurship courses from the university classes were overcrowded with too many students and the content of learning were all theoretically based (L8).

These quotes suggest that overcrowded learning situations affect practice, discourages learning and results in learners losing interest in their learning activities. In addition, overcrowded classrooms might have implications for the achievement of the objectives of education such as the fulfilment of human rights, self-esteem, empowerment, social well-being, leadership, and critical spirit (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, (NERDC), 2013, Nigeria-UNESCO, 2012), as seen in Chapter 5. Overcrowded learning experiences are antithetical to the active mode of teaching adult. The qualitative findings of Epri

(2016) revealed that an overcrowded class is stressful for both students and teachers, increasing teachers' workload and impacting students' self-esteem, educational values, practice and academic achievement. This is reflected in participant L8's comment:

I was never given a chance to practice as our classes were always overcrowded with no equipment for practical purposes, and it really affected our confidence and success (L8).

The quote suggests the effects of overcrowded class on students' development of confidence and academic achievement.

### **6.3.3 Imposition of Sanctions by Teachers**

Imposition in education is when teachers dictate and decide everything for their learners, as propounded in Freire's (1993) idea of 'banking' education. A number of participants reported imposition of sanctions during their previous learning without any concern for how learning might build their capabilities in the future, as revealed below:

You see, it is a contrast with my previous school where the teachers were making learning difficult by imposing sanctions and not appreciating our experiences in any way. I got a little discouraged with that learning process (L1).

You just do things in the ways you are directed to. You end up not making any moves for your own good (L8).

... my prior experience with learning wasn't so great because you would just be given notes without caring how that would help you in the later part of your life (L14).

One of the consequences of the 'banking' approach is that learners do not develop self-confidence or critical thinking skills. For example, L9 recounted that:

In the past I didn't have the confidence to talk in public because I was always scared of being shouted at or of saying something that would attract attention to me (L9).

L3 reported that:

...the nature of learning in my previous school was totally different. You would just be told what to do! It was very difficult to have confidence on your own (L3).

A number of participants showed awareness and appreciation of their current pedagogy in building a real application of their learning experiences. An illustrative example of such appreciation is from L14:

I think this is where this programme distinguishes itself. We are respected as learners, and in my previous learning this was so different! We were always told what to do (L14).

... the group activity here gives you a kind of fresh air (L9).

The participants acknowledged how boring it was to be subjected to learning based on abstracts ideas that had no relevance to their life or practice. As reported by L3 and L9, impositions in learning resulted in making students lack confidence in their abilities. This data resonates with Freire's (1993, p.73) idea that the more students accept a passive role imposed upon them, the more 'they tend simply to adapt to the world as it is'. Presumably, the implication of depositing knowledge in students is a subsequent lack of their ability to think critically and consciously. This will be a subject of further research, especially examining the effect on banking education in disempowering students.

In contrast to the previous learning experiences reported by participants L14 and L8, their current courses have given them a new perspective on education because of the use of innovative teaching and learning processes. Such new approaches have given these participants the opportunity to practice and apply their learning so they can then take part in real life activities.

The next section presents students and instructors narratives and perspectives on the role of teaching and learning processes in the development of LLL skills at the YCV.

## **6.4 Pedagogies: Student and Instructor Perspectives on Approaches of Teaching and Learning that Promote LLL Attributes**

This section presents data from students' (current learners, coded L1-L16) and instructors' (teachers, coded T1-T5) perspectives of teaching and learning approaches that promote LLL attributes (entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills) amongst young adult learners. The analysis of this data reveals the importance of practice, group learning, student learning experiences and institutional influences in promoting LLL skills. However, the data reveals limitations to the pedagogical approaches used by the teachers (as perceived by the students) in the development of certain LLL skills. Five overriding themes from this data emerged as shown in Table 6.2 below:

**Table 6-2 Pedagogical influence on the development of LLL skills**

<b>Summary of the Main Themes and Sub-Themes</b>	
<b>Main Themes</b>	<b>Sub-Themes</b>
Pedagogy and practice	Learning through practice Group learning/mutual engagement Valuing of students' experience Limitation of pedagogy
Informal and learning from others	Experience of fellowship Mentoring
Students' perspective on motivators of learning	Personal and environmental factors Role of motivation Flexible instructional media
Institutional influence	Rigid or non-flexible regulations Competition/financial support Free education and limited choices
Expression of interest in further learning	Positive learning and interaction Self-discovery

The current learners' and instructors' perspectives on teaching and learning in the promotion LLL skills as outlined above address research question three.

#### **6.4.1 Pedagogy and Practice in the YCV: Perceptions of Teaching and Learning through Practice, Group Activities and Experiences**

Pedagogy refers to the methods, activities and practice of teaching. This involves processes that inform the strategies, actions and judgements of teachers. The data in this study revealed evidence of the positive impact of the pedagogical practice as it relates to students' self-confidence, love for learning and capacity for practice. The previous section (6.3) reported that the prior learning experiences of participants involved pedagogical practices that threatened self-adequacy, self-confidence, autonomy and practical application of learning due to a teacher-centred learning approach. The participants reported that their new experiences of learner-centred pedagogy improved their self-determination, confidence and application of learning. They reported that their improvement was the result of learning through practice, group learning and student-centred learning processes. However, some participants reported a perceived limitation of the pedagogical approach in building academic rigor, creativity, problem-solving and financial management skills.

## Learning through Practice: Students' Perspectives

Participants indicated that learning through practice was highly valued. All participants shared a belief that this shaped their engagement and passion for learning. They reported that learning by doing an activity gave them opportunities for practice, built their confidence and helped them to enjoy their learning. The students were happy and confident when given a chance to apply their skills, as the following quotes indicate:

Our teachers gave every one of us the chance to practice what was taught. I came to understand what I'd learned far better... we were happier and more confident (L15).

I would say the major thing that removes my fear is the opportunity for constant practice of what is learned. I believe our teachers are doing their best (L2).

One thing that I appreciate is the opportunity for one to practice and demonstrate his or her skills... the constant practice makes me perfect my skills (L8).

The analysis of data revealed practical engagement and opportunities to practice learning built learner confidence, removed fear, perfected learning skills and served as a powerful motivation for self-directed learning. One participant, L4, reported that instead of teaching approaches that promote:

... just talking without practice, it is better to learn those things that you can practically apply... it gave me so much courage to search for things that are beneficial on my own (L4).

Another student, L3, revealed that her confidence, self-direction and capacity for supporting others had improved:

... with my capacity especially in the practical application of skills and ideas... I am more confident now. I can do things by myself and I always try things without guidance... there are university students that came here for practical attachments and we have been teaching them computer applications. I think if I hadn't been given these opportunities by the teachers, how could I have improved and even supported others who are just good in theories but not so confident in applying these (L3).



These quotes illustrate the learners' opportunities to practice and apply skills and ideas develop their sense of confidence, self-direction, and their desire to help others learn. The students' perception of practical teaching offers useful insight into the role of practical pedagogy in helping students learn and develop an interest in learning and practice. This resonates with Wenger (1998), who argues that real learning is about the engagement of students in meaningful practice through a pedagogy that enhances participation, action, discussion and sharing. All the participants regardless of their gender, age and qualifications, acknowledged the impact of practical learning in shaping their confidence, self-direction and participation in learning.

### **Learning through Practice: Instructors' Perspectives**

All five instructors confirmed the positive effects of their teaching through practice in building students' capacities for teamwork, confidence and self-direction, and capacity for displaying their learning abilities. Instructor T4 revealed that they used practical teaching strategies as they were the best way to stimulate students' participation in learning. T4 recounted that:

I believe practice gives students hope and more motivation in learning to be independent learners. Everyone uses real practice in their teaching here (T4).

In addition, instructor T3 stated:

The students always have diverse experiences through practice and teamwork. They get the benefit of learning and sharing, and I also learn from that (T3).

The above findings were supported by T2 and T5, as revealed below:

I discovered that practical skills gave students opportunities to showcase their talents and ideas... they create opportunities for learning and engaging in different sets of ideas (T2).

I always assess my students through practical work. It is usually at an individual's level and I believe that has helped them to do something without me being there (T5).

These quotes suggest a belief amongst the instructors' that the use of a practical pedagogy influences levels of learners' confidence, creativity, self-direction and

sense of teamwork with the underlying goal being to find solutions to problems.

T1 reported that:

I discovered the more effort I put in encouraging practice, the more confident the students became in solving issues without me (T1).

In addition, T3 added,

I can see from the eyes of the students' their joy in having the opportunity to practice. This is always my teaching strategy, and not only for me but for the whole school (T3).

The changes reported amongst the students as a result of learning-by-doing practices were confirmed by the teachers' observations. The participants (instructors and students), as noted above, all frequently talked about the importance of practice in increasing confidence (L3), self-direction (L4), sharing (L15) and the opportunity to take part in teamwork (T3). The data is consistent with a previous study (Cornford and Gunn, 1998) that indicates graduates manifest knowledge and skills of learning-to-learn through rigorous engagement in practical work in occupational careers learning.

### **Limitations of pedagogy**

Whilst the above data suggests that the pedagogical process used by the Institute is strong in building desired learning characteristics (confidence, self-direction, sharing and teamwork) along with the ability to apply skills being learned. However, some data collected suggests that a curriculum underpinned by such pedagogy is considered by some to be weak. This was illustrated by some comments from students and instructors, with one student reporting:

Well teachers allowing us to practice on our own does not really help us to build our academic capacity to learn to read academic stuff. Yes, I know academic lessons are happening, but I feel not enough (L2).

He thought that the approach being used in the Institute might not help those interested in further academic learning, further noting that:

All the teachers are doing is giving you the skills of the actual craft (L2).

L2's suggestion that the Institute's pedagogy does not sufficiently build students' academic learning instead supports craftsmanship or technical expertise through learning by practice. This was also noted L4 and L15, as demonstrated below:

... as I have said, this place I think is meant for the acquisition of skills, so it doesn't concentrate on academic things or things other than practical craft activities. I know there are lectures with projectors and everything, but the teachers give more emphasis on practice (L15).

... They (instructors) just give you the craft skills and you will be left with friends to practice (L4).

In fact, most of the instructors confirmed that they do not engage students in rigorous academic activities because of the backgrounds of their students, for example:

... You just cannot handle them like university students or secondary school students because of their diversity... We don't take subjects that promote complex academic drills. I always present learners with practical skills of learning - operationally doing the real skills (T1).

I don't engage them in formal reading and writing activities except where necessary; the dominant activity is practical learning (T2).

The quotes suggest that some participants observed that learning by practice alone was unsatisfactory because of inadequate provision for academic learning. It seems the curricula were designed to try and accommodate the diversity of the participants but were predominately addressing the learning needs of those with little exposure to formal education. This suggests there is a lack of balance between theory and practice at the Institute, which affects the development of certain skills. This data is in contrast with Freire's (1993) belief that, 'We must not negate practice for the sake of theory... to negate theory for the sake of practice ... is to run the risk of losing oneself in the disconnectedness of practice' (p.19). Indeed, some of the participants reported that learning through practice was solely aimed at the acquisition of craft skills rather than management and entrepreneurial skills. This as narrated by L5 will affect applying entrepreneurial skills:

... It difficult to start, apply and sustain entrepreneurship businesses. We have the craft skills, but not the business skills (L5).

L2 reported that

I was never taught the skills of sourcing funds to establish a small-scale business or how to develop a business proposal (L2).

He added that:

It would be a good idea to integrate the teaching of management skills in the programme (because)... many young... have the skills but cannot manage them, and establish a business but can't sustain it (L2).

The data indicates the inadequacy of a practical pedagogy in promoting risk taking, gathering resources, flexibility, innovation or enterprising skills. Further evidence from student L7 reported that:

None of our teachers have ever taught us how to develop an activity! I am right to say we were never introduced to the process of seeking loans from banks to set up business. I was not really actively show how to do that and I don't know how to do it (L7).

A practical pedagogy does not translate automatically to the acquisition and application of entrepreneurial skills, and this is evidenced by L2's and L7's remarks. This data does not reflect the outcomes of a study by Rae and Carswell (2000) that learning-by-doing builds learner experience and entrepreneurial attributes. However, it was noted certain skills such as financial management, risk taking, gathering resources, flexibility, innovation and enterprising skills were grossly inadequate, and this could account for this study's outcomes in comparison to those of Rae and Carswell (2000).

### **Issues on Entrepreneurship, Budgeting/Finance and Life Skills**

Data from interviews with instructors reflects a lack of structure and understanding of the concept of entrepreneurship amongst the instructors. One instructor, T2, a Higher National Diploma (HND) holder in Hospitality Management, said:

I wish I had taken an entrepreneurship course. I only provide guidance to my students through discussions of entrepreneurial venture techniques (T2).

A female instructor, T3, said that there was no documented way of promoting management skills from the programme and reported that:

... they only come in the form of advice (T3).

Comments from another instructor indicated the teaching style he adopted to promote creativity, innovation and problem solving skills.

... I include three things in my teaching style to promote entrepreneurship skills. I give priority to the development of students' reasoning capacity to understand the best way to handle situations as they occur. I always throw open challenges to my students by creating scenarios to sort out - that creates the desire for discussion, creativity and innovation; secondly, I believe in improvisation ... to create alternative ideas ... The entrepreneurship skills are good with the opportunity for practice because we are always making, creating and modifying in the real world (T1).

T1's views are reflective of European Commission's (2016b) perspective of entrepreneurship as a way of developing students' skills and mind-sets to creative ideas and turn them into actions through reasoning and improvisation.

Another instructor viewed entrepreneurship skills as business activities, when she reflected that:

We teach them the art of making dye, shampoo ... perfumes as things to venture into. If you just lecture them without giving them a trade, it is a problem (T5).

These quotes reflect the divergence of views amongst students and instructors on what the programme does to promote entrepreneurship skills amongst participants. It seems that the programme has no clear established structure for the promotion of entrepreneurial skills, as reported by instructors T5, T3 and T2. It appears that instructors are doing all they think they can to help students acquire these skills, but there is inconsistency in this, which perhaps accounts for the differing views of students, instructors and management officials on the programme's promotion of entrepreneurial skills. This perceived deficiency was consistent across all the participants regardless of their gender, qualifications or socio-economic backgrounds.

Relationships with banks are illustrative in this regard. Some participants (L4, L9 and L16) reported that bankers approached them via the school management to open accounts with them. For example, L9 explained that,

... they (*the tutors*) did not give us any knowledge on how to secure loans but some bankers came via the management to show us the importance of opening an account (L9).

This was confirmed by L16 who said:

Marketing people from a bank were here and they asked us if we were interested in opening an account (L16).

Another student made similar comments:

We are yet to be introduced into that. Everything is built within the programme but seeking a loan from banks or in-depth management training isn't (L4).

The quotes indicate the deficiency of the programme in teaching participants the process of establishing an independent business activity, such as securing capital from bank. Officials at the Institute, as seen in Section 6.3.3, also noted this.

Despite the absence of a structure for entrepreneurship qualities, some entrepreneurial skills were developed, had an impact and were positively noted amongst some participants. Participants, who perceived having experienced some changes in this regard, said that their training had helped them to establish small-scale businesses and had been able to train others. For example, L8, who also holds a BSc Accounting and Postgraduate Diploma in Banking and Finance, reported that:

I trained my wife and she is teaching others. At home she makes shoes, handbags ... and we are making an income out of it.... I have achieved lot even before completing the programme (L8).

Moreover, L4, who is a graduate of BSc Chemistry, noted that she had learned about, 'cost maintenance as a way of preventing loss.'

L6's comments (a secondary school leaver) suggest the gain of marketing, opportunity taking, financial management and risk taking skills:

I always advertise my services at events and I am making a lot of sales from the services of cakes and eateries (L6).

L8, L4 and L6 demonstrated entrepreneurial characteristics, whilst other students were hopeful and confident that they could establish entrepreneurial activities to train others in their communities. For example, L1 reported:

If I am lucky, I will establish a computer business enterprise to be self-reliant and train other people within my locality... I am confident I can use the opportunity.

L2 reported that:

I will extend the same learning opportunities to those who are not able to be here.

Comments from other students also showed that they perceived significant improvement in their ability to demonstrate characteristics such as innovation, creativity and confidence. These are seen as prerequisites to being entrepreneurial (European Commission, 2016b; Meredith, Nelson, and Neck, 1982; Tiernan *et al.*, 1996; Vyakarnam, 2009).

L11 reported that:

I am never being more satisfied and confident than when I am learning these skills. I think it goes down with time and I will use my personal initiatives to modernise it (L11).

He further mentioned that:

I believe the course has increased my initiative capacity (L11).

L3 reflected that she was ready for work:

This programme has really prepared me for job and life challenges! ... as I am talking to you there is an organisation that's waiting for my certificate to offer me a job; they have interviewed and challenged me, and have found I can work effectively (L3).

L9 reported:

Yes, I am confident I will be training people within my community, and I will advertise my activities by engaging in charity activities in order to have a steady flow of business activities (L9).

However, these comments are tempered by some participants expressing concerns about financial constraints in starting up entrepreneurial activities, with L7 noting concern about limited ‘resources to start up something.’

The comments seem to indicate that the lack of structure in the teaching of entrepreneurship resulted in different interpretations of the concept by the instructors, perhaps to the detriment of their students. The majority of instructors’ views reflect a neoliberal economic perspective of entrepreneurship as a business initiative of profit-making ventures (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999). Arguably, this perspective might be the cause of increase in inequality and poverty. The analysis indicates that despite the lack of a clear curriculum for teaching entrepreneurial skills, some participants still expressed their desire to finance and market their goods. However, only a minority of the participants demonstrated the acquisition of marketing and problem-solving skills.

Overall, the data provide evidence of lifelong learning attributes that can be achieved by learning through practice, and these are set out in Table 6.3 below:



**Table 6-3 LLL Characteristics promoted by learning through practice**

Characteristics	Frequency
Opportunity to practice	24
Confidence	17
Self-direction	15
Application of skills and ideas	15
Helping others to learn	14
Sharing of ideas	11
Sense of team work	10
Creativity	7
Motivation	7
Love of learning	5
Opportunity for engagement	3
Financial management	2
Innovation	2
Opportunity to showcase talent	2
Risk-taking	2
Independent learning	1
Enhance learning skills	1

As shown in Table 6.3 as evidenced by interview, some attributes are inconsistent across the participants. Analysis indicates that financial management, risk taking and innovation skills were only demonstrated by participants who were already university graduates when they started the course.

### **Group Learning and Mutual Engagement**

Learners' reflections on the teaching and learning approaches they experienced confirmed their perceptions of role group activities in building team spirit, cooperation, and confidence, sharing and networking. Many of the participants positively reported the role of group learning in their engagement and development of certain characteristics with L4 reflecting that:

I knew no-one prior to engagement in this course, but through the group learning we had built extensive cooperation; we shared learning stuff and food... this built learning and cooperation... Such cooperation has resulted in learning how to share experiences with each other (L4).

L7 recalled that:

It gives us chance to support each other, especially wherever you feel you couldn't make it alone, and it gave me the opportunity to get ideas from others.

The participants also reported that by learning and sharing, the group helped learners to remain motivated. This is exemplified below:

...It was great in supporting my capacity for learning... I was thinking if all learning activities are organised around group activities, definitely nobody would be left behind... that has really increased my zeal for learning... the group learning gives a kind of fresh air... in the past, I could not express myself in front people let alone before a group of men and women, but now I can express myself and I can even argue with friends ... (L9).

Comments from two other students confirm this view:

... every one of us belongs to a particular learning group through which we have the chance to practice and share ideas... its really helpful in building team-work, confidence and the capacity to do things by ourselves (L10)

You always feel motivated and confident in your ability to demonstrate and discuss your understanding with a smaller group (L1).

