ALL IN SCHOOL

Out-of-School
Children Initiative

UNICEF AND UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AS A MEANS
TO MEET LEARNING NEEDS OF
OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS

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1.   Non-formal education in changing educational and development landscapes

It is increasingly recognised that school alone cannot provide quality basic education for 'all'. The global progress made towards Education for All (EFA) since the World Education Forum in 2000 has arguably been significant, particularly with regard to enrolment and gender parity at primary level. Yet, there were more than 57 million out-of-school children of primary age worldwide in 2011[1]. At least another 69 million young adolescents were not attending primary or secondary school, due to the multiple and often inter-connected disadvantages they face, such as poverty, rural location, gender bias, disability and social discrimination. Moreover, the current structure of formal education in many countries is in itself excludes specific groups of children. To uphold the right to education of those who are not enrolled in schools, diverse forms of provision through different learning pathways are required.

Non-formal education is one such pathway. Characterised by a high degree of flexibility and openness to change and innovation in its organisation, pedagogy and delivery modes, non-formal education caters to diverse and context-specific learning needs of children, young people and adults worldwide. It thereby involves a wide range of stakeholders, including educational establishments, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and public institutions (UNICEF/UIS, 2014). Non-formal education has been evolved over past decades and regained currency in recent years in light of changing educational and developmental landscapes (Council of Europe, 2003; Rogers, 2004; Hoppers, 2006, 2007b; Rose, 2009; UNESCO Bangkok, 2012; UNESCO and UNICEF, 2013).

The notion, if not its practice, of non-formal education emerged in the global education discourse in the late 1960s, out of a recognition that formal education was in a state of disarray (Coombs, 1968). The concept of lifelong learning put forward by the 'Faure Report' (UNESCO, 1972) expanded the understanding of traditional education which until then had been limited to formal schooling. Since the early 1970s, many typologies of education or learning have assumed three forms of education, of which non-formal education is one, together with formal and informal education (Coombs & Ahmed, 1973; European Commission, 2001; UIS, 2012). 'A massive outburst of interest' emerged regarding non-formal education during the 1970s and the 1980s (King, 1982; Rogers, 2004). However, this has significantly diminished since the late 1980s, when the international community increased its focus on schooling as a dominant means of learning. In parallel, less positive characteristics of non-formal education have been highlighted. Non-formal education tends to comprise small-scale, short-term programmes with limited funding, which sometimes limit its impact and sustainability and raise the question of quality and effectiveness. Non-formal programmes may not always be aligned with broader national education and development policies, or demands from the world of work, and quite often they do not induce learners to continue their education formally. Thus, non-formal education tends to be perceived as somewhat inferior to formal education.

In today's increasingly inter-connected, globalised, and technologically advanced societies within which lifelong learning takes place, internationally agreed goals, notably the EFA goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), have provided new contexts for non-formal education. Non-formal education has become a policy focus of the international community, due mainly to the following recognition.

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[1]   UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), 2013.

- Multiple types of non-formal education exist which can be adapted for specific learning needs of individuals and populations in different conditions. Particularly, in the context of achieving the EFA goals and the MDGs, non-formal education's elastic, and context-specific approaches are appropriate and useful in fulfilling the right to education of the marginalised and those populations with special learning needs. While schooling remains an important means for providing basic education, non-formal education can reach learners who lack access to formal education or cannot complete full cycle of basic education.

- Along with formal and informal learning, non-formal education constitutes an integral part of lifelong learning towards which many countries are shifting their policy focuses. This recognition has been accompanied by national efforts to explore potential roles of non-formal education in their education systems and the way in which non-formal education can be related to formal education.

- The innovative nature of non-formal education to develop human capabilities, improve social cohesion and to create responsible future citizens has increasingly been recognised. With reforms to improve school curricula taking place across the world, non-formal education has proven to be effective for critical pedagogy and innovative approaches, going beyond the two pillars of learning, 'learning to know' and 'learning to do,' that used to be the main focus of formal education in the past, to also include the other two pillars - 'learning to be' and 'learning to live together' (Delors, 1996).

- There have emerged heightened individual and societal expectations of the positive impact of non-formal education on economic productivity. Providing learning opportunities for those who partially or completely missed formal basic education could potentially lead to higher social productivity and thus greater economic growth.

It is in this context that this paper intends to explore the potential of non-formal education to meet learning needs of out-of-school children and adolescents, based on country and regional reports produced by the UNICEF-UIS Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF and UIS, 2010) and other existing literature[2].

2. The evolving concept of non-formal education: A concept and a type of non-formal education treated by this paper

Understanding what constitutes non-formal education is an important first step for managing policies and programmes as well as national education systems. Currently, there is no single universally accepted definition of non-formal education (Hoppers, 2006; Rogers, 2004; Romi and Schmida, 2009). Instead, many existing definitions simply contrast it with formal education, adopting the tripartite categorisation of education – formal, non-formal and informal education – as devised in 1973 (Coombs and Ahmed)[3]. This categorisation is still widely used for the purposes of planning, administration, financing, monitoring and evaluation.

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[2] At the time of preparing this paper, the following UNICEF and UIS country and regional reports (2011a; 2011b; 2012a; 2012b; 2012c; 2012d; 2012e;2013a; 2013b; 2014) prepared based on the conceptual and methodological framework (2011a) were available.

[3] "Non-formal education is any organised, systematic, educational activity carried out outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children" (Coombs, P.H.; Ahmed, M, 1973).

Box 1. Evolving concept of non-formal education

While the notion of non-formal education based on the 1973 definition by Coombs and Ahmed is still influential in practice, experts and educationalists have conceptualised non-formal education, reflecting changing educational landscapes and understandings of 'learning'. Some have moved away from the simple counter-positioning of non-formal and formal education, by which non-formal education tends to be treated as inferior to the latter (Robinson-Pant, 2014). Others claim that boundaries between formal and non-formal education are blurred (Farrell & Hartwell, 2008). Another view point among those who focus on 'situated learning'[4] holds that the tripartite categorisation of education should be abandoned, conceiving 'formality' and 'informality' as attributes present in all circumstances of learning (Colley, Hodkinson, and Malcolm, 2003). There are also those who recognise the breadth and richness of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values acquired outside school, and argue for a perception of learning as a continuum of informal, self-directed, non- formal, and formal learning. (Rogers, 2004).

