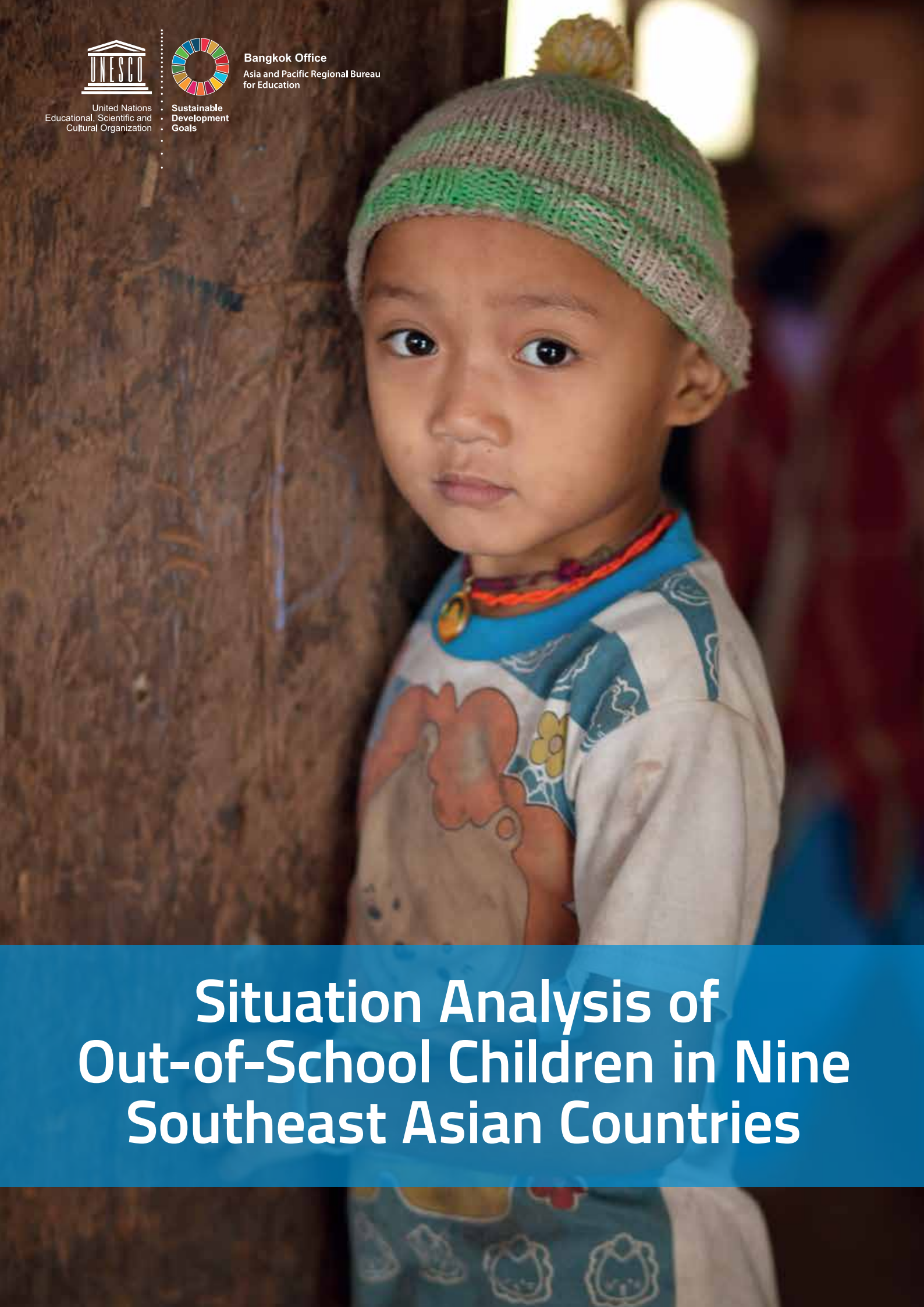


United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

Sustainable
Development
Goals

Bangkok Office
Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau
for Education

Situation Analysis of Out-of-School Children in Nine Southeast Asian Countries

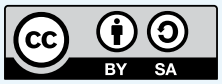
Situation Analysis of Out-of-School Children in Nine Southeast Asian Countries

Published in 2017 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France

and

UNESCO Bangkok Office

ISBN: 978-92-9223-576-5 (Print version)
ISBN: 978-92-9223-577-2 (Electronic version)



Coordinators: Ichiro Miyazawa and Mary Anne Therese Manuson
Design/Layout: Umaporn Tang-On / Warren Field
Cover photo: © UNESCO /S. Chaiyasook

TH/C3/EISD/17/014-500

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Acronyms

A&E	Accreditation and Equivalency
A/L	Accelerated Learning
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ALC	Alternative Learning Center
ALE	Alternative Learning and Education
ALIVE	Arabic Language and Islamic Values
ALS	Alternative Learning System
ALS-DAP	Alternative Learning System for Differently-Abled Persons
ANER	Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate
APIS	Annual Poverty Indicators Survey
ARH	Adolescent Reproductive Health
ARMM	Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BALS	Bureau of Alternative Learning Systems
BDA	Border Areas Development Association
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance for Mindanao
BEIS	Basic Education Information System
BIFF	*Bangsamoro* Islamic Freedom Fighters
BLP	Basic Literacy Program
BMWEC	Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CAR	Cordillera Administrative Region
CESR	Comprehensive Education Sector Review
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CLC	Community Learning Center
CSES	Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey
CVCD	Cambodian Volunteers for Community Development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DepEd	Department of Education
DEPT	Department of Educational Planning and Training
DHS	Demographic Health Survey
DNFE	Department of Non-Formal Education
DoE	Department of Education
DoE	District Education Office
DSW	Department of Social Welfare
DSWD	Department of Social Welfare and Development

DTC	Dynamic Teen Company
ECED	Early Childhood Education and Development
EduStat	Education Statistics
EFA	Education for All
EP	Equivalency Program
EPDC	Education Policy and Data Center
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
EXCEL	Extended and Continuous Education and Learning
FLEMMS	Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey
FLS	Flexible Learning Strategies
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GIR	Gross Intake Rate
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
GNI	Gross National Income
GO	Government Organization
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GSO	General Statistics Office
HDF	Human Development Foundation
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
IBAC	Ideology-based Armed Conflict
ICC	Indigenous Cultural Communities
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IHLCS	Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey
ILO	International Labor Organization
ILO-IPEC	International Labour Organization – International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IP	Indigenous People
IPE	Indigenous Peoples Education
IPRA	Indigenous Peoples Rights Act
JRS	Jesuit Refugee Service
K4	Kariton Klasrum, Klinik, Kantin
KBC	Karen Baptist Convention
KMSS	Karuna Myanmar Social Services
KNU	Karen National Union
KTWG	Karen Teachers Working Groups
LC	Learning Center
LFCLS	Laos Labour Force and Child Labor Survey

LGU	Local Government Unit
LINUS	Literacy and Numeracy Screening
MCCT	Modified Conditional Cash Transfer
MERB	Myanmar Education Research Bureau
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MILF	Moro Islamic Liberation Front
MLRC	Myanmar Literacy Resource Centre
MNPED	Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development
MoE	Ministry of Education
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport
MoH	Ministry of Health
MOLISA	Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs
MPS	Mean Percentage Score
MSWRR	Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement
MTG	Multi-Grade Teaching
MWECP	Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection
NAT	National Achievement Test
NDER	National Directorate for Recurrent Education
NEFAC	National EFA Committee
NEP	National Equivalence Program
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NESP	National Education Strategic Plan
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NFPE	Non-Formal Primary Education
NGOs	Non-government Organizations
NIR	Net Intake Rate
NYF	Nurul Yakin Foundation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHSP	Open High School Program
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
OOSCI	Out-of-School Children Initiative
OSY	Out-of-School Youth
PAR	Philippine Area of Responsibility
PDM	Persatuan Dyslexia Malaysia
PDP	Philippine Development Plan
PED	Primary Education Department
PEPT	Philippine Educational Placement Test
PHP	Philippine Pesos
PIDS	Philippine Institute for Development Studies

PoE	Provincial Office of Education
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PSA	Philippine Statistics Authority
PSDR	Primary School Dropout Rate
PWD	Persons with Disabilities
RLIP	Retirement and Life Insurance Premiums
RBI	Radio-Based Instruction
RWCT	Reading, Writing and Critical Thinking
S4SK-M	Scholarship for Street Kids – Myanmar
SBJK	Sekolah Bimbingan Jalinan Kasih
SCN	Save the Children Norway
SDP	Strategic Development Plan
SEA	Southeast Asian
SEIP	Special Education Integrated Program
SHG	Henry Gurney School
SI	Integrity Schools
SIH	School in Hospital
SUSENAS	National Socio-Economic Survey
TBC	Tedim Baptist Convention
TESDA	Technical Education and Skills Development Authority
TGP	Total Group Population
TLDHS	Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey
TLSLS	Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards
TWDC	Thiri May Women Development Co-operative Society
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organization
WV	World Vision
YF	Yinthway Foundation
YIOE	Yangon Institute of Education

Executive Summary

In a world that continually aspires for every child and youth to have access to education, there are still large numbers of out-of-school children (OOSC) who are yet to claim their right to basic education. In 2013, the number of children who are not in school, who have dropped out, and who have never been to school have risen to 124 million after seeing the numbers continuously drop for much of the first decade of the 21st century. In much of Southeast Asia, close to seven million children of both primary and lower secondary school-age find themselves in the same situation.

In an effort to assist the countries in Southeast Asia to develop more robust policies and programmes for OOSC in their respective countries, this report was commissioned to map out the current legislations, policies, characteristics, and interventions on out-of-school children in nine countries across the region, which include Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Vietnam. Using a desk review of available and relevant secondary data, the study covered OOSC of primary and lower secondary school-age.

Characterized by a broad spectrum of differences and pluralism, Southeast Asia is inevitably confronted by complex education access issues that may have arisen from a confluence of various factors related to its diverse topographies, demographics, ethnicities, religions, economies, political systems, and histories. These contextual characteristics are relevant in understanding the realities of the millions of OOSC in the region.

The policy environment in all nine countries relating to the fundamental right to education is generally a supportive and enabling one, providing the framework for institutionalizing free primary – and in many countries, even lower and/or upper secondary – education. All countries have also made education compulsory at the primary level, and for many countries, even up to the lower or upper secondary level. Policies on inclusive education that pay particular attention to the educational needs of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged learners are also in place in the different countries. There are also specific laws and policies that pertain to child protection or protection of specific categories of children such as girls, those with disabilities, and stateless children, in some countries so as to strengthen the principle of non-discrimination. Policy provisions that complement formal education and help widen access to education for out-of-school children also exist.

Despite provisions on free and compulsory education, there are still significant pockets of children who are not in school, who drop out from the formal system or who have never been in school, even if a few countries have reached or are within reach of achieving universal primary education. While a large segment of children in each country is still included in the formal system, thus showing that opportunities for basic education has expanded to all groups, there are sectors that continue to be excluded from mainstream education.

Based on this desk review, the out-of-school children in the nine SEA countries included in the study are generally characterized by disparities in sex, urban-rural location, and household income. In some countries, they are most likely to be girls; in others, boys. Out-of-school children

are also mostly based in rural areas and overwhelmingly belong to the poorest households in the country. Child labourers, children with disabilities, child brides, and stateless or undocumented children are groups which tend to be persistently over-represented among the OOSC.

A wide array of flexible/alternative learning strategies (FLS) have been employed to expand the path to basic education for OOSC in Southeast Asia. Different public, non-profit, private, or civil society programme interventions which showcase features essential in the delivery of FLS have been highlighted in this report. This includes a documentation of various innovations that seek to extend the reach of basic education to marginalized groups.

The findings from the review reinforce the observation that despite the establishment of basic legal and policy frameworks and programmes for OOSC based on equity and non-discrimination, many children are still excluded from the formal system and still do not benefit from the many efforts to expand educational opportunities that have been occurring across the nine countries. Several recommendations have been put forth as possible ways forward, including further efforts in mapping and monitoring, research, flexible learning programme management, and OOSC engagement.

© Pixabaydawnfu

© UNESCO/CLC Project

I Introduction

Considerable progress has been made towards Education for All (EFA) since the commitment to this global initiative was affirmed by UNESCO at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 and reaffirmed in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000. As the Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2015) has noted, there are 84 million fewer out-of-school children and adolescents around the globe than there were in 2000. Of them 52 million are girls. There are also 34 million more children who have gone to school since the turn of the 21st century. Between 2000 and 2012, the access to education expanded considerably worldwide.

However, while there is much to celebrate, the sobering reality remains that the world did not fully meet its targets in 2015 despite significant advances Only a third of the countries have achieved all of the measurable EFA targets, while a little over half (52%) of them have achieved universal primary enrolment. In 2012, an estimated 121 million children and adolescents were still not in school; of them 58 million were of primary school age, while another 63 million were of lower secondary school age. Alarmingly, recent data suggest that the global number of children and adolescents who have either never attended school or have dropped out has increased to 124 million (UIS and GMR, 2015). Many children worldwide are still being denied their right to quality education.

In East Asia and the Pacific, where the out-of-school rate for primary school-age children is relatively low (at 5%), there are still an estimated 6.9 million boys and girls who are not in school. The region is characterized by primary school-age OOSC who mostly dropped out of school instead of never having attended one. In the nine countries sampled in Southeast Asia (excluding Brunei Darussalam and Singapore) for this report, more than three million children of primary age are estimated to be out of school (UIS database, 2015), including many migrant, stateless and undocumented children.

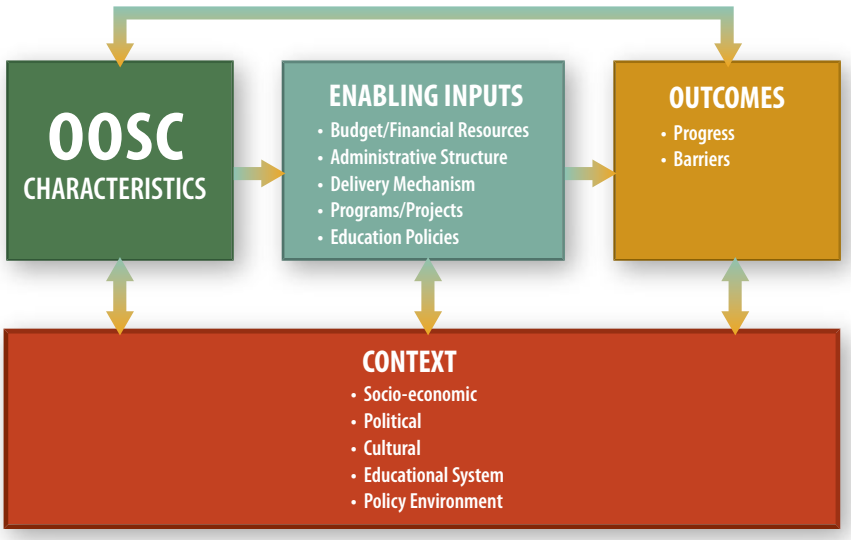
In an effort to assist the countries in the Southeast Asian subregion to develop more robust policies and programmes for OOSC in their respective countries, UNESCO Bangkok commissioned this desk review study to map out the current legislations, policies, funding strategies and interventions for OOSC in nine countries across the region: Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Vietnam. This research and analysis part of the report represents the first component of a project that seeks "to enhance the institutional capacity and education systems in the nine countries where it is implemented to provide learning opportunities for out-of-school children regardless of their citizenship."

Research Framework

The study examined several variables that are relevant in the analysis of the state of OOSC in each country. At the core are out-of-school children in each country and the major characteristics that these children share. To that end, socio-political, economic and demographic trends in each country were examined, as was its education system. A better understanding of the realities and educational needs of OOSC also required an analysis of local laws and policies as well as other inputs in terms of resources relevant in addressing the needs of these children. Also examined were programmes and innovative approaches that were employed to help uphold OOSC's right

to education. Previous studies that contained analyses of the progress of and barriers to achieving universal primary education were then cited to provide further insights about the situations of OOSC. Based on all these criteria, recommendations for moving forward were drawn up. This research framework is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Research Framework



Methodology

This report primarily employed a desk review of available secondary data. The review of literature is based on a research framework that has been drawn up by UNESCO. Data have been sourced from various documents, such as census and household survey reports, policy papers, legislative and national planning documents, national and sector review reports, empirical studies, and many others. Except for a few, all of the materials used in this review were published from 2005 to 2015.

Scope and Limitation

This desk review is delimited to cover out-of-school children of primary and lower secondary school age only. Moreover, not all of Southeast Asia is included in this review; only nine of the 11 member countries are, with Brunei Darussalam and Singapore not being part of the report. The data for this review have been mostly sourced from the internet, involving documents and materials that were all in the English language. Thus, data which may have been available online but were not in English were not used for this study. One of the challenges in completing the study was a dearth of up-to-date, accurate and systematic data on OOSC in some of the countries under survey, particularly OOSC in remote, rural areas and from marginalized groups.

II Social, Economic and Political Context

Southeast Asia (SEA) is a region characterized by diverse ethnicities, religions, political systems, historical backgrounds, and cultures. With an estimated population of 629.96 million, it is home to 8.9% of the world's population.[1] The region's population represents all the world's major religions, as well as hundreds of ethno-linguistic groupings. Its residents' complex histories and heterogeneous cultures make it one of the most distinct regions in the world. Southeast Asia is one of the fastest growing regions both in terms of population and economic growth.

A. Geographical Profile

Generally divided into two geographic regions, Southeast Asia[2] consists of 11 countries. Cambodia, Laos PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam comprise the mainland zone, while the island zone consists of Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Timor-Leste.

The region is characterized by geographically diverse terrains from landlocked mountainous topographies to archipelagos to open seas. The mainland zone has distinct features, such as long rivers, extensive lowland plains, and long coastlines (Andaya, n.d.). The island zone has unique features such as open seas and islands ranging in size from very large to tiny. Nestled around the equator, the region's climate is tropical and subtropical.

Southeast Asia has a total area (including land and water) of about 4.5 million square kilometers, with Indonesia having the largest area and Timor-Leste the smallest in the region. The Philippines does not share land boundaries with other countries. Lao PDR and Myanmar are border countries to five nations. Thailand is a border country to four, while Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia and Vietnam are border countries to three each (CIA, 2013).

Table 1. Total Area per Country in Southeast Asia

Country	Area (in square kilometers)		
	Land	Water	Total
Cambodia	176,515	4,520	181,035
Indonesia	1,811,569	93,000	1.904.569
Lao PDR	230,800	6,000	236,800
Malaysia	328,657	1,190	329,847
Myanmar	653,508	23,070	676,578
Philippines	298,170	1,830	300,000
Thailand	510,890	2,230	513,120
Timor-Leste	14,874	0	14,874
Vietnam	310,070	21,140	331,210

Source: Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2013). The World Factbook 2013-14. Washington, DC According to a 2014 UNESCAP report, the Asia-Pacific region is the world's most natural disaster-prone area, which registered 41.2% of the globally reported natural disasters between 2004 and 2013. In Southeast Asia alone, particularly Indonesia and the Philippines, more than 350,000 were killed in more than 500 incidents during the same period, as natural disasters hit this sub-region the hardest (UNESCAP, 2014). Some of its countries are also located in the Pacific Ring of Fire, where volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, and tsunamis have a relatively high frequency of occurrence.