These quotes illustrate how group-learning impact on students' team spirit, confidence, self-direction and passion for learning. In addition to building social cohesion, the approach generated a natural discussion within the learning environment, as suggested above by participants L9 and L1. This data supports Wenger's (1998) analysis that learning involves social relationships around 'mutual engagement', 'joint enterprise' and a 'shared repertoire' of practice, stories, resources and experiences. There was widespread agreement amongst the participants on the importance of interaction at a group level to promote learning.

The analysis further demonstrates the relevance of group learning, for example, L2 reported that he did not know how to operate a computer when he started the course:

I was empty-handed but now I have skills in computer application, appreciation, maintenance and networking, and I can present before anyone without fear (L2).

In addition, L4 explained that she had changed because:

In the past, I did not keep anything for my personal records, but now I always keep reflective notes of our group activities for future reference (L4).

L3, who had previously wanted to study Accounting at university but had done badly in her exams, said that:

Whoever comes to learn here will definitely change. I am better in terms of knowledge and learning. I have learned to engage in extra learning activities with confidence (L3).

Another student reported:

I will take with me the benefit of being part of a group of people who participated and obtained knowledge and skills with a changed attitude (L1).

The quotes suggest that the participants' positive attitude towards and confidence in learning had come about because of engagement with their peers in group activities. Previous research by Kuijpers, Meijers and Winters (2009) confirms that dialogue between students in group activities that are career-related promotes competencies such as interaction, teamwork and sharing. See Freire (1993) and Wenger (1998) on the impact of dialogue on the promotion of unity and team spirit. Previous studies that examined the impact of group learning include Kraft (1985) and Vrioni (2011). Vrioni's study found that stimulate students' engagement, transfer of knowledge, knowledge retention, academic achievement and motivation for further study (See Chapter 2).

However, one student had reservations about its positive effects:

... though the teaching and learning give enough time for practice and sharing of ideas in groups, a few dominate discussions and this puts others at a disadvantage (L2).

The quote suggests the possibility of some participants dominating discussion group to the detriment of others' participants. This perhaps might suggest insufficient supervision or inadequate training in managing groups, with these possibly affecting students' acquiring skills. This result confirms a previous quantitative study with EFL undergraduate students in the English department in the College of Basic Education in Kuwait by Taqi and Al-Nouh (2014), who found

that dominance of one member in group learning affects other students' motivation, interest and subsequently academic achievement. This is reflected in L6's comment that:

I always get discouraged if we are left on our own to learn, especially because none of the instructors are around to say if we are doing the right thing or not.

Nihalani *et al.* (2010) found that grouping students might be detrimental to overall team achievement if there is a discrepancy between higher performing students and less performing ones. L16 interestingly commented:

I was very uncomfortable learning with others (L16).

This, however, has to be considered against the background of L16 having been forced to study by his parents.

Despite these comments by learners, the instructors overall felt there was value in-group learning in the promotion of learning attributes. They observed that over the time of their teaching, they had seen remarkable changes among their students. For example, T3 (a former student employed to teach in the catering department) was aware that male students were sometimes embarrassed at being in the catering department because they perceived it as a 'female' work domain. This demonstrates how culture impacted on stereotyping of some selected courses to be seen as women's activity. This might limit the opportunity for learning of men to excel in different areas of interest. This shows that cultural issues do not only affect women within Nigerian society as speculated by Bourdieu (2001) it also affects men. It has an implication for both genders.

Nevertheless, T3 reflected that because instruction was based around group activities, the male students interacted freely and confidently. Such a positive effect of group activities was also endorsed by T1:

I would always like to see how someone was able to handle a specific task assigned to him (sic) alone or in groups. You see, not all individuals like to be pointed at and asked to do things. But I notice by consistently doing it, confidence is built, and you start to see

volunteers... it does help. It allows the practice of self-assessment... and that involves thinking (T1).

These quotes suggest the importance of group activities in helping passive students' foster positive attitudes to their learning. It also helps to challenge certain cultural and structural issues affecting gender in the learning process. Park's (2003) qualitative study found that engaging passive students in learning stimulate positive attitudes such as being courage, empower, reflective, taking responsibility and voice in learning. This was shown in an earlier study by Kaft (1985) that group transforms passive learners into active learners. The impact therefore of the institute's pedagogy on its learners includes the rehabilitation and transformation of learners (T1); learners developing a capacity for networking and overcoming fear (L2); learning reflection (L4); and independence (L1). For example, T1 reported on the rehabilitative features of the approach:

.... a mum came to thank me for guiding her son. She was initially thinking no methods would make her son learn. According to her, right from his initial education he was a failure and didn't understand anything and he was also into drugs, but now he works to generate income and is even helping to train others.

The instructors also confirmed participants' enhanced confidence and change of learning attitudes, with T4 recounting that:

The learning groups helped build confidence and determination ... (they) learn things confidently and without fear (T4).

T2 believed that group learning is the basis of developing 'friendly manners' and 'interaction and tolerance' for would-be entrepreneurs, noting:

.... students engaging in entrepreneurship can get it wrong. Some are not friendly, and that is why we promote interaction and tolerance through our group activities (T2).

There seems to be a level of consistency in the impact of group learning activities, as reported by both learners and instructors. The Institute maximises group learning as 'basically 70% of the activities are practically based on using team work' (T3).

The following characteristics were noted as having been promoted through group learning:

Table 6-4 LLL characteristics promoted through group learning

Characteristics	Frequency
Team spirit	16
Confidence	16
Networking	8
Sharing	8
Capacity for practice	8
Interaction	5
Cooperation	5
Tolerance/friendly manners	4
Overcoming fear	3
Reflection	2

### **Valuing of experience as a basis for development of LLL Skills**

Student-centred learning shifts the focus in the classroom from teachers to students. The data in this study suggests that the student-centred nature of courses at the Institute indicates that learners are seen not just as recipients of knowledge, but also as contributors in the co-construction of knowledge. This is in line with Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2000) assumption that learning does not occur in a vacuum but is influenced by social constructivism principles. These involve teachers paying attention to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that learners bring into the classroom. These adult learning principles help students to make meaning by constructing knowledge with other students. Many of the participants of this study reported they were at the centre of their learning because their experiences were valued, and that this influenced their construction of meaning and subsequent development of skills. L3 recounted that:

We are treated as learners with experience ..., we can almost do everything by ourselves, and I feel confident to do it without anyone's support (L3).

L5 noting:

The feeling of being respected helps you to get involved at every level (L5).

Further comments also confirmed the impact of respecting learners' experience in meaning making, as demonstrated below:

Of course, our teachers appreciate our experience and that always give you the wisdom and courage for developing ideas and practical application of learning (L1).

... we are respected as learners and you feel confident because chances are always given to demonstrate your understanding and learning (L14).

You know if you are sharing your learning with friends, you will have the confidence to utilise the skills anywhere because you are sure you are doing the right thing (L15).

These quotes suggest learners' construction of meaning if given a full opportunity to share their experiences in the learning process. The participants of this study found that experience in sharing is helpful in developing understanding and meaning making. Vygotsky's (1978) seminal essay highlights "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the (student) is interacting with people in his (sic) environment and with his (sic) peers" (p. 90).

In addition, L8 indicates that acknowledging their importance in learning led to their confidence in implementing new skills:

From the experience I have had so far through the sharing of experiences with friends and teachers respecting our worth, I am currently operating at home confidently and making some income... if our experiences were not valued, we would not have this courage (L8).

The quotes demonstrate the importance of sharing and respecting learners' worth in order to give them the confidence to apply their skills. This confirms the findings of McCombs and Whistler (1997) who noted that learner-centred learning facilitates the development of new skills and their application in real life challenges. The data also supports Freire's (1993) argument that in no way does sharing and collaboration between students and teachers diminish the spirit of struggle, courage or capacity for learning. Moreover, the instructors' reflections in their interviews confirmed the importance of recognising learners' experiences when building their self-confidence, resilience and positive

attitudes to learning. They noted that this also helped them gain new insights, with T1 reporting that:

It has always been my practice to listen to students' contributions. Utilising learners' experiences is a great opportunity for multiple perspectives that can help build a concrete learning experience (T1).

One instructor reflected that

Respecting learners makes them have passion and love for learning (T2).

T4 reports:

That is right; we recognise learners' experiences, for example in doing practical activities we try to group those with more experience with those without experience in order to let them share ideas... it has been a great help (T4).

These quotes indicate recognising students' experiences can give them multiple perspectives on learning and ideas. However, the findings suggest a divergent view of appreciating learners' experience. It was also reported that allowing learners to share their experiences could distract a class session from its daily routine, as illustrated below:

For me, I always tell my students no matter their experience they should not interrupt my efforts, even if they see things differently from how they think they should be (T3).

This quote indicates a divergence of views regarding the relevance of experience in teaching and learning. This divergence of view might be explained in relation to the fact that no single reality exists but multiple realities, as seen in Chapter 4. It might be explained that T3 has a lower qualification and a few years of experience as an instructor than her colleagues. However, the students did not reflect this difference in approaches. The general belief from this data was that student-centred focus gave participants a sense of sharing, learning and meaning making with a view to help each other to learn.



## **6.5 Informal Learning from Other Networks**

Informal learning as a feature of LLL skills is the process of skill acquisition through day-to-day experiences and educative influences within the environment (Smith, 2002), as discussed in Chapter 2. This section presents data on the students' perceptions of the Institute's pedagogy in promoting informal learning in the form of fellowship amongst the participants. It also notes the role of mentoring in improving lifelong learning skills such as confidence, motivation and curiosity.

### **6.5.1 Experience of Fellowship and Learning from Others**

Fellowship is a community of interest, experience or friendly association with people who share a common interest. The data reveals that fellowship promotes an informal learning structure amongst the participants. The data indicates sharing, connections and collaboration amongst the participants to learn informally in order to achieve a common objective. This informal learning through fellowship was found to be an effective way of building confidence, collaboration and social interaction (See Chapter 2).

Fellowship was seen by some as a source of learning, with L2 reporting that he had increased his knowledge and confidence especially:

When my colleagues asked me to teach them (with) many (students) taking that for granted (L2).

Participants suggested the existence of features that are the essence of an informal network when reporting, 'sharing of experiences and to pick ideas from each other' (L1); 'learning from divergent groups and sharing things that you cannot do on your own' (L15); 'interaction and sharing of ideas' and building 'a cordial learning relationship' (L9).

Further evidence shows that the participants built a community of practice through online and informal grouping (See Lave and Wenger, 1991 in Chapter 3) to help each other to achieve learning objectives, as illustrated below:

... Interested in what we are doing and we have created a WhatsApp group through which we share new ideas that we find online. I find this helpful (L4).

... it helps to always learn and share ideas with your colleagues... we need each other; it helps in achieving our mission... we have great support for each other (L15).

The first thing that gave me confidence was the interaction and learning with peers outside of class... we share great times, laugh, argue and appreciate each other (L11).

Yes, learning from my colleagues have really formed part of my learning here because most of the activities are conducted in groups with friends sharing ideas and understanding... that has been quite useful to me ... (L10).

This corroborates the earlier findings on collaborative learning. The importance of dialogue and sharing of ideas amongst the participants was very clear as a source of promoting effective informal learning. Most of the participants agreed on the importance of sharing, peer coaching, collaboration and networking through social media in order to learn. The data indicates this binding process as being one of ‘mutual engagement’, ‘joint enterprise’ and ‘a shared repertoire’ of practices. This confirms Wenger’s (2011) analysis that contends individual and groups learn from interaction far beyond geographical location due to increased use of information media and the Internet. As indicated above, the students reported progress on their confidence resulting from interaction, networking and collaboration through informal interactions. The findings were consistent with the Li and Zhu’s (2009) quantitative study, which suggests the influence of social capital on informal knowledge transfer among individuals. Their finding revealed that social capital not only has a direct impact on informal knowledge transfer performance among individuals but also an indirect impact on informal knowledge transfer of opportunities, motivation and ability. This was reflected in the present study.

### **6.5.2 Mentoring**

Mentoring is guiding and training an unskilled person to become proficient and self-regulated through conversations and assigning tasks. With regards to mentoring, a few participants revealed that they were being mentored to teach and guide other students on industrial placements or university graduates on

national service. Participants frequently reflected that the mentoring process was important in building their learning capacities and confidence. L1 recounted:

We are mostly teaching the corpers (*new university graduates*) as part of their entrepreneurship training programme, and this increases our confidence (L1).

Further evidence from two other students reflected their motivation to become self-directed and responsible for others:

... When corpers come for Skills Acquisition Entrepreneurship Development, I am responsible for teaching them computer applications and appreciation... I felt uncomfortable in the beginning and that made me practice more and do further research in order not to mess-up (L2).

... we guide many of the university students on industrial training... they are good at theory but not at handling the different practical components. I feel motivated to learn to see the people I am guiding (L3).

These quotes suggest mentoring is a very good way to develop lifelong learning skills, with the changes reported by learners involving an improvement in levels of confidence, application of learning, curiosity and self-direction. A possible explanation for this is that most of the students who were mentored developed a high sense of achievement in their learning.

Moreover, two instructors confirmed their roles in mentoring and guiding students in order to develop learning competencies, as reported below:

I think there is no role that we don't play in helping the students to learn... we are counsellors, mentors and advisers! The interest is for them to learn the skills through sharing... I facilitated the sharing and assigning of specific tasks (T3).

I always ask students to demonstrate an activity before their colleagues to share experiences, and that has really promoted independent work and teamwork, because the expectation is that after graduation you will have to work on your own (T1).

These quotes indicate the instructors' awareness of the role of mentoring in promoting the learning capabilities of the participants. This finding was

consistent between the students and instructors. This resonates with Rae's (1999) framework that lifelong learners grow through learning from role models, mentors and associates.

## **6.6 Students' Perspective on Motivators of Learning**

This section presents data regarding motivation to learn. The data reveals that interest and motivation are important influences in learning. It reveals the significance of flexible instructional media (including the use of information media) and students' engagement in their development of curiosity, confidence and love of learning. The data also reveals that institutional influences such as rules and regulations, competition for financial support and free education are also motivators in the development of LLL skills.

### **6.6.1 Personal and Environmental Factors Influencing LLL**

The analysis of data reveals personal and environmental factors as an influence on the participants' development of LLL attributes. The themes that emerged from this data were personal factors such as interest, motivation and freedom of choice, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Knapper and Cropley, 2000) as well as environmental influences such as engagement, flexible language of instruction and the availability of instructional media.

Interest in learning is a personal motivator for learning. It was evident from the data that interest in learning has a strong influence on a student's development of lifelong learning skills, as illustrated below:

I am the one who is interested in learning the skills, so there is a difference between wanting something and doing it out of pressure or because someone is forcing you to do it... I brought myself here out of interest. I have to pay attention and endure all hardships because I want to learn (L15).

I am always interested in learning and I had to make a sacrifice to learn! When I made the decision after graduating from university to enrol... my mum was surprised because she knows I love sleeping in! (L4).

I realised at an early stage of my life, I was enterprising and interested in learning technical skills (L11).

The quotes suggest that interest is the key foundation for the achievement of lifelong learning attributes, with L15 noting that:

I have seen friends who were forced to study by parents, or someone not taking their learning seriously because there wasn't any interest or wish to do so (L15).

There was no difference in terms of gender, age, qualifications or socio-economic backgrounds of participants in showing interest in learning. It seems from the findings that this can be triggered by factors such as the desire for gainful employment or to help others succeed in their lives. For example, L5 reported that her interest in learning was motivated by her need for employment and economic security; L4 mentioned better leisure time, changing career and the need to support others, whilst L2 noted the need for self-employment and self-independence.

### **6.6.2 Use of external resources (internet and TV) to motivate learning**

The analysis reveals that those students who are motivated to use external resources such as the internet and TV are encouraged to be self-directed students. One of the attributes of lifelong learners is the appropriate use of sources of information to build learning. Analysis of the data revealed that those who use the Internet or television to explore their learning become motivated as illustrated below:

I always search online using my smart phone for new things ... I have downloaded so many recipes from the Internet using a simple browsing tool... and at home I watch cooking shows, I never miss them as I want to learn more (L4).

Yes, of course, I use the Internet to find a different brand of shoes from the UK and US websites... you know interest and motivation give me the drive to always search further to improve my practice (L8).

I always copy designs from the Internet in order to bring out the main pattern of the production... I had a very good smartphone to search online, but I no longer have that or access to the Internet ... I will soon find a very good phone and do this again to help me(L7).

From the quotes, the participants indicate that motivation derived from engagement in formal learning encourages them to become self-directed learners using a range of media resources including television and social media. This resonates with Ainoda, Onishi, and Yasuda's (2005) work that the capacity for self-direction depends on an individual's motivation and attitude to act autonomously in defining his/her learning mission by searching for relevant knowledge, as discussed in Chapter 2. However, it was noted not all the participants have access to smartphones or the Internet because of their socio-economic background or location, as revealed below:

I have never searched online because I am from a village and I don't have a phone that can browse, but some of my colleagues and instructors do search for things from the Internet (L11).

I am not using a smartphone to browse to learn more and create things ... (L5).

The quotes above show that whilst learners acknowledge the significance of the Internet in building their skills, this can be limited by their lack of access. As indicated by the NBS (2010), poverty and access to electricity are crucial constraints in Nigeria that impact on learning. These are major challenges to modern learning that might improve students' productivity within society. I argued that it is always difficult to teach students how to swim on the floor where there is no water and blame them for failing to swim, survive and win against predators in the race of real life. This might be the real cause of non-engagement of young adults in self-directed learning.

With regards to the use of the Internet as a source of learning, there was no evidence of how instructors encouraged its use amongst learners. Further, only one instructor was reported to have encouraged her students to watch television programmes to advance their skills, as demonstrated below:

I do encourage them to watch TV channels as a way of learning. I have really gone far in researching new ideas and techniques in catering activities by doing this, and even my Head of Department has asked me to share things with her. It is always great to search for new things online and many of my students are doing that (T3).

The quote suggests that there is little or no evidence of encouraging students to use other informal sources of information to learn. Overall, the elements mentioned above such as interest, motivation, encouragement, access and good economic situations were found to be a strong source of promoting self-direction amongst students. However, one can argue that the growing level of poverty and lack of infrastructure for learning might be the causes of lack of skills among young adults. It seems, the social conditions within the context is challenging, as Bourdieu (1984) maintained that individuals are agents within and their actions should not be seen as individual, but are dictated by the condition (social position) within the social system. The social conditions shows lack of access to information, poverty and infrastructural challenges within the context, which makes young adults (students) not have access to learning resources that might improve their lifelong learning skills (Folaranmi, 2007; Osuolale, 2014; Yusuf and Balogun, 2011, see section 1.1.1 in Chapter 1).

### **6.6.3 Flexibility in Teaching and Learning Approaches**

Analysis of the data suggests that flexibility in teaching and learning approaches are an effective source of motivation in the development of LLL skills. During the interviews, participants reported on the impact of the language of instruction and the availability of learning media in students' development of LLL skills. The participants' stories reveal the use of local language as a source of promoting curiosity, confidence and participation in discussion, as revealed below:

... the instructors used English as the language of instruction, but for making our understanding easier they translated learning into our local language (*Hausa*) and that gives motivation and makes learning easier (L2).

.... the instruction is mainly in English but because there were different participants with different language levels, the teachers translated discussions into Hausa to facilitate understanding of learning. It gives you confidence to express your views and contribute to discussions in your own language (L4).

... they are humble and down-to-earth to teach someone if they don't understand English. They teach in Hausa and if you don't understand the theory, they will teach you in practical ways to trigger learning (L15).