Moreover, the terminology complicates the matter further. To express 'non-formal education' or 'a form of it', different terms are used, such as 'flexible learning', 'alternative learning', 'complementary learning', 'supplementary education', 'second chance education' and 'extracurricular activities'. Due to the concept's vagueness, some even advocate using descriptions of each framework, rather than attempting to arrive at a common definition (Bhola, 1983).

While registering debates about the evolving concept, this paper will adopt a recent definition of non-formal education as indicated in the box below. This definition is contained in the 2011 International Standard Classification of Education (UIS, 2012) developed to facilitate comparisons of educational statistics and indicators across countries. The 2011 ISCED definition is similar to the EU definition (European Commission, 2001) which is also in frequent use.

It is important to note diverse forms of non-formal education as shown by a number of typologies (Brennan, 1997; Hallak, 1990; Hoppers, 2006; Rogers, 2004). Broadly, these fall into the following types, some of which could be combined: 1) remedial and supplemental non-formal education to satisfy unfulfilled provision by formal education, targeting school dropouts, out-of-school children and young people and adults who have missed schooling; 2) non-formal education which includes vocational training and a skills development component; 3) experimental and innovative non-formal education, some of which involves greater independence from governments, to respond to emerging learning needs as societies evolve (e.g. education for sustainable development, education for peace and democracy, citizenship education). Innovations in curricula and pedagogies generated through this type of non-formal education can be adapted to teaching and learning in formal education. It can also challenge traditional concepts of education (Romi and Schmida, 2009); and 4) others types of non-formal education, including indigenous and traditional education (Brennan, 2006), religious education, and education programmes for personal development organised by cultural institutions.

The following section will focus mainly on the first category of non-formal education – remedial or supplemental – which has gained particular attention worldwide due to increasing concern about the unmet leaning needs of out-of-school children and adolescents.

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[4]   Situated learning: The notion advanced by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger (1991) regards learning as a social process whereby knowledge is co-constructed. Learning is not the transmission of abstruct and decontextualised knowledge and should be situated in a specific context and embedded within a particular social and physical environment.

> **Box 2. Definitions of three forms of education by the ISCED 2011**
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> **Non-formal education.** Education that is institutionalised, intentional and planned by an education provider. The defining characteristic of non-formal education is that it is an addition, alternative and/or complement to formal education within the process of the lifelong learning of individuals. It is often provided to guarantee the right of access to education for all. It caters to people of all ages but does not necessarily apply a continuous pathway-structure; it may be short in duration and/or low-intensity, and it is typically provided in the form of short courses, workshops or seminars. Non-formal education mostly leads to qualifications that are not recognised as formal or equivalent to formal qualifications by the relevant national or sub-national education authorities or to no qualifications at all. Non-formal education can cover programmes contributing to adult and youth literacy and education for out-of school children, as well as programmes on life skills, work skills, and social or cultural development.
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> **Formal education:** Education that is institutionalised, intentional and planned through public organizations and recognised private bodies and – in their totality – constitutes the formal education system of a country. Formal education programmes are thus recognised as such by the relevant national education authorities or equivalent authorities, e.g. any other institution in cooperation with the national or sub-national education authorities. Formal education consists mostly of initial education. Vocational education, special needs education and some parts of adult education are often recognised as being part of the formal education system.
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> **Informal learning:** Forms of learning that are intentional or deliberate but are not institutionalised. It is consequently less organized and structured than either formal or non-formal education. Informal learning may include learning activities that occur in the family, workplace, local community and daily life, on a self-directed, family-directed or socially-directed basis.
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> *Source: UIS, 2012*

3. System-wide approach to non-formal education: Prerequisite for meeting learning needs of out-of-school children and adolescents

Effective provision of non-formal education for out-of-school children and adolescents requires a combination of both system-wide and targeted approaches.

A system-wide approach to non-formal education, linked with broader development frameworks, is an essential condition for sustainable, quality non-formal provision for out-of-school children and adolescents. Key areas covered by this approach, some of which will be discussed in detail below, include: 1) positioning of non-formal education within national education systems in terms of education governance, management and coordination; 2) data and knowledge bases of non-formal education; 3) relevance and implementation of related legislation and policies; 4) financial resources; and 5) capacities of institutions, professionals and practitioners.

3.1 Better positioning of non-formal education in national education systems and its governance and management

Better positioning of non-formal education within national education systems, governance and management structure is crucial, in particular in the following respects: 1) bridging non-formal education and formal education within the education system; 2) promoting inter-sectoral cooperation; 3) strengthening collaboration among different levels of the education systems – central government, decentralised authorities, school and communities and 4) ensuring adequate provision in fragile states.

Firstly, it is increasingly becoming an area of policy focus to establish an integrated education system, underpinned by a comprehensive approach to learning, encompassing formal non-formal and informal education (ADEA, 2012; Morpeth and Creed, 2012; UNICEF, 1993; UNICEF and UIS, 2014). Being out of school is not a synonym for 'no learning'. Out-of-school children and young people may be involved in non-formal education provided by state and non-state actors in or outside the education sector (e.g. health programmes, skills training, agricultural extensions) and may acquire knowledge and skills from parents and peers through informal learning. Frequently, however, learning outcomes of non-formal and informal education are not recognized in a way which allows learners to transit into formal school or technical and vocational institutions. Such lack of recognition can also limit learners' career prospects in the world of work. In certain locations therefore, efforts have been made towards more integrated education systems by ensuring equivalence of learning outcomes and developing frameworks for transferable credit. The National Institute for Open Schooling, in India, BRAC Primary School in Bangladesh and Escuela Nueva in Colombia are a few examples (Farrell & Hartwell, 2008). Equivalency programmes have been developed elsewhere such as Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, Indonesia, Namibia, Mali, the Philippines, Thailand Uganda and Zambia (ADEA, 2012; Hoppers, 2007a, 2007b; UNESCO Bangkok, 2006, 2011, 2012; USAID, 2006, 2007) to bridge formal and non-formal education by linking learning content and developing frameworks to recognise learning outcomes of prior learning.