1 The global population reached the 7 billion mark in 2011, and it is projected to climb to over 9 billion by 2050. Source: http://www.unfpa.org/world-population

2 Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are not covered in this report.

These natural disasters have a profound impact on education. The devastation brought about by natural disasters impacts on the personal, systemic and societal levels (USAID, 2014). Loss of property and lives as well as displacement of children and their families frequently occur. The emotional and psychological trauma, especially on children, is also overwhelming: they may get separated from their families and experience a deep sense of hopelessness. Since schools are either heavily damaged or turned into evacuation centres for homeless residents, the schooling patterns of the children and youth are disrupted. Disasters can make access to education extremely difficult by limiting the movement of teachers, staff and students. Governments and local administrations may find themselves overwhelmed with the urgent needs of the affected population such that support for schools becomes limited or non-existent. Education, therefore, needs to be an integral part of natural disaster preparedness frameworks (USAID, 2014).

Cambodia is considered as one of the countries in Southeast Asia most vulnerable to natural disasters, with floods as its main and frequent threat (ADPC, 2008a). The Mekong River flood in 2000 was the worst of its kind in the last 70 years, with devastating effects on local infrastructure and socio-economic conditions. About 21% of schools in Cambodia are situated in flood-prone areas: they number 1,886 schools, of which 65% are primary schools (ADPC et al., 2008a).

Lao PDR is similarly vulnerable to all kinds of disasters: flash fires, floods, droughts, typhoons, landslides and land erosion, among others. The country has suffered great losses both in its physical and socioeconomic structures due to the impacts of such disasters (ADPC et al., 2008b).

Owing to its geography and geology, the Philippines, too, is regularly affected by natural disasters, such as typhoons, floods, earthquakes, and volcanic eruptions. Between 1997 and 2007, 84 tropical cyclones entered the Philippine Area of Responsibility (PAR), resulting in a total of more than 13,000 deaths with more than 51 million families affected one way or another. In recent years, the country has been battered by a number of tropical cyclones that have been unprecedented in their magnitude, including the super-typhoon Haiyan (local name: Yolanda) in 2013. The country is no stranger either to hazards posed by human-induced disasters.

The table below summarizes the types of hazards that the nine Southeast Asia countries experienced.

Table 2. Types of Hazards per Southeast Asian Country

Country	Natural Hazards	Human-made or Technological Hazards
Cambodia	storms, floods, avian flu	land mines
Indonesia	volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, floods, landslides, droughts, cyclones, tsunamis	fire, transport accidents
Lao PDR	earthquakes, floods, droughts, storms, landslides, outbreaks of diseases, epidemics	unexploded ordnance (UXO), fire
Malaysia	monsoon floods, landslides	haze from forest fires
Myanmar	floods, cyclones, earthquakes, tsunamis	armed conflicts, inter-communal conflicts, unexploded ordnance, fire
Philippines	earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, typhoons, tsunamis, landslides, floods/flash floods, sinkholes, debris flow and storm surges	armed conflicts
Thailand	tsunami, floods, storms, droughts	armed conflicts
Timor-Leste	earthquakes, tsunamis, cyclones, floods, landslides, La Niña and El Niño	civil unrests and military disturbance
Vietnam	cyclones, floods, landslides, droughts	

Source: Country Paper Presentations, Regional Conference on EiE and Disaster Preparedness, 10-12 December 2013, Philippine Department of Education (cited in SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2014)

B. Demographic Trends

Nearly one-tenth of the entire world's population inhabits Southeast Asia. Indonesia, the world's largest archipelagic state, is also the most populous nation in SEA with an estimated 255.99 million people, while Timor-Leste is the least populous with 1.23 million. The Philippines ranks second (around 100.99 million), followed by Vietnam (94.34 million). Notably, population aged 14 years and younger has reached 167.37 million[3] (EduStat, 2012), or 26.5% of SEA's total population (using July 2015 benchmark of 629.96 million). A number of countries in the region have a young population, with four countries registering a median age below 25 years old (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Philippines and Timor-Leste).

3 Cambodia (4.62 million); Indonesia (72.32 million); Lao PDR (2.37 million); Malaysia (7.75 million); Myanmar (13.36 million); Philippines (33.33 million); Thailand (12.36 million); Timor-Leste (0.51 million); and Vietnam (20.75 million)

Table 3. Population per Country in Southeast Asia	
COUNTRY	POPULATION (in millions) Total (July 2015 estimate)
Cambodia	15.70
Indonesia	255.99
Lao PDR	6.91
Malaysia	30.51
Myanmar	56.32
Philippines	100.99
Thailand	67.97
Timor-Leste	1.23
Vietnam	94.345
TOTAL	**629.96**

Source: CIA. The World Factbook, 2015

C. Socio-Cultural Profile

1 Human Development Value and Rank

The Human Development Index (HDI) underscores people-centered policies supportive of the principle that the people are the "real wealth of a nation." HDI is basically a composite statistics of three indices: life expectancy index (life expectancy at birth), education index (mean years and expected years of schooling), and Gross National Income per capita. These indices are used to categorize and rank countries based on their well-being and human development.

The United Nations Development Program's (UNDP) Human Development Report 2013 indicates that there are varied stages of development among the nine countries. Malaysia and Thailand were clustered under high human development. Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, the Philippines, Timor-Leste and Vietnam were categorized under medium human development. Only Myanmar was categorized under low human development.

Based on the HDI ranking in 2013, out of the 187 countries worldwide, Malaysia maintained its 62nd spot and got the highest rank among the nine SEA countries. On the other hand, Myanmar ranked 150th and the lowest among these countries. Cambodia, the Philippines and Timor-Leste moved up in their respective ranks, while the rest maintained theirs from 2012 to 2013.

Table 4. HDI Rank and Value, and HDI Category of Selected Southeast Asian Countries: 2013				
COUNTRY	HDI RANK in 2013	CHANGE IN RANK* FROM 2012 TO 2013	HDI VALUE 2013	CATEGORY
Cambodia	136	1 upward	0.584	Medium Human Development
Indonesia	108	0	0.684	Medium Human Development
Lao PDR	139	0	0.569	Medium Human Development
Malaysia	62	0	0.773	High Human Development
Myanmar	150	0	0.524	Low Human Development
Philippines	117	1 upward	0.660	Medium Human Development
Thailand	89	0	0.722	High Human Development
Timor-Leste	128	1 upward	0.620	Medium Human Development
Vietnam	121	0	0.638	Medium Human Development

Source: United Nations Development Program's Human Development Report (2014) http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/table-1-human-development-index-and-its-components

2 Human Development Index Indicators

The HDI ranking can be further understood using several HDI indicators. The HDI indicators show that Vietnam has the highest life expectancy at birth (75.9 years), followed by Malaysia (75), and Thailand (74.4). Timor-Leste (67.5 years) and Myanmar (65.2) have the lowest.

Thailand has the highest expected years of schooling (13.1), followed closely by Malaysia and Indonesia (12.7). Myanmar has the lowest (8.6 years). On the other hand, the mean years of schooling is highest in Malaysia (9.5) and lowest in Myanmar (4.0).

In terms of GNI per capita, Malaysia (21,824) and Thailand (13,364) have the highest while Myanmar has the lowest (3,998).

Table 5. Human Development Index in Southeast Asia: 2013					
COUNTRY	LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH (Years) 2013	EXPECTED YEARS OF SCHOOLING	MEAN YEARS OF SCHOOLING 2012 [a]	GNI PER CAPITA (2011 PPP$) 2013	HDI VALUE 2013
Cambodia	71.9	10.9	5.8 [w]	2,805	0.584
Indonesia	70.8	12.7	7.5	8,970	0.684
Lao PDR	68.3	10.2	4.6	4,351	0.569
Malaysia	75	12.7	9.5	21,824	0.773
Myanmar	65.2	8.6	4.0	3,998	0.524
Philippines	68.7	11.3	8.9 [b]	6,381	0.660
Thailand	74.4	13.1	7.3	13,364	0.722
Timor-Leste	67.5	11.7	4.4[w]	9,674	0.620
Vietnam	75.9	11.9 [n]	5.5	4,892	0.638

Notes: **a** – Data refer to 2012 or the most recent year available. **b** – Updated by HDRO based on data from UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2013). **h** – Based on PPP conversion rates for GDP from World Bank (2014) and GDP deflators and GNI per capita in national currency from the National Accounts Main Aggregate Database of the UN Statistical Division (2014). **n** – Based on data on school life expectancy from UNESCO Institute for statistics (2012). **w** – Based on data from Demographic and Health Surveys conducted by ICF Macro.

Source: United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Reports, Table 1: Human Development Index and its Components http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/table-1-human-development-index-and-its-components

3 Gender Inequality Index Profile

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) reflects gender-based inequalities in three categories: reproductive health, empowerment, and economic activity. Reproductive health is measured by maternal mortality and adolescent birth rates; empowerment is measured by the share of parliamentary seats held by women and attainment in secondary and higher education by each gender; and economic activity is measured by the labour market participation rate for women and men. The GII can be interpreted as the "loss in human development due to inequality between female and male achievements" in the three GII dimensions (UNDP, 2014).

Using this index, the gender disparities in these nine SEA countries tend to vary from low to high. Malaysia has the least gender disparity as it ranks highest among the nine Southeast Asian countries at 39th place (0.210), followed by Vietnam (58th), Thailand (70th), the Philippines (78th) and Myanmar (83rd). Ranked outside the top 100 were Indonesia (103rd), Cambodia (105th) and Lao PDR (118th). Timor-Leste was not ranked due to lack of data needed for the calculation of the GII value. Malaysia's high ranking was driven primarily by its relatively low maternal mortality and adolescent birth rates, and its high educational attainment for women. Lao PDR, on the other hand, had a very low ranking, mainly because of its high maternal mortality and adolescent birth rates, as well as low educational attainment for its women.

Comparing specific component indicators would yield insights into areas that need critical policy interventions. In terms of maternal mortality ratios, Lao PDR has the highest number of cases. For every 100,000 live births, 470 women die from pregnancy-related causes. Timor-Leste follows with 300; Cambodia with 250; Indonesia with 220; Myanmar with 200; and the Philippines with 99. Relatively, Vietnam (59), Thailand (48) and Malaysia (29) have the least number of women dying from pregnancy-related causes among the nine countries.

Lao PDR has the highest adolescent birth rate with 65 births per 1,000 live births. Timor-Leste and Indonesia follow with 52.2 and 48.3 births, respectively. The lowest birth rates occur in Malaysia (5.7), Myanmar (12.1) and Vietnam (29).

In terms of parliamentary seats held by women in a lower/single house and/or an upper house/senate setting, the 2013 index shows that Timor-Leste has the highest number (38.5%), followed by the Philippines (26.9%), Lao PDR (25%), and Vietnam (24.4%). The least proportion of seats held by women were in Myanmar (4.6%), Malaysia (13.9%) and Thailand (15.7%).

Based on the percentage of adult women who have reached at least secondary level of education, the Philippines and Myanmar are the only ones among the nine countries where the female population outnumber the males. In the Philippines, 65.9% of adult women have reached at least secondary level as opposed to 63.7% of adult men, while 18% of women compared to 17.6% of men have done so in Myanmar. The rest have a higher percentage of men than women reaching at least a secondary level of education. Among these countries are Malaysia with 66% of women and 72.8% of men; Indonesia with 39.9% of adult women compared to 49.2% of men, and Thailand with 35.7% of women and 40.8% of men.

The gap between the participation rates of women and men manifest in varying degrees, with Myanmar and Lao PDR registering the smallest gap. Myanmar is also the lone nation among the nine countries which registered a higher labour participation rate for women (85.7%) relative to men (82.1%). The widest gaps are found in the Philippines (28.7%), Malaysia (31%), and Indonesia

(33.1%). In the Philippines, in particular, despite having better education levels than men, Filipino women have always had relatively low labour participation rates. While there has been an increase in the number of women in the labour force during the past decade, this is still well below the number of men. Data show that there seems to be a leveling-off of the labour force participation rate at the onset of childbearing (age 20-34), which then reaches its peak at the menopausal ages (45-54). This suggests that childbearing may continue to be an important factor preventing women from participating actively in the formal labour market (NSO and ICF Macro, 2009).

Table 6. Gender Inequality Index in Southeast Asia

COUNTRY	GII VALUE, 2013	GII RANK, 2013	MATERNAL MORTALITY RATIO, 2010	ADOLESCENT BIRTH RATE, 2010/2015	FEMALE SEATS IN PARLIAMENT 2013 (%)	POPULATION W/ AT LEAST SOME SECONDARY EDUCATION, 25+ 2005-2012		LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE, 15+, 2012 (%)	
Cambodia	0.505	105	250	44.3	18.1[a]	9.9	22.2	78.9	86.5
Indonesia	0.500	103	220	48.3	18.6	39.9	49.2	51.3	84.4
Lao PDR	0.534	118	470	65.0	25.0	22.9 [b]	36.8 [b]	76.3	78.9
Malaysia	0.210	39	29	5.7	13.9	66.0	72.8 [b]	44.3	75.3
Myanmar	0.430	83	200	12.1	4.6	18.0 [b]	17.6 [b]	85.7	82.9
Philippines	0.406	78	99	46.8	26.9	65.9	63.8	51.0	79.7
Thailand	0.364	70	48	41.0	15.7	35.7	40.8	64.4	80.8
Timor-Leste**	-	-	300	52.2	38.5	-	-	24.7	51.1
Vietnam (a)	0.322	58	59	29.0	24.4	59.4	71.2	72.8	81.9

Notes: ** Due to lack of relevant data, the GII has not been calculated for this country.
a – refers to 2012 data. **b** – Barro and Lee (2013) estimate for 2010 based on data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's Institute for Statistics.

Source: UNDP (2014) http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/table-4-gender-inequality-index (Accessed 2 August 2015)

4 Early Marriage

Globally, there are around 70 million child and adolescent brides (UNFPA, 2012 as cited in Plan International Australia, 2014). Each day nearly 39,000 girls under the age of 18 get married, either by force or through choice. Early and forced marriage discriminates against girls and threatens their rights on many levels. This prevalent, if underreported, practice is driven by a number of interrelated factors, some of which are gender inequality, poverty and outdated traditions or religious practices (Plan UK, 2011).

The minimum age for marriage is lower for girls than for boys in many countries. In 2010, girls under the age of 18 were allowed to marry with parental consent in 146 countries (UNFPA, 2012). Girls under the age of 15 were allowed to marry with parental consent in 52 countries. In contrast, boys were legally allowed to marry with parental consent under the age of 18 in 105 countries, and in just 23 countries under the age of 15.

Child and forced marriage oftentimes results in girls dropping out of school, becoming highly vulnerable to health risks for both mother and child; they are also more likely to become trapped in poverty as a consequence of a lack of employment opportunities.

In Southeast Asia, an estimated 10-24% of women aged 20-24 years old are married by the time they turn 18 (Plan International Australia, 2013). In Cambodia, 18% of women are married by the time they turn 18 (UNICEF, 2014). In Lao PDR, one in five of women aged 15-19 are either married,

divorced or widowed, relative to just 6% of young men. In Timor-Leste, where girls can legally be married at 15 and boys at 18, almost 19% of girls are married by the time they are 19 (Plan International Australia, 2013). In Indonesia, around 22% of women aged 20-24 are married by age 18. The issue came into sharp focus in Indonesia when a recent Constitutional Court decision upheld the existing marriage law that permits girls to be married at 16, whereas boys can only be married at age 19 by law (UNICEF Indonesia, 2015).

D. Economic Context

The nine countries are part of a region that is generally looked upon as one of the most dynamic, fastest-growing and most competitive regions in the world. Most are economies which have developed from agricultural, inward-looking economies to market-oriented ones that are open to trade and investments (Lunn & Thompson, 2011).

The economic development in the region, while generally promising and exhibiting good performance, is uneven and in varying stages. Cambodia is categorized as a low-income country; Indonesia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Philippines, Timor-Leste and Vietnam belong to lower middle income; and Malaysia and Thailand belong to the upper middle income group (WB, 2015a).

Many of the economies in the region recorded slowdowns in 2014, thus bringing down the subregional GDP growth rate average to 4.4%. Indonesia and Thailand are two of these countries which displayed decelerating growth for a second consecutive year, stymied by sluggish exports and political disruptions, respectively (ADB, 2015). Malaysia and Vietnam, however, registered improved growth in 2014. Overall, growth is still projected to rebound in the subsequent two years as a result of rising exports and lower inflation.

A comparison of GDP per capita would show that Malaysia is one of the richest countries in Southeast Asia. However, this indicator does not give the complete picture on the distribution of income or expenditure. While the region has generally shown economic growth, this has also benefited those with higher income more. The widening gap between the rich and the poor has become a growing concern in the region.

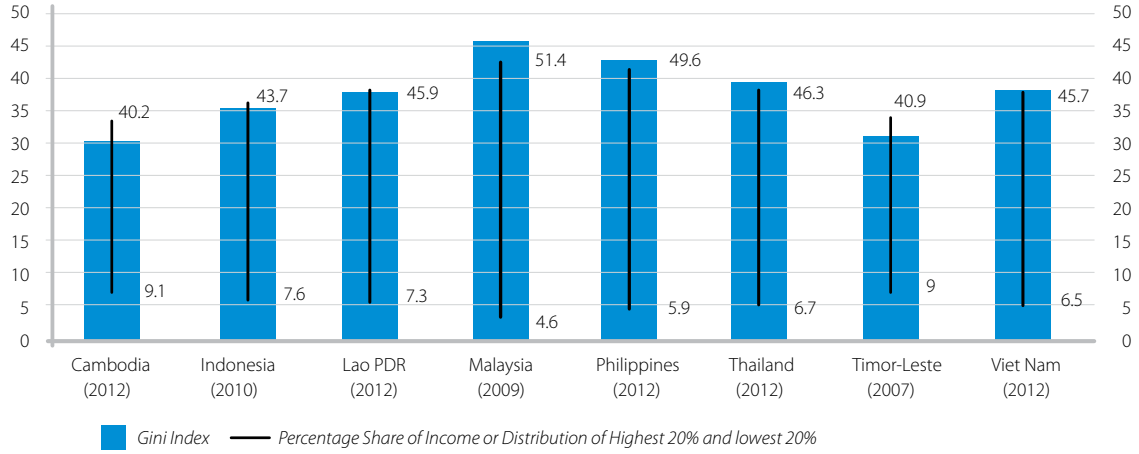
Table 7. Gross Domestic Product per Capita and GDP Growth: 2013-2014

COUNTRY*	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT PER CAPITA		GDP GROWTH (Annual %)
	2013	2014	2014
Cambodia	2,953	3,109	7.0
Indonesia	9,675	10,033	5.0
Lao PDR	4,802	5,076	7.5
Malaysia	22,782	23,804	6.0
Philippines	6,380	6,661	6.1
Thailand	13,841	13,883	0.7
Timor-Leste	2,093	2,173	6.7
Vietnam	5,125	5,370	6.0

Notes: *No data on Myanmar.
Gross domestic product (GDP): Sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products, expressed in 2005 international dollars using purchasing power parity rates.
GDP per capita: GDP in a particular period divided by the total population for the same period.
GDP Growth: Annual percentage growth rate of GDP at market prices based on constant local currency
Source: World Bank (2014). World Development Indicators database. Washington, D.C. http://data.worldbank.org

Income inequality as indicated by the Gini coefficients show variation among the countries. Malaysia and Thailand, which are both upper middle income countries, have the highest and third highest Gini indices, respectively, and are among those in the region with the highest inequality (Myanmar has no data though). Among the middle-income countries, the Philippines showed the highest inequality. The others from this group have Gini coefficients below 40%. Cambodia, a low-income country, displayed the lowest inequality among the nine countries. In Malaysia, the richest 20% of the population outspend the poorest 20% by around 11 times; in the Philippines by about 8 times, in Thailand and Vietnam by around 7 times. Indonesia, however, while not among those with highest Gini, exhibited rising inequality from its status in the 1990s (UNESCAP, 2014). These large disparities in equality may lead to adverse impact on the growth process, poverty reduction, and on social cohesion, if left unaddressed (Sharma, M. et al, 2011; Yap, 2013).