These participants suggest that the language of instruction is important for the development of learning. From the above, it seems that the use of a language that students find difficult to understand limits their participation in the classroom and subsequently their development of LLL skills. This confirms Lave and Wenger's (1991) assertion that learners' familiarity with the language used in the acquisition of skills and interactions with speakers helps students to be involved in their learning. This data also supports the findings of a quantitative study by Abdol Latif, Fadzil and Goolamally (2012) on the factors influencing the development of lifelong learning skills amongst students of the Open University in Malaysia. Their findings show that open learning as well as flexible delivery in teaching and learning encourages students to have an enhanced interest in continuing learning, self-confidence, self-resilience and maturity. It seems that a lack of flexibility in the medium of instruction might be the cause of young adult learners' disengagement from education and training, as reflected in Cross's (1991) barriers to lifelong learning. A lack of flexible learning strategies including the medium of instruction among many students in Nigeria might be a root cause for a lack of skills and subsequent lack of engagement in a productive life, as seen Section 6.3, which described the non-flexibility of teaching and learning in Nigeria.

Furthermore, there was evidence from the instructors that the language of instruction is a great source of learning support. T1 reported:

I discovered that you build a love for learning if you teach learners using their own local language... building skills using local languages makes learning great (T1).

Supporting instructional media were noted to be an important factor in the development of students' lifelong learning skills. For example, many of the participants suggested that the availability of instructional media supported their application of learning and practicing with confidence, as revealed below:

You know the availability of teaching equipment such as motion cameras, still cameras, projectors, laptops, desks and all the film and photography equipment supported my learning and the real application of experience (L15).

... there is learning equipment and that encourages us to learn (L2 student).



... they have all the necessary equipment and this equipment facilitate confidence and understanding in learning (L8).

The quotes suggest that the participants appreciate and acknowledge the impact of learning resources in building their learning. The data resonates with the finding of Abdol Latif, Fadzil and Goolamally (2012) that learning facilities including a digital library will help an institution produce graduates equipped with lifelong learning skills. Overall, the analysis revealed a number of skills such as confidence, curiosity, motivation, understanding and participation in discussions.

The data further reveals that a lack of effective instructional media in most of the educational institutions previously attended had had an adverse effect on graduates' confidence in their ability to apply skills. L2 recalled that:

When I recall my previous experience as a technology student, the equipment was not there to practice, so how can you be confident? (L2).

L3 and L8 also noted that:

You feel incompetent because you don't know how to use the equipment that should support learning (L3).

To be honest with you, as a former student of accounting I was never given a chance to practice in a computer laboratory. The classes were overcrowded and the equipment was not available (L8).

The quotes reflect the problem of low self-esteem among students especially when there is a lack of access to learning facilities that could build learning competencies. The lack of access to learning facilities is the same case in most of the government-owned educational institution. The reality created is that wealthy individuals within the society take their children to private schools where facilities are available and so that they might be better educated. These reflect that unequal distribution of cultural capital creates unequal power relations and unequal distribution of educational resources (Bourdieu, 1986). Thus, it creates social inequalities leading to the exclusion that affects young adults' level of education and development of LLL skills. These social and economic conditions create a structural injustice to the young adults from a low-income family in relation to education.

## **6.7 Instrumental Influences on the Development of LLL Skills at YCV**

The analysis of the data reflects instrumental influences on the learners' development of some LLL skills. The data indicate that rigid or non-flexible regulation, limited choices, the promise of free education, competition and financial support influences the students' development of certain lifelong learning attributes (time management, compliance and hardworking).

### **6.7.1 Rigid or non-Flexible Regulations**

Rules and regulations are designed to control or manage certain behaviours. The participants reported that there were rigid rules at the Institute that made them comply and work hard, as revealed below:

You have to come here on time. It is part of the regulations to be here for five hours from Monday to Friday, and failure to do so results in sanctions... this is not something new for me, but others fear losing their allowances (L15).

One has to respect time in this school because it might affect his or... her allowances for late coming or being absent without any concrete reasons... this has really helped coordinate the activities of many students (L2).

As these above quotes revealed, there are institutional rules that control and influence the behaviour of the participants in the development of specific lifelong learning attributes such as time management and compliance. The data further indicates that the students must to comply with certain rules and regulations of the institution, as illustrated below: Official 1 reported that:

We have our rules and regulations! The rules are the first things for the students to know over two week's deduction! If any students happened to violate or disagree or failed to comply with our conditions and regulations, he/she can be withdrawn or suspended depending on the magnitude of the violation.

These rules were followed by sanctions, as revealed in the data. For example, the instructors' comments illustrate as follows:

When students break our rules, they will not only be refused a resettlement package but may be denied the certificate. If one

consistently break school rules and regulations ... he/she will just be given a certificate of attendance or suspension or you have allowances deducted.... that has really made students be serious and avoid late coming or absence because they don't want their allowances to be deducted; you hardly see our students being poor timekeepers (T4).

... you have to respect the traditions that you meet here (T3).

No, there is no situation that we directly teach student time management, but as part of the regulations or rules here, you have to respect time otherwise you will have your monthly allowances deducted. Our students are conscious of time (T2).

This suggests the extent to which compliance and following rules are important in the school. These rules follow the students' development of certain attributes such as time management, compliance and hard work. The students complied with rules in order not to have their stipends stopped, as seen above. Presumably, this control mechanism might be the cause of low level of self-esteem among many young adults.

### **6.7.2 Competition through Financial Support**

Competition for financial support is a strategy employed by the Institution to motivate the students to learn and acquire skills, as exemplified in the instructors' comments below:

You know students are always encouraged to learn in order to financial support to start something after the completion of the programme. It really encourages competition to be among students (T1).

The idea of a resettlement package for the best 10 graduating students is to encourage competition and learning among the students (T2).

With the introduction of the best ten, I have noticed there is increasing competition among the students ... the management the opportunity to introduce more rules, which the students are always willing to comply with ... (T4).

All the instructors mentioned the financial support in promoting students' performance. These comments suggest that the students are being controlled through finance and incentives in order to develop certain lifelong learning skills. For example, the students' narratives suggest how they work hard to learn

in order to get financial support or maintain a place at the institution, as illustrated below:

I would say there is support for the ten best graduating students from each department to support them establishing a self-employed activity, and I wish to benefit from this and will just try to work hard so I don't miss the opportunity (L1).

I began to think how I could excel among all these students, even though my interest is to have the skills and not the gifts! I believe the skills will help me to be independent and creative. My belief is not in the reward but the skills... though it serves as a motivation to compete with my colleagues (L2).

My hope and prayer is to be in the best ten in order to establish a self-employed business activity... I'm working hard to earn do this (L5).

The quotes indicate the significance of incentives or financial support in promoting learning skills such as hardworking, perseverance, independent and creative. These also create competition amongst the participants with a view of being on top.

Although the strategies serve as a source of developing certain skills, however, as suggested by T1 and T2 it serves as a way of rewarding good conduct and sanction for bad conduct. It was also seen as a source of students' competing with each other.

However, the financial support as a strategy was noted to be problematic as some students attend the Institution simply to obtain the package with no intention of putting the actual skills into use. This is illustrated below:

There are a lot of students here who do not intend to become self-employed. Some of them are only motivated by the fact that after examination the top ten will get a gift. They only came here for the gift... It is the truth they only came for the gift (L15).

Well! It was a practice for some participants to attend the programme just to get the benefit of the allowance! I think it might do with poverty and unemployment (L6).

The quotes suggest that the financial support has become a source of misuse. It seems from these participants, poverty and unemployment might lead to anything.

These views were exemplified by were some instructors below:

You see the challenge is that some beneficiaries are selling out the package to the detriment of those who are willing to establish a small scale business activity (T4).

It is becoming problematic!!! Some bad eggs are abusing the financial support given to them! We now regulate everything based on students' performance (T5).

The data showed that the financial support could cause problems even though as suggested by the instructors measures were put in place to regulate everything. A possible reason for the abuse of the financial support might be the level of poverty that is prevalent in Nigeria.

### **6.7.3 Free Education and Limited Choices**

Free education provides support to students to undertake study without paying for registration fees, accommodation charges or food. The constitution of Nigeria (1999) and the NERDC (2013) indicate that formal and non-formal education at all levels should be provided free. The data shows that free education is practical but has created limited choices and spaces for the intake of students, as revealed below:

The only problem with the free education of the programme is you have no outright choice of course; you will just be offered an available space if you are lucky. The selection process is made by local government areas. Anything you don't have an interest in, you will not make much effort in (L1).

Because everything is free; it is not automatic that you will be offered the course you choose; you do not have that freedom of choice but you might be lucky to get your choice. I know many of my colleagues do not have their choice; for me I am happy I was offered computer science, which was my choice (L2).

The implication of this lack of choice is that some students might lose interest in learning. For example, L4 reported the problem of a lack of participants' freedom to choose the course of their choice. She said:

It is difficult sometimes if you are not offered the course of your choice! You see I discovered some of my friends' loose interest to learn these skills, but for me, I was offered my choice and that is why I am very optimistic about fulfilling my dreams (L4).

Honestly, the course wasn't my choice and I was not the one that secured admission ... my father did base on the options available to him. You feel a lack of interest but since you have no choice, you have to accept this (L9).

The quotes suggest that a lack of freedom of course choice affect students' interest in learning. The selection process outlined in the data is conducted by local government areas:

You see mostly admission is given through the Local Government Areas (LGA) and you have to follow the selection procedure. Only the lucky ones get admission into the school; yes, it is limited because of competition and it is limited to a specific number of students in each programme (L2).

Despite the lack of freedom of choice, some participants reported having been given their choices, for example, L2 and L4 above. Additionally, L10 reported:

I specially choose the course and I was offered it. I selected this course not knowing what it is all about, but I liked the course immediately after I started the programme (L10).

The quote suggests some participants were lucky to have been given the courses of their choice, and that had implications for their interest in learning and subsequent development of skills. These lack of free choice are detrimental to real empowerment that would make students question assumptions that affect their liberation (Bourdieu, 1992; Freire, 1993; Mezirow, 2009). This questions the rhetoric that students are free to make their own choice, as seen in Chapter 5 (policy context of lifelong learning). The narratives from the participants suggest that their capacity to make choice of courses of study is determined by the institution and availability of space or competition, as seen above. This indicates that students might be empowered with the capacity to make choice but these might be dependent on the available space. These potential barriers

might be detrimental to the young adults' development of lifelong learning skills within the context of the study.

## **6.8 Expressions of Interest in Further Learning**

During the interviews, the participants talked about some of their transformative experiences. One major theme emerged from the analysis - expressions of interest in further learning - and this was triggered by positive learning experiences and interactions with peers. As reported earlier, participants' different life transitions limited many of their learning opportunities. The two major themes that emerged overall from the data are positive learning outcomes and self-discovery.

### **6.8.1 Positive Learning and Interaction**

Positive learning experiences mean a student feels comfortable with their rapport with their teachers and peers. Some participants shared how their learning experiences and interactions with others shaped their desire for further learning, as exemplified below:

I will keep my Diploma and start afresh at the university to study a BSc in Computer Science. I am so happy with my practical learning experience, and I now feel I need to continue at the university level (L1).

In addition, L3 also stated that:

My learning experience and interaction with friends with better experience has really helped me! You know, this has boosted my dream and I am prepared to study a BSc in Computer Science or Mathematics instead of my initial interest in a BSc Accounting (L3).

She reflected further:

I am sure the competencies I have acquired will help me excel (L3).

Comments from two other students also confirm this interest in further learning:

I think I have strong confidence to now further my education at the university level to read Computer Science... this learning process has increased my love for knowledge (L2).

I am currently at the beginning of a part-time Diploma programme in Mass Communication... I have discovered that you cannot succeed well in entrepreneurship activities if you have limited knowledge (L11).

These quotes suggest that positive learning experiences and interactions motivated some of the participants to begin thinking about further learning at a higher level. This data supports Brook's (2006) qualitative research on the impact of institutional stratification on young graduates' development of lifelong learning skills. Brook's findings (2006) reveal that young graduates' experience of previous supportive learning environment motivates their decision to continue learning. Cross's (1991) chain of response model suggests that benefit drive for learning make students participate more in learning. Some of the participants of this study confirm Cross assumptions, (See Chapter 2).

### **6.8.2 Self-discovery**

Self-discovery is the process of understanding oneself and one's motivation through self-reflection (Mezirow, 2009). Some participants reported experiencing self-discovery and a need for further learning, as illustrated by L1, who had a Diploma and believed in his self-discovery after participating in a programme:

It has been a life-changing activity that supports one's life, I guess. I now understand myself and I know what I need ... before I was looking for a job blindly, but I think all I need is to plan for myself to continue with further learning (L1).

L12 also noted:

...you just discover yourself and understand your needs (L2).

The quotes show the participants understand their need for further learning, and a possible explanation for this could be their interactions and active engagements in current learning. However, the idea of further learning was not consistent across all the participants, with some participants being satisfied with the significant changes in their lives. L13 commented that he would be fine with his entrepreneurship skills and did not want to undertake further education because of his prior disappointments, explaining:



It is true! I am no longer interested to further my education based on my prior disappointments. People attend school purposely to secure a job ... I have gained so many skills here that could and give me a job and I am from a local village. I will utilise these skills to earn a living (L13).

This quote suggests that the participant was satisfied with the skills developed so far without further engagement in formal learning because of lack of positive outcomes for many. The possible explanation was that the participants are not interested in formal learning and this did not rule out the possibility of informal learning, which is daily happening, as seen in Chapter 2.

However, other participants became interested in further learning but feared that limited funding might be a barrier to this, as revealed below:

I am aware that going to university involves a lot of funding. If the funding isn't available, I can do a part-time degree in Computer Science... the school has boosted my zeal for learning (L3).

I am happy that I will be self-reliant. I would love to continue with my studies but I am aware of the financial implications that would involve (L14).

Participants' socio-economic background can be a barrier to further learning, as suggested by L3 and L14. This concurs with NBS (2010) statistics that show 21.3% of young people are out of school with no opportunity for employment or transition into further learning (NBS, 2010). The NBS (2015) statistics indicate that over two million students sit for the Nigerian Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination every year, but less than 30% qualified to enrol in tertiary education, (See Chapter 1). This affects young adults from a poor economic background, as Bourdieu (2002) suggests oppressed groups are mostly not raised in an environment that would enable their upward movement to power position. These challenges reflect participants' lack of necessary capital to be successful (Bourdieu, 2002). The social norm is that the children of the elites are educated to acquire skills and knowledge needed to succeed in a capitalist society. The exclusion of the children of the poor by virtue of lack of funding to support their education is widening the level of social injustice within the area of study. Presumably, there is the real commodification of education to the detriment of education for social justice and empowerment. This is synonymous with the Bourdieu's social reproduction. To address these challenges educational system

should be more humane by opening its frontiers against all those acclaim international protocols for lifelong learning. Despite the rhetoric for education for all, MDGs goal 4, SDGs goals, good intention and provision of funding inequalities are widening in Nigeria.

## **6.9 Summary**

The chapter examines triggers for young adults' participation and engagement in LLL as well as the students and instructors' perceptions of teaching and learning pedagogies that promotes lifelong learning skills. The data revealed that life transitions such as divorce examination failures and pressure from families and friends as the reasons for many of the participants returning to education as an option to be relieved out of poverty, economic hardship, distress, frustration and boredom created educational and social situations. The data also presents unemployment and career change resulting from the dissatisfaction with employment and the need for social security. The data shows that the participants' prior learning reflected power relations that impede their confidence, self-esteem and capacity for practice.

The data revealed that the practical pedagogies adopted by YCV has a strong influence on the development of certain lifelong learning attributes such as confidence, self-direction, and teamwork, an opportunity for practice, sharing and application of skills. However, the data shows that the pedagogies were found limited in the students' development of meta-cognitive skills.

The next chapter presents outcomes and impact of LLL on the transformation of graduates and their communities. The section entails semi-structured interviews with the 12 graduates to understand the effect of lifelong learning to them and their communities.

## **Chapter 7 Life Stories and Transformative Outcomes of Lifelong learning**

This Chapter presents interview data from 12 Youth Craft Village (YCV) graduates. The Chapter addresses research question four; what are the outcomes of lifelong learning on individual graduates and their communities? Part 1 begins with the data on the graduates' conditions prior to their participation in lifelong learning. Part 2 presents the data on outcomes of lifelong learning on these participants and their communities. Part 3 presents data on the factors influencing graduates' wider application of LLL skills in their lives while noting barriers to lifelong learning.

### **7.1 Graduates' conditions prior to their engagement in lifelong learning**

Prior to their engagement in lifelong learning, the majority of the graduates described their lives as being challenging economically, educationally and socially. The participants felt they lacked direction and that underpinning this were frustrations resulting from a constant threat of precarious employment, cultural issues, poverty and failure in education. The graduates' lifestyles prior to their participation in lifelong learning could be categorised into two themes that emerged from data analysis: (1) feeling socially insecure; and (2) frustration by educational, economic and social factors. These categories resonate with the push factors and living conditions of current students for returning to learning, as discussed in section 6..2 (See Chapter 6).

#### **7.1.1 Feeling Socially Insecure**

The data analysis revealed that some of the participants did not have stable jobs or any prospects of development. G4 noted his dissatisfaction with his situation:

I was doing a bige-bige job, which means you actually do not have any prospects or direction (G4).

The 'bige-bige' as describe by G4 above is a non-static job that one is not actually sure when to get them all the time. This frustration was expressed by G1 who recalled:

I was in a menial job ... okada driving. I didn't like it as there wasn't any job security, plus there was always the fear of being sacked. With this kind of work, there is also the stress and danger of being used as a political thug (G1) ('okada driving' is a motorcycle transportation service).

These quotes reflect the negative effects of insecure and risky employment, which can result in a loss of touch with reality. This is evidenced further with G1 and G4 articulating similar effects of their non-engagement in secure fulltime jobs, as exemplified below:

Yes, it's the same old story ... I was a political thug .... I was not into drugs or anything, but everyone feared me ... I just wanted to learn so I could get a secure job (G1).

... When I was doing bige-bige, I was also used as a political thug (G4).

These quotes are indicative of how poor employment opportunities, a lack of education and a lack of engagement can result in unwilling participation in violent behaviour. G11 reflected that:

When I was not doing anything in the village, I was not at all serious minded and got involved in so many bad political things ...I don't think you need to know about those things.

Challenges such as an absence of stable employment, lack of sense of direction and lack of engagement of young people educationally, economically and socially expose them to vulnerability. This might result in the ability of others to take advantage of such unemployed and vulnerable young people to their own ends. The social and economic conditions reflect the live reality through which poor young adults lived (Bourdieu, 1990). Interestingly, the participants' narratives of their involvement in negative political activities highlight how possible it is for unscrupulous elements to take advantage of these young people by directing them to negative life conditions. These activities might have an impact on destabilising the whole country into creating social problems such as Boko Haram, kidnappers syndicate and militia groups such as Niger Delta avengers (who disrupts crude production), yandaba (local thugs who use weapons to attack people). These social problems are now prevalent in Nigeria and these might be the result of the neglect or lack of adequate educational and economic provisions for the young people. This reflects that the influence of

educational, economic and social structure determines the ways individuals behave (Bourdieu, 2001). Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) maintained that social order produced and reproduced through unequal relations creates injustice that produces a negative outcome, (See Chapter 3). The norm within the context is that politicians recruit young people to do their bad bidding. This might be the result of a lack of adequate educational and employment provision for young adults. These, therefore, left them susceptible to economically and socially disruptive activities, such as political violence, unrest, crime, and drug use.

### **7.1.2 Educational, Economic and Social Frustrations**

Most of the participants in this research noted that educational challenges or failures in their lives prior to learning at the YCV had had an economic, social and educational impact that caused the high levels of frustration. G5's account resonates with other participants' stories about frustration resulting from the educational failure. G5 was withdrawn from higher education due to his failure to meet examination requirements, and this had a serious impact on his life. G5 reported that:

I became frustrated with no job to go to or school to attend and some of my friends who had successfully secured jobs made fun of my situation.