Secondly, non-formal education draws its strength from inter-sectoral cooperation supported by appropriate national systems, governance structure and management. (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). A rural out-of-school girl, for instance, may require curricular and corresponding learning materials which address her specific learning needs and indigenous knowledge, better aligned to her life context. This may require a more nuanced, individualised approach with a multi-sectoral perspective as oppose to the national-standardised approach. At the same time, her family may need social protection through, for instance, cash transfers. Education systems alone cannot remove barriers obstructing many children from meaningful learning. In reality, non-formal education does involve several sectors in countries such as Bangladesh, Brazil, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Namibia and Thailand. Effective linkages and coordination among these sectors, however, remains a challenge. In Senegal, for instance, no fewer than four ministries coordinated their own non-formal literacy programmes without any oversight by the ministry in charge of the sector (ADEA, 2012).

Thirdly, system enhancement and governance reforms are areas deserving of particular attention. Some countries have enhanced decentralised national education systems and improved coordination among different levels of these systems. To better reflect local needs in policies and interventions, many countries have decentralised education systems by transferring decision-making powers, resources, planning and monitoring functions from the ministries of education to sub-regional and local governments, communities and schools. In addition, special departments for non-formal education were also created at the national level, although not all of them are sufficiently resourced. In Asia and the Pacific region, many countries lack special unites for non-formal education at provincial or district levels, with some exceptions such as Thailand. This presents a challenge, particularly when numerous small-scale activities are implemented at community and local levels. In Ethiopia, for instance, 85 programmes of 35 NGOs were concentrated in less difficult areas with no coordination (Rose, 2009). Enhanced decentralised non-formal education systems, therefore, are required not only to ensure better coordination of these community-level activities but also to link those activities with the decentralised education systems for improved coherence in policies and practices.

Lastly, special attention is required concerning non-formal education in unstable and fragile education systems which often exist in countries with political turmoil, and/or natural and man-made disasters. While globally the number of out-of-school children decreased by 3 million between 2008 and 2011, the share of out-of-school children of primary school age in conflict-affected countries increased from 42% to 50% (UNESCO, 2014). Under these circumstances, system-wide approaches are needed to ensure effective and coordinated intervention of diverse providers through preparation of a national plan of action at the early reconstruction phase as well as a framework for non-formal education according to the phase of emergency (UNESCO-IIEP, 2006).

3.2   Data, information and knowledge bases

Accurate and adequate data, information and knowledge of non-formal education are indispensable for managing a cycle of policies and programmes (e.g. identification of key issues, policy and programme design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation) and demonstrating potential socio-economic impacts of non-formal provision. Monitoring of non-formal education, however, is a complex task due to diverging understandings of its meaning and its heterogeneous nature, as well as, its diverse modes of delivery, wide-ranging stakeholders involved and limited financing. Despite recent global developments, data and knowledge regarding non-formal education remain relatively weak.

On the international level, there is no comparable data for non-formal education which is collected in a systematic manner (e.g. mappings, surveys, censuses). While recognising non-formal education, the 2011 ISCED (UIS, 2012) states clearly that it 'does not give specific advice on the development of mappings for non-formal programmes or any related non-formal educational qualifications'. However, it advances some ideas for improving international statistics, including further development of the concept of non-formal education and the establishment of criteria of content equivalency for the classification of non-formal education programmes and qualification frameworks to facilitate a classification of non-formal programmes by level.

A positive country-level development is national Education Management Information Systems (EMIS), which have been enhanced in recent years in nearly all developing countries. The need for data and information relating to non-formal education is increasingly recognised. As a result, most ministries of education in South Asia, for instance, include non-formal education departments which manage related programmes, including data collection. While several countries have developed Non-Formal Education Management Information Systems (NFE-MIS) in the last decade, an increasing effort has been directed towards developing more comprehensive EMIS which integrates both formal and non-formal education in a number of countries, such as Cambodia, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Tanzania.

Regarding collection of data on non-formal provision and demands, the lack of a single data source usually derives from the limitation of administrative data which does not always cover non-formal programmes, private and religious education. Survey data are useful but they are not always linked with education systems (UIS and UNICEF, 2011a) and may omit some population groups (Carr-Hill, 2012). A mix of the main data collection methods for non-formal education described by Carron and Hill (1991) is still in use today: the directories which are usually under the authority of or in cooperation with the Ministry of Education; statistical reports; sector assessments which identify needs for non-formal programmes; national and international

household surveys to collect information from participants in non-formal programmes[5]; and research (e.g. costs, dropout, tracer studies or assessments). The availability and quality of data on non-formal education, however, are uneven across counties, and methodological challenges remain.

In addition, little systematic monitoring has been conducted regarding learning outcomes and impacts of non-formal provision for out-of-school children and young people. Increasing the visibility of learning outcomes, however, is becoming a policy focus in some locations, not least in European countries where the creation of active citizens who are employable and productive ranks high on policy agendas in the context of lifelong learning (Bjornavold, 2000; Werquin, 2012). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), for example, assesses literacy and numeracy skills as well as problem-solving skills in technology-rich environments of populations between 16 and 65 years of age (OECD, 2013). Efforts have also been made in a number of countries such as Australia to establish assessments and recognition frameworks in the context of equivalency programmes. With their relatively high flexibility and adaptability, small-scale assessments have the potential to improve the understanding of knowledge and skill levels acquired through non-formal learning. Such small-scale assessments include the Early Grade Reading Assessment employed in nearly 50 countries[6], 'Uwezo' in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania[7], and assessments included in a sample-based household survey distributed by Pratham, an Indian NGO[8]. The OECD is also planning to expand the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) into low- and middle-income countries (OECD, 'PISA for Development'), which includes assessments of out-of-school 15 year-olds to understand their socio-economic background, schooling history and current situation in addition to their cognitive performance (Bloem, 2013).

With regard to knowledge of non-formal education, there also exists a gap, between the theoretical knowledge base and an abundance of practical experiences in non-formal education (Romi and Schmida, 2009). The recent renewed focus on non-formal education for out-of-school children and young people, however, has had a positive impact on the information and knowledge base. The UNICEF and UIS Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children (OOSCI) is filling the statistical information and analysis gap, making available detailed profiles of out-of-school children[9]. Other efforts in narrowing the knowledge gap include: the UIS report on Children Out of School (2005); the annual monitoring by the EFA Global Monitoring Reports[10] and the work of the Working Group on Non-Formal Education of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)[11], UNESCO Bangkok[12], Educate a Child[13],

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[5] Catalogues of the major surveys (e.g. International surveys include Demographic and Health Suevey, Muitiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, and Living Standards Measurement Studies Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour) are available at the International Household Survey Network (IHSN) and the Understanding Children's Work (UCW) survey database.