Figure 2. Gini Index and Disparities in Income/ Expenditure between Richest and Poorest 20%: Latest Available Year



Source: World Bank Data, latest available year (http://wdi.worldbank.org/table/2.9)

Notes: (1) Data are based on primary household survey data obtained from government agencies and World Bank country departments
(2) No available data for Myanmar

Overall, economic trends in Southeast Asian countries indicate promising progress and development as well as contentious issues and tough challenges both domestically and regionally. The aggressive push of bilateral and multilateral international funding agencies for regional economic integration, coupled with the consensus between and among the SEA countries, necessitate the need to step up implementation of economic and fiscal reforms in the region.

Labour Force and Employment

The region has among the highest labor force in the world. The ASEAN region (which does not include Timor-Leste) is considered the third biggest labor force behind China and India (McKinsey & Co., 2014). According to recent data, around 312 million constitute the total labor force in the region (World Bank, 2013). Indonesia has the biggest with 122 million, followed by Vietnam with 53.4 million, and the Philippines with 42.9 million workforce. Timor-Leste ranks the least with around a quarter of a million. The employment-to-population ratios, an indicator of the economy's ability to provide employment, show that the range is within 58% to 82% for the majority of the economies in the region. Timor-Leste has the lowest ratio. The high ratio displayed by Cambodia may indicate high levels of employment but mostly in low-paying informal jobs (ADB, 2014).

Given the labor force and employment backdrop, however, employment and job opportunities across the region remain wanting. Since 2010, local unemployment rates have stood at between 0.3% and 18.4% (CIA, 2015).

Overall, the economic growth rates of the majority of the SEA countries remain insufficient to provide enough employment opportunities to reduce unemployment across the region.

Table 8. Labour Force and Employment

COUNTRY	TOTAL LABOUR FORCE* (2013)	EMPLOYMENT TO POPULATION RATIO** (15+, TOTAL (%) MODELED ILO ESTIMATE) (2014)
Cambodia	8,446,339	82
Indonesia	122,125,092	64
Lao PDR	3,296,672	77
Malaysia	13,040,749	58
Myanmar	29,765,555	76
Philippines	42,923,364	61
Thailand	39,873,480	72
Timor-Leste	259,814	36
Vietnam	53,443,678	76

Notes: ***Total labour force** comprises people ages 15 and older who meet the International Labour Organization definition of the economically active population: all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes both the employed and the unemployed. While national practices vary in the treatment of such groups as the armed forces and seasonal or part-time workers, in general the labour force includes the armed forces, the unemployed, and first-time job-seekers, but excludes homemakers and other unpaid caregivers and workers in the informal sector.

****Employment to population** ratio is the proportion of a country's population that is employed. Ages 15 and older are generally considered the working-age population.

Source: World Bank (2013/ 2014). Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator.

Incidence of Poverty

Poverty remains a formidable concern in most SEA countries. Economic gains are routinely eclipsed by widespread disparities as well as entrenched social and economic inequality, both in relatively more prosperous societies such as Malaysia and Thailand, and in less prosperous ones such as Myanmar and Timor-Leste.

The overall record in poverty reduction has not been uniform. In 2012, the number of people who lived below the poverty line ranged from 3.8% (Malaysia) to 37% (Timor-Leste) (CIA, 2012). Poverty remains significantly high in most countries: Myanmar (32.7%); Philippines (25.2%); Lao PDR (22%); and Cambodia (17.7%). Thailand (12.6%) and Indonesia (11.3%) do slightly better.

The poverty headcount ratios indicate that rural poverty, relative to urban poverty, is still a much bigger problem for all nine countries. Poverty levels in rural areas are much higher than in urban areas. Lao PDR and Cambodia have at least a fifth of their rural populations living below the poverty line. With increasing urban populations, however, comes the rise in the urban share of the poor. As indicated by the Philippines' and Indonesia's urban poverty headcount ratios, addressing urban poverty issues, alongside rural poverty, has to be urgently addressed.

Table 9. Rural and Urban Poverty Headcount Ratio at PPL		
COUNTRY	RURAL POVERTY HEADCOUNT RATIO AT PPL (% OF RURAL POPULATION)*	URBAN POVERTY HEADCOUNT RATIO AT PPL(% OF URBAN POPULATION)**
Cambodia [a]	20.8	6.4
Indonesia [c]	14.2	8.3
Lao PDR [a]	28.6	10
Malaysia [c]	1.6	0.3
Myanmar	NO DATA	NO DATA
Philippines [a]	NO DATA	13.0
Thailand [b]	13.9	7.7
Timor-Leste	NO DATA	NO DATA
Vietnam [c]	18.6	3.8

Notes: ***Rural poverty headcount ratio at national poverty lines (% of rural population):** Percentage of the rural population living below the national poverty lines.
****Urban poverty headcount ratio at national poverty lines (% of urban population):** Percentage of the urban population living below the national poverty lines
a – refers to 2012 data. **b** – refers to 2013 data. **c** – refers to 2014 data
Source: World Bank (latest available year), http://data.worldbank.org/indicator

E. Political Landscape

Southeast Asia is a "kaleidoscope of political systems" (Lunn & Thompson, 2011) – from socialist states to liberal democratic countries. This complex situation across the region has led some analysts to assert that the best framework for understanding the political trajectory of Southeast Asia is provided by the concept of "hybridity." This view draws on the argument that all the states of the region, to different degrees at different points in time, have combined "authoritarian and democratic elements" since the end of World War II (Lunn & Thompson, 2011).

The economic and political dynamics both within and among the countries in the region are closely linked. The course of political and economic development – both domestically and regionally – has been considerably influenced and shaped by the powerful presence of external forces, such as bilateral and multilateral international funding institutions, and the prominent roles of countries such as People's Republic of China, Japan, the United States, and the United Kingdom.

Threats to Peace and Sustainability. Internal strife and armed conflict are threats to peace and sustainability. It is estimated that globally 28 million children, or 42% of all primary-age children in conflict-affected countries, have been out of school as of 2011 (UNESCO, 2011).

Armed conflict in many of the world's poorest countries has severe impacts on the hopes and aspirations of children, who in conflict-affected areas make up 22% of the world's primary school-age population and comprise 50% of children who are denied an education – a proportion that has increased from 42% in 2008 (UNESCO, 2011). In Southeast Asia itself, Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand and Timor-Leste are included in the list of conflict-affected countries in 2002-2011.

In Myanmar, communal violence and armed inter-ethnic conflict throughout the country have resulted in the widespread displacement of communities (UNESCO, 2014). The Philippines has a number of long-running ideology-based armed conflicts (IBACs). These IBACs, which pertain

primarily to communist and Muslim insurgencies, are often perceived to be the main contributors to armed conflict. In Indonesia, insurgency and low-level violence in West New Guinea persist (Lunn & Thompson, 2011). In Thailand, political turbulence has resulted in about 18 coups (the most recent in May 2014) since the abolition of absolute monarchy in 1932, while a long-running Muslim insurgency has claimed the lives of thousands of people in the country's three southernmost provinces (Lunn & Thompson, 2011).

Involuntary Displacement Due to Large-Scale Development-Induced Projects and Environmental Disasters. The sustained push for closer regional economic integration in SEA necessitates massive infrastructure projects, especially in the sectors of transportation (roads as "economic corridors") and energy (large hydropower dams for increased power generation capacity to support rapid industrialization). Large-scale hydropower projects have become the subject of international debate over their massive impacts on local people, culture and nature. While large dams have provided economic benefits, they have also caused serious social and environmental harm. In Lao PDR alone, large dams have resulted in the displacements of local communities (including especially vulnerable and marginalized people, such as children, women, persons with disabilities, elderly, and indigenous peoples). Often irreversible damage has been down to local biological diversity and natural environments (Don, 2011).

In addition, a number of environmental challenges associated primarily with rapid urbanization and population growth continue to threaten the region. Some of these challenges include contaminated water supplies, overfishing, inadequate waste disposal, and air pollution (Lunn & Thompson, 2011).

III EDUCATION SYSTEMS AND PERFORMANCE

The subsequent discussion provides information that brings to the fore education systems, trends and realities across the region. Specifically, the information includes select data on access to education (government expenditures on education, gross enrollment ratios); quality of education (literacy rates among youth, pupil-teacher ratios, primary school dropout rates); and barriers to education (poverty, armed conflict, natural disasters). These are followed by education policies and legislations that are related to out-of-school children.

A. Education Structure

The official primary school entrance age is 6 for the majority of the countries in this study. The earliest entry age is in Myanmar as children are expected to be in primary school by the age of 5. The latest entry age is in Indonesia at 7 years old. A young school entry age in Myanmar has been linked with early dropouts (Myanmar MOE, 2014).

The most common education structure is 6+3+3, or six years of primary, three years of lower/junior secondary, and another three years of upper/senior secondary (Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand and Timor-Leste). All countries, except Myanmar and Malaysia, have 12 years of basic education. Myanmar and Malaysia have the shortest duration of basic education at 11 years. Malaysia, however, has one to two years of post-secondary education before tertiary education. Myanmar's short basic education has been assessed as one of the factors negatively affecting the general quality of education in the country (Myanmar MOE, 2014).

The Philippines' and Lao PDR's current basic education structures have resulted from recent reforms that these countries undertook by adding years to basic education. In 2009-2010, Lao PDR introduced an additional year to lower secondary level. The Philippines introduced two additional years to the secondary level (senior high school) in 2012-13.

Table 10. Duration of Basic Education in 9 Southeast Asian Countries

Country	Entry Age	Years of Primary Education	Years of Second Education		Basic Education Total
			Lower	Upper	
Cambodia	6	6	3	3	12
Indonesia	7	6	3	3	12
Lao PDR	6	5	4	3	12
Malaysia	6	6	3	2	11
Myanmar	5	5	4	2	11
Philippines	6	6	4	2	12
Thailand	6	6	3	3	12
Timor-Leste	6	6	3	3	12
Vietnam	6	5	4	3	12

Note: In Timor-Leste, the years of secondary school follows the "pre-secondary" which takes three (3) years; and "secondary" which takes another three (3) years.

B. Education Indicators

1. Enrolment Rates

Enrolment rates strongly suggest that access to education for most of the children in these Southeast Asian countries has progressed considerably and that near-universal enrolment for most school-age children has been achieved at the primary level. All countries, except Myanmar, have NERs above 90%. Adjusted NERs (ANER) of four countries have reached at least 97%.[4] The rest have ANERs above 90% (except Myanmar which has missing data). In the 2015 EFA review of the individual countries, most have explained that remaining challenges involve reaching the most marginalized and disadvantaged strata of society.

Table 11. Gross Enrolment Rates (GER), Net Enrolment Rates (NER) and Adjusted Net Enrolment Rates (ANER) at the Primary Level: 2013 or Latest Year

Country	Gross Enrolment Rate			Net Enrolment Rate			Adjusted NER
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Cambodia	124.5	129	119.9	98.38 [a]	99.7 [a]	97 a	98.4 a
Indonesia	108.5 [a]	108.5 [a]	108.6	92.2 [a]	91.7 [a]	92.8 a	95.3 a
Lao PDR	121.2	124.2	118.1	97.2	98.1	96.5	97.3
Malaysia	96.6 [b]	96.7 [b]	96.5 [b]	97.0 [e]	98.5 [j]	95 j	97.0 e
Myanmar	114.2 [c]	114.7 [c]	113.6[c]	84.6 [f]	–	–	–
Philippines	107	108.9	104.9	95.2 [k]	90.3	90.2	90.9
Thailand	95.8	97.1	94.5	95.6 [g]	96.2 [g]	94.9 g	95.6 g
Timor-Leste	128.8 [d]	128.9 [d]	128.59 [d]	91.9 [h]	90.6 [h]	93.3 h	91.7 l
Vietnam	104.9	106	103.7	98.3 [i]	96.9 [i]	96.4 i	98.1

Sources: UIS Data Centre, 2013 unless otherwise specified

a UIS, 2012. **b** 2013 as cited in EFA 2015 Review Malaysia. **c** UIS, 2010. **d** 2013 as cited in EFA 2015 Review Timor-Leste. **e** UIS, 2005. **f** 2011-12 as cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013. **g** UIS, 2009. **h** EMIS, 2013 as cited in EFA 2015 Review Timor-Leste. **i** 2013 as cited in EFA 2015 Review Vietnam. **j** UIS, 2003. **k** 2012-13 as cited in UNICEF, et al, 2012. **l** UIS, 2011

Participation at the lower secondary education level is not as strong as at the primary level. Among the nine countries examined, only Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam have achieved GERs that are at least 90%. Only Thailand has achieved a lower secondary NER above 90%.

4 Universal primary enrolment is achieved if adjusted NER exceeds at least 97% (UNESCO, 2015)

Table 12. Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) and Net Enrolment Rates (NER) at the Lower Secondary Level: 2013 or Latest Year						
Country	Gross Enrolment Rate			Net Enrolment Rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	63.7	62.9	64.4	45	42.3	47.8
Indonesia	91.4	89.6	93.3	73	71.4	74.3
Lao PDR	63.5	66.5	60.3	46.2	45.8	46.6
Malaysia	91.2 [a]	95.9 [a]	86.6 [a]	86.2 [d]	–	–
Myanmar	57.6 [b]	56.7 [b]	58.5 [b]	45.5 [c]	50.3 [b]	51.8 b
Philippines	88.3	86.1	90.6	60.9	56.3	65.7
Thailand	93.6	93.4	93.8	99 [e]	–	–
Timor-Leste	76.4 [c]	73.5 [c]	79.6 [c]	34.4 [c]	30.6 [c]	38.6 c
Vietnam	92.4	92.3	92.6	87.1 [a]	–	

Source: UIS Data Centre, 2013 unless otherwise specified
a UIS, 2012. **b** UIS, 2010. **c** EMIS, 2013 as cited in EFA 2015 Review Timor-Leste. **d** Malaysia Educational Statistics, EPRD, MOE, 2012. **e** Office of the Education Council (ONEC), 2014

2. Government Expenditures on Education

While education is considered as a key priority area for all countries, the commitment to it as expressed in education spending as a percentage of government expenditures varies. Compared to education expenditures as a percentage of GDP, education's share of total government expenditures is a more direct measure of the government's commitment to education relative to other sectors (UNESCO, 2007). The biggest spenders, using this indicator, are Vietnam (21.4%), Malaysia (21%), and Thailand (20.7%), with allocations of at least 20%. The lowest spenders are Cambodia (13.1%), Timor-Leste (9.6%), and Myanmar (4.4%).

The highest public spending on education relative to GDP was observed in Timor-Leste (9.5%), Vietnam (6.3%), and Malaysia (5.9). The countries in which public expenditure is less than 3% of GDP are Myanmar (2.1%), the Philippines (2.6%), and Lao PDR (2.8%). It is worth noting that Timor-Leste, which has high public expenditures on education relative to GDP (9.5%), also has one of the smallest expenditures on education relative to government expenditures (9.6%). The Philippines, on the other hand, has a low share of education expenditures relative to GDP (2.6%) but a modest share relative to government expenditures (16.3%).

Table 13. Government Expenditure on Education: 2012 or Latest Year		
COUNTRY	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (% OF TOTAL GDP)	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (% OF GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE)
Cambodia	2.6 [a]	13.1[a]
Indonesia	3.6	18.1
Lao PDR	2.8	15.4 [e]
Malaysia	5.9 [b]	21 [b]
Myanmar	2.1 [c]	4.4 [e]
Philippines	2.6 [d]	16.3 [d]
Thailand	4.9	20.7
Timor-Leste	9.5 [b]	9.6 [b]
Vietnam	6.3	21.4

Source: UIS Data Centre, 2012 unless specified otherwise

Notes: **a** 2010. **b** 2011. **c** Myanmar MOE, 2014 (cited in CESR Phase 2 2014). **d** DepEd, 2011 (cited in SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015). **e** Unofficial data based on statement of H.E. Dr Mya Aye, the Union Minister for Education at the second regular session of first Amyotha Hluttaw (Parliament) on 21st September 2011, New Light of Myanmar (22.9.2011), cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013 (CESR Phase 1)

C. Barriers to Education

The issue of out-of school children (OOSC) remains a pervasive global problem, as evidenced by the 124 million OOSC in the world; around 14.3 million of them living in East Asia and the Pacific. The global rise in number suggests that progress in expanding the access to basic education is slowly losing steam (UNESCO and UIS, 2015). In Southeast Asia (excluding Brunei Darussalam and Singapore), over 6.8 million of primary and secondary school age are out of school.[5]

Targeted interventions are needed to reach the most marginalized children and youth who are out of school today, including those with disabilities; children from ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities; and children affected by natural disasters and armed conflict (UNESCO and UIS, 2015). These interventions need to be able to break down the barriers that make education out of reach for many. Barriers may be classified into capacity barriers, access barriers, and financial barriers (UNESCO Bkk, 2014). Financial barriers include the inability of poor families to pay for the direct and indirect costs of schooling, often grappling with the difficult decision of whether they should send their children to work or to enrol them in school. There are many other barriers related to capacity such as the lack of demand for education, fueled by the poor quality of education, non-use of mother tongue in teaching, and misperceptions about schooling. The inadequacy of resources and facilities is also particularly salient for families in remote areas, for children with disabilities and for ethno-linguistic minorities. Barriers related to access include inaccessibility of schools due to distance, and children being hindered to attend school for cultural and/or social reasons (UNESCO Bkk, 2014).

In Timor-Leste, more than half of primary schools (57%) lack proper infrastructure such as adequate sanitation facilities that tend to affect the attendance of children (UIS & UNICEF, 2012 as cited in Thomas & Burnet, 2015). A 2008 household survey in the Philippines revealed that a combination of capacity, access and financial barriers have caused the non-attendance of primary school-age children, which include high cost of education, lack of personal interest in schooling, distance from school, and household responsibilities (APIS, 2008 as cited in UNICEF, et al, 2012). In Myanmar, poverty has caused children to drop out of school in order to earn money for their families or to care for their younger siblings when parents are at work (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015).

5 Most country estimates were based on UIS data. The Philippines's and Vietnam's estimates were from the country studies on the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children.