The experience of frustration created by the educational system was also shared by G2, G3 and G10. All these participants were failed by the education system. This highlights how educational failure holds students back and affects their lives, as reported in these examples:

I went to a College of Education for pre-NCE, but I didn't succeed and left ... I was withdrawn and I made a second attempt in the same school, but seeing my former colleagues I became so disturbed and frustrated and I had to withdraw myself because ... I was no longer feeling comfortable (G10).

I wasn't doing anything to care for myself or my family ... other than running errands for other people ... I was discouraged from school when ... I failed my secondary examinations ... and I had no hope of returning to education (G3).

I could not get the required English credit, I had to repeat three times ... but even my third attempt was in vain (G2).

These quotes are examples of when an education system supposedly promoting LLL fails students who cannot for a variety of reasons, succeed within the formal education system. The experiences of G2, G3 and G10 revealed the barriers created by a failure within the education system that can result not only in economic, social and cultural frustration but also by stigma within the participants' communities. G10 had to face the stigma of being withdrawn from school find it hard to cope with the system again. G7 illustrated that one always finds it difficult after not having good results:

I completed my secondary school and the result was not good! You cannot just be alright living with nothing to fall on (G7).

Other participants reported trauma in their lives such as divorce and poor economic and social circumstances that result from societal and educational challenges. The participants reported the above challenges as their conditions that resulted in engagement in education, as demonstrated below:

I was married but I am now divorced and am living with my parents .... They are poor and I did not have the power to help ... I was frustrated, miserable and felt nobody cared enough to help me. This was a major reason for why I decided to enrol in learning thinking about, and that may be the interaction with the friends at school might lessen my frustrations and tensions (G6).

I am a person with a disability and I do not want to beg, but having cut off in school, I was living at the mercy of those who would occasionally help me (G12).

Indeed, the participants reported their poor lifestyle and related economic and social frustrations due to divorce and disability. These economic and social frustrations resulting from the above factors were the triggers for the participants returning to education, as seen with the participants in Chapter 6. These categories of participants were mostly excluded and subjected to some form of social injustice. The participants always expressed desire for access to education that would empower them. G5 noted that he needed new skills to be able to settle down to a more stable lifestyle; whilst participant G6 stated her desire to be 'self-sufficient' was the major trigger to return to education, with her noting that 'it's all about being out of poverty and unstable life' (G6). These social and economic conditions, as seen in Chapter 6 affect the young people from a poor economic background. Thus, it creates realities that make these

young people continue to live poverty and unstable life conditions (Bourdieu, 1992). This shows that the root of social injustice arise from the economic, educational, political and social conditions that make people at disadvantage. However, the participants' realisation of the challenges affecting their life is the first level towards their empowerment and liberation from the shackles of poverty and unstable life.

Meanwhile, G6 was also referring to the frustrations caused by her divorce, this is perhaps also testifying to even further challenges and frustrating socio-economic conditions faced by divorced women in Nigeria, as seen in Chapter 6. G6 had her education cut off after completing primary six to be married off. G2 reflected on the economic conditions facing unemployed people, as noted:

I began to think about doing something meaningful to support my education in the future.

Whilst participant G3 commented:

I had no hope of returning to education, then I got the information YCV were training young people free; I felt I needed to be there.

The analysis shows that the life situation for female divorcees is increasingly been precarious due to the cultural positions, which see females as inferior (Bourdieu, 2001). Nigeria being a patriarchal society has cultural norms and beliefs that exposed women to all forms of deprivations (Abdul *et al.*, 2012). This is what is exposing women to social exclusion in terms of access to education and employment. There is a serious under representation of women in higher education, secondary school (See Chapter 1) as well as in the position of authority. A similar analysis (Chapter 6) shows how the habitus and reproduction of cultural arbitrary affect women transition within the society (See Bourdieu, 1990: 1992). Presumably, not only women experienced social injustice within society but also people living with a disability as discussed below. This makes the people experiencing structural injustice to suffer economic and social challenges within society. This could be a subject for further research.

Disability was an issue for some participants. For example, G12 has a disability that impacts her movement and she was driven out of her father's home and

village by her step-mum. She moved to the city and it was clear that she did not want to engage in street begging, as so many people with disabilities in Nigeria are compelled to do. When talking about her disability, G12 recounted:

... I became disturbed by my situation and so I felt a need to learn something to support myself (G12).

G9 also has a disability and he too did not want to become a victim of his disability. He noted that his goal was simply:

... to be self-empowered and be able to live an independent and reasonable life within the community; my life was full of struggles (G9).

Whilst the difficulties of participants G9 and G12 do relate to their disabilities and underpinning this is their lack of economic and social support and the resultant lack of education. This means that there was little or no significant educational provision to meet the plight of people with disabilities. People with disability in Nigeria suffer precarious life situation, especially street begging has become social norms for the people with disability. Although there was no national statistics suggesting a number of disabled people begging in the street, but it is an embarrassing social phenomenon across cultures and regions in Nigeria (Bello *et al.*, 2012). This is because of the attitude of society towards the people living with disabilities is that of abandonment and neglect. This is invariably because of lack of adequate educational provision to empower the people living with a disability. These cultural norms and the nature of the habitus worsen people living with disabilities conditions (Bourdieu, 1992). In a general note and as seen above not only people with a disability suffer social exclusion even the able-bodied person experienced one form of social exclusion or the other because of the prevalence of poverty and structural inequalities within the Nigerian society.

The analysis clearly links the frustrations and the difficult living conditions of the participants to lack of opportunities created by economic, educational and social challenges. The problems, dilemmas and dissatisfactions of the living conditions of the participants were the triggers for their re-engagement with learning. These findings reflect Mezirow's (1991: 2009) study on women in the United States. The dilemmas with the participants in Mezirow's (1978) were not



as critical as that of the participants of this study. The condition in Nigeria was complicated with a high rate of poverty and difficult life situations. These participants returned to education after experiencing serious life crises and dissatisfaction resulting from their frustration in their inability to make changes to their lives resulting from deficits in their education. The data of this study confirm such life crises, dissatisfaction and effects of social norms as triggers for people's search for a way to change and further develop their lives (Bourdieu, 1992; Mezirow, 2009). However, in contrast with the Mezirow's study participants, the participants of this study were in very difficult social and economic circumstances that resulted in a new phase in their lives.

The next section examines the outcomes of LLL on the transformation of the participants of this study.

## **7.2 Post-training Experiences**

This section presents the experiences of participants who returned to education and the impact of this on their lives. These discussions are divided into six sections: (1) the emergence of graduates as small-scale entrepreneurs; (2) economic wellbeing and empowerment; (3) social and emotional empowerment of women and disadvantage; (4) new social identity; (5) the ability to help others to learn; and (6) the development of LLL skills. The participants experienced different levels of impact from their education, with some experiencing economic transformation, social transformation, or both. The section also explores the lifelong learning attributes developed by the participants of this study. The data of this study notes that the participants experienced changes in different skill sets for learning through life.

### **7.2.1 Graduates as Small-scale Entrepreneurs**

One of the major outcomes of the participants' training was the emergence of graduates as self-employed small-scale entrepreneurs. However, there were mixed reactions to the overall impact of the training concerning the participants becoming small-scale entrepreneurs. Five participants, who constitute the majority, felt that following their participation in the programme they had experienced a transformation by becoming small-scale entrepreneurs. Four

engaged in entrepreneurial activities on a part-time basis before starting up their own personal business, and only one participant started self-employment activities, but did not continue. Two female participants felt that the programme had little impact on them to established self-employed business but believe that they have experienced other impact rather than business oriented impact.

The participants who became small-scale entrepreneurs made comments below:

Yeah! As you can see today I have my own business and I am running it successfully without hindrance. I have been able to build a new house and am now living a comfortable life (G1).

... I have set up a studio...all these things I learnt from that school ... so I was so happy with the development because actually I never thought I will learn and practice these things because I wasn't doing anything in the past except the bige-bige with no direction (G4.)

I am so pleased I set up my own business! I am doing so well being free from being dependent on anyone (G6).

These quotes suggest that participants who became engaged in running independent ventures that gave them employment had positive outcomes from the training. The participants' engagement as small-scale entrepreneurs resulted in their feelings of comfort in such meaningful activities. G1, G4 and G6 experienced a significant impact from the programme and indicated that they had independence, self-determination and stable employment.

Engagement in entrepreneurial venture on part-time basis in order to learn more is one of the impacts for some of the participants' participation in learning. The following comments demonstrate such examples:

Well I haven't yet established my own business but I am currently engaged in own part-time money-making activities while I attend a local workshop to learn more about how to support myself (G2).

I have not yet opened my business but I am working towards it, and am no longer an errand boy, which I am happy about (G3).

Even though some of the participants were not yet self-employed but had change of circumstances so they were engaged in society and informal workplace

learning. This seems to add weight to the argument that becoming re-engaged in society and informal learning even on a part-time basis has positive impacts.

One participant reported starting a business but did not succeed. He attributed this to Nigeria's economic situation:

You know, the economy was so bad I could not continue as my business activities were not doing well (G11).

This suggests that it is sometimes difficult to establish a business successfully due to extraneous factors such as the economic downturn referred to by G11.

G7 reported the training had little or no impact on helping her to establish own business, as exemplified below:

I am not doing anything since the completion of the programme. I have the skills but I do not think it has changed my life because my situation remains the same (G7).

Despite participation in the programme, some graduates may feel that the skills they learnt are not in fact helpful to them. Only one participant felt that the training was not helpful. Overall, the majority of participants experienced changes from attending their training that resulted in successful business ventures which was one of the central aims of the programme. In contrast, only a small minority felt that the changes were not adequate. Moreover, other lifelong learning skills apart from the participants' capacity to set up business were explored in section 7.2.4 and 7.2.6 below. The analysis shows participants were seen to take responsibility for their own learning by displaying skills for learning through life.

### **7.2.2 Economic Wellbeing and Empowerment**

Majority of the participants experienced economic transformation as a result of participation in the course. Such transformation was a move away from their prior situations of poverty, unemployment and a lack of direction. Learning on the programme led to the participants' economic independence, empowerment and ability to support families. This is illustrated as follows:

I am no longer a liability. I run a successful entrepreneurship activity and I am doing well financially and I am even able to help others ... With the proceeds of my business I have built a new house, bought a car and am able to meet my family's needs and live a comfortable life (G1).

I am earning an income that is helping me to take care of my family ... I feel I am better off ...rather than being an errand person; it is still difficult but I am happy. I no longer hang around people that send me on errands (G3).

In fact, the majority of the participants gained economic independence that enabled them to lead an independent life without which they could not help others. Moreover, some participants indicated the training did not only lead to gaining economic stability, but also enhanced self-esteem and confidence that resulted in their being able to live a peaceful and functional life within their community, as exemplified below:

When I was doing the bige-bige, even feeding my family was a major problem; but now that I am engaged on my own, I feel more confident to participate in my community ... and I am sure of three square meals for my children each day and their education (G4).

I now have a stable and steady... income. I think the programme has helped me to have confidence to believe in myself... and I am no longer a burden to my parents (G2).

As suggested from these quotes, participants developed sufficient confidence to be able to partake confidently and freely in their community's affairs. These findings confirm the economic benefits of learning and highlight that learning increases income, economic wellbeing and the productive capacity of learners (Sabate, 2008). It is remarkable that these transformations might also lead to societal stability. The vulnerable young people were in the past engaged in violent activities that endanger the community but the economic empowerment brings relative peace to the community. This study added that beyond the benefit of economic improvement LLL also lead to peaceful co-existence, societal cohesion, social security and reducing violence (See Chapter 8). These findings in relation to economic empowerment, however, were not consistent across the participants because some were not able to achieve economic wellbeing and security. Two of the participants felt that their economic

situations remained the same, but that they had still benefitted from the opportunities the learning had given to them, as demonstrated below:

I am still dependent economically on my parents, but I would say I have established new relationships with others, which I find important in my life (G7).

I am still looking to my parents for financial support and I am currently studying a Diploma in Library and Information science. One very important thing to me is that by attending the school I met and learnt from so many different people (G8).

A minority of participants did not attain economic transformations because they remained dependent on others for their survival. Recounting their experiences, G7 and G8 maintained that even though they were still financially dependent on others, they had experienced positive changes from interaction and learning from other people. G11 felt he had experienced economic benefits but had then suffered a relapse in economic wellbeing, as revealed below:

Honestly, from the beginning, I was doing well and I have own some properties! I wasn't having trouble supporting myself ... I was affected by a bad economy and I had to migrate to the city in search of greener pastures (G11).

This quote suggests that structural challenges affects economic wellbeing and they are causes of rural-urban migration. Overall, it seems that education is vital to economic, social and peaceful co-existence of the society.

### **7.2.3 Social and Emotional Empowerment of Women and Vulnerable**

Some participants reported experiencing social and emotional gains, and these were notably women and vulnerable groups. These transformations were acknowledged by the participants in the light of the frustration and stigma they experienced due to effects of economic, social, cultural and educational challenges, as revealed below:

I had a successful one-year course .... It has really changed my life and has helped me to recover from my previous shock (G5).

I barely remember my previous frustrations ... it was really a big relief for me (G6).

The quotes suggest the social and emotional relief experienced by the participants frustrated by educational and cultural circumstances related to their withdrawal from school and divorce. The LLL opportunity for these participants resulted in increased self-confidence, satisfaction and emotional relief. This suggests that social and emotional difficulties can be relieved through education and social interaction. The education helps the participants to rebuild themselves after having trouble. The participants are striving for independence after frustrated circumstances.

Other participants additionally expressed emotional transformations and spoke of feelings of satisfaction and happiness. G10 recounted that:

I found relief and I am so doing well that I forgot all about being withdrawn from school. I truly found happiness.

This seems to suggest that participants with emotionally distressed gain a sense of self-assurance through social interaction, learning and empowerment. Dench and Regan (2000) suggest that 80% of people who participate in learning experience an increase in self-confidence, enjoyment of life, satisfaction and a sense of relief. Dench and Regan's (2000) study did not mention social interaction as the cause of the transformation of their participants. This is clear from the experiences of many of these participants (participants of the present study) indicating that the importance of social interactions, change of environment and establishment of relationships as positive towards their transformations:

... you know the interactions and activities made me forget all my problems (G5).

The change of environment enabled me to establish new acquaintances with who I am still in touch! (G6).

It seems interaction and a change of environment can bring about some relief to disaffected young people. This study adds to the previous study that social interaction and change of environment bring about transformation. G9 and G12, who both have disabilities found empowerment through the training, with G12 realising the value of working hard rather than living at the mercy of others by begging to survive. G12 mentioned that 'I am relieved from what was disturbing

me and I know the value of hard work; as a person with disability I don't want engaged in begging'. G9 recounted that 'I feel empowered! I don't actually feel in anyway deprived'. This resonates with a study by Panagiotounis *et al.* (2017) that found learning empowerment helped socially vulnerable groups to formulate a new personality within their community. This study extends the previous study by suggesting that people with disabilities are able to formulate new personalities when they are given the chance to engage in productive lives rather than begging.

As suggested by G8 transformation through learning is beyond physical or material changes, as illustrated below:

To me, the change that we experienced is beyond establishing self-employment activity or something noticeable. The interaction you have with people within the learning setting is the important factor. I learnt how to accommodate tolerant and intolerant people and learnt to work hard.

To conclude, the majority of the participants noted they felt they had gained social and emotional wellbeing from their training at the YCV. This confirms previous studies on the role of education in the promotion of social and emotional wellbeing amongst participants (Dench and Regan, 2000; Hammond and Feinstein, 2006) and this extend the previous findings by suggesting that education helps socially disadvantaged people to become engaged in the community and gain independence.

#### **7.2.4 New Social Identities and Improved their Self-esteem**

The majority of the participants developed new social identities and improved their self-esteem. It was reported earlier that some of the participants had experienced troubled lifestyles and felt looked down upon, for example:

Honestly, I am now enjoying respect from people who were initially gossiping ... and those people that even stopped speaking to me because I was studying ... now respect my courage (G6).

Oh! Yes, that is right; I am earning respect from colleagues, friends, neighbours and family members. When I was doing the bige-bige I used to be a political thug ... so there are people that always knew me

as a troublemaker, but now they hold me with high respect because I have changed completely (G4).

These quotes suggest the participants felt that they had changed their troubled lifestyles to more socially acceptable ones, and that this had resulted in their gaining a new social identity and respect.

G9 and G11 reported that:

Our communities are always happy with anyone who stands on his or her own without being a problem. You know, people respect me a lot because despite my disability, I am not begging but am engaged with an interest in learning to help me stand on my own two feet (G9).

The respect I am earning from people gives me confidence. I am happy no one reminds me of my youthful troubles! (G11).

These comments highlight the impact of accepting people if they have changed rather than judging them on their previous actions. These resonate with previous studies on impact of lifelong learning. The studies suggest that benefits of LLL on young people include their integration into community life and forming new social identities with improved psychological and living conditions (Dench and Regan, 2000; Pro Skills, 2006; Panagiotounis *et al.*, 2017). This study adds that accepting young people into community life without judging them with previous life circumstances not only lead to forming new identity but also motivate their increased and enhanced participation in lifelong learning.

### **7.2.5 Helping Others to Learn**

Some of the participants' reported that developing capacity to help others to learn as one of the outcomes of their own learning. Although there were mixed reactions amongst the participants on their efforts to help others to learn, it was evident from the analysis that some of the participants had developed the spirit and capacity to help others, as illustrated below:

So far, I have trained and employed seven young people, and as you can see they are still benefiting and living a comfortable life. I started helping others immediately after my training. I am proud of the support I offer to young people within my community (G1).



I am so pleased to have trained my younger brother and two of his friends who now help me in running my business. I feel happy that I was able to support and train them (G6).

The impact of helping someone to learn and earn an income is a signal that self-independence has been achieved; with Manninen *et al.* (2014) maintaining that learning is effective if it promotes increased participation in community life through helping others. G4 recounted that:

Yes, I have directly trained two people who are currently involved with editing and coverage ... one of the people does not learn from formal learning setting but he is now earning an income to support his family (G4).

Other participants showed a commitment to train others but were limited by their inability to establish an enterprise of their own. G3 reflected:

Definitely, I have the experience as I am talking to you, and although I have not started on my own I still have the commitment. I am coaching one person.

Two participants said that it was difficult for them to help train others because they remained dependent on others:

I could not help to train others because I am still dependent on someone; well I have limited situation, I am still struggling with myself (G2).

I have the intention to at least help one person to learn but the issue is ... if I bring someone at this level, they may waste my time because most young guys are not ready to commit to learn. I am sure I will try in the future (G9).

These quotes indicate that some of the participants were still struggling on their own and did not have the ability to train others. The training by its very nature is trying to promote individual personal skills that would have effect on the community wellbeing. Some participants reflecting that:

I am still waiting for the opportunity (G7).

I am studying now and am still dependent (G8).

Some of the participants perceived themselves as not the only beneficiaries of learning. Some of the participants are waiting time and opportunity to give back to the community. It seems that the graduates who demonstrated the capacity to help others were confident and able to network and run an independent venture. This is in line with Manninen *et al.* (2014) reflection that the multiple effects of learning are promoting self-control, networking and the capacity to help other members to learn and feel a part of the community.

### **7.2.6 Qualities for Learning through Life**

LLL is often related to a student's capacity to take responsibility for their own learning by displaying skills for learning through life, as seen in Chapter 2 (Knapper and Cropley, 2000; Lawson, Askill-Williams, Murray-Harvey 2006). The participants of this study demonstrated a number of lifelong learning traits. These qualities included curiosity, enhanced self-esteem, perseverance, confidence, independence, networking, personal awareness and the capacity to organise learning. These qualities are the indicators that signify the transformation of the participants, as lifelong learners.