[6] EGRA: https://www.eddataglobal.org/documents/index.cfm/index.cfm?fuseaction=showdir&ruid=1&statusID=3 (USAID); http://www.rti.org/page.cfm/Teaching_and_Learning (RTI International)

[7] UWEZO: http://www.uwezo.net/

[8] Pratham: http://www.pratham.org/M-19-3-ASER.aspx

[9] UNICEF and UIS Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/out-of-school-children.aspx

[10] EFA Global Monitoring Reports: http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/efareport/reports/

[11] ADEA Working Group on Non-Formal Education: http://www.adeanet.org/adeaPortal/adea/workgroups/en_wgnf.html

[12] UNESCO Bangkok (2002, 2013a, 2013b)

[13] Educate a Child: http://www.educateachild.org.qa/papers-publications

UNICEF[14], the UNICEF and World Bank project on 'Simulations for Equity in Education'[15], and the Center for Educational Innovations Initiative of the Results for Development (E4D)[16].

3.3 Relevance and implementation of legislation and policies

Appropriate legal and policy frameworks related to non-formal education are an integral dimension of the provision of meaningful support to out-of-school children and adolescents.

3.3.1 Normative instruments and legal frameworks

While international normative instruments or frameworks such as the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000) enshrine the right to education with a significant focus on schooling, the role of non-formal education has also been recognised. The Committee established to monitor the UN Convention on the Right of the Child (1989) interprets this right as related to both formal and non-formal education[17] (McCowan, 2013), as does the Committee for the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) in its Article 13[18]. Other frameworks such as EFA Regional Frameworks for Action developed in 2000 to implement the aforementioned Dakar Framework for Action include explicit reference to non-formal education.

Box 3. Obligations of a State committed to guaranteeing the right to education

- **The obligation to 'respect':** to avoid measures that hinder or prevent the enjoyment of the right to education.

- **The obligation to 'protect':** to take measures that prevent third parties from interfering with the enjoyment of the right to education (usually through regulation and legal guarantees)

- **The obligation to 'fulfil (to facilitate and provide)':** to take positive measures that enable and assist individuals and communities to enjoy the right to education and to provide appropriate measures towards the full realisation of the right to education

Source: UN, 1999 and UNESCO webpage[19]

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[14] Some examples are 'Innovations in education': http://www.unicef.org/education/bege_73537.html
[15] http://www.unicef.org/education/bege_SEE.html and the 'Let us Learn Initiative': http://www.unicef.org/education/bege_70396.html
[16] Center for Educational Innovations Initiative: http://www.educationinnovations.org/
[17] UN Convention on the Right of the Child (CRC) Article 29(1) (http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx). General Comment by the Committee on the rights of the child: '*Article 29 (1) not only adds to the right to education recognized in article 28 a qualitative dimension which reflects the rights and inherent dignity of the child; it also insists upon the need for education to be child-centred, child-friendly and empowering, and it highlights the need for educational processes to be based upon the very principles it enunciates. The education to which every child has a right is one designed to provide the child with life skills, to strengthen the child's capacity to enjoy the full range of human rights and to promote a culture which is infused by appropriate human rights values. The goal is to empower the child by developing his or her skills, learning and other capacities, human dignity, self-esteem and self-confidence. "Education" in this context goes far beyond formal schooling to embrace the broad range of life experiences and learning processes which enable children, individually and collectively, to develop their personalities, talents and abilities and to live a full and satisfying life within society.*
[18] ICESCR, Article 13(1). General observation by the Committee: '*States parties agree that all education, whether public or private, formal or non formal, shall be directed towards the aims and objectives identified in article 13. The Committee notes that these educational objectives reflect the fundamental purposes and principles of the United Nations as enshrined in Articles 1 and 2 of the Charter*'.
[19] http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/right-to-education/normative-action/state-obligations/

A number of countries, such as Honduras, Nepal, Indonesia and Thailand, have developed legal frameworks to consolidate the provision of non-formal education. These frameworks help out-of-school children and adolescents access meaningful learning opportunities[20]. In Mongolia, the amendment of Education Law in 2006 brought about a major policy shift towards integrating non-formal education into the broader national education system and securing a part of the education budget for non-formal education. In Indonesia, a presidential decree set a minimum 3% of the annual education budget for community learning centres, where non-formal education is provided for young people. (UIL, 2014) In Burkina Faso, the Education Outline Act of 1996 contributed to raising the profile of non-formal education and brought about closer cooperation between the formal and non-formal education sectors (Hoppers, 2007b). More efforts are required, however, for further enhancement of national legal frameworks and full implementation of legislation, particularly at local and grassroots levels.

States, committed to guaranteeing the right to education, have three major obligations as indicated in the box above. Instituting appropriate legal frameworks is part of their obligation to 'fulfill' this right, as are other activities such as facilitating culturally appropriate and gender-sensitive non-formal programmes to rural indigenous girls. States' obligation to 'respect' the right to education can be fulfilled, for instance by respecting the freedom of parents to choose a type of non-formal programme for their children. This obligation could also address the question of a balance between, on the one hand, innovation in non-formal provision based on the autonomy of providers and governments' control, on the other.

An example of the obligation to 'protect' can be seen in light of growing non-formal provision by non-state actors, such as communities, NGOs, the private sector and donors. Many of these non-state provisions are at the grass-root level often on a small scale, and not all of the activities are coordinated and monitored systematically. As the number of non-state providers increases and their activities diversify, parts of non-formal education have been commercialised in places as reflected by the creation of 'ISO 29990:2010 - Learning services for non-formal education and training: Basic requirements for service providers' in 2010 by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO)[21] (Maruyama and Ohta, 2013). To ensure the quality of and equity in the growing non-state actors' provision, the state is expected to play a stronger role in its obligation to 'protect' the right, for instance, by improving coordination of non-formal provision and enhancing regulations, guided by a shared vision of education, policies and strategies for education and development. (UNESCO-IIEP, 2011) In Burkina Faso, the public-private partnerships ('faire-faire strategy' – 1999) were introduced to the non-formal education governance and management through the creation of a common fund to mobilise resources for disadvantaged groups (FONAEFE) (Hoppers, 2007).