D. Education Policies

In order to make informed decisions that would better address the situation of OOSC, it is important to fully understand the legal and policy environments within which the conditions and challenges faced by out-of-school children can be situated. This section explores national laws, policies, decrees and resolutions in nine SEA countries with regard to the guaranteeing of the fundamental right to education, the offering of free and compulsory education, and the expansion of access through flexible approaches.

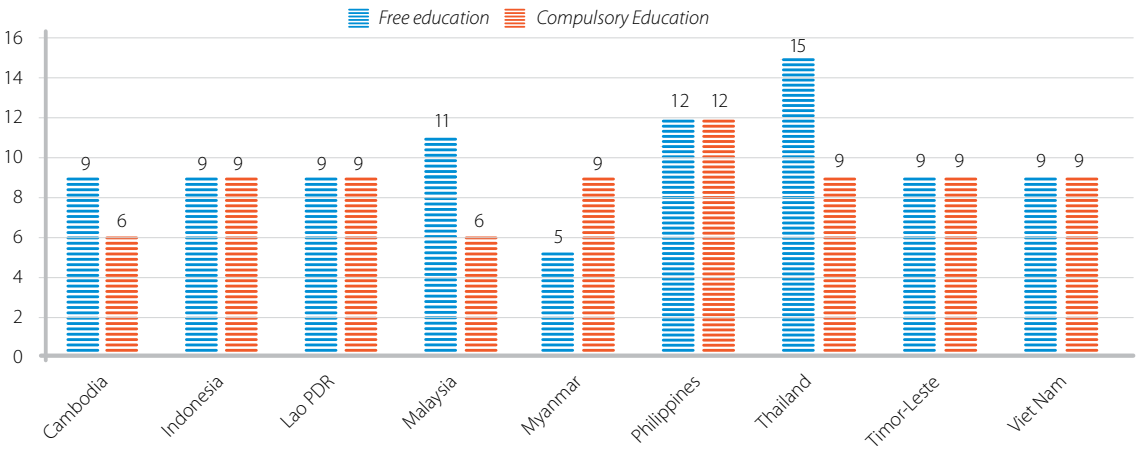
Policies on the Right to Education, to Free and Compulsory Education, and on Education for the Disadvantaged

Through their respective constitutions and education laws or acts, all nine countries have affirmed the fundamental right of all children to education, and the state's obligation in making education accessible to all. Specifically, these countries have provided a strong legal basis for the realization of the right to free quality primary – and in most countries, even lower secondary – education for all children regardless of sex, socio-economic status, location, ethnicity and other characteristics.

All countries also have constitutional provisions and other laws that mandate compulsory education at the primary level, and for many countries, up to the lower or upper secondary level. Some countries have very specific laws pertaining to compulsory and free education, such as the Decree on Compulsory Education (1996) in Lao PDR, the Compulsory Education Act (2002) in Malaysia, the Free Public Secondary Education Act (1998) of the Philippines, and the Law on the Universalization of Primary Education (1991) in Vietnam.

Myanmar has the shortest provision of free and compulsory education at five years. Five countries have legislated free education at the primary and lower secondary levels of their respective education systems (Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Timor-Leste and Vietnam). Lao PDR has only recently endorsed the extension of free education from five to nine years. Three other countries (Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand) have mandated that primary as well as lower and upper secondary levels be free. Most of the countries have also legislated compulsory education to include primary and lower secondary levels. Only the Philippines has mandated compulsory education to include even upper secondary level (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Years of Free and Compulsory Education in Southeast Asia



Notes: – Cambodia's lower secondary education is compulsory in principle.

– Lao PDR just recently increased their free and compulsory education from 5 to 9 years.
– Malaysia has a proposal to extend compulsory education to 11 years.

Notably, all countries have also underscored inclusive policies that pay particular attention to the educational needs of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged learners or those frequently excluded from the formal system. These measures are articulated in their respective constitutions, as well as other national legislations, such as education acts and strategic development plans. Specific laws and policies that pertain to child protection or the protection of specific categories of children – such as girls, those with disabilities, and stateless children – have also been passed in some countries so as to strengthen the principle of non-discrimination. The following lists a sample of the specific laws and policies in each of the nine countries that endorse these aforementioned principles.

Cambodia

- The **Constitution of the Kingdom of Cambodia**, adopted in 1993 and amended in 1999, upholds citizens' right to quality education at all levels (Article 65), and mandates the provision of free primary and secondary education to all students in public schools (Art. 68).

- The **Education Law of 2007, Art. 31**, also echoes this provision of free access to quality education of at least nine years in public schools. Aside from these provisions pertaining to free access to all, the State also specifically encourages and promotes access to special education for children with disabilities and outstanding learners who are gifted and/or talented. The law stipulates that the rights of able-bodied learners should be the same ones enjoyed by those with disabilities, although special rights are likewise accorded such as:

  – "Disabled learners of either sex have the right to study with able learners if there is sufficient facilitation in the study process for the disabled learner to fulfill the educational programme of the educational institutions;
  – Disabled learners with special needs have the rights to receive additional teaching in the regular educational programme, which is not a particularly special educational programme.
  – Disabled learners who are not able to learn with able learners have the right to receive special education in separate special classes. These disabled learners can study at community schools in their locality."

- The **Education Strategic Plan (ESP**) 2014-18 declares, as one of its policies, that all children should have access to all types of educational opportunities.

Indonesia

- Chapter 13, Article 31, of the **1945 Constitution** of Indonesia states that all citizens have the fundamental right to receive education, and that each one has the responsibility to acquire basic education. The government is obligated to provide the necessary resources for the national system to function. The rights of those living in remote areas and those with special needs are highlighted.

- The landmark feature of the **Act of the Republic of Indonesia No. 20, Year 2003, on the National Education System** (Chapter 4, Art. 5 and 6, and Chapter 8, Art. 34) states the provision on free and compulsory basic education for all Indonesian citizens between 7 to 15 years old, without any form of discrimination. The national and local governments shall

guarantee the implementation of this provision. Because there are other non-tuition costs that families have to bear, such as books, uniforms, and fares, the law also provides for the right to receive an educational grant in case the parents are unable to bear such costs.

- The **MPR Decree No. XVII / MPR / 1998 on Human Rights** has several statements pertaining to educational rights: (i) Article 5 provides that "every person has the right to develop and acquire the benefits of science and technology, arts and culture for the welfare of mankind;" (ii) Article 15 states that "every person is free to choose the education and teaching; and (iii) Article 40 mandates that " vulnerable groups, such as children and the poor are entitled to more protection against their human rights."

- **Law No. 39 of 1999 on Human Rights** includes the rights of children, specifically contained in Article 60, which states that "every child is entitled to education and teaching in the context of personal development in accordance with their interests, talents, and level of intelligence," and that "every child has the right to seek, receive, provide information in accordance with the level of intellect and his age for the development of the whole in accordance with the values of decency and propriety."

- The **Law No. 23 Year 2002 on Child Protection** reiterated the state's responsibility of providing a minimum of nine years of basic education (art. 48). It states that all children have the right to an education and training based upon their inidvidual interests and talents (Art. 9). All children, particularly those with disabilities and special needs, are entitled to receive the same opportunities and to access both regular and special education (Art. 51). The State is also mandated to provide free education, assistance or services to children who live in remote areas, who are abandoned or neglected, and those from poor households (Art. 53). Further, it is responsible for providing special protection to children from different marginalized groups, including those who are survivors of social disturbances and natural disasters, and those affected by human-induced conflicts (Arts. 59-62). This protection includes meeting their basic needs, including education, learning and recreation.

- The **1997 Act of the Republic of Indonesia Number 4 Concerning Disabled People** assures the right of all people with disabilities to access education of all types and from all levels, units or programmes "according to their disabilities" (Art. 6). This is further supported by the **1998 Government Regulation No. 43 on Generating Social Welfare for Disabled People** that recognizes the equality in status, rights, duty and role for people with disability. The **Minister of Education Decree No. 70/ 2009 on Inclusive Education** covers children with disabilities and those with special needs.

Lao PDR

Article 22 of the amended **Lao PDR Constitution** (2003) promulgates the implementation of compulsory primary education "in order to build good citizens with revolutionary competence, knowledge and abilities." Article 38, on the other hand, guarantees all Lao citizens the right to education and to improve themselves. The constitution is in the process of being amended.

The **Decree on Compulsory Education in 1996 No. 138/PMO/96** makes primary education, which includes five years of schooling, free and compulsory for all children between the ages of 6 and 14 years. It also states that "all Lao citizens residing in the country must receive primary education thoroughly and equally beginning at 6 years of age, regardless of race, religion, sex, ethnicity, and social/economic status."

- The **Education Law No 04/NA/2007 (Article 17)**, dated 3 July 2007, adopts a five-year primary education as compulsory education for all Lao citizens starting from 6 years old. All Lao citizens, regardless of sex, ethnicity, religion, race and socio-economic status, must receive this first level of level of general education as the basic level that should be achieved by all.

  Moreover, Article 14 of the Education Law mandates the State to establish special schools for people with serious disabilities, and to facilitate the enrollment in the local schools for those with light disabilities. The State is also responsible for mobilizing both the private sector and civil society to invest in the establishment of inclusive schools. The State's role in providing scholarships for students with disabilities and mobilizing civil society to provide support, as appropriate, is highlighted in Article 24 of the Education Law.

- The revised **Education Law in 2015** proposes a system of nine years of compulsory education covering primary and lower secondary education. The new law was endorsed at the 9th Session of the National Assembly on 16 July 2015.

- The **Law on the Protection of the Rights and Interests of Children** mandates the provision of education for the disadvantaged, for children with disabilities, and for those affected by HIV and AIDS. It likewise calls for the establishment of child-friendly schools.

Malaysia

- The **Constitution of Malaysia** (Art. 12) prescribes that admission to schools and payment of fees adhere to a principle of non-discrimination. It is the right of all Malaysian children to have equal access to education, without regard to their location and socio-economic background.

- The **Education Act 1996 (Act 550)** is the parent legislation on education whose scope covers all levels of education except those in international schools. Amended under the **Education Regulations (Compulsory Education)** 2002 (that took effect in 2003), the law prescribes free primary education to be compulsory and requires Malaysian parents to register their children, once they reach the age of 6 or on the first day of the current academic year when they turn 6, in a primary school and ensure that the latter remains enrolled for the duration of the compulsory schooling. Non-compliance to this provision means that the parents are liable to a punishment of fine or imprisonment. Compulsory education lasts for six years but may be completed within five to seven years, according to the Act. It likewise guarantees that every Malaysian child, including those with disabilities and regardless of sex and socio-economic background and residence, must enjoy the right to primary education. In principle, secondary education is also free but not compulsory yet. Other significant aspects of the Act are the introduction of preschool education in the national education system, and automatic promotion to address internal inefficiencies.

- Among the 11 thrusts included in the **Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025** is equal access to quality education of international standards. To help achieve its goal of universal

access and full enrolment of all children from preschool to upper secondary school by 2020, it identifies as one of its strategies the extension of compulsory primary education from 6 to 11 years. Currently, compulsory education remains at the primary level. However, based on efforts by the government to provide different types of school (e.g. academic, technical, vocational, religious) to cater to the different needs of the children in upper secondary, the government is strict in ensuring that 11 years of basic education be met.

Myanmar

- Universal primary education is ensured in the **2008 Constitution** of the Republic of the Union of Myanmar, specifically in Art. 28 and in Art. 366, which states that "the Union shall implement free compulsory primary education system… Every citizen, in accord with the educational policy laid down by the Union has the right to education and shall be given basic education which the Union prescribes by law as compulsory."

- The **National Education Law of 2014 (Parliamentary Law No. 41)** reiterates this policy on free and compulsory education at the primary level. It also endorses special education programmes and services for school-age children, youth, and other citizens with disabilities who have not had an opportunity to study or access educational opportunities (Chap. 3).

- Section 20 of the **Child Law of 1993** has earlier articulated this aspiration for free basic education."Every child shall: (i) have opportunities of acquiring education; and (ii) have the right to acquire free basic education (primary level) at schools opened by the State."

Philippines

- The highest law of the land, the **1987 Philippine Constitution**, has declared its policy of protecting and promoting the right of all citizens to quality basic education and to make such education accessible to all (Art. XIV, Sec. 1). Furthermore, it mandates the establishment and maintenance of a system of free public education at the elementary and high school levels. Primary education is compulsory. In Art. XIV, sec. 2.4 and 17, the State is mandated to "encourage nonformal, formal and indigenous learning systems" and to "recognize, respect, and protect the rights of indigenous cultural communities to preserve and develop their cultures, traditions and institutions."

- The **Education Act of 1982**, or "An Act Providing for the Establishment and Maintenance of an Integrated System of Education" (Republic Act No. 7798), mandates the establishment and maintenance of a complete, adequate and integrated system of education relevant to the national development goals. It also declares the State's responsibility in the promotion of "the right of every individual to relevant quality education, regardless of age, creed, socio-economic status, physical and mental conditions, racial or ethnic origins or other affiliations" as well as the equality of access and enjoyment of the benefits of education by all.

- Another law, the **Governance of Basic Education Act or Republic Act 9155 of 2001** (An Act Instituting a Framework of Governance for Basic Education, Establishing Authority and Accountability, Renaming the Department of Education, Culture and Sports as the Department of Education, and for Other Purposes), declared its policy for the State "to protect and promote the right of all citizens to quality basic education and to make such education accessible to all by providing all Filipino children a free and compulsory

education in the elementary level and free education in the high school level. Such education shall also include alternative learning systems for out-of-school youth and adult learners" (Section 2).

- The **Republic Act (R.A.) 6655, or "An Act Establishing and Providing for a Free Public Secondary Education and other Purposes**," establishes free provision of secondary education. It mandates free tuition fee to all students "enrolled in secondary course offerings in national and general comprehensive high schools, state colleges and universities, specialized schools, trade, technical, vocational, fishery and agricultural schools, and in schools established, administered, maintained, and funded by local government units, including city, provincial, municipal, and barangay (village) high schools and those public high schools which may be established by law." This law expanded access to secondary education, which became open to all secondary school-age population, provided they have completed elementary education. Prior to the enactment of this law, secondary education even in public schools was difficult to access for many students due to the high tuition fees being charged.

- The **Philippine Development Plan (PDP) 2011-16**, which serves as the government's blueprint in its implementation of its 16-point "social contract with the people," reaffirmed its mandate to provide access to complete quality basic education to all Filipinos through the following strategies: (1) Provide the necessary basic education input; (2) Provide affirmative action to learners with special needs; (3) Engage the private sector in broadening opportunities for basic education; (4) Utilize technology in expanding reach of basic education.

- **The Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013 or Republic Act 10533** (An Act Enhancing the Philippine Basic Education System by Strengthening its Curriculum and Increasing the Number of Years for Basic Education, Appropriating Funds Therefor and for Other Purposes) has legislated the addition of two years to basic education, and expands free and compulsory schooling from kindergarten to secondary education (including the additional two years of senior high school).

- Republic Act (R.A.) 10157, or the **Kindergarten Act of 2012**, makes preschool free and mandatory for all 5-year-old Filipinos. It institutionalized kindergarten as the first cycle in basic education and making it compulsory before children can be accepted to grade 1. It also paved the way for the adoption of kindergarten services for children from disadvantaged backgrounds, such as children with disabilities, those from indigenous groups, Muslim children, and others in especially difficult circumstances.

- The **Early Years Act of 2013** mandates the protection of the rights of children to survival and development in consideration of the nature of childhood and their specific needs, thus designating the Department of Education (DepEd) as the primary agency responsible to help develop children in the formative years between 5 and 8 years.

- **Republic Act No. 8371, or the Indigenous Peoples Rights Act (IPRA) of 1997**, as stated in Art. II, Sec. 2, mandates the State to "provide equal access to various cultural opportunities to the indigenous cultural communities/indigenous peoples (ICCs/ IPs) through the educational system, public or cultural entities, scholarships, grants and other incentives without prejudice to their right to establish and control their educational systems and

institutions by providing education in their own language, in a manner appropriate to their cultural methods of teaching and learning." Sec. 30, Chapter VI, further states that "indigenous children/youth shall have the right to all levels and forms of education of the State."

- The **Magna Carta for Disabled Persons 1992 (amended 2007)** contains a provision of equal access to quality education for gifted persons or people with disabilities, as well as ample opportunities to develop their skills and take appropriate steps to make such education accessible to all people with disabilities.

- The **Republic Act 9710**, or **An Act Providing for the Magna Carta of Women**, is a comprehensive women's rights law that seeks to eliminate and address the various forms of discrimination against women and girls, particularly those in the marginalized sectors. It spells out women's right to equal access and the elimination of discrimination in education, scholarships and training. Under Section 32, the State shall pursue measures that will protect girl-children from all forms of abuse and exploitation;, ensure equal access of Moro and indigenous girl-children in the Madaris, schools of living culture and traditions, and the regular schools; put in place gender-sensitive curriculum; and ensure that regular schools are sensitive to particular Moro and indigenous practices, such as fasting during the month of Ramadan, choice of clothing (including the wearing of the hijab), and availability of *halal* food.

Thailand

- The provision of free and quality education is unequivocal as well in Thailand as stated in its recently suspended **Constitution of B.E. (2007)**, Sec. 49 and the **National Education Act B.E. 2542 (1999) and Amendments (2nd National Education Act B.E. 2542 [2002])**. Free education in this act covers 12 years. Section 10 states that:

  "In the provision of education, all individuals shall have equal rights and opportunities to receive basic education provided by the State for the duration of at least 12 years. Such education, provided on a nationwide basis, shall be of quality and free of charge."

- Disadvantaged children and those with special learning needs or those with disabilities are particularly mentioned in the provision of basic education in the country's constitution, which is currently being rewritten.

- The **Education Act 1999** states that "all individuals shall have equal rights and opportunities to receive basic education provide by the State for the duration of at least 12 years. Such education, provided on a nationwide basis, shall be of quality and free of charge." It specifies the right to education for those with disabilities, the destitute and the disadvantaged. It likewise states the obligation of parents and guardians regarding the education of those under their care as well as the right of government and other sectors to provide basic education. Moreover, the Act obliges children who are 7 years of age to enroll in basic education until the age of 16, with the length of compulsory education totaling nine years.

- The **"15 Years Free Education with Quality Policy,"** launched in 2009, extended the coverage of free education to 15 years with a view to paying particular attention to the educational needs of poor and disadvantaged children. This policy covers both formal

and non-formal education. Students receive free assistance in the area of tuition fees, textbooks, learning materials, school uniforms, and others.

- The **Cabinet Resolution on Education for Unregistered Persons (2005)** guarantees the right of all children who have no legal status in Thailand, and assures them the right to access public schools certified by the Ministry of Education, even in the absence of evidence of civil registration.

Timor-Leste

- The **2002 Constitution of the Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste** (Sec. 59) recognizes and guarantees the right of each citizen to education and culture, and to equal opportunities for education and vocational training. The State is mandated to "promote the establishment of a public system of universal and compulsory basic education that is free of charge… in conformity with the law."

  The Constitution also highlights the right to education of children with disabilities: Section 16 (Articles 1 and 2) states that everyone should enjoy the same rights and that no one, including those with "physical or mental conditions," shall be discriminated against. Children shall be afforded special protection against all types of discrimination, including that on the grounds of disability.