Data analysis revealed curiosity, resilience and self-determination as key LLL attributes developed by the graduates, along with their determination and willingness to learn something new (Mezirow, 2009) through informal learning. Most of the participants demonstrated these qualities as important skills for learning through life in order to sustain small-scale entrepreneurial activity and to avoid unemployment and poverty, as exemplified below:

It is not possible to learn everything within one year of training. I engaged in extra learning with professionals who have been in the profession for a long time and that truly added value (G1).

... I went to learn from a local mechanic. I am sure without extra effort to learn, you will struggle. You have to be determined to progress (G2).

The quotes suggest the participants' willingness to learn through informal work placement to maintain their entrepreneurial activities. It is the participants' belief that learning in school needs to be complimented with informal learning, (See Preece, 2013; Schuetze, 2006; Smith, 2002; Tuijnman and Bostrom, 2002 in

Chapter 2). They demonstrated curiosity and self-determination, which Freire (1993) maintained develop intellectual tools for learning that enables learners to comprehend knowledge. A number of these participants maintained curiosity to learn informally, as illustrated below:

It is motivating to learn more on your own by asking questions and watching others! (G3).

It always gives me an inspiration to learn and read more about film production! Before, I watched films just for pleasure but now I watch films to take away lessons that will improve my work as a location manager (G4).

The quotes indicate the participants to desire to succeed promote their capacity for curiosity and self-direction. G4 was noted prior to his engagement with in learning at YCV, he was not interested in learning. However, with his emergence as small-scale business owner, he feels:

You have to make yourself open to learning if you want succeed ... (G4).

Whilst G5 reflected that, he attended an informal workshop to learn more and understand the strategies for running specific activities:

You don't learn everything in school ... you need to learn the strategies learning from others.

This data demonstrates the capacity of these participants to learn informally in order to satisfy the quest of being an entrepreneur and independent person. This confirms Rae's (1999) notion of entrepreneurship learning as a never-ending journey. Rae (1999) maintained that entrepreneurship is only possible with continued curiosity and learning through informal networks and self-direction. From the data, the participants' demonstrated curiosity because of the level of confidence and resilience to maintain their entrepreneurship skills as part of their lives.

Participants commented on their sense of self-worth and freedom to become more involved with life. Some of the participants noted increase in their self-worth and self-esteem are linked to confidence, as exemplified below:

Well! I think the course has shaped me in many respects: it gave me confidence to believe and depend on myself (G3).

I feel I have the freedom and confidence to get involved in things that I don't have any idea about ... I am functional and members of my immediate community respect me (G5).

I know the power of being independent and the struggle to survive; I do things confidently now (G6).

These quotes indicate the impact of learning in building a learner's self-confidence and freedom to contribute to discussions within their community. Some of the participants reported having low self-esteem prior to their participation in the training due to the failures they had experience, for example G5 recounting:

I was worried and down before with many my friends achieving success! I felt incompetent before them, but now I follow the way that gives me confidence and renewed hope! I am making progress and I am no longer a failure (G5).

This reflects the findings of Pro Skills (2006) that show learning has an impact upon a young adult's self-esteem and integration into community life through improved psychological wellbeing (Moody, 2004; Hammond and Feinstein, 2006). Other comments that reflected self-esteem and community integration are: exemplified below:

I used to find it hard to contribute to discussions at home because I was painted as a failure and unproductive. I am now confident and engaged (G10).

I am more confident than ever before to make decisions for myself. Nothing gives you more confidence than knowing you are a human being with dignity and you can do things by yourself. I am not waiting for anyone, I feel proud and confident (G11).

As suggested from these quotes, the participants experienced significant improvement in achieving self-confidence and a sense of dignity as being people with the ability to make decisions and participate freely in discussions. This resonates with Mezirow's (2009) notion of learners' participation in discourse, and the development of personal skills such as self-knowledge, self-esteem, confidence, and the ability to reason and critically reflect on assumptions.

Some of the participants were clear that there is nothing more important than the feeling of being a person with dignity and confidence, for example, the comments by (G11) and (G5). This confirms Stein's (1995) study on literacy and empowerment programmes changing people's views by giving them a voice, confidence and the capacity for decision-making. G1 reflected that:

It really helped me to have a stronger sense of my self-worth (G1).

G1 display capability despite his previous employment having been being menial work with the constant fear of being sacked. G9 reported that:

I enjoy what I am currently doing. You know the feeling that you're doing what is giving you confidence and encouragement and you remain happy and fulfilled (G9).

The quote suggests the feeling of being engaged is giving the participant confidence and fulfilment.

The capacity to manage resources was a possible impact of learning for some of the participants. They believe that without resource management it would not possible to sustain an entrepreneurship activity, as illustrated below:

I remember, before graduating from the programme I learnt to save a little out of my N3 000 monthly allowances. I used the same money to buy my first welding machine at the cost of N35, 000 (G1).

I was fortunate to learn to save a little and I also sold some of my assets to reinvest in the business of popcorn. I generated N40, 000 with which I bought the machine for that business. You have to plan otherwise you are not going anywhere (G11).

Looking at the prior pressing economic and social conditions of the participants, they had demonstrated significant increase in financial management skills. Evidence suggests that the difficulty experienced by the participants was the push factor for developing the traits of resources management, as exemplified below:

I learnt to prudently manage and plan every single kobo I earn; so honestly with the kind of struggle I have gone through, I don't play with what I have and I respect the struggle of our parents (G2).

... before I finished the programme, I have seen progress in my life and I engage in doing stuff, so I saved a little money to buy a little video camera and I have started looking for contracts even before finishing my studies (G4).

The above quotes indicate that the participants developed capacity for management of their resources as the basis of establishing an entrepreneurship activity. This is in line with Meredith, Nelson, and Neck's (1982) and Tiernan *et al.*'s (1996) assumptions that entrepreneurship as a profit-making venture is only for those who learn to manage resources make profits. However, it was noted that not all the participants developed this quality, with participants G7 and G8 indicating that they had no resources to manage and G11's failure to manage the resources though he mentioned economic instability led to the collapse of his small-scale business activity.

Development of marketing skills, networking and collaborating skills were positive learning outcomes for some participants. These participants reported positive change in their capacity to market, collaborate and network through informal learning tools, as revealed below:

... what I am currently doing is that I use Facebook to advertise my activities, thanks to the social media ... it doesn't cost you anything but a little initiative (G3).

I am well known through my regular advert, and I update in Facebook and Instagram the kind of services I offer. I am able to reach a large audience through social media. All these things you don't learn in school but through informal practices and observation. I am doing things differently to keep myself going (G4).

The quotes suggest the participants' capacity for using (informal learning) social media such as Facebook and Instagram to market not only goods, but also to extend opportunities for networking and collaboration with others. G1 reported collaborating with people with the technical know-how he was lacking. This finding collaborated with informal learning from others of the current learners, as noted in section 6.6 in Chapter 6. This resonates with Li and Zhu's (2009) who highlighted the importance of social capital in knowledge transfer.

A personal transformation of awareness can also result from learning.

Participants reported personal transformations such as personal awakening, self-awareness and a sense of freedom:

The most important thing is self-awareness of my freedom and nobody can force me into anything that I don't want. I am beyond being used as a political thug by politicians no matter how. I now take actions on things that matter without being controlled (G1).

I have awoken to the need to work hard. Before I always asked for things at home but now I know that you have to work hard to earn a living, and this can be in in the rain or under the sun sweating (G2).

These quotes suggest awareness of doing what is right and avoiding what is bad. One participant reflected how he missed his opportunities and his willingness to responsible and committed:

I remember I was careless and I misused my previous opportunity by rocking around with friends. I don't want to remember that life. I am now committed and focused with a sense of responsibility (G5).

Two female participants show self-discovery, as illustrated below:

It is fascinating! It is indeed fascinating to actually understand yourself! You know, with the interaction with others, I become aware of my need. I am now back to school pursuing a diploma in Library and Information Science (G8).

I don't care about what people are say about me; I don't care about the gossip within the community that I am not married; I know it's a matter of time; it's an envy. If I didn't attend the school, I would be looking miserable and nobody would care to support me, but now they have seen me moving ahead and that's when they begin to say this and that ... I always told people it isn't good for them to be preventing me from moving ahead(G6).

These quotes indicate self-discovery and determination of the participants. G12 shared similar experience of self-discovery by not engaging in street begging (See section 6.8.2 in Chapter 6). She was determined to succeed. G12 believe that when she studied she would move away from a lifestyle of frustration as a person with disabilities. This data confirms Mezirow's (1991) notion of perspective transformation. The perspective transformation suggests development of certain reaction, such as reflection, self-awareness, freedom

and critical thinking capacity to question assumptions and appreciate diverse perspectives (Mezirow, 1978: 1994 and 2009).

## **7.3 Factors Facilitating and Hindering the Implementation of LLL Skills**

This section presents the factors perceived by graduates that facilitates and hinders their application of LLL skills after graduation from YCV. A number of themes emerged as facilitating factors, including interest and commitment, need for independence, financial support and opportunity for practice. Whilst the factors hindering the application of LLL skills include: personal, cultural, institutional or economic barriers.

### **7.3.1 Factors Facilitating Application of LLL Skills**

Data analysis revealed factors that facilitate graduates' application of LLL skills to practice, however, these were not consistent across all the participants. Interest and commitment were noted to be a recurring factor facilitating the application of LLL skills among the graduates, as revealed below:

It was interest that made me learn these skills, and that's why I am still using these seven years later! (G1).

It is interesting and of course, you will be happy to wake up and be engaged with things that always make you busy and uplift your capacity (G3).

I found the skills very applicable because I have the interest and the interest makes me always learn from the process (G5).

My interest in practice and application is progressing because I am earning enough to support myself. I am living in peace now and I will not let it go (G10).

This data resonates with Manninen *et al.* (2014) that the activating factors for application of skills are a participant's personal traits such as curiosity and self-image, as well as interest in a specific area of activity.

Material and non-material support was noted to be a facilitating factor for application of LLL skills. The analysis revealed that financial support as well as



encouragement and emotional support from family, friends and the government played an important role in facilitating practice and application of LLL skills, as exemplified below:

... when I finished, I had already saved money and a friend of mine gave me a loan to help me further ... this support was a great help to start my application of the skills I had learnt ... (G1)

I was at home after completing the programme when I was called to collect the financial support from the government to start the enterprise. It's the bedrock behind my operating as an independent business; otherwise I might be hanging around with the skills because there are many participants that are still not doing anything (G6).

I was selected among the ten best graduating students! I was supported to establish a small-scale enterprise... I couldn't start because I needed additional resources to buy generating systems so the support was invaluable (G5).

These findings show that financial support from family, friends and the government along with the commitment of a participant are factors that encourage business and is consistent with existing research from Greece by (Panagiotounis, *et al.*, 2016) that shows support and incentive encourage participation in lifelong learning programmes.

Moreover, other participants reported the value of non-financial support such as emotional support, as illustrated below:

I have support from my father to go to school and you know! It's encouraging. I really appreciate this and it helps me be more dedicated to learn (G2).

I have an uncle who is well educated. He actually doesn't give me money but I appreciate his words of encouragement to learn. He always says, 'You can be able to support yourself and others.' That is always giving me confidence to pursue this diploma (G8).

You know being a person with disability, everyone understand my situation! I mostly receive financial support from unknown people. There is one of my teachers who always speak to me if I am emotional or if I have issues with friends. These words keep me going (G12).

These quotes suggest the role of emotional support in engagement in lifelong learning. These link psychological and emotional support with a participant's

increase confidence motivation to learn. Psychological and emotional support played an important role in the practice and application of skills in real application of learning.

Opportunity for practice whilst learning was found to be an important factor in the application of LLL skills. Some of the participants reported opportunity for practice in the initial learning as a key factor, as illustrated below:

When we were learning skills, we were given the experience of real practice and opportunities to share and demonstrate our skills ...these are the things that gave me confidence! I am sure of myself and that's why I am well engaged in the application of the skills (G6).

I realised I was so happy learning things practically. You remember I told you I was withdrawn from my previous school? Well the things that they taught me were to memorise and then write these out at examination, but here everything has to do with practice; this gives me a chance to rediscover myself (G5).

The quotes indicate how practical learning gives one the confidence and ability to demonstrate skills when needed:

If you learn through practice, you will definitely be pleased .... That is why I feel great running this business because I mastered everything practically... I am motivated from the beginning because our learning is purely practical (G1).

Well! I have changed significantly in terms of practice and learning. When we were in school the entire process was different but with my new skills which I learnt to use, I am surviving. I want to assure you there is nothing more important than learning through practice (G10).

These quotes indicate that people who learn through practice feel confident to apply their skills because they feel they have achieved mastery of them. It seems the opportunity for 'learning by doing' is an important process in the application and development of lifelong learning skills among learners. This confirms the findings of Rae and Carswell (2000) who suggest that 'learning by doing' builds learner experiences and therefore the application of skills (Chang, Benamraoui, and Rieple, 2014; Kanji and Greenwood, 2001).

The need for independence was found to be the most important motivating factor for most of the participants, as revealed below:

It's something that will make me a free human being without being reliant on either the government or a person (G4).

Yes, I want to avoid been dependent on others. I want to be focused on doing something on my own (G3).

Recounting their personal experiences, participants G4 and G3 both noted how they wanted to improve their lives by achieving independence, and participants, G6 and G1 further backed this up by saying:

I engaged in the activity because I wanted to be empowered to support myself and my parents (G6).

I don't want to return to my previous situation! I strive to be doing the activity (G1).

These quotes indicate the participants' need to continue to be gainfully employed. Moreover, these participants all share the characteristic of wanting to be independent. This confirms Rae's (2015) notion of the transformation of entrepreneurs. He argues that entrepreneurship capability is achievable as a reflection of the entrepreneurs' need for independence, self-confidence and motivation.

### **7.3.2 Barriers and Limitations to the Application of LLL Skills**

The data reveals some limitations and barriers experienced by the graduates in the application of their LLL skills. It is notable that what is a barrier to some participants is not to others.

Personal barriers arising from a lack of interest and fear of failure were noted to be barriers in the application of LLL skills. Some of the participants reported a lack of interest and this appeared to be linked to the reason for enrolling on the LLL skills programme, as revealed below:

I personally didn't want to study at the school, but my parents pressured me (G7).

I noticed those participants who were forced into the programme by either their parents or someone else hardly engaged in the entrepreneurship activity. Even if you gave the support they would not engage in the entrepreneurship because their interest simply wasn't there (G3).

Fear of failure was also a key issue for some participants. Some of the participants narrated as follows:

I am not comfortable to collect loan from someone who will pay in case of any failure. You know! These things hold many of us back because you will not be sure what will come out of the investment. For now, let me do the part time things to see (G2).

I was thinking about this: if I get a loan on my own from a bank and I fail, there is going to be serious trouble. There is still a fear that you are not sure whether you are going to succeed or not. That is why I am going slowly (G3).

The quotes show a lack of confidence arising from fear of personal failure standing as a barrier to application of entrepreneurial skills. In fact, G1 reported a story of one of his friends who successfully found funding to establish a small-scale business but the business subsequently collapsed. G1 noted that:

My friend has seriously developed a fear to invest again for fear of risk. As I am talking, he has nothing now and will return to menial jobs (G1).

This resonates with the three barriers of lifelong learning practice noted by Cross (1991). She pointed to attitudinal barriers that are orchestrated by a lack of interest, motivation and confidence.

Limited access to financial support stood as a barrier to many of the participants. Some of the participants reported as follows:

I was limited by lack of capital, even though I told you I didn't like the course initially. I do not have money to establish the activity; I do not where to get it (G7).

Yes, my major problem is lack of capital! I would have started doing something even on part-time basis because as I told you I am currently back at school (G8).

Even the participants who successfully started up their businesses reported a lack of finance as an issue. G4 reflected:

I don't have enough capital and this limits my goals. I have a film project, which is always affected by a lack of funds for visiting films location ... It is a gradual process that involves resources and other

things; we are still working on it but have a little break because of this issue with resources (G4).

Three other participants also shared:

The only limitation for achieving my dream is funding (G2).

I am constrained by a lack of money, but I am still managing (G9).

I do not have enough capital and this limits my goals (G4).

The quotes highlight the impact of limited resources on entrepreneurship activities, and these are very likely to be underpinned with the fear of the eminent crash of entrepreneurial activities. These findings resonate with the studies by Dench and Regan (2000), DiSilvestro (2013) and McNair (2012) that showed limited resources as one of the major barriers to lifelong learning.

Some of the participants expressed frustration over a lack of information to access financial support for their businesses:

... we don't have information on how to secure loans; at least with the appropriate information we can progress (G1).

However, participant G4 was of the opinion that politics influence one's ability to get a loan or support:

I think politics affect many things; you just cannot get support if you are not connected with any politicians.

Other participants reported a lack of support from their immediate community as a factor affecting them:

Young entrepreneurs are struggling by not being patronised by individuals and wealthy members of the community! This really affects small-scale business (G1).

Not all local community people support our efforts! That's why some of our ideas end up wasted (G6).

These quotes suggest the need for support from an immediate community for there to be success in entrepreneurship activities. This resonates partly with the findings of Cross (1991) that a lack of information is a barrier to practice of

lifelong learning skills. However, Cross' findings did not confirm a lack of support from community members as being a barrier to lifelong learning.

One participant reported a quite different view on community support:

I have developed so much confidence because people give me the opportunity to work for them. I have just completed a wedding song for newly wedded couples and I have been receiving calls for stage performances. To be honest people are supporting us to practice and earn a living (G4).

This different view from participants G1, G2 and G3 could be related to participant G4's capability to market products, and it could be that participant G4 has good marketing skills and uses online social media to advertise his services.

Two participants (G1 and G11) reported economic problems at a national level as causing an impediment to entrepreneurship. G1 reported that:

The current economic situation within the country is holding us back!  
Our opportunities are limited!

G11 recounted that the bad economic situation led to the collapse of his small-scale enterprise. He said:

I am no longer doing anything and my little capital perished due to the economic situation in the country (G11).

Data collected revealed that inflation and challenging economic situations affected and limited the opportunities for some of the participants.

Cultural barriers were reported to be affecting application of entrepreneurship skills, with this more notable for the female graduates. Participant G6 noted that as a young woman, she was not supposed to be out working and that as a result, she chooses to run her enterprise from her home:

Well I established a small-scale business but as a woman, I am not supposed to be on the street especially being young due to cultural things (G6).

G7 experienced the same problem:

One difficult issue is that it was not practical for me to just go out and start operating. Most especially for young girls it is difficult ... the society frowns at that. If I operate outside, people will be looking at me and my parents with a different face. That has really discourages me (G7).

This suggests there are limitations within local communities for women to work; yet this is in contrast to big companies and governmental organisations where many women are employed. Cultural influences are not limited to gender as some participants reported cultural influences such as religion as a factor preventing them getting loans to start entrepreneurship activities, as revealed below:

I have never gone to bank to secure a loan ... I don't want a loan with interest ... it's against my culture and traditions to take out a loan with interest charges (G1).

For me, I have the confidence to run any activity, but that I know banks cannot just give me a loan without collateral in case of default of payments or any risk. I am not allowed by my religion to take out a loan involving interest payments (G2).

It seems from the data that cultural influences affect a graduates' application of LLL skills. From the analysis these cultural norms affects not only women as indicated by Bourdieu (2002). These cultural norms affect men to a certain degree (See Chapter 6). However, the efforts of the participants to understand the effects of cultural norms resonate with Mezirow's (1991) notion of meaning perspective. Mezirow (1991) noted that participants become critically aware of the cultural influences with regards to their practices and relationships. Such cultural influences can dictate processes of change or deny opportunities for graduates to successfully apply their LLL skills, (See also Bourdieu, 1990: 1992 on the effect of social norms in Chapter 3).