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[20] Honduras's Law on the Development of Non-Formal Alternative Education (1999) (http://www.unesco.org/education/edurights/media/docs/de25c375950386e49423e94a63d04932acb6b2c1.pdf); Nepal's Education Rules 2059 (2002) (http://www.unesco.org/education/edurights/media/docs/9d45ce9e6a48b088fa23c1fc17e1fb5ece0c1221.pdf); Indonesia's Law on National Education System (2003) (http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/worldtvetdatabase1.php?ct=IDN&ct2=&ct3=&disp=2); and Thailand's Non-formal and Informal Education Promotion Act B.E.2551 (2008) (http://www.unesco.org/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/INSTITUTES/UIL/confintea/pdf/National_Reports/Asia%20-%20Pacific/Thailand.pdf).

[21] Founded in 1947, ISO is a developer of voluntary International Standards for products and services and has published more than 19 500 International Standards. (http://www.iso.org/iso/home/about.htm) See the webpage on ISO 29990:2010 at: http://www.iso.org/iso/home/news_index/news_archive/news.htm?refid=Ref1384

3.3.2   Education policies and beyond

National policies addressing non-formal education, in alignment with broader education and development policies, are conducive to effective non-formal provision. Such policies define the position and role of non-formal education within the national education systems. They may also indicate objectives and measures in realising a vision in specific areas of non-formal education such as curriculum, teaching and learning material, modes of delivery, teachers and teaching professionals, language of teaching and learningand issues related to the learning environment. However, many national education sector plans, including those funded by the Global Partnership for Education, often do not include or prioritise non-formal education. Despite some positive policy efforts, the perception of non-formal education as 'second-class' still persists, encouraging separation of non-formal programmes from formal education in national policies and sector-wide approaches.

Regarding the direction of national policies, there has been a gradual shift towards greater integration of formal and non-formal education through equivalency of learning content and development of qualification frameworks (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). In South Asia, where indigenous NGO have provided non-formal education for many years, governments are joining these efforts. In India, the government's long-standing support for non-formal education expressed in its national plan has set a trend towards a more integrated approach to formal and non-formal education (Rose, 2009). In Bangladesh, where NGO provision has been prominent, the government has brought about a major policy shift. Building on the 2006 non-formal education policy, the government developed the 'Non-formal policy implementation: Strategic Action' in 2010 as well as the national frameworks for its implementation, encompassing equivalence education, effective non-formal education delivery, standard and capacity development for non-formal education facilitators, and enhancement of the legal framework through a non-formal education act and monitoring. Nepal has formulated a non-formal education policy outlining objectives to provide alternative basic and vocational education to school dropouts (UNESCO, 2012a). In sub-Saharan Africa, a similar policy shift can be observed. In Ghana, the Complementary Basic Education Policy was developed in 2008 to build on positive experiences of the flexible school model which targeted out-of-school children aged 8-14 (UNICEF and UIS, 2012a).

As a component of policies promoting integrated approaches to non-formal provision, many countries developed some form of policy framework to recognise, validate and accredit (RVA) non-formal and informal learning (UIL, 2012; 2013a, 2013b). This is particularly true of the area of higher education and technical and vocational education. Concurrent with policy shift for integrated education systems, development of national frameworks for recognising prior learning in basic education has attracted far greater attention.

Another policy dimension is inter-sectoral cooperation. For instance, policies to promote an integrated approach to rural transformation combining the education, health, labour, agriculture, water and environment sectors can enhance not only non-formal learning of out-of-school children and adolescents but also livelihoods of community members. Policies to enrich literate environments, which include production of reading materials on different topics, library construction, and the promotion of ICTs for learning, also help out-of-school children and adolescents acquire, sustain and develop knowledge and skills.

3.4 Financial resources

Despite the increasing efforts of governments and non-state providers, the current investment in non-formal provision is far from sufficient and equitable to accommodate all eligible children.

In many developing countries, provision of public funds to non-formal education programmes is extremely limited (UNESCO, 2008), especially when the education budget itself is not sufficient. In Ghana, for instance, a mere 2.7% of primary school allocation, or 1.1% of the total education budget for 2003 was allocated to non-formal education designed to support out-of-school youth and adults (Rose, 2009). As indicated by the UNICEF and UIS South Asia Regional Study (2014), the per-child investment is lower compared to that in formal education. This is a source of concern when estimated unit costs to reach the 'last 10 per cent' of out-of-school children are even higher (UNICEF and UIS, 2010). If education sector budgets continue to assume equal unit costs for all children, additional expenses required to offset the multiple disadvantages of out-of-school children, including forms of social exclusion, can never be sufficiently secured. Inequitable distribution of funds within a country is another persistent challenge, often resulting in the disadvantaged out-of-school children and adolescents receiving a lower-quality education.

Nevertheless, some positive steps have been taken by governments to ensure sustained and equitable provision to mitigate supply-side financial barriers. In Malawi, the current National Education Sector Plan aims to ensure that, by 2017, at least 2% of the education budget will be devoted to second-chance education and training of out-of-school youth by 2017 (Engel, 2012 in UNESCO, 2012a). In Bangladesh, the Primary Education Development Program (PEDP III, 2011-2015) recognises non-formal education and second-chance education with mandated provision of resources for NFE programmes (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). Although earmarked for formal school, Sri Lanka's introduction of an equity-based decentralised funding mechanism to invest more in under-performing schools in its provinces marks a positive move in terms of equity (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). To address demand-side financial barriers, a number of governments have also taken social protection measures, such as poverty alleviation programmes in South Asian countries (UNICEF and UIS, 2014), to ensure out-of-school children can gain access to non-formal education.

Non-state providers are also playing a significant role in narrowing the financial gap in Africa and in South Asia, as well as Latin American where non-state provision has a long history (Burnett, 2014). The example of countries, such as Ghana, Nigeria and India, demonstrate the rapid expansion of low fee private primary schooling where public schools fail to meet parents' demands both quantitatively and qualitatively (Tooley and Dixon, 2006). These schools serve poor households and providing a pragmatic solution for deprived individuals, although concern remains that their overall costs tend to be higher than those of public schools (UNESCO, 2012a) and not affordable for many parents, many of whom would opt for well-functioning government schools, if such schools existed (Harma, 2009).