- The **2008 Basic Law of Education**, or the **National Education Act No. 14/2008**, reiterates the right to education and culture as enshrined in the Constitution, which is meant to "promote equal opportunities and the overcoming of economic, social, and cultural inequalities… ensuring the right to free and effective equalities of opportunities regarding school access and success" (Art. 2). That nine-year basic education is universal, mandatory and free is also clearly stipulated in Art. 11 of the law.

- The vision as stated in the national **Strategic Development Plan (SDP) 2011-2030** is that "all Timorese children should attend school and receive a quality education that gives them the knowledge and skills to lead healthy, productive lives and to actively contribute to our nation's development" (Part 2 Social Capital – Education and Training). The SDP also underscores "social inclusion" in the education system, as the right to education is ensured for all, especially the most vulnerable and disadvantaged. It also sets the priority that "by 2030 every child has access to free, compulsory and mandatory education" up to Grade 12.

- The **National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) 2011-2030** reaffirms the vision that all individuals will be able to access quality education, which will "allow them to participate in the economic, social and political development process." One of the priority programmes in the NESP involves a social inclusion policy that "promotes the educational rights of socially marginalized groups."

- The general objective of **Timor-Leste's National Inclusive Education Policy of 2011** is that all citizens "should receive equally, an education of good quality appropriate to their individual abilities and should gain the necessary knowledge, capacity and skills – and suitable vocation – to support themselves and their families and to participate in all areas of national development". The policy puts premium on groups which are frequently

excluded from the formal system such as learners with disabilities, children living in severe poverty and in remote areas, minority ethnic communities, working children, street children, those affected by HIV and AIDS, as well as pregnant girls and young mothers.

Vietnam

- The **2013 Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam** (Art. 61) clearly articulates that education is a primary national policy and that the State shall guarantee free and compulsory primary education and gradually universalize secondary education. Priority is given to those in the mountainous and island areas where ethnic minorities reside, and in regions with difficult socio-economic conditions, and those with disabilities.

- The **Education Law of 2005** reaffirms the State's conviction in the right of access to learning opportunities of all citizens, regardless of their status in life, and in its commitment to universal primary and lower secondary education. The law has also reiterated its policy of preferential priority for children from the marginalized sectors (Art. 10 and 11).

- The **Law on Protection, Care and Education of Children (2004)** covers children below 16 years old and ensures the state policy on non-discrimination of children regardless of gender, family background, nationality, belief, religion, socio-economic status, and political opinion of parents. It assures the education rights of all children, including those in special circumstances.

- The **Education Strategic Development Plan 2011-2020** contains a set of policies that aims to improve the quality of education, as well as promoting education in the disadvantaged regions.

- The **1991 Law on Universalization of Primary Education** makes primary education free of charge.

- The **Law on Gender Equality (2006)** stipulates the policy on men and women having equal rights to education and training, and the prohibition of gender-based discrimination, including discrimination against girls.

- According to the **Law on Persons with Disabilities (2010)**, the state shall ensure and facilitate access to education of persons with disabilities. The **Scheme for Assistance to People with Disabilities for 2012-2020** sets the objectives related to enrolment of children with disabilities, the development of curriculum and learning materials, professional training for management staff, and capacity development for teachers delivering inclusive education.

E. Policies on Expanding Access for OOSC through Flexible Approaches

All nine countries recognize that conventional systems are no longer sufficient in addressing educational needs, particularly of marginalized children in disadvantaged communities. Thus, each one has set policy provisions in place that would recognize and uphold the important role that alternative or flexible learning approaches can have in complementing formal education and widening access to education for out-of-school children.

Cambodia

Cambodia, in its Education Law (Chap. IV, Art. 15), recognizes a comprehensive education system composed of formal, non-formal and informal education in keeping with the Constitution's provision on providing quality education that would be accessible to all citizens and on developing a "complete and uniform education system… so that citizens have an equal chance of improving their livelihoods." Non-formal education is considered an official education system as further underscored in the 2002 National Policy on Non-Formal Education. Cognizant of the need for this equitable access to primary education in remote areas and to most disadvantaged groups, the government of Cambodia commits to providing access therefore to alternative education to all, regardless of sex and ethnicity, who are unable to attend or complete formal education, as stated in the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2014-18. It emphasizes equity, access and justice as it strives to provide for the most marginalized children, such as indigenous children, children with disabilities, and children from poor families, in order that they may increase their levels of literacy and complete 12 years of education.

The ESP includes non-formal education as one of the seven key sub-sectors it would focus on, and intends to expand accelerated learning and re-entry programmes for out-of-school children and youth. Non-formal education – which includes programmes on functional literacy, post-literacy, re-entry, equivalency (primary and secondary), income-generating and improvement of quality of life – prioritizes disadvantaged children, out-of-school children and youth, as well as illiterate adults. Specifically, as indicated in the 2002 National Policy on Non-Formal Education, the government targets people who belong to poor families, those living in difficult circumstances, working children, those from ethnic minority groups, and adults aged 15 to 45, while focusing more on girls and women. Their focus areas include poor areas, remote, rural ones, and reintegration areas. The Non-Formal Education National Action Plan 2008-2015 lists the strategies, activities, and targets for each of these programmes.

The policy on NFE Equivalency Programme was developed in 2008 to respond to the learning needs of out-of-school children and other sectors such as civil servants, armed forces, and factory workers. The programme offers flexibility to suit the activities and interests of those outside the formal system.

Indonesia

The Act of the Republic of Indonesia No. 20 of 2003 on the National Education System has a clear statement on the equivalence of the formal and informal system of education. It has provisions about the different kinds of education that would widen the access to disadvantaged children, youth and adults. This includes non-formal education (Art. 26), distance education (Art. 31), and special education and education with special services (Art. 32). The provision on special education is meant for learners with disabilities, while the education with special services are for learners in poor, remote and isolated areas, and those affected by disasters. The law also recognizes Islamic education as part of the national education system, which has its own streams of non-formal Islamic education.

As stipulated in Government Regulation No. 73/1993, the state offers equivalency education in the form of Package A (Paket A) programme for those who dropped out from elementary school to earn certification equal to an elementary education, and Package B (Paket B) programme for the junior secondary level. Once learners graduate from this, they can obtain a certificate from the government, through the District Education Board, which is equivalent to that of formal

education, and which would allow them to continue to the next level of either formal or non-formal education. Ministerial Decree No. 3 of 2008 further recognizes these packages as equivalent to formal education. In addition, Ministerial Decree No. 35 of 2012 states that district education offices shall issue diploma to students who pass the examination in the equivalency programme.

Lao PDR

Article 9 of the National Education Law No. 04/NP (2007) states that the Lao national education system is unified and consists of formal education and non-formal education that run in parallel and are equivalent in content and value in every grade and at every level of education. The Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) plays an important role in providing educational and life-long learning opportunities as an alternative to formal learning, for children, youths and adults who cannot gain access to formal education, especially ethnic and disadvantaged groups in remote areas.

The revised Education Law in 2015 (Art. 19) states that non-formal education is a form of teaching and learning that generally occurs outside formal education institutions. Non-formal education has similar curriculum content and grades to formal education. It is designed to be flexible in terms of teaching and learning delivery mode, time, and place. It also intends to meet learners' ability and readiness and to impart literacy and basic vocational training. Article 24 of the law also proposes three types of non-formal education delivery in order to expand access to universal primary education, such as school-based teaching and learning, mobile teaching and learning, and distance learning.

The Education and Sport Vision Development up to 2030 and the Education and Sports Development Strategy 2016-2025, which are still being finalized by the MOES, also include policies encouraging the creation of conditions that would allow dropout students to re-enter general formal school (unpublished MOES document). The DNFE is also revising the Non-Formal Education Development Strategy 2012-2020, where one of the policies is to expand education access to children aged 6-14 who have never attended school and who have dropped out of primary school, most of whom live in remote areas that lack formal school infrastructure (unpublished MOES document).

The Law on the Protection of the Rights and Interests of Children (Art. 26) also states that "the State has policies to promote and create conditions to ensure that children receive education by expanding formal education, professional training centres and skills training centres from both State and private sectors, and by providing sufficient teachers, textbooks and materials, aimed at developing children's knowledge, abilities, attitudes and talents, in order that children become successors in the mission for the efficient protection and development of the nation."

Malaysia

Although Malaysian government schools do not accept undocumented or stateless children, the MOE has approved an Alternative Education Policy, which grants access to non-formal education for out-of-school children who could not attend these national schools. This policy governs all alternative learning centres being run by non-government organizations or government agencies that are providing education services to children, including refugees, undocumented children, and those living in plantations, who are not being reached by conventional schooling (UNICEF, 2012). Operating outside the regular education system, such programmes use an adapted national curriculum.

The National Education Blueprint 2013-20125 has no clear statements on undocumented children, it has articulated that state and district Education Departments and schools be empowered to "customize solutions based on need and to "tailor their approach for different schools."

Myanmar

The 2014 National Education Law is the first legislation to formally recognize non-formal education, defined as "an education outside the formal school system, based on a curriculum for upgrading learners' education and that organizes and instructs learners through flexible methods." There is a plan to include NFE as part of the Basic Education sub-sector (NESP 2016-21). The MOE shall outsource the delivery of NFE programmes to partners. Since it was first launched in 2008, the NFE Equivalency Programme has expanded from five townships to 89, representing an increase of 70% annually (NESP 2016-21). Of these, 31 are funded by the private sector, 42 by UNICEF, and 16 by the government.

Under the law, equivalency programmes are considered to be equivalent to formal education. These allow students to transfer from non-formal education to formal or technical-vocational education.

Philippines

The 1987 Philippine Constitution acknowledges and promotes the importance of other forms of education besides the formal one, such as the non-formal and informal learning systems, as well as self-learning, independent and out-of-school study programmes, particularly those that respond to community needs (Art. XIV, Sec. 2). A complete, adequate, and integrated system of education that is relevant to the needs of the people and society shall be established, maintained and supported. In addition, the State is mandated to encourage indigenous learning systems and to "recognize, respect, and protect the rights of indigenous cultural communities to preserve and develop their cultures, traditions and institutions."

The Republic Act 9155 or the Governance Act for Basic Education stipulates the establishment of the Alternative Learning System (ALS) to provide out-of-school children, youth and adults population with basic education. ALS is generally regarded as the "other side of basic education" existing alongside formal basic education. It is a parallel learning system that encompasses both the non-formal and informal sources of knowledge and skills, and provides a viable alternative to the existing formal education instruction. It aims to reach marginalized learners through alternative learning systems and ensure that the EFA goals are met. ALS implementers use different modes to reach all types of learners. There are a number of major Nonformal Education (NFE) programmes, such as:

1. Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) Programme – A programme aimed at providing an alternative pathway of learning for OSYs and adults who are basically literate but have not completed the 10 years of basic education mandated by the Philippine Constitution. Through this programme, school dropouts are able to complete elementary and secondary education outside the formal system.

2. Basic Literacy Programme (BLP) – A programme aimed at eradicating illiteracy among OSYs and adults (in extreme cases, school-age children) by developing basic literacy skills of reading and writing as well as basic numeracy.

3. Indigenous People's Education – This program aims to address the learning needs and aspirations of the IPs through a culture-sensitive and rights-based curriculum that is anchored on the five (5) learning strands of the ALS curriculum.

4. ALIVE in ALS – The Arabic Language and Islamic Values Education (ALIVE) in ALS is a learning intervention for Muslim out-of-school children, youth, and adults who migrated to other places due to peace and order problems in their communities of origin. It uses the Arabic language to be able to read and understand the teachings of Koran and to practice Islamic values in their everyday life.

A recently passed law, Republic Act 10655 or the Open High School Systems Act, mandates the State to broaden access to secondary education through the open learning modality which will "enable the youth to overcome personal, geographical, socioeconomic, and physical constraints to encourage them to complete secondary education." It is open to all elementary graduates and high school qualifiers of the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT) and the Alternative Learning System (ALS) Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) Test.

Thailand

The National Education Act of 1999 and the Amended Act (2002) identifies lifelong learning as the integration of formal, non-formal and informal education (Chap. 3, Sec. 15). It also states the responsibility of the Ministry to provide non-formal and informal education in areas where educational services are wanting.

The Promotion of Non-Formal and Informal Education Act (2008) reiterates the right of individuals to receive non-formal and informal education, and states that all sectors shall take part in providing education.

Timor-Leste

The National Education Policy 2007-2012 states that the reform of the education system will be guided, among other things, by flexibility in the design of systems "that would promote different pathways through the education system towards higher education opportunities."

In line with this, the country has recurrent education and social inclusion policies. Based on Article 31 of the 2008 Base Law of Education (LEI No 14/2008, LEI DE BASES DA EDUCAÇÃO, de 29 de Outubro 2008), the State promotes recurrent (non-formal) education to those who have gone beyond the age for basic education and those aged 16-18 who have not attended or completed basic education and are working. Recurrent education, or second-chance education, provides two types of programmes – literacy and equivalency programmes – to those who were not able to fully access basic education early on. Literacy programmes teach learners how to read and write, while the equivalence programmes enable them to progress to the next level of education. Successful learners receive the same diplomas and certificates as those issued in basic and secondary education. The National Directorate for Recurrent Education (DNER) is a key government agency responsible for these programmes.

The National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) 2011-2030 has also highlighted the important role of the National Equivalence Programme (NEP). The NESP set its short-term goal such that, by 2015, the introduction of the NEP would have been completed, which will allow the accelerated completion of basic education for all learners who were enrolled in recurrent education. These

equivalency programmes allow the reintegration of the OOSC into formal education. These are characterized by two levels of accelerated learning courses. Under the accelerated equivalency programme, the first level reduces six years of studies which comprise the first two cycles, to three years, while the second level reduces the third cycle composed of three years to only two years.

One of the specific objectives of Timor-Leste's National Inclusive Education Policy of 2011 is the development of alternative/non-formal learning programmes for basic education for those who have not achieved a basic education or are unable to attend formal education.

Vietnam

As stated in the Education Law of 2005, the national education system consists of formal education and continuing education/alternative learning and education (ALE)/non-formal education (NFE). The law states that "ALE/NFE is responsible to help people to learn while they work, to learn through their life to enrich their personality, to improve their educational levels, their professional skills, to improve quality of their life, to help them to find and to create jobs by themselves and to adapt to new contexts. The government will make a policy on development of ALE/NFE to provide Education for All and to build a learning society."

F. Financing Programmes for Disadvantaged Children/ Non-Formal Education

Through the years, one of the strongest recommendations on financing education for all remains to be the adequate investment in resources that would provide targeted support for unreached and underserved populations (UNESCO Bkk, 2010; UIS & UNICEF, 2015; UNESCO Bkk, 2015). These resources need to be used effectively and efficiently toward the strengthening of governance and accountability systems. Corollary to this is the need to earmark sums for inclusive education at all levels (i.e., primary to secondary levels) through the adoption of a more coordinated approach that would fulfil the diverse learning needs of the marginalized groups.

Comprehensive governance systems in monitoring and evaluating efficient and effective use of resources for non-formal education budgets for stateless/migrant populations can be seen in Thailand and Myanmar, where the finance system for the 25 Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centres was developed and is being tracked by an external team in Dubai and the United States. To support this, each learning centre provides data for BMWEC to monitor attendance, enrollment, and retention rates. Also, donors and the Ministry of Education conduct frequent visits to the learning centres to evaluate quality and transparency in the use of resources (CEI, n.d.).

In the Philippines, the Department of Education's proposed budget for 2015, including the budgets for Office of the Secretary, attached agencies, special purpose funds and other fund sources, and retirement and life insurance premiums (RLIP), was Php374,628,898,000. This budget earmarked Php1.97 billion for the *Abot Alam* Programme for 1 million out-of-school youth; and Php3.84 billion for health and nutrition programmes to address the health and nutrition needs of 1.9 million severely wasted and wasted beneficiaries (SWP, 2014).

The Philippine Department of Education earmarks budgets to reach such underserved populations as the out-of-school and poorest of the poor populations, as well as to cater to the special needs

of other groups such as indigenous people and Muslims. Of the total DepEd budget, 2% of the total amount are allocated specifically for the poorest and most vulnerable sectors. This includes health and nutrition programmes for severely wasted and wasted learners (SWP, 2014).

Table 14. Department of Education Budget, 2015		2015 Proposed Budget
Total Department of Education (DepEd) Budget		**PhP 318,896,319,000** [6]
Budget for Indigenous People, Muslims, Out-of-School Youth, Children with Special Needs, Poorest of the Poor		**P 3,740,316,000**
Indigenous People	Indigenous Peoples Education Programme	PhP 110,400,000
Muslims	Basic Education Madrasah Programme	PhP 708,706,000
Out-of-School /Poorest of the Poor	Basic Education Curriculum budget for Alternative Learning System	PhP 106,680,000
Out-of-School /Poorest of the Poor	*Abot Alam* Programme for Out-of-School Youth	PhP 1,968,298,000
Out-of-School /Poorest of the poor	Implementation of Alternative Learning and Delivery Mode Programmes	PhP 575,933,000
Children with Special Needs	Support to SPED Centres/Schools	PhP 270,299,000
Health and Nutrition Programme for severely wasted and wasted learners (120 feeding days and provision of iron tabs for 20 days + P10,000 assistance to 4,000 schools only)		P 3,840,000,000

In order to reach the disadvantaged groups of learners, there is also a strong recognition of the significant role that non-state providers are playing in narrowing the financial gap. Donors and civil society, both local and international, have played central roles in helping institutionalize financial support in government non-formal education programmes. In Myanmar, contributions of national donors covered around 36% of the non-formal primary education budget in 2012-13 (Htoo, 2012). At the local level, non-government organizations provided cash donations, supplies and food. The members of the Centre Management Committee took care of the budget for transportation, security and learners' welfare. It was also responsible for mobilizing resources in the local community.

In the Philippines, USAID has provided financial support to programs such as the Mindanao for Youth Development (MYDev) program and the Education Quality and Access for Learning and Livelihood Skills (EQuALLS) project that would improve access to quality education and livelihood skills of out-of-school youth in conflict-affected areas. Such interventions usually involve the local government units (LGUs), private sector resource partners, and local service providers.

Meanwhile, Cambodia's Accelerated Learning (A/L) Programme in five provinces is financed through UNICEF and Save the Children–Norway's (SCN) using the Fast Track Initiative (FTI) budgets. The programme aims to accelerate the learning of overaged children; get overaged children who drop out to re-enrol in schools; and reduce the repetition and dropout rates. The target learners are out-of-school and overaged children (Vanna, et al, 2012).

6 Expenditure Program, FY 2015 Volume III (VII. Department of Education)

In Timor-Leste, the processes toward the enhancement of the government's non-formal education programme is being financed by the World Bank (WB, 2015).

Providing adequate resources for teachers and facilitators' trainings, particularly those that would enhance their skills in delivering mother tongue education relevant to the local context of all age groups, was also a significant strategy for some countries (UNESCO Bkk, 2010).

For Indonesia's Packet A Non-Formal Education, the budget for teacher training comes from both local and national budgets. The trainings are then provided by district education boards in coordination with the provincial and central education offices. There are also grants for teachers to continue their education to improve their qualifications. To encourage this, the government develops core tutors as part of its professional improvement system, and encourages the tutors to improve their skills and competencies.