## **7.4 Summary**

This chapter explores graduates' transformative experiences as a result of their participation in learning. The findings with regards to the graduates' prior situation revealed that, like the current students at the YCV, they were disaffected with the pressing economic, social and educational challenges leading them into serious life crises such as thuggery, frustration, violence and

disengagement from productive life in Nigeria. As a result, the participants pushed forward to go into education because of unemployment, poverty and lack of social security. The findings indicate the transformation of some of the graduates as small-scale entrepreneurs, thereby achieving economic empowerment, social and emotional wellbeing and new social identity. The findings were not consistent across all the participants, as few indicated did not achieve economic empowerment. It revealed the participants' personal transformative experiences that promote societal progress. The findings about the development of qualities for learning through life, few participants displayed varied outcomes such as curiosity, resilience, self-determination, self-esteem and financial management. However, the training could not reveal the graduates' development of meta-cognitive skills.

The study revealed that the factors influencing the application of LLL skills include personal traits such as (interest, commitment and curiosity), emotional and material support and opportunity for practice. However, the factors inhibiting application of LLL skills include personal barriers (lack of interest and fear of failure); limited access to financial support and lack of information, inflation and challenging economic situations; and cultural barriers that limit women and other members of the society from certain practices.

The next Chapter presents the discussion of the main findings of the study.



## Chapter 8      Discussions and Recommendations

This thesis started with a discussion of the national context and the background for understanding lifelong learning policies and practices in Nigeria. The rationale for the current study was presented (Chapter 1), the definitions of concepts and empirical studies (Chapter 2) and the conceptual and theoretical frameworks (Chapter 3). In general, there is a lack of empirical research on lifelong learning, particularly in Nigeria. This research sought to investigate the extent to which policy and related practices in Nigeria promote lifelong learning (learning through life). Although there has been much public discourse on lifelong learning in Nigeria (National Policy on Education, 2013; National University Commission, Bench Mark for Academic Standard, 2011; UNESCO-Nigeria Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL, 2012)), the subject has been under-researched. This study is one of the very few empirical studies on lifelong learning conducted in Nigeria, with most previous research being conceptually based (Jinna and Maikano, 2014; Mbagwu, 2013; Shamsideen, 2016). This study intends to contribute to filling this gap. This chapter pulls together the thesis as a whole with a view to discussing the major findings of this study, how they relate to theory, and its implication for wider practice and policy for Nigeria.

Nigeria is riddled with many educational, economic and social challenges, as discussed in Chapter 1. Young adults are most affected by these challenges (NBS, 2010: 2012: 2014: 2015; UNICEF, 2014). These challenges include poverty, unemployment, gender inequality, depreciated skills and the challenge of access to education. Presumably, the growing level of these social injustices has become a social norm that would prevent young adults from a poor economic background to realise their potentials, (See Chapter 1).

The Youth Craft Village (YCV) in Katsina State, Nigeria is an adult education initiative that attempts to address social injustices in line with the argument that lifelong learning can provide solutions to challenges caused by the global forces of capitalism (Field, 2006; 1996; Green, 2000; Longworth and Osborne, 2010; Osborne, 2003; McIntosh, 2005; UNESCO 1996; UNESCO, 1972). The YCV intervention was also designed to develop individuals' lifelong learning skills for personal and economic growth (Aspin *et al.*, 2001; Coffield, 2000; Field, 2005; Green, 2006; OECD, 1996; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2015).

This research explored whether the YCV makes a difference, what kind of difference it makes, what lifelong learning skills it develops and how it develops these skills. These issues will be discussed below. While there was variety of experiences from the participants, this research concludes that the YCV is an effective model for developing LLL skills in adult learners. This final chapter explores why the participants decided to undertake further training and education at the YCV, and the impact LLL might have on Nigerian society. It looks at the factors facilitating LLL as well as the inhibitors of LLL among young adults. It also outlines the contribution to knowledge and details recommendations for policy, practice and future research.

## **8.1 Triggers for Lifelong Learning at the YCV**

This section discusses motivations for lifelong learning, ranging from a need for self-esteem, self-independence, economic security, precariousness of employment, and recovery from the trauma of divorce, to a need to update knowledge and desire to help others to learn and fulfil personal dreams. In this section, I will address: (1) challenging life experiences as a trigger; (2) gender issues; (3) impact of failure at school - social stigma - potential thuggery; (4) implication of banking education on the students' development of LLL skills; (5) acquiring higher qualifications being not a guarantee for employment; and (6) lifelong learning views as a way to improve lives.

This study found that challenging life experiences serve as triggers for engagement in lifelong learning for young adults. These challenges expose disorienting dilemmas resulting from economic and social conditions (e.g. divorce in itself creating economic and social stress), and educational failures leading to frustration, boredom and vulnerability of young adults. These challenges might relate to effects of social injustice within the Nigerian society. Lifelong learning is viewed as a way to improve their lives.

One interesting finding of this study is the economic and social stress of divorce and its effects on the female participants. The study shows that those female divorcees whose education was shortened to get married suffer particular economic and social distress. Post-divorce experiences exposed women to social and economic challenges which stimulated the need for self-esteem, economic

security and the need to support loved ones. What is interesting about the above finding is that these women identified the challenges affecting their lives after divorce, as Mezirow (2009) suggests, were willing to take action to acquire knowledge and skills that would support them. These actions include returning to learning as the only option to combat their challenges. Identifying the social injustices going-on around the participants lives was the first level of their transformation and empowerment. Although Mezirow (1991; 2009) talked about dilemmas affecting women returners to education, he did not report experiences of pressing economic and social difficulties. The situation in Nigeria is very different from the women in his US study because of higher poverty levels, and greater gender inequality and social injustices within the Nigerian context. The findings in this study expose the ways in which women suffer economically and socially in Nigeria, despite the NPE (2013) claims for the incorporation of EFA and MDG goals, particularly MDG goal three in the education reforms to address gender equality and empower women, as seen in Chapter 5. The above finding is in contrast with the content analysis that revealed the education commitment to girls and women empowerment in line with EFA and MDGs goals. The lesson to learn from this is that not only cultural barriers but also structural and institutional barriers affect women/girls empowerment and liberation (Bourdieu, 1992). It is important to note that not only women are affected but also men.

This research suggests that marginalised women benefit from opportunities such as the YCV that activate their transformation into critical thinkers and lifelong learners. This is important because the women are then able to first identify their challenges, take decisions on solutions, and become ready to accept things that would change their lives for the better. For these women lifelong learning offered them an opportunity to rebuild their lives after the economic and social stress of divorce coupled with lack of empowerment. The findings suggest the women were empowered economically and socially by re-engaging with learning. They believe that their learning situation had the potential to help them reconnected with society again. The participants complained of having been under the control of their parents after the divorce but now had a degree of self-independence economically.

The study revealed the impact of failure in school leading to stigma and potential involvement in thuggery. It found that educational challenges

emanating from the stress of examination failures or meeting requirements for entry to tertiary education affects young adults negatively. These challenges create a growing frustration, unhappiness and boredom among the participants who experience failures (Mezirow, 2009). The participants revealed that this stigma and frustration emanates from the pressures of family members or friends who looked down upon them because of the failures they experienced. This group of participants sought to re-engage with learning to prove to others that they could succeed in life. Although Mezirow's (2009) model did not address such issues, compliance with indirect and direct external pressures are reflected in Boshier and Collins' (1985) work. This also reflects Rae's (1999: 2015) social recognition triggers for young people's engagement in entrepreneurship learning whereby the participants' sought to prove to others who may have doubted their abilities to progress or to take control of unexpected situations (Rae, 2015). Although this theory is western in its origin, it has universal application in illuminating how individuals try to establish their worth and to realise their self-esteem and self-confidence. The problem with the Nigerian system is that no matter what one's experience is if an individual does not have a paper qualification, he/she is not considered educated. There is huge emphasis given to paper qualifications to the disregard of informal learning experiences. This might have implications for non-engagement of youths in meaningful activities in society. This might be contributing to the growing rate of crimes, indoctrination of young adults into political thuggery and extremism. Evidence from an analysis (Chapters 6 and 7) illustrates the likelihood of young adults to be engaged in thuggery because of their disengagement in education, employment or training. These findings contrast with the results of the content analysis, which indicates educational provisions (school) are meant to promote LLL and empower young people. This finding indicates that an educational system that is supposedly promoting LLL skills fails students by limiting their opportunities for learning and wellbeing. It seems that the resulting effects might create tensions around the economic and social conditions of many people. It is not surprising when young adults experiencing these tensions such as poverty, unemployment and failures in schooling get engage with violent activities. This study noted that non-engagement of young adults in education and training could lead to difficult life situations, which might continue to create tension within an already tense society. This finding is important for Nigeria to make adequate and affordable

educational and employment provisions for the disengaged young adults in order to have peaceful co-existence in Nigeria. This finding may have implications for the promotion of peace, tolerance and integration of young adults through taking a critical perspective of lifelong learning in Nigeria.

The precariousness of employment and the need for career change highlighted some alarming issues for many of the participants of this study. Acquiring a high educational qualification does not appear to be a guarantee for securing jobs within the context of Nigeria. Some of the participants reported a never-ending struggle to secure employment despite obtaining a college diploma or university degree. These situations create a growing number of young adults disengaged from education, training and gainful employment within Nigeria. It seems that Nigeria is experiencing a learning crisis if its graduates are unemployable and uncritical. The development of creative and enterprising minds was part of lifelong learning policies in Nigeria (*National Policy on Education*, 2013; *National Universities Commission, Bench MARK for Academic Standard (NUC BMAS)*, 2011; *UNESCO-Nigeria Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy*, 2012), as seen in the reports of content analysis (Chapter 5). There seems to be disconnection between policy and practice. It seems, there are no jobs for young adults despite their number and the education system is not ready to promote critical thinkers. Of the participants in this study there appears to be no difference in access to employment opportunities between those with higher qualification and those with lower qualifications or between male and female or between those in rural and urban locations. A number of participants had obtained higher-level qualifications but could not secure employment; therefore, they had to return to the non-university institution, the YCV, to obtain entrepreneurship training as a way of combating their unemployment. From the above, it is important to note that social injustice is a gap arising from wrecked economy, education, politics and society to make individual and communities at disadvantage in relation to prevailing resources. This questions teaching and learning process in the conventional education system in raising consciousness of young adults in Nigeria.

Participants' prior experience of teaching and learning was characterised by teacher dominated learning, overcrowded classrooms, and the imposition of sanctions in the learning process. According to Freire (1993) whether or not

teachers use banking education knowingly or unknowingly, they are dehumanising and disempowering learners. This seems to have implication for students' development of lifelong learning skills in Nigeria. The finding of this study indicates that the prior learning experiences of the participants threatened their self-adequacy, self-confidence, autonomy, problem-solving, critical thinking skills and enterprise capabilities. The pattern of teaching and learning in students' prior learning are contrary to the principles of critical pedagogy, as advanced by Freire (1993) and Mezirow (2009). A key conclusion of this study is that there is disconnection between policy and practice on strategies of promoting lifelong learning and critical thinking skills among students at both secondary school and tertiary institutions. However, the participants' subsequent learning in Youth Craft Village provided experience of a new teaching strategies involving critical pedagogy; I will discuss the differences that this new approach of teaching made on students' development of LLL in section 8.3 below. Presumably, the teaching and learning approach within the context of this study continue to domesticate learners without giving them the opportunity to analyse and question assumptions.

The study revealed that lifelong learning was a way to improve the participants' lives. The accumulation of the above challenges (economic and social stress of divorce, stress of examination failures, unemployment and precarious employment) and the implication of a banking education drove many of the participants to return to education to overcome economic and social challenges. The tensions and struggles pushed these participants into education that would direct them out of difficult life situations. These findings support Mezirow's (2009) idea that potential life transitions caused by personal crises (death and divorce) as well as environmental factors (unemployment, poverty or events resulting from learning failures), can serve as triggers for people to take particular courses of action, as elaborated upon in Chapter 3. In the case of the present study, those pressing conditions promote engagement in LLL. Mezirow's (2009) theory was not clear about frustration and boredom experienced by the participants to engage in LLL; however, Boshier and Collins' (1985) social stimulation perspective suggests that adults sometimes use education as an escape from such feelings.

The findings reveal the participants' desire to become entrepreneurs to generate funds to support their further education were triggers for participation in learning. Individuals in Nigeria largely have responsibility for their own learning as consumers (Coffield, 2000), which has implications for social injustice in terms of access to education. In Nigeria, access to higher education and secondary education is dependent on one's income, as indicated by the participants of this study. Invariably, in practice the family pays for their children's education at secondary level, despite the government policy of free education from primary up to junior secondary school. Education is like business with greater disregards to the issue of social justice agenda, as discussed in Chapter 2. In the situation where education is made business a low-income families especially, prepare to educate boys to the detriment of girls, who will be married in due course and be under the care of their husbands. The commodification of education might not only denied female access to education but it also affect male, as discussed in Chapter 6 and 7. This finding challenges the policy that stipulates free education at all levels, (See NPE, 2013) as discussed in Chapters 1 and 5. This shows that practice is not in line with stipulations of national policy on education and the constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. Presumably, the commodification of knowledge widens social injustice and social exclusion in education (Allman, 1999; Caffentzis, 2008). This situation might be the reason behind the vulnerability of young adults to unwanted life styles such as thuggery, armed robbery and kidnapping. The country is currently experiencing a barrage of security challenges with many youths involved. This study draws the attention of government and policymakers to the precarious situation that lack of engagement of young adults in education, training and employment might cause.

Overall, the study revealed several factors that triggered the participants' motivation for lifelong learning in Nigeria. These include the need for self-esteem, self-independence, economic security, recovery from the trauma of divorce, to safeguard oneself and the need to support loved ones as well as the need to avoid pressures from family and friends (Mezirow, 1991 and 2009; Rae, 1999). These also include the need for employment and the need to safeguard against health problems that might arise from precarious employment. However, the study found that the triggers for participation in lifelong learning are not

necessary activated by disorienting dilemmas arising from economic, educational and social stress, as speculated by Mezirow (2009) and Rae (1999); rather they could be the quest for learning, community services, fulfilling a particular dream or safeguarding one from health challenges. These triggers also include a passion for learning, a need to update knowledge and the need to gain specialised knowledge in a different field of learning. Other factors also include a desire to help others to learn, the need to make a difference in their communities and the need for fulfilling a personal dream. These factors were not covered by Mezirow (1991: 1994: and 2009) and Rae (1999). This study is thus extending Mezirow's (1991: 1994 and 2009) and Rae's (1999) learning theories.

The following section will discuss the LLL issues addressed by the YCV in its efforts to address educational, economic and social challenges facing young adults.

## **8.2 Lifelong Learning: Social Justice and Human Capital Development Philosophy of the YCV**

The Youth Craft Village (YCV) is designed to offer an intervention based on principles of social justice and human capital development, as seen in section 6.1 (Chapter 6). This is in line with mission of education in Nigeria as a tool to empowerment for the poor and the social marginalised groups, and as a means of developing capacities for human resources (Nigerian Educational Research and Development, 2013). The participants of this study were affected by social injustices, educational, economic and social deprivations, including the challenges of access to education. In this section, I will address: (1) free education as a means of offering second chance to educationally, economically and socially distress youths; (2) high priority for women empowerment; and (3) enskilling youths for personal and economic development.

One finding of this study is that the YCV offers free education to deprived young men and women distressed by educational, economic and social deprivations. This free education is meant to provide second chance educational opportunities to youths whose education was affected in one way or another. This seems to give second chances to learners without qualifications or opportunity to re-enter education. The YCV has lower entry requirements for the young adults without



qualification to access various formal and non-formal courses. Participants who cannot bear the cost of the education were financially supported. This includes people with disabilities for whom a lack of education might mean a life of begging. The findings are consistent with the policy on educational provisions for the socially marginalised groups (See Chapter 5). However, there are limitations to access to education, as will be discussed below.

Women are given high priority in access to the educational opportunities for their empowerment because of the social and economic deprivations they experience within society. Thus, the YCV places no age criteria for the enrolment of women, but limits the enrolment of male adults to those ages 16-30. This is in line with the NPE (2013) consideration for MDG goal 3 that proposes gender equality and the empowerment of women. The YCV (2016) indicates that 'both male and female students have equal opportunities ... no gender disparities' (p.3). This idea adopted by the YCV supports the humanitarian concern to address social injustice and deprivation through education (See for example, in Chapter 2, McIntosh's (2005) social justice model of lifelong learning and Aspin *et al.*'s (2001) compensation model that both aim at gender equality, empowering socially marginalised groups and compensating for missed learning opportunities). These findings demonstrate the idea of empowering socially and economically distressed young people in order to address the problems affecting their lives. I will discuss the transformation experiences of the participants of this study later in this chapter (section 8.4.). As seen in Chapter 1, 6 and 7 women are worst affected by social injustices. It appears that certain practices limit women's empowerment, especially where the men's education are prioritised by parents to the detriment of girls and women. Looking at various statistics, (See Chapter 1), females were rated low in literacy levels, access to higher education and completion rates. Nigerian women are not only disenfranchised when it comes to accessing resources but they have little or limited access to education. Empowering women through education is vital for social growth. According to the data those participants who are empowered have an opportunity to be exposed and make informed choices. However, despite the humanitarian approach with respect to the ability of the YCV to provide access to education to all and empowerment of the women, there are some challenges. Although the recruitment of students to the institute is through Community

Development Councils (CDCs), in order to provide equal opportunities and equal representation of the 34 local government councils in the state, some participants reported that they had to know someone (a politician) support their admission to the institute. There were participants who reported that they had to apply several times before they were finally admitted, which goes against the principles of education for social justice.

Moreover, some participants indicated that the free education system limits entry and freedom to select courses of their choice. This resulted into some students losing interest in the course, detrimentally impacting on their transformation and empowerment.

YCV uses the principles of education as a tool for human capital development to address poverty, unemployment and economic challenges. This study found that the ideas were framed to promote young adults entrepreneurial mind-sets ready for job creation rather than being a job seeker (NERDC, 2013; NUC BMAS 2011; UNESCO-Nigeria Revitalising Adult and Youth Literacy, 2012). The interview data from this study indicated that the mission of the YCV was to address both skills development and social problems; this was consistent with policy. For example, Official 3 noted that ‘it is all about being self-reliant, independent and capable of turning ideas into products! I believe all these improve a youth’s capacity for civic participation without being involved in thuggery and unwanted behaviours’ (Chapter 6). However, the study noted that some participants had a narrow conception of entrepreneurship as LLL skills. Some instructors viewed entrepreneurship as the development of craft-skills and better citizenry whilst others perceived it as an economic construct related to business and profit-making skills to the detriment of entrepreneurship as a lifelong learning attribute (See for example European Commission (2016b) in Chapter 2). These conceptions tied entrepreneurship only to a neo-liberal agenda with focus on capitalism principles rather than taking entrepreneurship skills beyond educating learners for economic progress to the social domain. This approach to human capital development was meant to make individuals for carter for themselves. This is escalating the level of social injustice and deprivation within human society.

The following section will discuss the lifelong learning skills developed and the approach for the development of the skills. Does YCV make a differences in the promotion of those skills and why?

### **8.3 Impact of Pedagogy on Lifelong Learning Skills**

The pedagogical approach of the YCV, from the findings was informed by critical pedagogy, enabled the participants to overcome their previous negative associations with learning/school and gave them lifelong learning skills such as confidence, self-direction, sharing, teamwork, and love for learning, tolerance, reflection and capability for application of ideas. Probably, critical pedagogy has helped to make a difference because it engages learners through practice, group learning and a learner-centred approach to develop their lifelong learning skills and critical consciousness.

In this section, I will address the following themes:(1) The role of learning through practice in the development of LLL skills; (2) The role of group learning and dialogue in enhancing social capital; (3) Student-centred learning; (4) The influence of personal and instrumental factors on LLL; and (5) The impacts of critical pedagogy on socialisation process and development of LLL skills.