3.5 Capacities of institutions, professionals and practitioners

Institutional, organisational and individual capacities are essential for consistent and effective management of policies and programmes for non-formal education for out-of-school children and adolescents. As capacity development requires internal ownership and a shared vision, the widespread understanding of policy-makers and professionals regarding non-formal education as 'second-class' education is a major obstacle to effective adoption and application of non-formal approaches (UNICEF, 1993). Perceptions and communities' awareness levels can also

form impediments. Examples of community mobilisation campaigns in Bangladesh and Pakistan represent effective measures to remove socio-cultural barriers relating to gender roles and tolerance of child labour (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). The global campaign 'Emergency Coalition for Global Education Action', established by the UN Special Envoy for Global Education in early 2014 to send 57 million children to school, could help kindle support for national efforts and to raise awareness levels of policy-makers and practitioners[22].

As part of an integrated education system, the strengthening of the capacities of ministry units attending to non-formal education is crucial, but often not sufficient. In Ghana, the decentralisation policy has not been in full operation owing largely to limited capacities at the district level, an issue that has been highlighted in the UNICEF and UIS country study (2012a). Equally, the organisational capacities of non-state non-formal education providers such as NGOs are not always well developed.

While quality teachers and facilitators contribute pivotally to effective learning, non-formal educators tend to be under-valued in many national education systems. This reality affects teachers' quality, motivation and performance. Out of 40 national education plans examined, only 11 plans included training in non-formal education (UNESCO, 2014)[23]. Evidence from rural Rajasthan in India shows that the absenteeism rate of teachers in 120 NGO-run non-formal education centres was as high as 44% in 2003, although daily monitoring had reduced the rate to 21% in 2006 (UNESCO, 2014). To narrow the teacher gap, efforts have been made by governments and partners, in particular by NGOs, which play a major role in providing teacher training and other teacher-related services. In Uganda, the government supports NGO providers to expand primary education for disadvantaged rural and urban areas, through teacher training and development of a costing plan to fund teachers' salaries through the government payroll. In Malawi, a national plan which aims to reach 90% of out-of-school youth by 2017 includes a goal of more than tripling the number of facilitators offering second chance education, from 700 to 2,380. (UNESCO, 2012a) In 2010, Mongolia developed and piloted non-formal education pre-service training for teachers, which includes multi-grade teaching. Thailand provides a supplementary e-training programme for NFE teachers with six components, including action research, English and mathematics (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2011). Greater efforts, however, are required if the number of qualified teachers is to be increased and if their capacities, status, working conditions and prospects for professional development are to be improved.

3.6   Towards breaking a vicious circle in non-formal education

Overall, the above-mentioned issues and challenges related to systemic approaches to non-formal education are interrelated, often creating a vicious circle: inadequate understanding of the potential of non-formal education, including a bias towards non-formal education as secondary to formal education; a low priority given to non-formal education in national education systems; insufficient support and limited resources for non-formal education, which consequently affect quality and impact of non-formal provision. This vicious circle in non-formal education must be broken, if effects and impacts of non-formal provision are to be optimised for out-of-school children and adolescents.

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[22] http://educationenvoy.org/the-emergency-coalition-for-global-education/#sthash.B1sr7noT.dpuf
[23] The 40 countries examined are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Belize, Bhutan, Cambodia, Ecuador, Egypt, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, India, Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, Nigeria, Palestine, Papua New Guinea, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Sudan (pre-secession), Swaziland, the United Republic of Tanzania, Timor-Leste, Uganda, the United Arab Emirates, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The references for the plans can be found in Hunt (2013).

4 Targeted non-formal approaches to specific groups of out-of-school children and adolescents

4.1 Targeted non-formal interventions for equitable and quality provision of learning opportunities

Inherently targeted non-formal interventions, underpinned by flexibility, diversity, context-specificity and openness, are forceful in accommodating specific learning needs of heterogeneous learners with diverse backgrounds. For many children and young people who experience educational exclusion, non-formal education is an important means to acquiring knowledge, skills, values and attitudes required for further learning, better well-being and improved livelihoods. Every out-of-school child and adolescent is unique, affected by interrelated factors of exclusion, such as poverty, geographical location, social status and gender bias, and their profiles changes over time as those factors evolves, together with other conditions such as age, family situation and related national policies. Hence, non-formal education can target particular population groups facing educational marginalisation as well as specific geographical locations in which educational challenges persist.

Major advantages of targeted non-formal interventions include a greater ability to reach under-served children and the potential to amend inequalities in education. Several UNICEF and UIS OOSCI studies highlight the limited availability of schools and inconvenient school timetables as barriers for accessing and completing schooling. Non-formal education enables more flexible modes of delivery and learning, such as multi-grade schools in which one teacher instructs students of different ages, grades, and abilities at the same time, boarding schools, mobile schools for nomadic pastoralist children, and distance education, using open learning principles and ICTs. In Kenya, Turkana Education for All (TEFA), in collaboration with UNICEF and the government, provides education for children of marginalised and nomadic pastoralist communities with low-cost mobile schools.

Box 4. BRAC free primary school

Initiated in 1985 in Bangladesh, BRAC (formerly known as Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee) free primary schools have responded to a perceived need for quality, non-formal education for disadvantaged and out-of-school children in Bangladesh, particularly girls. The BRAC primary school program began with 22 one-room schools providing three years of schooling up until Grade III, after which students were transferred to state schools. With the success of the programme, it was expanded in 2000-2001 to cover the entire five-year primary school curriculum, through a four-year, catch-up program. Currently, over 22,000 BRAC primary schools are operating throughout the world.

BRAC primary schools adapt a leaner-centered approach to teaching and learning. Its curriculum emphasises not only core subjects, but also confidence-building, team-work skills, gender rights, nutrition and hygiene. Teachers are recruited from the local community, all of whom are female, and receive an initial 12-day training course from BRAC and in-service monthly trainings. School timings and class schedules are flexible for children to be at home to help with chores or harvesting. BRAC primary schools also cater to students with special needs, providing learning materials in minority languages for ethnic minority students for the first couple of years, and providing surgeries and medical devices free of charge to students with medical disabilities.

BRAC students are now able to sit for the government Shomaponi Examination that occurs at the end of primary school. Examination results have shown that BRAC students can be competitive with, if not higher performing than, government school students.