Meanwhile, for Malaysia's School in Hospital (SIH) programme, the budget for the training of teachers and provision of teaching aids are under the budgets of two Ministries: the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Ministry of Health (MoH). Hence, both agencies also conduct the periodic assessment and monitoring of the programme (Yunus & Norfariza, 2012).

Communities may also play important roles in augmenting government budgets for teachers' training. For instance, the teachers employed in the migrant learning centers in Ranong Province in Thailand come from the local communities. The Ministry of Education sponsors the teachers' training. Still, resources coming from the communities, such as in-kind donations and parents' contributions, are the most significant source of funding and community involvement. (Aungkyimyint, 2013).

IV. PROFILE OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN

A. National Definitions of OOSC

The definition of out-of-school children as articulated or implied in the national or vision documents of the various countries were explored in Table 15. Most of the definitions were culled from national education plans, blueprints, or sector reviews of the countries. A few were implied in the household surveys or studies that included a measure on the number of out-of-school children.

Out-of-school children, based on these definitions, mostly refer to primary and lower secondary school-age children, whose ages vary depending on their respective education structures. Many cover the age range of 6 to 14 years. Myanmar, which has an early age of entry, covers ages from 5 to 16, while Indonesia is from 7 to 15. All countries agree that out-of-school children refer to those without access to the formal system – children not enrolled in formal school, those who dropped out or have not completed basic education, and those who have never been to school. Thus, as explicitly defined in the Philippines, included among out-of-school children are those primary and lower secondary school-age ones who are enrolled in pre-primary and in non-formal education. All countries have either explicitly or implicitly recognized that out-of-school children come, or most likely could come, from those who are traditionally marginalized in society. The marginalized sectors which tend to be more common across the countries are those from the economically disadvantaged; those from remote, rural areas; those from indigenous/ethnic minority groups; child laborers; and children with disabilities. Malaysia, however, casts a wider net on who is to be considered as out-of-school, to include those who are homeschooled, those who transferred to private schools not using the national curriculum, and those attending unregistered alternative education centres. Only Malaysia has included children who are not traditionally considered as disadvantaged, among their out-of-school children.

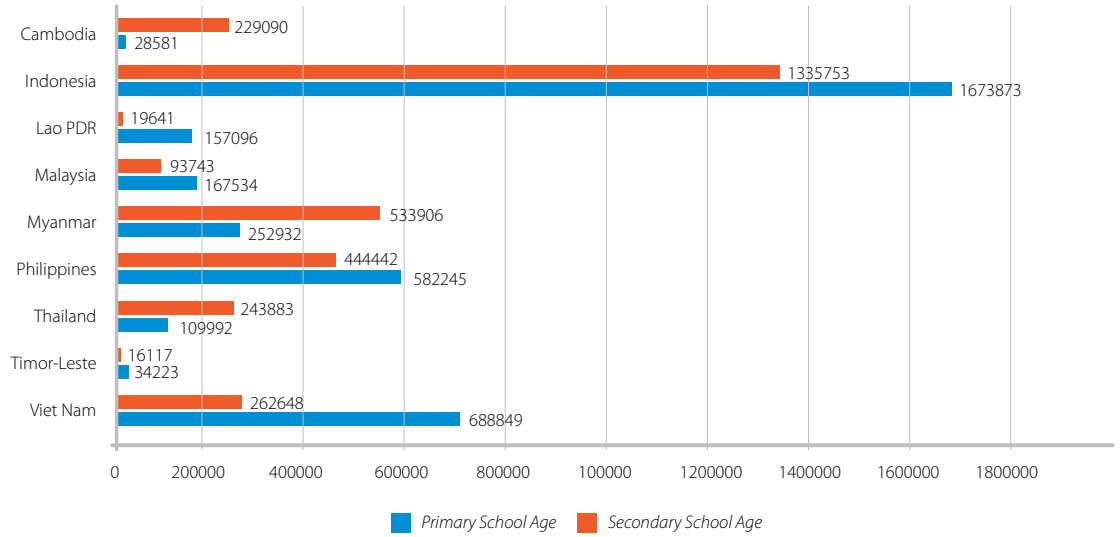
Table 15. Definitions of OOSC in Several Southeast Asian Countries		
Country	**Definition of OOSC**	**National Policies**
Cambodia	OOSC are children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary-age, who have no access to the formal education system, with particular focus on children from poor families, indigenous children/ethnic minority children, working children, children with disabilities and those living in difficult circumstances.	ESP 2014-18 2002 National Policies on NFE
Indonesia	School-age children (7-18 years) who are not in school for reasons such as geographical inaccessibility, natural disasters, and conflict; those who dropped out of school; and those who have never attended school.	
Lao PDR	Those aged 6-14 who did not have an opportunity to attend primary school, most of whom are located in communities that are too remote or small in size to justify the setting up of a formal school. They are also those who have dropped out of school, and those not attending primary school. These include, in particular, children from rural, remote and ethnic populations and children with disabilities.	Education for All National Plan of Action 2003-2015 EFA-Fast Track Initiative (FTI) programme
Myanmar	OOSC cover children of school age (aged 5-16 years) who are not in school because they have never enrolled in one or, once enrolled, have dropped out. It includes disadvantaged children like those with disabilities, from minority ethnic groups, from riot areas, migrant children, child workers, and children with no stable home or place to stay.	National Education Sector Plan 2016-21 Comprehensive Education Sector Review Phase 1 (2014)
Philippines	OOSC are "persons aged 6-14 years who are not attending school." In measuring the number of OOSC, two groups of children are categorized as out of school; namely, 1) the pre-primary, primary- and secondary-age children who are not attending school, and 2) primary- or secondary-age children who are in preprimary and non-formal education. The latter were included because the educational properties of both pre-primary and non-formal education are different.	Department Order No. 13, s.2003 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS)
Thailand	One of the targets of non-formal and informal education are the disadvantaged/underprivileged children, defined as children who are in unsuitable circumstances and have lower standards of living relative to other children. They are recognized as in need of special help and support that would enable them to harness their fullest potentials in order to achieve a better life and future for themselves and their families.	Office of the Non-Formal and Informal Education guidelines
Timor-Leste	They are children of official primary school age who are not enrolled in either primary or secondary schools.	National Strategic Plan, 2011-2030
Vietnam	OOSC comprises children of primary age who have never been to or have not completed primary school. It also refers to children from 11-14 years of age who are not in school.	National Education for All (EFA) Action Plan 2003-2015

B. Who are the Out-of-School Children?

Despite provisions on free and compulsory education in all nine Southeast Asian countries, there are still significant pockets of children who are not in school, who dropped out from the formal system, or who have never been in school, even if a few countries have reached or are within reach of achieving universal primary education. While a large segment of children in each country is still included in the formal system, thus showing that opportunities for basic education has expanded to all groups, there are sectors that continue to be excluded from mainstream education.

A little over 3 million children of primary school age are estimated to be out of school in the nine countries in Southeast Asia. An even higher number of children of secondary school age (around 3.7 million) are also out of school. These numbers were based on UIS estimates, except for those in the Philippines and Vietnam, whose country studies on the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children were used as bases.

Figure 4. Number of OOSC in Southeast Asia



Source: UIS Data Centre unless specified otherwise

Notes: Cambodia: 2012 (primary), 2008 (lower secondary); Indonesia: 2012; Lao PDR: 2013; Malaysia: 2005 (primary), 2012 (lower secondary); Myanmar: Average number between 2006-2011, CESR 2013; Philippines: UNICEF, UIS, PIDS, and DepEd, 2013; Thailand: 2009; Timor-Leste: 2011; Vietnam: UNICEF, UIS and MOET, 2009

Based on this desk review, the out-of-school children in the nine SEA countries included in the study are generally characterized by disparities in sex, urban-rural location, and household income. In some countries, they are most likely to be girls; in others, boys. Out-of-school children are also mostly based in rural areas and overwhelmingly belong to the poorest households in the country. The likelihood of being out of school in these countries also tend to be high among child labourers, children with disabilities, child brides, and stateless or undocumented children.

It is important to note though that the following section is constrained by inconsistencies in figures and trends across the different data sets, and the lack of updated data in other countries. It has to be noted as well that the UIS and other household survey data were based on the latest year available and therefore represent different years.

The subsequent section first provides a summary of the groups which tend to be persistently over-represented among the OOSC. This is followed by the detailed country profiles of each of the nine countries in terms of the state of OOSC.

Girls and Boys

The gender gap in the OOSC situation in the nine SEA countries may be described as a mixed picture. Based on the data provided by UIS, five countries (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Thailand, and Timor-Leste) have higher female OOSC rates for primary school-age children, while only two have higher male rates (Indonesia and Philippines). The UIS does not have gender-disaggregated data for Myanmar and Vietnam.

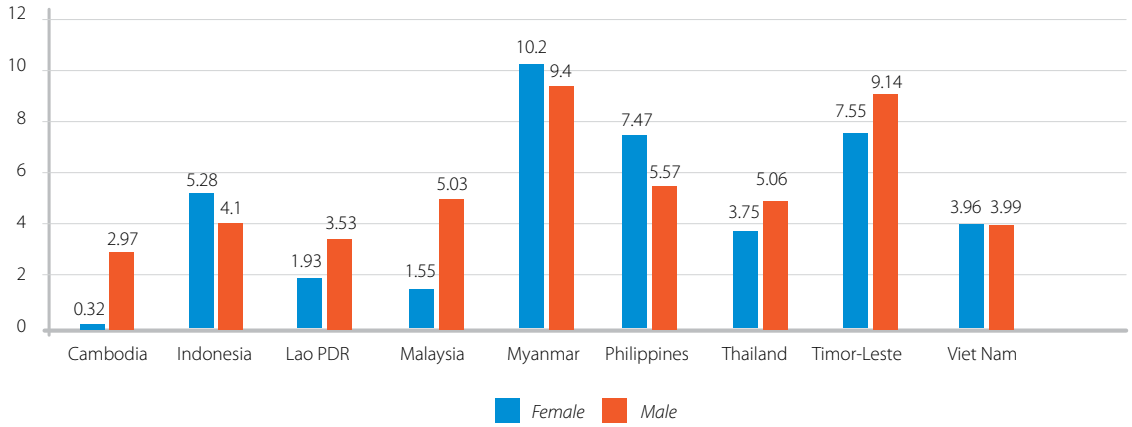
If available household survey data sources are to be considered, however, then the gender picture changes. For instance, using the 2009 Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey, the OOSC rate for boys is seen to be higher than for girls at the primary school level. Myanmar's MICS 2009-10 report presents a slightly higher OOSC rate among boys. Timor-Leste's EMIS data on performance indicators are also suggesting that since 2011 male OOSC may be higher in number than female OOSC. Vietnam's OOSC rates for primary school-age children, according to the 2009 UNICEF's Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI) study, also reveal a slightly higher rate for females than males. The difference of the OOSC rates for Myanmar and Vietnam is too small to be significant, however. Notwithstanding, the use of these alternative sources will result in Cambodia, Myanmar and Timor-Leste being additional countries, besides Indonesia and Philippines, which count more boys among those out of school.

Among the lower secondary school-age children, there are four countries (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, and Timor-Leste) that registered higher OOSC rates among girls than boys, according to UIS data. Three countries (Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand) have more OOSC among boys. Two countries – Myanmar and Vietnam – have no sex-disaggregated UIS data. Based on the UNICEF OOSCI study, however, Vietnam is another country that has more boys than girls who are not in school. Myanmar also had a slightly higher OOSC rate among secondary school-age boys than girls (MNPED, et al, 2010).

These trends seem to suggest that, unlike the global trend where majority of girls are left out of the school system, the overall situation in these nine SEA countries depict instead a small gender gap with boys at a slight disadvantage. This is consistent with the findings of another study that also saw a slightly higher OOSC rate for boys than girls in seven SEA countries (Thomas & Burnett, 2015). Such generalizations, however, tend to mask the possible interaction of gender with other factors like urban-rural location, provincial/regional location, and wealth quintile that tend to shed more light about gender realities in each country.

The gender difference in the primary school-age OOSC rate in each country also retained its respective trend at the lower secondary school age except for Thailand and Vietnam, where the OOSC rate started as higher for girls, then shifted to males at the secondary school age. For both of these countries, the situation of boys have worsened much more than that of the girls' at the secondary level. Noteworthy as well are the Philippines and Thailand registering improved OOSC rates for girls at the lower secondary level.

Figure 5. Gender Difference in OOSC Rates in Southeast Asia



Source: UIS Data Centre unless specified otherwise; Cambodia: 2012 (primary), 2008 (lower secondary); Indonesia: 2012; Lao PDR: 2013; Malaysia: 2003 (primary), 2012 (lower secondary); Myanmar: MICS 2009-10; Philippines: UNICEF, UIS, PIDS and DepEd, 2013; Thailand: 2009 Timor-Leste: 2011; Vietnam: UNICEF, UIS and MOET, 2009

Rural-based Children

All nine countries experience an urban-rural gap in terms of non-participation of children in the formal system. The OOSC are mainly found in the rural areas where educational services tend to be inadequate and of poor quality. The proportion of primary school-age OOSC in Indonesia are three times higher in rural than in urban areas. The Philippines has around two in three of the primary school-age OOSC based in rural locations. The trend is the same among lower secondary school-age children. In Cambodia and Vietnam, the OOSC rates in the rural areas are almost twice as high as those in the urban areas.

Children from Poor Households

One factor that strongly determines the OOSC rate is the income of the household. Across all nine countries, the highest proportion of OOSC belong to the poorest households. For instance, the children from the lowest quintile in Indonesia are almost five times more likely to be out of school than those from the highest quintile. Non-attendance in schools in Timor-Leste is more than two times higher in the lowest income distribution than in the highest. Lao children who are not attending school are around nine times higher among the poorest households than in the richest. Out-of-school children of lower secondary school-age in all countries follow the same trend. In Malaysia, close to nine out of 10 OOSC of secondary school age come from households in the bottom 40% income quintile. All these confirm what previous studies have observed about the poverty gap. The hidden and opportunity costs of education still largely impinge on the meager resources that poor families have.

The household income interacts with rural-urban location. In the Philippines, more than half of the primary school-age OOSC in the rural areas come from families belonging to the bottom 20% of the per capita distribution, much higher than the 19.7% of OOSC in urban areas belonging to the same quintile. The poorest quintile in the rural areas of Indonesia is four times more likely to be out of school than the richest quintile from the same areas.

Child Labourers

As evidenced by data from these nine SEA countries, child labourers have a higher risk of being out of school. In Cambodia, 22.8% of child labourers aged 7 to 14 do not attend school, while in Lao PDR around 12% of child labourers aged 6 to 13 are not in school. Child labourers in Myanmar have a low enrolment rate of only 11.6% as compared to the general enrolment rate of other children at 78%. Of the more than 3 million child labourers who are in hazardous labour in the Philippines, those aged 5 to 14 who are not attending school constitute 22.3%. Among the 1.7 million child labourers in Vietnam, more than half are not in school. These are consistent with findings from other studies on child labour, which saw the labour these children engage in as a "push" factor most likely affecting their decision to stay in school, as well as their ability to attend and focus in class (e.g., Guarcello, et al, 2014). Their involvement in such activities make them prone, therefore, to dropping out or not enrolling in school at all.

On the other hand, although most OOSC are not child labourers, they are found to have a higher risk of being engaged in child labour. Timor-Leste, which has high child labour rates, reports that among their OOSC, more than a third (37%) are engaged in child labour. The rate for child labourers is found to be highest among OOSC (11.7%) than for all other children in the Philippines.

Data also suggest a link between child labourers and other variables such as age, sex, household income, and location. In some countries, child labourers tend to be girls (e.g., Cambodia and Lao PDR) while in others boys tend to be greater in number (e.g., the Philippines, Timor-Leste and Vietnam). The highest proportion of child labourers are also in the older age groups, such as the 12- to 14-year-olds in Cambodia and the 15- to 17-year-olds in the Philippines and Vietnam. In Lao PDR, the peak of schooling is from 9 to 11 years old, with the percentage of children who enter into paid labour increasing after their completion of primary education. They are mostly based in rural areas and are overwhelmingly represented in the poorest income quintile. These all point to poverty being at the root of child labour, compelling families to allow children to work to pay for the direct and hidden costs of education (UNICEF and UIS, 2015).

Children with Disabilities

Quality and disaggregated data on disability is challenging to acquire, as many countries would attest. The lack of information has been highlighted as one of the factors that have contributed to the disadvantaged status of these children (Graham, 2014). Nevertheless, the 2011 World Report on Disability puts the figure at over a billion people who have disability, or 15% of the total world population. The children with disabilities aged 0 to 14 years number between 93 and 150 million people worldwide.

Children with disabilities, as data from this desk review show, tend to be more at risk from being excluded from the formal system than those without disabilities. In Cambodia, these children are twice as likely to be out of school as the children without disabilities. Only close to 20% of children with disabilities aged 6 to 11 years are attending school. Two-thirds of children with disabilities in Myanmar may not be in school. Vietnamese children of primary school age who have a disability and who are not in school constitute around 87%. Those of secondary school age have an even higher rate at 91.4%.

Several factors have contributed to the risk of non-participation in education as experienced by these children. These include discrimination or negative attitude towards these children, the inadequacy and inaccessibility of physical environments, vague policy environment, and non-inclusive and inflexible curriculum and pedagogical practices (Graham, 2014).

Child Marriages

Child marriage (also known as early marriage, child and forced marriage, and early and forced marriage) has been defined as "any marriage – whether under civil, religious or customary law, and with or without formal registration – where either one or both spouses are children under the age of 18" (Plan International Australia, 2014). Child marriages have been known to infringe on the basic rights of children, particularly girls, to education, health, and a life free from violence and discrimination. Girls, more than boys, are disproportionately represented in this phenomenon. It has been estimated that there are around 70 million child and adolescent brides globally, with nearly 39,000 girls under the age of 18 getting married every day (UNFPA, 2012 as cited in Plan International Australia, 2014). Other estimates state that one in three girls in the developing world are married by the time they turn 18 and one in nine are married before age 15 (ICRW, 2015).

In Southeast Asia, countries like Cambodia, Indonesia and Lao PDR, where rates of child marriage, are relatively high, this phenomenon has contributed to the numbers of children who are out of school. Cambodia has around 18% of women married before age of 18. Indonesia has 22% of women aged 20 to 24 years who are married before they turn 18. Between 2010 and 2012, Lao PDR reported 35.4% of girls married by age 18. The majority of Indonesian girls (87%) who married early stopped going to school upon marriage.

Child marriage has been identified as one of the biggest obstacles to education, particularly for girls. Girls who marry early are socially isolated and have limited opportunities in education. For instance, many child brides are forced to drop out of school upon marriage. Pregnancy and child care responsibilities make it difficult for them to return to school. In some countries, schools are known to refuse enrolment of girls who have been married or are pregnant. This then limits the chances of these girls to develop intellectually and to escape the poverty trap in which they find themselves (Plan International, 2011 as cited in Plan International, 2014). It is strongly recognized in many international documents that ending child marriages will break the intergenerational cycle of poverty as this will allow girls and women to become more empowered and educated in order to participate more fully in society (UNICEF, 2013).