The findings indicated that learning through practice helps the participants to overcome fear and regain their lost confidence from the effect of banking education experienced in schooling. This supports Wenger (1998) who maintained that meaningful learning engages learners through practical pedagogy that enhances participation, action, discussion and sharing (See also Rae (1999) entrepreneurship capability model; and Freire's (1993) idea of communicative learning (Chapter 3). After engaging with their teachers and peers through an active teaching strategy the participants reported that they became more confident and active with a positive attitude toward learning (See Gormally, 2010 in Chapter 2, section 2.7.2).

The study found that practical and group learning enhances students' development of LLL skills such as team spirit, cooperation, and confidence, sharing and networking (See Bourdieu, 1992; Field, 2005, in Chapter 2 on the importance of social capital in lifelong learning). Other students' attributes

noted in the study include tolerance, interaction and friendly manners (See table 6.4 in Chapter 6). Participants reported that initially they were passive students due to the teacher-dominated pedagogies they had experienced at every level of their education but the new critical pedagogy activated their LLL skills. Dialogical actions according to Freire (1993) describe the way in which people activated cooperation, unity, organization, and cultural synthesis. The research findings did not reflect dialogue as critical as Freire's (1993) postulation of challenging assumptions, but rather participants imbibing cooperation, unity and sharing and as discussed below on the awareness of young adults not to engage with thuggery. The impact of the pedagogy was the experience of fellowship of learning and supporting each other through informal learning (Wenger, 1998). The finding shows the participants, not only sharing learning and supporting the weak among themselves, but also accommodating and being tolerant towards each other and sharing food. There was no superiority and inferiority complexes among the participants. The critical approach to learning was found to help students to learn, share and practice with each other.

The study revealed that students' engagement in learning as co-constructors of knowledge is relevant in promoting curiosity, self-confidence, participation and application of learning to practice. The study also notes the influence of social learning through informal networks in the promotion of sharing, networking, collaboration, confidence, collaboration and social interaction. The findings revealed the student-led formation of informal online platforms as the basis for satisfying their quest for learning. For example, as seen in Chapter 6, the students at the YCV were establishing WhatsApp groups to motivate each other to learn and share ideas. This finding is congruent with the Wenger's (2011) notion that learning through interaction may occur beyond geographical location. It involves individuals forming virtual communities of practices using information and community technologies (ICTs) as in the case of the participants of this study. Within such platforms, the findings suggest that some students might take advantage of peer inputs through sharing and collaboration while learning. However, the finding suggests that not all the participants have access to the internet or smartphones and electricity issues are common in Nigeria. It seems that not all learners could get involved with learning through informal

online networks. This might be a subject of further research, especially examining the role of online platforms towards promotion of lifelong learning.

The results also revealed that apart from the role of teaching in the students' development of LLL skills, there is the influence of students' personal traits. The participants' interest, commitment, self-motivation and courage influenced their development of further LLL skills. Many of the participants reported that their accomplishment in acquiring new skills is related to their interest and commitment to learning. They believe that such factors have a strong influence in their success and accomplishment. The participants reported that the use of local language (Hausa) in teaching and learning promotes their interest, curiosity, confidence and participation in discussion in the learning process. The participants construed that understanding of language of instruction empowers them to be curious and engage with the learning. The use of the local language (Hausa) in teaching was also found helpful in the students' development of LLL skills. The finding suggests that the use of their first language helps students to develop confidence and make meaning of their reality. This accords with Lave and Wenger's (1991) assertion concerning the effect of familiarity with language of learning in promoting active participation in learning. Further, as Magro (2015) maintains the understanding of language of liberation empower learners to tell their stories and become self-conscious. This might a subject for further research.

This study also noted that instrumental influences such as rigid rules, competition for financial incentives and provision of free education could lead to the development of LLL attributes such as time management, organised learning, compliance, perseverance and hard work. Freire (1993) opposed rigid rules in learning because they turn students into 'receptacles' to be 'filled' with knowledge. This finding suggests that, apart from the use of critical pedagogy, the participants of this study were regulated through rules and promises of financial incentives and free education. Freire (1993) considers it as illogical to regulate students in such ways whereby participants' behaviours and the learning process are controlled instrumentally. It seems, however, that instrumental learning manipulates learning situations (competition for financial support and free education) to improve students' performance (Mezirow, 2009). This might be detrimental to the participants' full conscientisation as oppressors

might continue to perpetuate injustice through the promise of financial support and free education to the detriment of the acquisition of critical and reflective thinking skills (Freire, 1993). The education system within the context of this study might continue to promote control mode of learning to prevent young adults from being conscientised to challenge the status quo.

The use of critical pedagogy at the YCV helps in the socialisation process. This result revealed that the system contributes to the understanding of the socialisation of young adults into a structure where there are shared values and mutual integration. Freire (1993) maintained that in no way does sharing and collaboration between students and teachers diminish the spirit of struggle, courage and capacity for love. Earlier Vygotsky (1978) suggested that, “learning through interacting with the environment and peers awakens development of skills such as self-direction, sharing and collaboration among students. Zhu (2009) also has asserted the importance of the role of social capital in the transfer of knowledge.

This socialisation and development of LLL skills would not have happened if the YCV held classes in the banking style of teaching and learning. The finding revealed that use of critical pedagogy by the YCV was influenced by key administrators and instructors, (See section 6.4 in Chapter 6). The administrators and instructors, having noticed the problem of a teacher-centred approach, emphasized that learning should be practical, experiential and student-centred to facilitate the development of skills. The critical pedagogy adopted by the YCV ensures the reciprocal interaction between the students and the teachers. The findings suggest that both the teachers and students are aware of reciprocal interaction to promote the acquisition of skills, as seen in Chapter 6. With this approach to learning, as Freire (1993) pointed out, the participants perform the role of educator and learner without diminishing the contribution of each other. He maintained that for students to achieve confidence, curiosity, critical thinking skills, teachers must be their partners in learning (Freire, 1993, p.75). Further Mezirow’s (2009) dialectical discourse suggests the ideal conditions for learners’ participation in learning (Chapter 3).

Critical pedagogy, apart from stimulating LLL skills, presumably has helped to enhance participants’ positive learning experiences for further learning and self-

discovery. This is shown in Cross's (1991) 'Chain of Response' model of adult participation in learning. She maintains that adults' experiences of positive learning outcomes are likely to promote engagement in another. These participants' engagement in further learning is associated with the economic, social and emotional benefits of lifelong learning. This means a lot for Nigeria as such a system of learning could motivate large numbers of young adults who have disengaged from education and training to re-engage with learning. However, despite the positivity the participants of this study, they raised lack of funding as the possible barrier to further learning. Coming back to my question 'what is the students' perception of teaching and learning approaches that promote lifelong learning skills? This thesis argues that critical pedagogy promotes students' lifelong learning skills, but that there was little evidence of the students' development of meta-cognitive skills. This would be a subject for further research.

Learning through practice and group activity from the perception of the participants does not seem to promote these meta-cognitive skills such as deep learning, academic rigor, financial management, problem solving and critical thinking skills. It seems concentration on learning through practice and group learning has affected the participants' development of certain skills. Rae's (1999) entrepreneurial capacity learning theory does not focus on the role of practical and experiential learning in the promotion of meta-cognitive skills, as part of lifelong learning attributes. This exposes the weakness the Rae's (1999) framework in the area of the present study. The weakness of YCV pedagogy lay in the concentration of practical and experiential learning, which Freire (1993) argued should not 'negate practice for the sake of theory ... to negate theory for the sake of practice ... is to run the risk of losing oneself in the disconnectedness to practice' (p.19). Presumably, a complete use of critical pedagogy in the YCV would enhance students' autonomy and intellectual development as critical thinkers and better citizens.

Overall, these findings suggest that there are specific factors arising from pedagogical practice on the participants' development of lifelong learning skills. The factors that influence this development are critical pedagogy, influence of teachers and administrators, flexible language of instruction and students' personal factors (courage, interest, and self-motivation). Others are

instrumental influences (rigid rules, competition for financial incentives and provision of free education) that stimulate students' behaviour for the development of curiosity and love for learning. Generally, the pedagogy is not without deficiency that might affect the development of certain skills as noted above. Better training of the instructors on critical pedagogy might support these participants in standing against societal injustice. This might give young adults (students), especially women, voice to stand against deprivation and loosen the shackles of poverty and unemployment.

## **8.4 LLL as Pedagogy of Hope and Transformation for Young Adults and their Communities**

The findings of the study revealed post-training transformational outcomes of learning on the graduates and their communities. To understand the transformational outcomes twelve participants (young adults), YCV graduates, were recruited. It is not possible to draw generalisable conclusions on the impacts of the programme. However, based on the data of the study, participants experienced some transformational learning outcomes considering their prior life conditions before their participation in lifelong learning. The outcomes are classified as the transformative outcomes for individual empowerment and for learning through life, and factors that influence the transformation of the graduates, and the barriers and limitations experienced by the participants are discussed below.

### **8.4.1 Transformative Outcome for Individual Empowerment**

This study has shown the economic, educational and social transformation of the graduates. In this section, I will address the following themes: (1) economic and social transformation beyond self-transformation (individualistic) to community wellbeing; (2) a transition from 'learning to earning' (achieving qualification and employment); (3) the role LLL in the individuals' development of new social identities; (4) the effects of critical pedagogy in the promotion of social and emotional empowerment; and (5) development of self-awareness and sense of freedom when not engaged in anti-social behaviour.



The result revealed that the participants' transformational experiences include successful establishment of small-scale businesses that gives them economic and social empowerment. The transformation experienced by some of the participants has changed their life conditions, and thereby improved their economic, social and emotional wellbeing with transformed identities in the community. The transformations experienced by the participants surprisingly was beyond self-transformation (individualistic), as seen in Mezirow's (2009) and Rae's (1999) theories. The transformation of the participants started with the individual's desire to move out of poverty and unemployment (Mezirow, 2009) and was found to have effect on personal and community wellbeing. The study revealed that the programme promoted participants' capacity to develop a positive self-concept, independence and self-direction to struggle out of poverty and unemployment. The training presumably gave the participants a transformative perspective leading to sense of awakening, in some cases, their sense of themselves as critical thinkers and made them employers, better citizens, more empowered and active citizens. The transformation of the participants was encouraged by the desire to be self-employed and out of poverty and a difficult life situation. Mezirow (1991) maintained that for transformation to be possible learners need direct experience that will be meaningful in addressing their problems. The Youth Craft Village offers pedagogy that helped the participants' set up entrepreneurial ventures to earn resources and be out of poverty.

Many participants achieved a qualification and a transition from 'learning to earning' (entrepreneurship or employment), an expression used by CEDEFOP (2015). These participants exhibit the skills of helping others to learn in order to secure employment. Due to the participants' transformation as entrepreneurs within small-scale enterprises to solve their job insecurity and poverty a prevalent and persistent problem in Nigeria, a new self-concept (Mezirow, 1991) of the participants emerged to offer employment to other people and support the community. The impact that the young adults were making in their community cannot be overemphasized. This shows that lifelong learning has the potential to change the outlook of young people who are disengaged. These young adults begin to see that giving back to their community matters. This means that a change in an individual has significant influence in changing the

habitus (Bourdieu, 1990: 1992: 2002). This means that designing LLL programme based on critical pedagogy would have a positive effect on reducing poverty and feelings of insecurity among individuals and communities in Nigeria. The study extends previous findings concerned with the benefits of VET by showing that learning does not only improve employability and engagement in an entrepreneurial activity (Leach, 2012; Moodie, 2002; Tran and Nyland, 2013), but also societal cohesion, social security, reducing violence and promotion of self-serving individuals. Most of the participants felt socially and economically empowered without becoming a burden to the community. It seems that the change of personal and social life of an individual could have a multiplier effect on social change (Bourdieu, 1992; Mezirow, 1991; 1994 and 2009) and within their families and communities. The result of changes in individual life promotes cohesion and peace within the habitus. This is important because individuals are always agent within and their actions should not be seen as individual, but should have an impact on the field and habitus (Bourdieu, 1992: 2002).

A seemingly unique finding is that the economically, educationally and socially distressed participants of this study were able to develop new social identities within the community. When some of the participants reported their prior living conditions, they said that their communities had neglected them. The neglect resulted in low self-esteem and disengagement from community activities, but the participants' involvement in learning and their subsequent transformations as small-scale business owners (entrepreneurs) and students at tertiary institutions has given them hope, new social identity and recognition in their communities. This study indicates that engagement in lifelong learning has influenced young adults' integration into a community, as well as improving their psychological and overall living conditions. This shows that the status and power held by individuals within a community afforded them certain social recognition that others value (Bourdieu, 1990; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). As the data reflected, some of the participants had been involved in thuggery and other social behaviours, which changed as their result of learning. The Feinstein *et al.* (2008) study in the UK similarly reported positive changes in behaviours and attitudes of the young participants, leading to healthy living and civic engagement. Transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1991: 2009) did not envision this. The recognition that the community accorded to them has

rekindled the participant's self-esteem and confidence. The implications, however, are that it is likely that many young adults who have not been given the opportunity to be in school or employment will continue to live in frustration and difficult life situations. The implication of this finding is to recommend extending training programmes based on principles of critical pedagogy to help young adults free themselves from frustration a difficult life. This might reduce the number incessant kidnappings, armed robbery, political thuggery and oil pipeline vandalism by NEETs in Nigeria. Presumably, belonging to certain social networks (peaceful groups) and maintenance of strategic relations within such social networks continue to give individual relevance within a community (Bourdieu, 1992).

The findings revealed the effects of critical pedagogy in the promotion of social and emotional empowerment among disaffected young people. The participants' feelings of social insecurity and frustration due to the effects of educational, economic and social influences have been significantly reduced. They feel potentially empowered due to the effect of education and social interaction (Lave and Wenger, 1991, Rae, 1999). The study found that this kind of programme empowers women and marginalised groups (See Chapter 7). The transformative learning process has empowered people with disabilities who were mostly compelled to engage in street begging, as discussed in Chapter 7. The participants strove to make changes in their personal and social life engaging with entrepreneurship to support their lives economically and socially. Education was found to have transformative effect on the lives of these participants by changing their situation (Hillier, 2002; Mezirow, 1994). The life crisis of poverty, unemployment and lack of education faced by these participants influenced their situation, which were accompanied by action, reactions, decision and positive atmosphere. This means that possession of cultural capital promotes individual social mobility relative to income, employment and education attainment (Bourdieu, 1986: 1992). Arguably, learning, built on principles of critical pedagogy, can empower economically and socially vulnerable groups to reduce anti-social behaviours, and promote engagement in meaningful life activities.

The findings revealed the participants' development of self-awareness and a sense of freedom not to be engaged in political thuggery with the intention of

causing unrest. As Mezirow (1990) maintained, transformative learning enhances awareness of one's belief and feelings, and in the case of some of these participants awareness was activated to dispense with undesirable behaviours. However, it is not possible to make a generalisable conclusion that there was a comprehensive awareness of societal responsibilities since there was no evidence of an increase in civic participation among the participants. These qualities were not manifested among the participants. This is contrary to Mezirow (1990) who had implied that adult education should create opportunities for individual participation in political life. What is of interest to this study and perhaps is the effects of individual transformation to social cohesion, increased community wellbeing and increase individual income and inclusion. This research highlights the participants transformative experiences that exceeds the scope of Mezirow's (1991; 1994; 2009) theory, as seen through out the analysis.

However, the non-political participation of the participants might hinder the social justice agenda of the empowering and conscientisation of socially marginalised groups to take part in discourse with freedom from coercion and critically reflect on their assumptions (Freire, 1993; Mezirow, 2009). This kind of transformation would help to increase the accountability of leaders who take decisions without recourse to people's opinions. I believe to build a functional society for people to be free from the shackles of poverty, dehumanisation and inequalities, education should be political (Freire, 1993): and transformative (Mezirow, 2009) in order to ensure authentic conscientisation.

## **8.5 Factors Facilitating and Barriers to LLL**

This study revealed factors that facilitate the participants' development and application of LLL skills, including interest, motivation, curiosity, the need for employment and the desire to solve problems. This finding is consistent with the previous studies reported in Chapter 2 (Manninen *et al.*, 2014; Marzano, 1990; Pintrich, 1988) on the factors influencing lifelong learning. However, this study extends on this by reporting the influence of pedagogy on practice to stimulate the transformation of graduates as lifelong learners (See Rae, 1999 and Lave and Wenger, 1991).

This study noted that apart from the personal traits and impact of pedagogy, the participants reported that encouragement, and emotional and financial support from family, friends and government played an important role in the development of LLL skills. This was noted in previous studies that examine the role of external support received from informal and formal sources (families, friends and government) in influencing young adults attitudes and propensity to engage in lifelong learning (entrepreneurial propensity) (Gorard, 2007; Mwiya *et al.*, 2017).

The research revealed that most participants were influenced to engage in lifelong learning because of the need for personal development, independence and employment. The socio-economic context within which the participants live is plagued with high rates of unemployment and poverty among young adults, as discussed in Chapter 1, (See also Bourdieu, 1990: 1992 in 3.2.4 in Chapter 3). Previous studies that examined these include those of Rees *et al.* (1997) and Wlodkowski (2008), as seen in Chapter 2. The finding of this study is dissimilar to those studies because poverty and unemployment in Nigeria led to these participants into more challenging life conditions that warrant different forms of engagement and application of lifelong learning skills.

Cultural influences were found to be barriers to lifelong learning. It seems that some traditional communities that subscribe to certain gendered cultural norms could affect the transformation of women (Clover and Hall, 2000; Mezirow, 1991). This creates some barriers and tensions for women and other members of the community. There are women in education, politics, public services and business activities in Nigeria, but their number is low compared to men, as noted by NBS (2014). This is so despite gender equality advocacy in Nigeria, although it is perhaps not such a surprise that traditional communities continue to limit women's opportunities in undertaking certain practices. The patriarchal nature of the Nigerian society positioned women in subordinate conditions that prompt all forms of gender-based discrimination. The men (sic) were more dominant in politics, public service and other forms of social life. Presumably, women in Nigeria are grossly underrepresented in the economic, political and social situation and these make women to have little or no decision making power. Thus, if women's potentials are fully explored it would bring about economic and social change within the society.

This study also noted personal and environmental inhibitors to the transformation of participants as lifelong learners including a lack of interest, low self-esteem and fear of failure, (See Clover and Hall, 2000; Hillage and Aston, 2001; Laal, 2011). Other barriers were lack of community support and lack of access to information and financial support. The study found that the effects of poverty, inflation and poor economic conditions affect the graduates' full transformation and development of LLL skills. Some participants noted the negative effects of nepotism, the practice of favouring relatives and alliance in a particular activity. These factors affect the participants' engagement in lifelong learning activities because their opportunities might be denied because they do not know anyone to support them.

## **8.6 Contribution of the Study**

This research has contributed to the field of adult education in six areas:

(1) it increases knowledge about lifelong learning in Nigeria; (2) it increases knowledge about motivations for participation in lifelong learning; (3) it exposes the effects of banking education in impeding capacity for lifelong learning; (4) it increases knowledge concerning critical pedagogy in empowering socially marginalised groups; (5) it increases knowledge regarding the role of LLL/adult education not only for personal transformation, but also for communal and societal transformation; (6) it increases methodological knowledge in researching lifelong learning, particularly in Nigeria.