Source: Nath, 2002 and the Centre for Education Innovations, 2014

Box 5. Affordable new and old technology can improve learning for disadvantaged groups

The prevalence of ICT in some parts of the world does not mean that this is the cheapest or even most effective type of technology for educational purposes. In the developing world, the radio – so-called old technology – has a powerful reach, particularly in rural areas or sparsely populated regions. Radios are everywhere, with at least 75% of households in developing countries having access to a radio. An example is South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction. It offers daily half-hour lessons in English, local language, mathematics and life skills. More generally, such programmes have improved student learning by 10% to 20% over control groups that did not use interactive radio instruction. This type of instruction is also extremely cost effective. In one project in Honduras, such instruction cost US$2.94 per student in the first year and US$1.01 per year thereafter.

Tablet computers and e-readers, although currently expensive, are expected to fall in price, allowing for their use in expanding access to information resources for all learners. In India, with government subsidies, such devices could be provided to students for as little as US$10. Multimedia educational resources, such as videos, are also being used to enhance the learning experience and reach students in remote areas. The Khan Academy, for example, produces short educational videos that serve as self-learning tools. There have been over 60 million downloads of its videos to supplement teaching in many classrooms in developing countries. Policy-makers seldom adequately address how new technology will affect the inclusion of marginalized youth. Cost is a key factor. But some forms of technology can be affordable, and could be used to provide a wide range of information resources for disadvantaged learners.

Source: Winthrop and Smith, 2012 in UNESCO, 2012a

While the quality of many non-formal programmes itself remains an issue, their flexible and context-specific nature, when proper support is given, can tangibly enhance the quality of learning. The adoption of the mother tongue as the language of teaching and learning, connection of learning content to learners' daily life, and provision of training to local teachers and facilitators, are a few examples of the elements of flexible non-formal provision of good quality.

4.2 Non-formal education for specific target groups of out-of-school children and adolescents

The following is a brief illustration of non-formal education targeted at specific groups of out-of-school children and adolescents, highlighted by UNICEF and UIS OOSCI country and regional studies for improved policies and interventions. It is acknowledged that there are other excluded groups or populations, such as HIV&AIDS infected children, stateless children and parents who missed schooling and require targeted non-formal interventions.

Girls

Many interrelated factors prevent girls from entering or staying in school such as early marriage, pregnancy, poor households or cultural bias. Non-formal education offers them a chance to continue education and reintegrate into formal education. In Gambia, the Re-Entry Programmes for Girls, initiated by the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education, targets girls who have dropped out of school due to social, financial or other reasons. Initiated in 2002, this programme employs a multi-pronged approach, including tertiary education, with each participant receiving extensive guidance and counseling services, such as personal, social and vocational assistance (UNESCO, 2012b). In India, a project known as 'Pehchan', developed in 2002 by the Centre for Unfolding Learning Potentials (CULP) in collaboration with the government and UNICEF, offers

2-3-year courses at primary level to rural out-of-school adolescent girls for their reintegration into the formal school system. Spaces are provided by local communities, and courses are taught by female teachers who completed twelve grades of schooling and trained for 40 days (Centre for Education Innovation, 2014). An initiative 'HOPE for Teenage Mothers' in Kenyaprovides teen mothers with access to economic and educational opportunities through formal education, vocational training and skills building (Centre for Education Innovation, 2014).

Children suffering from man-made and/or natural disasters and conflicts

Millions of out-of-school children and adolescents impacted by natural and man-made disasters, conflicts and food crises are in need of learning. A programme of BRAC (formerly known as Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee) in Bangladesh is an example of a targeted approach, enabling children to access learning through floating schools when a combination of floods and poverty make normal schooling almost impossible. In this programme, boats serve a dual purpose: buses for transportation and classrooms for learning[24]. Indonesia's equivalency programme includes 'Disaster Service Mobile Class' to serve learners in areas affected by disasters. Equipped with tents, wheelchairs, chairs or mats to sit on, books, white boards, radios, tape recorders and TVs, this service offers, in addition to regular Package programmes, psychological counselling and skills-training for learners (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2011).

Children in rural areas

Large majorities of the world's out-of-school children and adolescents reside in rural areas where a series of socio-economic barriers are persistent. Beyond the question of limited access to formal schools, rural children tend to encounter the quality challenges as a result of inequitable distribution of resources within their countries. Non-formal education is a response to the access and quality challenges faced by children and adolescents in rural areas. Its flexible mode of delivery and provision, such as multi-grade classes, and flexible schedule, enables them to study while supporting their families at home. Specific curricula can be developed, in light of the national framework and local knowledge to respond to global, national and local concerns. The Escuela Nueva model in Colombia is recognised for its success in meeting the learning needs of rural children through a multi-grade school model; later, in 2001, it was adapted to out-of-school, displaced children[25]. In Lao People's Democratic Republic, a non-formal mobile teacher for the primary education programme was introduced to reach the 6-14-years-old children who live in isolated and remote areas without schools[26].

Children from minority groups

Non-formal programmes can better accommodate children from minority groups who may need special attention due, for example, to ethnicity, race and language. In Brazil, for instance, Afro-Brazilian children and adolescents face a disadvantage compared to their white peers due to racial discrimination (UNICEF and UIS, 2012e). Appropriate non-formal curricula, materials, pedagogies and the use of appropriate language of teaching and learning can help out-of-school children from minority groups to learn in safe and appropriate environments and can prevent potential discrimination.

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[24] http://www.unescobkk.org/news/article/beauty-of-alternative-learning-getting-students-to-schools/
[25] http://www.escuelanueva.org/portal/en/escuela-nueva-model.html
[26] http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Box 6. Using technologies for rural children and adolescents to overcome a distance barrier in Brazil

A research undertaken by the IBO- PE in 2010 at the request of Brazil's Confederation of Agricultural and Livestock Production, and of the National Apprenticeship Service (SENAR) in 10 states of the 5 Brazilian regions has pointed out that 10% of the students of the rural schools need more than one hour to reach school.

To facilitate the access to education for the children and adolescents living in remote areas, some secretariats of education have sought alternative solutions, which allow to serve the largest possible number of students.

In the state of Amazonas, for instance, the solution found by the State Secretariat of Education and Quality in Teaching (SEDUC) to secure the right to education of the children and adolescents living in the rural communities more distant from the urban centers, was to create in 2007 the project of Face-to-Face Higher Secondary School with Technological Mediation. From the Center of Educational Media, live lessons are transmitted in real time to classrooms located all around the state, through a platform of interactive TV and teleconference that operates through satellite.