Stateless/Undocumented Children

Along with increasing international migration comes the growing issue of statelessness, particularly among children. Children who do not possess legal documentation are often considered stateless. The lack of legal status or citizenship restricts or bars children's access to many fundamental rights, including that of education. These children are in a vulnerable position due to the many legal restrictions imposed on them and the inadequacy of social services that are open to them. Stateless children are often refused access to public schools due to lack of registration documents or the existence of language barriers. Even if they get access to any form of education, they still experience difficulties in affording the financial costs, both direct and hidden, of education. Many others join the labour market to help augment their families' meager incomes, which increases their risk of marginalization, abuse, trafficking, forced labour and substandard working conditions, and which in turn further their risk of exclusion from the formal system. Because they are "invisible" in the eyes of society and are generally from poor and marginalized environments, the breach of their basic rights often go unnoticed (Humanium, 2010).

Malaysia is host to thousands of stateless people, particularly in the state of Sabah in northern Borneo. Many of these are refugee children, around six in 10 of whom do not have access to education. There are also an estimated 43,937 undocumented children aged 7 to 17 years who

do not attend school, most of whom are non-Malaysians. In Myanmar, many of the stateless children in Rakhine state are also unable to attend school. Among the migrant children in Thailand, around 200,000, or over 60%, are out of school. In Indonesia, the lack of legal identity of millions of unregistered children aged 0 to 17 is linked to other disadvantaged status, such as child marriage and non-completion of 12 years of basic education for those living in the bottom 30% income quintile. Within the poorest quintile, a quarter of the girls are married by 18 years old or younger, with none of them being able to complete 12 years of education.

CAMBODIA

Several data sources have helped provide a picture on the magnitude of OOSC in Cambodia. Based on the Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey 2009 (CSES), the total number of out-of-school children of primary and secondary school age in Cambodia is close to half a million (465,667). Boys slightly outnumber the girls among the OOSC. Majority of these OOSC belong to the primary school age of 6-11 years.

Table 16. Number of Out-of-School Children by Educational Level (2009)

Educational Level	Out-of-School Children		
	Male	Female	Total
Primary School Age (6-11)	174,452	146,320	320,773
Secondary School Age (12-14)	70,238	74,656	144,894
Total	**244,691**	**220,976**	**465,667**

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

The UIS data, however, have presented a much smaller number. Based on the UIS data, the estimated number of OOSC of primary school age is 28,581 in 2012, which has steadily dropped since 2010 and 2011.

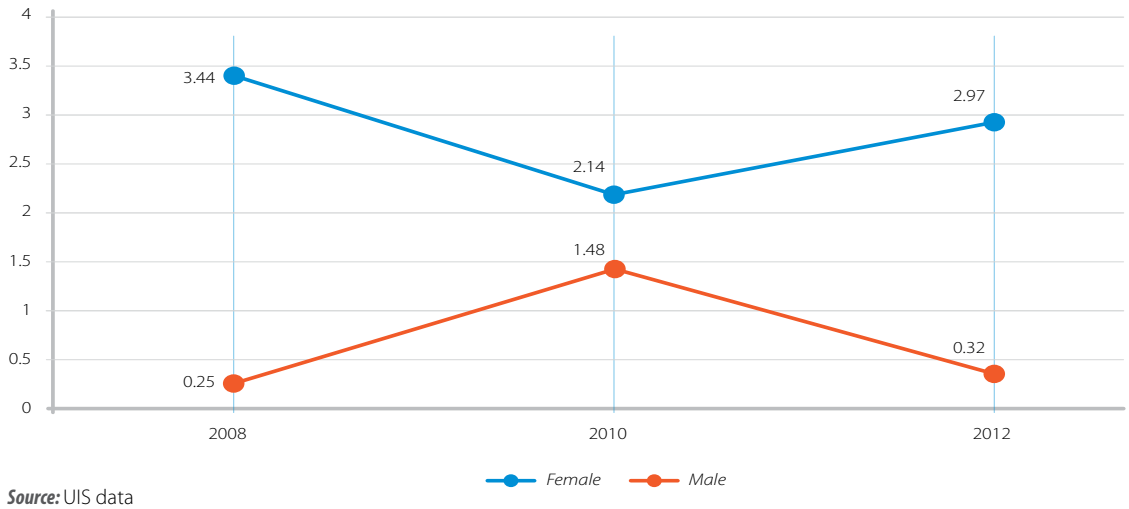
Notwithstanding the different survey years, the OOSC rates have been markedly different in the UIS and the CSES data. The CSES data shows that the rate of OOSC among the primary school-age children stands at 17.4%, which means that approximately more than one in six from this group are not attending school. According to UIS, the OOSC rate is only 1.62% in 2012, representing a decrease from 2010 and 2011 rates of 1.81% and 1.72%, respectively.

The gender picture is also different, depending on the data set to be accessed. The CSES data show that boys have a slightly higher OOSC rate (18.4%) than girls (16.3%), although at ages 10 and 11 girls are slightly more likely than boys to be out of school. On the other hand, the OOSC rates for both sexes are much lower in the UIS data, with girls having a higher rate than boys.

Table 17. Primary School-age OOSC Rate by Sex, Cambodia: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N
6	48.8	81,744	47.0	70,345	48	152,089
7	24.0	37,343	20.3	29,087	22.2	66,429
8	14.9	22,184	10.0	14,431	12.5	36,615
9	8.0	12,817	6.1	9,716	7.0	22,533
10	7.4	12,150	8.5	12,946	7.9	25,096
11	5.5	8,215	6.7	9,796	6.1	18,012
Total	**18.4**	**174,452**	**16.3**	**146,320**	**17.4**	**320,773**
Urban	12.6	18,814	8.8	12,072	10.8	30,886
Rural	19.5	155,639	17.7	134,248	18.6	289,887

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

Figure 6. OOSC Rate by Sex: 2008-2012 (in percent)



Source: UIS data

More primary school-age OOSC can be found in rural areas than in urban areas. The rate in rural areas (18.6%) is almost double that in urban areas (10.8%). Among the minority groups, the indigenous groups have the highest OOSC rate at 73.2%, with almost three-quarters of primary-age children from this group not attending school. More boys among indigenous groups are out-of-school. There is wide variation across provinces, with 10 provinces above the national average and eight provinces below. The provinces that have the highest rates of OOSC are Ratanak Kiri (84.9%), Pailin (46.5%), Kep (29.6%), Preah Vihear (25.2%), and Mondul Kiri (24.7%). Those with significant minority populations have varying rates of OOSC. Some provinces like Ratanak Kiri have an extremely high rate, while Mondul Kiri and Kampong Chhnang have rates closer to national average.

Table 18. Primary School-Age OOSC Rate by Sex and Ethnic and Indigenous Group, Cambodia: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N
Khmer	17.1	153,913	15.1	128,834	16.1	282,747
Cham	23.8	5,304	20.6	3,890	22.3	9185
Indigenous	80.3	13,463	66.4	11,705	73.2	25,169
Chinese	0.0	0	0.0	0	0	0
Vietnamese	47.3	1,048	47.5	1601	47.4	2650
Other	18.4	193	0.0	0	12.9	193
Total	**18.4**	**173,922**	**16.3**	**146,021**	**17.4**	**319,943**

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

On the other hand, among lower secondary school-age children (12-14 years), the average school attendance rate is 84.9%. Of this, 33.1% are attending secondary schools, while 51.8% are attending primary schools. Thus, more than half of children who are in school are over-age and are at risk of dropping out. On average, 15.1% of this age group are not in school. As children move up in year levels, the number of out-of-school children also increases. There are more girls (16.2%) than boys (14%) among OOSC in the lower secondary level. This situation seems to have been true as well in 2010, as suggested by the DHS conducted that year, where it was found that boys and girls attended school at almost the same rate up to and including 14 years old. After the age of 14, a noticeably higher proportion of boys were attending compared to girls (DHS 2010).

OOSC tend to be concentrated in rural areas. Similar to primary school-age children, the OOSC rate is also very high among indigenous groups, where almost half of secondary school-age children are out of school (46.9%). Ratanak Kiri (68.3%) once again has the highest rate of OOSC among all provinces.

Table 19. Lower Secondary School-Age OOSC Rate by Sex and Urban-Rural Location, Cambodia: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N	OOSC Rate	N
12	11.8	18,430	10.6	15,854	11.2	34,285
13	11.0	19,346	14.9	23,599	12.8	42,945
14	19.1	32,461	23.0	35,203	21.0	67,664
Total	**14.0**	**70,238**	**16.2**	**74,656**	**15.1**	**144,894**
Urban	6.3	5431	12.7	9260	9.2	14,691
Rural	15.6	64,807	16.9	65,396	16.2	130,203

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

Comparing the data from the 2008 General Population Census and the 2010 Demographic Health Survey (DHS) with the 2009 CSES data would reveal a seeming downward trend in the number of OOSC among primary- and lower secondary-age children. School attendance seemed to be improving, based on these data sets.

Table 20. Number of OOSC Among Primary and Lower Secondary School-Age Children, Cambodia (6-14 years): 2008-2010			
OOSC Rate	Male	Female	Total
2008 Census	292,221	271,828	564,049
2009 CSES	244,690	220,976	465,667
2010 DHS	181,799	161,658	343,412

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

Based on the extractions of EPDC of the 2010 DHS, there are slightly more girls (12%) than boys (11.5%) among out-of-school children aged 7 to 14 (both primary and lower secondary school-age children). The difference is small and may not be statistically significant. This is supported by the small difference in the net attendance ratios of girls and boys in 2010, which had a GPI of 1.0 and 0.97 for primary and secondary school-age children, respectively (DHS 2010). Rural areas (13%) also have a higher rate of OOSC than urban areas (7%). The rates of children belonging to the poorest income quintile are also the highest (19%). In terms of provincial disparity, children from provinces with lowest participation rates are 5.4 times as likely to be out of school as children from provinces with the highest participation rates.

The reasons for not attending school are varied. For those who have never attended school, the foremost reason among primary-age children is the perception by adults that they are too young (56.7%). Coming far behind is a lack of interest among children to attend school (15.2%). Among lower secondary-age children, most mentioned poverty as their reason for not attending school (25.9%) and a lack of interest (21%).

For those who dropped out, the primary reason for non-attendance among primary-age children is a lack of motivation to do so (35.3%) and poverty (23.1%). Those in the 12-14 age group were more varied in their reasons for not attending school: they stated poverty (22.4%), the need to help with household chores (17.9%), the need to help augment family income (17.8%), poor performance in school (17.8%), and lack of interest (16.6%).

Overall, OOSC at the primary level tend to cite being too young and the lack of motivation as the primary reasons, while those at the lower secondary level tend to cite poverty and lack of interest.

Among indigenous groups, the most often cited reasons are a lack of accessible schools in their area and a lack of teachers/supplies, for both the primary- and secondary-age children. Based on the findings of a 2011 population survey that sampled 12 provinces and 39,055 children in Cambodia, the risk factors associated with becoming out-of-school are poverty, language barriers, family size, education status of other family members, and disabilities. Children with disabilities have a risk two times higher than those without disabilities.

Table 21. Reasons for Not Attending School											
	Age	Don't want to	Did not do well in school	No suitable school available/ School is too far	No teacher/ supplies	High cost of schooling	Must contribute to house-hold income	Must help with house-hold chores	Too poor	Too young	Total (N)
Never Attended	6-11	15.2	3.0	7.9	2.5	0.0	0.2	1.3	9.7	56.7	273,944
	12-14	21.0	12.8	10.0	4.9	0.0	6.4	6.4	25.9	4.2	45,680
Dropped Out	6-11	35.3	19.0	2.2	1.2	0.0	5.8	7.2	23.1	1.5	20,172
	12-14	16.6	17.8	2.7	0.8	0.2	17.8	17.9	22.4	1.0	96,845
Total	**6-11**	**16.8**	**4.3**	**7.5**	**2.4**	**0.0**	**0.6**	**1.7**	**10.6**	**52.6**	**295,625**
	12-14	18.6	16.2	5.0	2.1	0.2	14.0	14.1	23.3	2.0	143,740

Source: 2009 CSES (Hasan, 2012)

Child Labourers

According to the 2012 Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, around 10.4% of children aged 7 to 14, are involved in paid labour (cited in UNICEF and UIS, 2014). Disaggregated by sex, more girls (11%) than boys (9.5%) are working. There are more child workers in rural areas (11.2%) than urban areas (6.1%). The older children, from 12 to 14 years (16.6%), tend to be involved more in child labour than younger ones from 7-11 (5.7%). Among child labourers aged 7 to 14 years, 22.8% are not attending school, a much higher rate than that of other children. Thus, many Cambodian working children have either dropped out or have never entered school in the first place. On the other hand, around 31.6% of OOSC aged 7 to 14 are engaged in child labour. This suggests a high probability that out-of-school children in Cambodia are doing some kind of work. The kind of work in which most Cambodian children engage are economic activity exclusive of household chores, and these are mostly paid work. A significant percentage, however, also performs unpaid family work. However, more out-of-school girls tend to perform a bigger proportion of household chores. There is some evidence to suggest that child workers whose household head has not attained either primary- or secondary-level of education are most likely to be out of school. The probability of not being in school decreases as the educational attainment of the household head increases.

Child Marriages

One of the countries with the highest rates of child marriages is Cambodia (Plan International Australia, 2014). Child marriages exist in societies where there is much pressure on women not to remain unmarried by a certain age, and where much importance is placed on "virginity at the time of marriage." The minimum age of marriage is 18, but girls younger than 18 are allowed to marry if they get pregnant and their parents or guardians consent (UNICEF, 2014c). This policy is being opposed by some sectors because they reinforce the belief that girls are ready to become mothers at an early age. The percentage of women married by the age of 15 is 2%, and by the age of 18 this increases to 18% (UNICEF, 2014c). In six out of 10 cases, the girls marry men who are at least 15 years older than they are. There are some findings to suggest that these Cambodian girls tend to experience more domestic violence and to be denied access to education (UNICEF, 2005 as cited in Plan International Australia, 2014).

Children with Disabilities

The national prevalence rate of disability in Cambodia is around 4.7% of the population (Knowles, 2005 as cited in VanLeit, et al, 2007): this, given Cambodia's generally young population, translates to more than half a million of people with disabilities being under age 20. Only a small percentage of children with disabilities attend school, with close to 20% of children aged 6 to 11 with a disability attending, as compared to more than 40% who are in the 12 to 17 age range (Filmer, 2008 as cited in WHO & WB, 2011). Children with disabilities are less likely to be in school than other children without disabilities. In Cambodia, the former is almost twice as likely to be out of school as the latter (MoEYS and Fast Track Initiative, 2011 as cited in UNICEF, n.d.). The gap in primary school attendance rates between a person with disability and without disability is 15% in Cambodia.

Some of the reasons cited for these children's inability to access education were the parents' lack of appreciation of the value of educating them, the discrimination these children face from teachers and principals, the lack of preparation and training for teachers, the inaccessibility of school facilities, and high levels of poverty (MRTC, 2009 as cited in Handicap International, 2009).

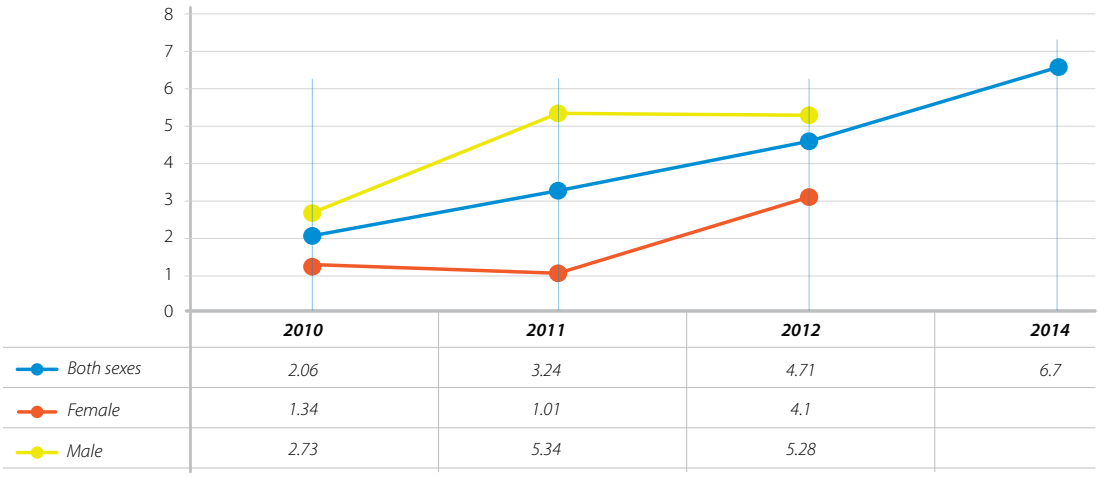
INDONESIA

Indonesia is a highly populous country, the fourth highest in the world, which has a young demographic structure. Although the proportion of children aged 18 and below has decreased from 43% in 1990 to 37% in 2000 and to 34% in 2010, the absolute number of children has still increased from 74 million in 2010 to around 81.3 million in 2010 (SMERU, et al, 2012). The biggest proportion comes from the age group 5-9 years old, followed by 0-4, then by 10-14. Those aged 14 years and younger represent 29% of the total (UIS, 2013), with boys outnumbering girls in each age group.

Despite the progress achieved towards improving access to basic education and towards universal primary education, there are still 2.3 million children aged 7 to 15 who are out of school, according to the 2011 SUSENAS (National Socio-Economic Survey of Indonesia) (cited in UNICEF, 2014a). Most of them dropped out of school after completing primary school. The rate of dropout starts to rise at 12 years old, which is the age that they graduate from primary school and increases further among the 16-19-year-olds. According to a 2014 UNICEF report, those who are out of school among the 7- to 18-year-olds number more than 6 million.

Based on 2014 Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) figures (as cited in OECD, 2015), around 6.7% of primary school children and 23.4% of junior secondary school-age ones are not attending school that correspond to their age group. Combined with data from UIS from 2010 to 2012, the trend seems to be increasing at the primary school age level. More boys of this age are not in school but the rate seems to be rising sharply for the girls. Children from the lowest income quintile are approximately five times more likely not to attend school than those belonging to the highest quintile (UNICEF, 2013b). This is consistent with the finding that children who are pushed out of the system tend to come from the lower socio-economic status (MoEC, 2013). Students who drop out and who come from the poorest family income quintile comprise 64.4% of children aged 7 to 12 years and 50% of those aged 13 to 15 years.