### **8.6.1 Increase Understanding of LLL from Social Justice and Economic Growth Perspectives**

The policy analysis, supported by the participants' views on LLL, recognised an opportunity for understanding, implementation and vocalisation of ideas for LLL for social justice and economic growth using a local or home grown strategy. This study introduces the ideas of LLL for social justice and economic growth into the realm of adult education discourse using home grown strategies in Nigeria. Evidence suggests growing level of social injustice and lack of skills and economic and social disempowerment of young adults due to the effects of limited understanding of the global rhetoric (lifelong learning as a tool for social justice and economic growth), lack of recognition of informal learning

structures, confusion and misinterpretation of the scope of LLL and discrepancies in LLL policies. With this evidence, this study established a research gap that needed to be filled in respect of the failing level of LLL (social justice and human capital development) in Nigeria. It adds to the evidence on the need to transform the ways lifelong learning policies are developed and implemented. With the success recorded by YCV as an adult education initiative in entrenching LLL ideas using local strategies to reach-out to a large number of young adults who were disenchanted educationally, economically and socially. The study has established that the challenges of lifelong learning in Nigeria are not only cultural or peoples' attitude to learning, but rather because of structural issues such as infrastructural deficit, insufficient technology, non-availability of space and a quota system, corruption, economy and poverty (See Bourdieu, 1990: 1992: 2002 in Chapter 3). The implications of these structural issues might lead to growing numbers of people being excluded or driven out of education, training and employment, which could be detrimental to the peaceful co-existence of the country. This finding will have implication for international development agencies to consider using local knowledge and resources to achieve objectives of development work in the global south.

### **8.6.2 Extending Motivations/triggers for Participation in LLL**

This study extends the theoretical models of Mezirow (2009) and Rae (1999) that explained the triggers for participation in lifelong learning as dilemmas and the need for social recognition. This study supports Mezirow's (2009) and Rae's (1999) theoretical works; however, the Nigerian context is very complex. The participants in the present study after experiencing difficult life transitions that resulted to their frustration and disorientation as triggers for LLL (Mezirow, 1978: 2009; Rae, 1999) but this study has added the need for community service and the need to fulfil life dreams as reasons for participation in LLL in Nigeria. This study established push factors for LLL that are more complicated than the ones reflected in Mezirow's (1978: 2009) and Rae's (1999) studies because of the poverty and high level of social inequalities in Nigeria. These triggers range from the need for self-esteem, self-independence, economic security, employment, and recovery from the trauma of divorce, to a need to update knowledge and desire to help others to learn and fulfil personal dreams. This reflected the experiences of young adults being marginalised to attained social and economic

benefits despite the rhetoric of LLL for social justice and human capital development. This is a valuable contribution in understanding how to empower disengaged young people to engage in learning and employment to avert gender issues, the impact of failure at school - social stigma - potential involvement in thuggery and unwanted behaviours and the effect of banking education on young adults' development of LLL skills. This will provides ways to support youth and adults not become a problem to the society or society to hinder them.

### **8.6.3 Extending Approaches for Development of LLL Skills**

This study looked at the factors that facilitated young adults' development of LLL skills based on Freire (1993), Lave and Wenger (1991), Wenger (1998), and Rae (1999), as discussed in Chapter 3. The study shows that lifelong learning skills are developed using active practical learning, social learning from others and theoretical learning. However, the study extended those theoretical assumptions to the effects that personal, environment, language and instrumental factors influenced students' development of LLL skills. It shows that development of LLL skills are not only result of teaching and learning processes. Evidence from the study shows that personal factors (interest and self-motivation) good learning environment and life crisis such as poverty, unemployment and lack of engagement influenced the participants' development of LLL skills. Evidence suggests that the participants of this study forming online social networks in order to promote their quest for learning (Brooks (2006), Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) in Chapter 2 and 3 respectively). This reflects action, reaction, decision, intervention and positive atmosphere. This forms the basis for socialisation of students through building capacity for self-direction, sharing, networking and collaboration among the students. The study provides evidence that the pedagogy adopted by YCV apart from stimulating LLL skills, it helped to enhance participants' positive learning experiences for further learning and self-discovery. It increases knowledge concerning critical pedagogy in empowering passive students' foster positive attitudes to their learning. Evidence shows the weakness of the practical pedagogies in the development of meta-cognitive skills and that may be subject to further research.



#### **8.6.4 LLL as Pedagogy of Hope and Transformation for Young Adults and Communities**

This study also contributes to evidence that LLL based on critical pedagogy principles can transform distressed graduates into economically and socially viable individuals who contribute to their own personal as well as community progress. The study shows that lifelong learning promotes self-concepts skills (curiosity, enhanced self-esteem, self-direction, self-concepts, perseverance, motivation, confidence, managing resources, independence, networking, personal awareness and the capacity to organise learning) consistent with previous studies (Collins, 2009; Candy, Crebert and O'Leary, 1994; Mwaikokesya, Osborne and Houston, 2014). However, this study extends transformation beyond self-transformation of self-serving individuals to the promotion of social and emotional wellbeing, peace building, societal cohesion, social security, reducing violence and promoting networking, collaboration and community wellbeing. Evidence has it that LLL gives the participants movement from learning to earning and helping others to learn and a way to rebuild lives after divorce, particularly for women and emotionally distressed people.

Evidence from the data in Chapter 6 and 7 suggests that the participants understanding of self and others might support large segments of youth to move out of poverty, unemployment and vulnerability. By doing this, apparently the participants of this study developed awareness of helping themselves and others. This study extends Mezirow's (1991: 2009) theory that transformation cannot only be individual but also communal. It also extends other previous studies on transformative learning such as Magro (2015) and Mathuna (2017) that revealed individual development of self-concepts.

One can argue that the problems relating to poverty, unemployment and unwanted social behaviours among young adults in Nigeria could be reduced through organising education programmes based on critical pedagogy. The learning process must meet the needs and expectations of the young adults in the midst of their contextual environment, which is damaged by social injustices and inequalities. Building teaching and learning based on these kinds of parameters might make Nigerian society safer and more comfortable, with fewer social problems orchestrated by young adults.

Overall, it would make sense to promote critical pedagogy at all level of education in order to promote critical thinkers and conscious citizenry. Otherwise, the country will continue to produce graduates that exhibit only surface level education or literacy. The implication of this is that such citizens could not make informed choices in their lives and might continue to live in poverty and difficult living conditions. However, empowering the citizenry using LLL to be critical thinkers would promote peace building, social stability and community development. This suggests a role of adult education in peace building and community development. Presumably, the drive for paper qualifications leading towards employment rather than a critical development of people might continue to create disparity (social exclusion) and income gap due to qualifications requirements. This, in turn, might continue to promote social inequalities with linked effects on poverty and crime rates.

### **8.6.5 Methodological Contribution**

The study has contributed to methodological and philosophical knowledge in researching lifelong learning, particularly in Nigeria. As noted in Chapter 4 the study adopts a qualitative case study approach, which is uncommon in Nigeria. The qualitative research gave the participants of the present study voice, flexibility, interaction and opportunity for learning (Creswell, 2014; Palinkas *et al.*, 2015) as seen in Chapter 6 and 7 respectively. From my experience and practice as a university lecturer in Nigeria most, research in the field of adult education in Nigeria is quantitative in nature and there is hardly an opportunity for the participants to interact, and have their voice heard (Jinna and Maikano, 2014; Mbagwu, 2013; Shamsideen, 2016). This study opens a ground for possible discussion and possible application of qualitative research methods based on a social constructivist perspective. The semi-structured interviews gave me detailed accounts of students' triggers for lifelong learning and the effect of banking education on students' and graduates' development of lifelong learning attributes and their transformations as employers, thinkers and better citizens. This is important because there has been no previous study on these issues in Nigeria. The study benefited from two qualitative methods (document analysis and semi-structured interviews). I was particularly curious to learn how possible it would for someone to understand the triggers of participation in lifelong learning and the students' perception of teaching and learning approach as well

as the impact of lifelong learning on the transformation of learners and their communities using quantitative research methods. This qualitative research is particularly grounded on the belief that knowledge is socially constructed through personal stories, engagement and interaction (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). The study has contributed to the existing literature of thinkers such as Freire (1993); Lave and Wenger (1991); Rae (1999) who believes that learning is not simply an individualist endeavour, but is dependent on the process of interaction with others and the external environment.

## **8.7 Limitations of the Study**

This study examined policy and practices that promote students' and graduates' capacity for learning through life. The results of the study yielded rich and valuable findings on the policy context of lifelong learning, triggers for lifelong learning, stimulants for students' development of LLL skills and the role of LLL as a pedagogy of hope and transformation of disaffected young adults and their communities. The study was affected by a methodological limitation.

The study used a quasi-longitudinal approach where a different set of participants were interviewed over the period of the study (current students and graduates). A longitudinal study (over a period of time) could have provided more comprehensive data set by tracking one cohort for the study and enabled me to examine and observe the LLL changes experienced by one cohort over a period of time. This constraint was due to practicalities, specifically the period for PhD. being just three years and one might not be able to follow and monitor one set of participants over an extended period of time.

## **8.8 Recommendations of the Study**

This study examines policy and practices that promote young adults capacity for learning through life. The study has documented the major gaps between policy and practice and the lack of research on lifelong learning. Based on the conclusions drawn in this chapter, the following recommendations are offered for policy, practices and future research.

### 8.8.1 Recommendation for Policy and Practice

This study recommends the following:

1. The national policies for LLL adopted mostly through international development partners (UNESCO, UNDP, World Bank) should be implemented alongside home grown initiatives such as the Youth Craft Village to suit the local circumstances of the country. The model of LLL in YCV should be tried in other parts of the federation with necessary locally modified structures based on critical pedagogy. This would address internal challenges rather than being guided by internationally agreed development targets.
2. Critical pedagogy should form part of policies to ensure that students development as critical thinkers, problem solvers and good citizens. The findings of this study established the importance of critical pedagogy in the transformation of young adults as lifelong learners through the YCV intervention. The intervention has made an impact in changing the life styles of the participants of this study.
3. There is a need for national policies and practices to be reviewed with respect to gender issues to close the gender gap in enrolment, completion rate, educational attainment and skills development. The social justice aspect of education should be properly articulated with clear detail to support marginalised groups to have access to all level of education.
4. A national plan needs to be adopted for open access to education at all levels of education. This would address young adults' limited access to tertiary education and its attendant challenges in Nigeria. These open access courses would provide opportunities to learners with no formal qualification for entry to education and would reduce the tensions created by lack of young people's engagement in education and employment. This might also promote LLL as a tool for social justice at all levels, particularly in higher education.

### 8.8.2 Recommendation for Further Research

There is scope and potential for future empirical research on lifelong learning in Nigeria to extend the findings of this study. The following are the potential areas for further research:

1. The need for a national survey to ascertain the numbers and activities of the young adults that are NEETs (Not in education, employment or training).
2. Empirical qualitative research on NEETs should be conducted to understand the feelings, experiences and perception of young adults who are disengaged. The findings of this study revealed that some of the participants were exposed to the vulnerability of being used as political thugs because of their lack of education and employment.
3. It would be useful to conduct a longitudinal case study on LLL attributes by following up new cohorts students from the day of their entry in education through to their graduation and subsequently a few years after graduation. This would help to understand the process of students' development of LLL skills and importance of LLL skills in addressing poverty and unemployment.
4. Research should be conducted on students' transitions from secondary to higher education.
5. Qualitative research should be conducted on the effect on banking education (Freire, 1971) in disempowering students. Moreover, research on the impact of Adult education in the empowerment of women divorcees in Northern Nigeria. A research on the role of critical pedagogy in the development of meta-cognitive skills should be conducted.
6. Research should be conducted on the barriers to lifelong learning in Nigeria, the effectiveness of mentoring in the development of lifelong learning capacities, the role of lifelong learning in the promotion of

community development and on the gender gap in students' enrolment in the HE.

7. An investigation of the training needs of educators at all level of education should be conducted to inform ways to build their professional development.
8. Research on the role of social capital on the promotion of lifelong learning should be conducted. This might include an examination of the role of social media on young adults' civic engagement. There is a serious gap that needs to be filled in the area of young adults' civic engagement in Nigeria.
9. An exploration as to whether education can raise consciousness of structural inequality would be useful.

## **8.9 Summary**

This research investigated LLL policies and practices in Nigeria. The study provides evidence that LLL is an effective tool for promoting social justice and economic growth; however, constraints exist such as lack of clear understanding of LLL, widening levels of social injustice in education, lack of recognition of informal learning structure, confusion and misinterpretation of the scope of LLL and discrepancies between LLL policies and practices in tertiary education. The findings show growing levels of social injustice in terms of access to education, gender equality and employment opportunities among the young adults as the large segments of the population.

The findings of the study indicate that banking approach to learning in Nigeria negatively affects students' development of LLL attributes. The findings suggest the importance of pedagogy of practice, personal and instrumental factors in the development of lifelong learners.

They also reveal, through the case study of the YCV that critical pedagogy is important not only in the development of participants' lifelong learning skills

but also in the promotion of awareness, employability, empowerment, better citizenry and peaceful co-existence and societal cohesion.

The empirical data revealed that young adults were frustrated by the educational, economic, social and political structure of the country. One can argue that with large segments of youth not in education and employment, the stability of Nigeria might continue to be threatened. The Boko Haram insurgency, the activities of Niger Delta militant, Herdsmen and farmers' clashes, thuggery and frequent kidnappings are cases in point and mostly perpetrated by young people. This shows the prevalence of social injustice arise from malfunctioned economy, education and politics which places individuals and communities to vulnerability. The Nigerian education practice needs to be transformed to meet the desire for lifelong learning through critical pedagogy. The incorporation of critical pedagogy in the system of education would reduce powerlessness and challenging situations facing young adults (poverty, unemployment and lack of skills) in Nigeria.

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# Appendices



College of Social  
Sciences

## Appendix A: Plain Language Statement

An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The Stories, Pedagogies and Transformational Experience of Young Adults (A Case Study) in Nigeria

Researcher's: Name: Samir Halliru

Programme: Ph.D. in Education

Email Address: [S.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk](mailto:S.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk)

PLS for Interviews (current learner, institutions management, tutors, and graduate)

I am a Ph.D. student from the University of Glasgow investigating the extent to which policy and related practices that facilitate young adult learners and graduate capacities for learning through life in Nigeria.

I invite you to take part in this study that seeks to examine policy and related practices in the promotion of LLL attributes (entrepreneurship and learning-to-learn skills) amongst young adult in Katsina State, Nigeria. You have been invited to take part because of your involvement in the YCV as a (current learner, institutions management, tutor and graduate). The study will also seek to explore the stories and the impact of pedagogy on the transformation of young adult and their communities.

Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take a time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be interviewed by me and the interview will be conducted for approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour. The interviews will be conducted within a public domain such as offices, public libraries, and community halls. If you consent, the interview will be audiotaped

and afterward, the content of the interview will be selectively transcribed. You should be aware that the confidentiality of freedom of information may be impossible to guarantee in the events of harm or danger to the participants' or any other person. You should note that your freedom of information has legal limitation to confidentiality.

It is important to note that, the original recording and transcription will be destroyed on 30<sup>th</sup> January 2028 in compliance with the University guidance on the management of research data and best practice. Your name will be not be used in the written transcript of the interview, so your identity will remain undisclosed. I will write up the findings of my thesis based on the content of the interviews and I will also be used for conference and journal publications. Excerpts from your interview might be included, but your identity will remain strictly confidential.

Participation is voluntary. Even if you decide to take part, you can change your mind at any time, and any data that you have already given can be withdrawn.

Thanks for taking the time to read this information and I look forward to hearing from you soon.

If you have any questions or would like additional information about the research, you can contact me at [s.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk](mailto:s.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk) or my supervisors Dr. Bonnie Slade at [Bonnie.Slade@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Bonnie.Slade@glasgow.ac.uk) and Prof Mike Osborne at [Michael.Osborne@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Michael.Osborne@glasgow.ac.uk). If there are any other concerns regarding the conduct of the research project you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer by contacting Dr. Muir Houston at [muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk).

Thank you



## Appendix B: Plain Language Statement

An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The Stories, Pedagogies and Transformational Experience of Young Adults (A Case Study) in Nigeria

Researcher's: Name: Samir Halliru  
Programme: Ph.D. in Education

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I am a Ph.D. student from the University of Glasgow investigating the extent to which policy and related practices that facilitate young adult learners and graduate capacities for learning through life in Nigeria.

I invite you to take part in this study that seeks to examine the policy focus on lifelong learning in Nigeria. You have been invited to take part because of your involvement as a policymaker at the national level. The study will also seek to explore the policy thrust on lifelong learning in Nigeria.

Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take a time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be interviewed by me and the interview will be conducted for approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour. The interviews will be conducted within a public domain such as offices, public libraries, and community halls. If you consent, the interview will be audiotaped and afterward, the content of the interview will be selectively transcribed. You should be aware that the confidentiality of freedom of information may be impossible to guarantee in the events of harm or danger to the participants' or any other person. You should note that your freedom of information has legal limitation to confidentiality.

It is important to note that, the original recording and transcription will be destroyed on 30<sup>th</sup> January 2028 in compliance with the University guidance on the management of research data and best practice. Your name will not be used in the written transcript of the interview, so your identity will remain

undisclosed. I will write up the findings of my thesis based on the content of the interviews and I will also be used for conference and journal publications. Excerpts from your interview might be included, but your identity will remain strictly confidential.

Participation is voluntary. Even if you decide to take part, you can change your mind at any time, and any data that you have already given can be withdrawn. Thanks for taking the time to read this information and I look forward to hearing from you soon.

If you have any questions or would like additional information about the research, you can contact me at [s.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk](mailto:s.halliru.1@research.gla.ac.uk) or my supervisors Dr. Bonnie Slade at [Bonnie.Slade@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Bonnie.Slade@glasgow.ac.uk) and Prof Mike Osborne at [Michael.Osborne@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Michael.Osborne@glasgow.ac.uk). If there are any other concerns regarding the conduct of the research project you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer by contacting Dr. Muir Houston at [muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk).

Thank you

**Appendix C: Consent form**

Title of Project:

An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The Stories, Pedagogies and  
Transformational Experience of Young Adults (A Case Study) in Nigeria

Consent Form

(To be translated into Hausa where needed)

Name of Researcher: Samir Halliru

I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for the  
above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at  
any time, without giving any reason.

I agree to participate in the interview and being audio-taped.

I understand that pseudonyms will be used when referring to me in any  
publication arising from the research.

I agree to take part in the above study.

I agree that my confidentiality has legal limitation were it involve harm or injury  
to any other persons

Name of Participant  
Signature

Date

Researcher

Date

Signature

## **Appendix D: interviews schedule for students**

Title of Project:

An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The Stories, Pedagogies and Transformational Experience of Young Adults (A Case Study) in Nigeria

Why do you participate in programme? Can you say about the impact of motivators for engaging learning? How do you made the decision to participate and what support did you get to participate? Did you get course of your choice?

What can you say about the way you are being taught? What can you say more those approaches and how they help you? What can you say about your prior learning experience in comparison with your current experience of teaching and learning?

What are some of the qualities that did those build in you in relation to entrepreneurship and capacity for academic learning?

How to do learn those skills?

What other ways to learn? What support?

What is your view about the use of instruction media to develop your skills?

Can you say more about the skills this course help you to develop and why?

How does the course encourage you to develop self-direction and personal initiatives for learning?

What are some of the challenges of teaching and learning approach in achieving our objectives? Do you think the teaching and learning approach will meet your expectation of becoming and entrepreneur? What are your plans for the future?

## Appendix E: interviews schedule for Graduates

Title of Project:

An Investigation of Lifelong Learning: The Stories, Pedagogies and Transformational Experience of Young Adults (A Case Study) in Nigeria

What are motivations for learning? (Condition prior to learning and stories)

What actually influence your commitment to learn? (**Influence on learning**)

What are some of the skills you have acquired over time?

How does that change your life? What are the changes or transformations in your life? (Outcomes)

What are the things that influence application and practice of skills? Can you say a little on your influence on practice and application skills?

What are your limitations on the application or practicing skills?

What is your overall perception of the programme for the development of young people?

Is there any other thing you would like to say which has not been asked?