In 2011, the project assisted 27 thousand students of the 6th, 7th and 8th grades of lower Secondary School, and of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades of higher Secondary School in 1500 rural communities of all 62 municipalities of the state of Amazonas. In 2012, it is assisting 34 thousand students of 2100 communities. In the current year, along with higher Secondary Learning, all grades of lower Secondary Learning are also offered (from 6th to 9th grade), along with the first segment of Youth and Adult Education.

In the state of Tocantins, a pilot project is in course with full-time education at ten schools in the countryside. As an alternative, the possibility of creating mobile teaching units in school-buses and school-boats is under consideration.

Source: UNICEF and UIS, 2012e

Box 7. Quote from a Roma parent in Romania

'*I have a girl who finished 5th grade last year; she went to school for a while and then she wouldn't go anymore. She felt bad for not being like the others. She didn't know [things]. Her colleagues would help her do her homework.*' (Interview with Roma parent, Apud Ulrich, 2009: p.29).

Source: UNICEF and UIS, 2012d

Working children

Due to economic difficulties, many children do not enter or eventually leave school to contribute to the family income or even to take up paid domestic work. Non-formal education is effective in reaching such children. In the six largest cities of Bangladesh, for instance, learning centres under the Basic Education for Hard-To-Reach Urban Working Children (BEHTRUWC) project provide life skills-based, non-formal basic education for working children aged 10-14 years who have either have never attended or dropped out of school. (UNICEF and UIS, 2014) Joint programmes of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) on non-formal or transitional education aim at reintegrating former child workers into formal school in countries such as Brazil, India, Mongolia and Nicaragua. Through Bridge Schools or intensive transitional education programmes, former working children are supported to compensate for the years of study they have 'lost' and to attain an academic level adequate to enrol in formal school or vocational training (ILO, 2006).

> **Box 8. Voice from a child, working in a bazaar in Kyrgyzstan**
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> 'My name is Ruslan and I am 14 years old. I do not go to school, since I work as a tachkist in Osh Bazaar. I come here before 8.00 o'clock in the morning and leave home at 8.00 o'clock in the evening. I can take a day off during the week but Saturdays and Sundays are my busiest days which I cannot skip. These days I use my tachka to deliver goods from storage to selling tables. Sometimes, my tachka is overloaded and it's very difficult to pushing it through overcrowded market place. Some of my friends work with food sellers and their work is even much harder. However, I have no other options because my family has nobody else to feed us. I would like to attend school, but I don't want to study with children much younger than me.' (Personal conversation, July 1, 2011)
>
> *Source: UNICEF and UIS, 2012c*

Children with disabilities

Different forms of disabilities – children in wheelchairs, children with hearing problems, children who have difficulty in walking and holding a pen or who possess visual impairments – require tailored learning. Non-formal education can respond to these learning needs through its flexible and context-specific provision, including creating accessible school buildings, classrooms, and facilities such as toilets with handrails. Flexible learning programmes allow children who need to stay in hospital for long periods of time to continue their study through distance learning. However, challenges remain in the form of undertrained teachers, insufficient social protection for families with disabled children, and social perceptions of disability by which children often face teasing and bullying at school. Lack of support for many unregistered children with disabilities is also an issue. (UNICEF and UIS, 2012c). BRAC's Children with Special Needs programme in Bangladesh is an example of how educational opportunities for children with disabilities may be combined with specific government-supported interventions such as physical therapy, hearing aids, ramps to school buildings, wheelchairs, crutches, glasses and surgery (DFID, 2010).

5   Policy recommendations

Non-formal education is indispensable in realising the right to meaningful education for all out-of-school child and adolescents. Its innovations in curricula, pedagogies, and delivery modes can also make a positive influence on formal education to prevent dropout and improve the educational quality. Overall, the following is recommended as major conditions for equitable and quality non-formal provision for out-of-school children and adolescents.

Overall conditions

- Breaking the vicious cycle in non-formal education is a key. A critical step for this is to change the negative perception, held by policy-makers, practitioners and development partners, of non-formal education as the secondary to formal education..

- Revisiting the concept of non-formal education in light of lifelong learning which encompasses formal, non-formal and informal learning to improve its relevance in the contemporary world.

- With the strong ownership of governments, promoting a combination of system-wide and targeted approaches to non-formal education, recognising the diversity of learners' profiles and needs.

Conditions for a system-wide approach

- While enhancing decentralised non-formal education systems and capacities, the integration of relevant part of non-formal education into national education systems is of considerable importance. This can be achieved by ensuring equivalency of learning content and developing frameworks for recognising learning outcomes of non-formal and informal education.

- Developing further data, information and knowledge bases regarding non-formal education and integrated monitoring systems for effective policy management and programme cycles for non-formal education. Instituting appropriate legal frameworks and policies to ensure quality and equitable non-formal provision for out-of-school children and adolescents.

- Making available increased domestic and external resources in a sustained and equitable manner for enhanced non-formal systems, policies and provisions.

- Developing capacities of institutions and education personnel for effective non-formal education.

Conditions for a targeted approach

- Enhancing effectiveness of non-formal learning through development of context-specific, gender-sensitive and development-relevant curricula, pedagogies, teaching and learning materials as well as adaption ofspecific teacher training, appropriate language of teaching and learning and delivery modes. Such learning can help promote individualise learning and cater to specific needs of targeted population groups.

- Adapting innovative, flexible and multiple delivery modes to learners' convenience (e.g. time, location) to ensure equitable access to non-formal programmes of adequate quality. Pedagogical and assessment tools must be aligned to provide high-quality individualised learning opportunities and feedback from formative assessment processes.

- Enhancing institutional capacities of government and non-state providers in managing non-formal programmes, such as programme design, implementation and monitoring to ensure the quality and sustainability of the programmes.

- Fostering more coordinated partnerships guided by a national vision of education and development so that each stakeholder, notably governments, non-state actors such as NGOs and the private sector, donors, and communities, can play its respective role. Adapting an inclusive approach to managing policies and programmes to ensure the sense of ownership and accountability of stakeholders, including parents and communities. Promoting inter-sectoral collaboration.

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