Figure 7. Rate of OOSC of Primary School-Age Children, Indonesia: 2010-2014

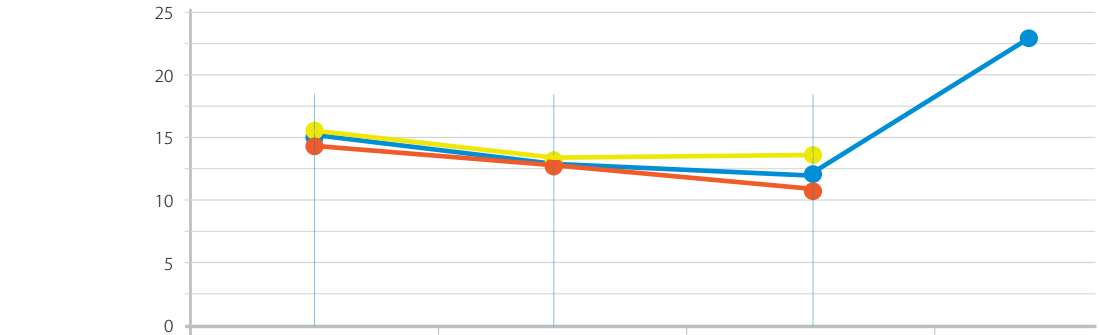


	2010	2011	2012	2014
Both sexes	2.06	3.24	4.71	6.7
Female	1.34	1.01	4.1	
Male	2.73	5.34	5.28	

Source: UIS, 2010-2012, MOEC, 2014 as cited in OECD and ADB, 2015

The UIS data for the lower secondary school-age children show a declining OOSC rate from 2010 to 2012. However, if the 2014 MOEC data are to be considered, this increases sharply to 23.4% in 2014. More boys are also out-of-school among the lower secondary school-age group, with the girls even displaying a decline through the years.

Figure 8. Rate of OOSC of Lower Secondary School-Age Children, Indonesia: 2010-2014



	2010	2011	2012	2014
Both sexes	15.06	13.24	12.54	23.4
Female	14.42	12.89	11.12	
Male	15.66	13.58	13.88	

Source: UIS, 2010-2012, MOEC, 2014 as cited in OECD and ADB, 2015

Among the lower secondary school-age children, those from the poorest households are found to be four times more likely to be out of school than those from the richest families (SUSENAS 2011 as cited in UNICEF, 2014b).

Table 22. Percentage of Dropout Students by School Level and Income Quintile, Indonesia: 2013

Income Quintile	Primary	Junior Secondary
Quintile 1 (poorest)	64.4	50.0
Quintile 2	17.8	22.1
Quintile 3	5.2	12.3
Quintile 4	8.2	9.3
Quintile 5 (richest)	4.4	6.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: BPS (2011). Calculated from SUSENAS. Cited in MoEC, 2013

Disparities between provinces are also quite evident, particularly in remote and underdeveloped areas. Looking at the net enrolment rates across provinces, close to half of the provinces (45.5%) have NERs at the primary level that fall below the national average, while the majority of the provinces (51.5%) registered NERs at the junior secondary level that are likewise below the average (MoEC, 2013). Most of these provinces are located in the eastern part of Indonesia. The NERs would also show that children in urban areas tend to attend school more than those in rural areas. The disparity is wider at junior secondary level than at primary level (OECD and ADB, 2015). The proportion of rural children aged 7-12 not enrolled in primary school are three times higher than urban children, while those aged 13-15 not enrolled in junior secondary are almost twice as high in rural than in urban areas (SMERU, et al, 2011). The disparities, however, among urban children in junior secondary are quite glaring, with the participation rate among the 7-12 year-olds from the richest quintile almost three times higher than that of the poorest quintile.

Table 23. Percentage of Children Not Enrolled in Schools by School Level, Income Quintile, and Urban-Rural Location (2009)

	Primary School Age			Junior Secondary School Age		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Quintile 1 (poorest)	5.32	3.41	5.92	25.48	21.39	26.88
Quintile 2	2.96	3.03	2.92	14.65	12.36	16.01
Quintile 3	1.89	1.57	2.18	10.22	7.61	12.42
Quintile 4	1.66	1.53	1.87	6.04	5.25	7.16
Quintile 5	1.46	1.20	2.33	5.88	5.56	6.89

Source: Estimated using data from 2009 SUSENAS as cited in UNICEF, 2011

Aside from geography, the most significant reason for non-attendance for children is still the economic background of the household or family wealth (SMERU, et al, 2011). Despite the provision of school operational assistance (BOS) funding to primary and junior secondary schools, or subsidies for the poor students, children from poor households are still more likely to be out of school. Another factor in non-attendance is the distance to schools in which the lack of facilities is much more felt in remote areas, particularly in eastern Indonesia (OECD and ADB, 2015). Teacher absenteeism is another reason for the low enrolment rates in remote areas. It has been found that districts with the highest rates of OOSC also tend to have the highest rates of teacher absenteeism; for instance, in Papua and West Papua (OECD, 2015). The gender of the household is also associated with non-enrolment in junior secondary school, with the proportion of children aged 13-17 from female-headed households being three to four times higher than those from male-headed households (SMERU, et al, 2011).

Child Labourers

The UCW's analysis of statistics from the 2010 National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas) revealed that 3.7% of children aged 10 to 14 are engaged in some form of labour, most of which is found in the agriculture sector (61.6%) (USDOL, 2014). Children in this age group have an attendance rate of 92.4% and those who combine work and school comprise only 2.1% of the population. While working children still manage to juggle both, the time spent for studies is still likely to be affected. A study by the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection (MWECP) saw that child labour is four times more prevalent in rural than in urban areas, with 12.5% of children aged 10 to 17 working compared to 5.9% in urban areas (MWECP, 2013 as cited in USDOL, 2014). Children engaged in work have lower probability of attending school (Priyambada, 2005).

Child Marriages

Indonesia has one of the highest rates of child marriages in East Asia and the Pacific (UNICEF, 2014a). While child marriage in Indonesia has declined through the decades, a 2014 UNICEF report stated that there are still around 22% of women aged 20 to 24 in Indonesia who were married before they turn 18 (UNICEF, 2014b). Those who are most vulnerable to this as well as the attendant physical and psychological effects are poor and marginalized girls. Child brides tend to have lower levels of education (UNICEF, 2014b). An unpublished literature review conducted in 2013 found that 85% of women stopped going to school upon marriage, although the lack of employment opportunities may also lead to the decision to marry early and cease studying (Barry, 2013 as cited in Plan International, 2014). There is a strong link between a lack of birth documents and early marriages in Indonesia, with nine out of 10 child marriages involving girls and boys who are unregistered at birth (AIPJ, et al, 2014).

Stateless/ Undocumented Children

The number of unregistered births in Indonesia vary depending on the source. Based on the National Socio-Economic Survey (SUSENAS 2012), there are more than 24 million individuals, or 29% of Indonesian children aged 0-17 years old, who are unregistered (cited in Jackson, et al, 2014). The Ministry of Home Affairs estimates, however, that the number is higher at 50 million, or 76% of children and youth aged 0 to 18. Among the lowest income quintile, registration rates decrease to 41%, while for those living in rural, remote areas, the rate declines to 34% (DHS Indonesia, 2012 as cited in Jackson, et al, 2014).

In a country of 249 million, the issue of stateless children may not appear as a high priority for the Indonesian government (Cassrels, 2013), but given the growth of the population and therefore the size of the stateless population, the issue becomes of increasing importance. The children of Indonesian migrants, for instance, are a diverse group whose lack of legal status has been brought about by reasons such as "parental decisions, family transitions, and wider cultural, political and economic conditions" (Ball, et al, 2014). Specifically, these Indonesian children may have been rendered stateless by the illegal crossing of borders by their parents, or by the non-registration of their births in the communities where they live. A baseline study conducted in 2012-13 saw that a lack of a legal identity is correlated with the likelihood of child marriage and of non-completion of 12 years of education for those living in households at the bottom 30% income quintile in their province. Findings showed that only 10% of women and 9% of men aged 19-29 without a birth certificate have been able to complete 12 years of basic education from this income quintile. It was also found that 25% of girls from this income quintile are married at age 18 or younger, and none of these girls were able to complete 12 years of education. This is possibly because schools generally discourage married girls and boys from continuing their studies (AIPJ, 2014).

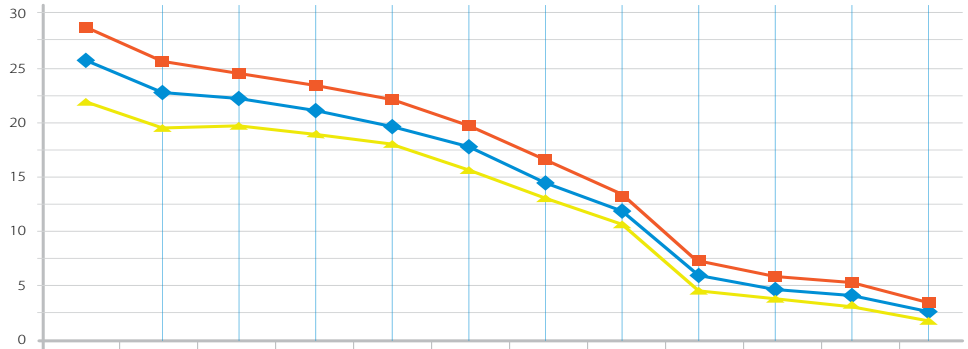
LAO PDR

In Lao PDR, children, especially girls, living in poor rural communities and belonging to ethnic groups have the least access to education (EFA Review Lao PDR, 2015). Almost half of the Lao population constitute ethnic groups and they often live in remote communities. They do not speak Lao as a first language. Approximately three-fourths of out-of-school children are located in these districts, although they account for only one third of the primary school-age population. The 2005 Population Census indicates that about 10% of children – around 70,000 – are unreached.

Primary school-age OOSC

According to the UIS data, the number of OOSC of primary school age was on a steady decline from 2002 to 2012. The rate of OOSC for females was higher than males, although both rates have also decreased through the years.

Figure 9. Rate of OOSC of Primary School Age by Sex, Lao PDR: 2002-2013 (in percent)



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Both sexes	25.02	22.71	22.3	21.29	19.96	17.56	14.76	11.51	5.65	4.65	4.12	2.71
Female	28.14	25.81	24.87	23.68	22.43	19.84	16.73	12.95	7.08	5.62	5.07	3.52
Male	22.01	19.72	19.81	18.98	17.57	15.34	12.86	10.13	4.27	3.73	3.21	1.93

Source: UIS data

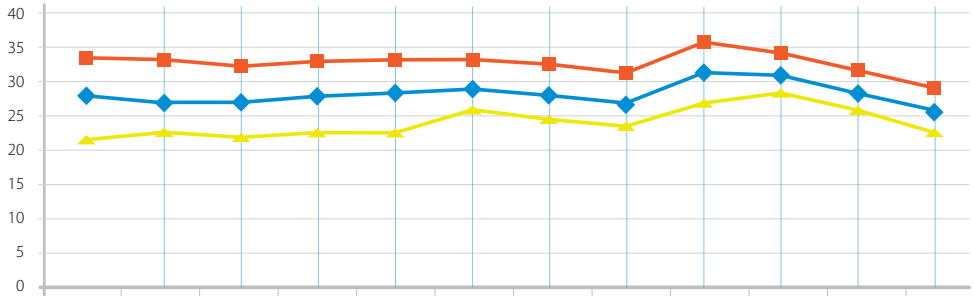
Data from EPDC, while different in actual values, likewise indicate that the rate of female OOSC was higher than male OOSC. In terms of geographical location, the rate of OOSC in the rural areas was twice the rate in the urban areas at 29% and 11%, respectively (EPDC, 2014). The biggest disparity was seen across income groups as a striking difference between the richest and the poorest quintile has been noted at 5% and 46%, respectively (EPDC, 2014).

Based on the LSIS (MICS/DHS) data in 2011-12, the majority of the primary school-age children attend school (85%) (MOH, et al, 2012). This means that 15% of these children are out of school when they are expected to be participating.

Lower Secondary School-Age OOSC

The rate of OOSC among lower secondary school-age children has displayed a more fluctuating pattern through the years. Since 2002, the rate gradually went down but showed increases during some years. Its rate, however, in 2013 was its lowest since 2002. Based on the rates disaggregated by gender, there are significantly more OOSC among girls than boys of lower secondary school age. The higher rates in the lower secondary level suggest that many children tend to leave school after they complete primary school.

Figure 10. Rate of OOSC of Lower Secondary School Age by Sex, Lao PDR: 2002-2013 (in percent)



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Both sexes	27.86	27.79	27.02	27.61	28.31	29.79	28.38	27.2	31.91	31.4	28.53	25.84
Female	34.43	34.09	32.94	33.28	33.68	34.53	32.84	31.16	35.75	34.63	31.15	27.96
Male	21.48	21.66	21.27	22.08	23.09	25.18	24.04	23.37	28.18	28.27	26	23.79

Source: UIS data

The LSIS (MICS/DHS) conducted in 2011-2012 show that close to half of children of secondary age are attending secondary school, while of the remaining half, 25% are attending primary school, and 30% are not in school.

Another set of data shows that in 2010, out of the total 197,120 children and youth (ages 5 to 17) who were not attending school, 161,081, or 81.7%, belong to the 14 to 17 age bracket. The number of females who have discontinued schooling was slightly higher than the number of males with 52% (83,850) and 48% (77,232), respectively. In addition, the number of children and youth who never attended school reached 209,967, and of this total number, 19.4% belong to the 14 to 17 age group. Again, the number of females (26,427) was higher than the males (14,471). The rate of children and youth attending school was lowest in the 14-17 age group with 63.3%, and highest in the 12-13 age bracket with 86.5% (ILO, et al, 2012)

Child Marriage

Fifteen is the legal age to marry in Laos. Data sourced from the United Nations indicates that, in 2005, 20% of girls belonging to the 15-19 age group were either married, divorced or widowed, as compared to a significantly lower 6% for boys in the same age group (cited in Rigby, 2013). According to UNICEF (2013), on the other hand, 8.9% of girls are married by age 15 and 35.4% of girls are by age 18 (2010-2012). Girls living in poverty in rural areas are far more likely to be married than girls living in urban areas. But once a girl is married, she usually drops out of school (Rigby, 2013).

Child Labourers

Child labour is prevalent in Laos. An estimated 10% of children are required to work to support and augment the needs of their families. Instead of availing of their right to education, these children are working in agriculture, fishing or manufacturing (Humanium, 2011)

The 2010 Laos Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (LFCLS, 2010 as cited in UCW Programme, 2014) revealed that around 71,000 children aged 6 to 13 years or 6.5% of this age group are employed. Within this age group, almost 88% attend school, which translates to close to 134,000 children who are not in school. The LFCLS 2010 do not provide data on the overlap between school and employment (UCW Programme, 2014).

Table 24. Child Activity Status of Children Aged 6-13 by Sex and Residence, Lao PDR: 2010 (in percent)							
Background Characteristics		Total in Employment		Total in School		Total out of school	
		%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Sex	Male	5.6	31,671	88.9	508,188	11.1	63,273
	Female	7.4	39,127	86.7	458,106	13.3	70,611
Residence	Urban	1.7	4079	95.4	229,361	4.6	10,921
	Rural with road	7.4	54,606	86.7	642,602	13.4	99,014
	Rural without road	10.2	12,113	79.7	94,332	20.3	23,950
Total		**6.5**	**70,797**	**87.9**	**966,295**	**12.2**	**133,884**

Source: UCW calculations based on Laos Force and Child Labour Survey, 2010

Children's involvement in labour may be determined by age, sex and geographical location (UCW Programme, 2014). For instance, the probability of a child engaged in labour increases with age. After age 11, which coincides with the completion of basic compulsory education, the percentage of children in employment increases sharply. Those involved in schooling tend to peak between 9 to 11 years (94%) and decreases after as children take on more responsibilities at home or at work.

Girls are also more likely to be engaged in work and not to be in school (UCW Programme, 2014). Among 6-13-year-old children, employed girls are 2 percentage points higher than boys', while boys' attendance rate are 2 percentage points higher than girls'. These gender gaps are more pronounced in poor, remote, rural and highly ethnic areas.

Lao children also tend to be employed more in rural areas, particularly those without access to roads (UCW Programme, 2014; Welford, 2013). Among children aged 6 to 13, approximately 10% of those living in rural areas without access roads, and 7% of those living in rural areas with roads, are employed, which are much higher rates than the 2% of children in the same age group in urban areas. These rural children are also less likely to attend school. Only 87% of children in rural areas with access to roads and 80% in rural areas without road access attend school compared to over 95% of urban children.

Many children are engaged in what is defined as hazardous work. Most (90%) of the child labourers work in agriculture, forestry or fishing, and seven out of 10 work more than 49 hours per week (Welford, 2013). A national survey in 2012 showed that girls are predominantly engaged in mining, whereas boys (80%) are mostly in construction. Both these jobs are considered hazardous for child labourers. More than 97% of children from rural areas (without roads) and more than half from urban areas constitute the workforce in the agricultural sector. In manufacturing, trade and construction industries, urban working children are larger in number than their rural counterparts (ILO, et al, 2012).

MALAYSIA

The Malaysian government strongly affirms that education is the bedrock of the country's development and plays an integral role in the nation's economic growth, as well as in the thriving global economy (MoE Malaysia, 2013). As laid out in the government's Vision 2020, "education is a top priority for the country's achievement of developed nation" status (UNICEF, 2008). Within this purview, education consistently remains a top priority on the national agenda. Malaysia has achieved significant advancements in providing increased access and expanded opportunities in primary and secondary education (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015).

There are challenges in providing equal access to quality education to disadvantaged children , such as children from poor families in urban and rural areas, those living in remote and sparsely populated areas, with special education needs, from indigenous groups, undocumented children, those living at plantation estates, and refugees. It is assumed that undocumented children constitute an additional population of children excluded from the education system, and most likely not reflected in the calculation of enrollment rates (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015).

While "exceptional success"[7] in the primary and secondary education has been noted, challenges that impede the full realization of targets and goals remain. More efforts are required to enroll the hardest-to-reach populations of children as enrollment rates both at the primary and secondary level have levelled out, "remaining lower than that of high-performing education systems" (MoE Malaysia, 2013).

Primary Education

In primary education, the GER has slightly increased from 95.6% in 2000 to 96.6% in 2013 (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015). In 2011, the public system's enrollment rate in primary education was 94% with 2.86 million students (MoE Malaysia, 2013). While the numbers are noteworthy, the challenge lies in reaching the remaining primary school-age population without access to education. There are approximately 100,000 primary school-age children unaccounted for[8] (MoE Malaysia, 2013).

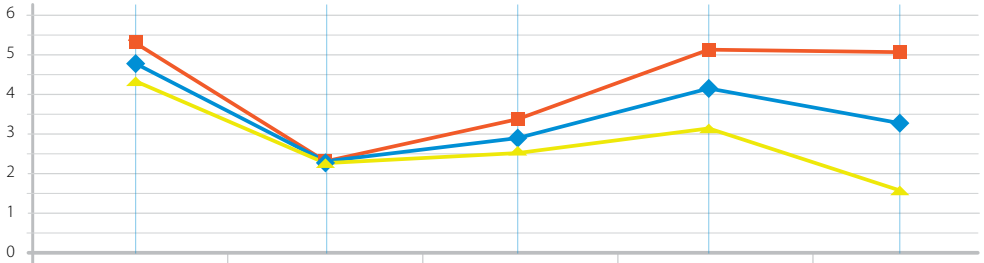
The UIS estimates that primary school-age out-of-school children numbered over 93,000 in 2005. From 2010 to 2013, the number of OOSC in primary education was consistent at approximately 100,000 (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015). The states of Sabah and Selangor had the most number of dropouts in 2001 with more 200,000 combined. The number was significantly reduced in 2012 with below 10,000 dropouts in Sabah. The state of Sabah, just like the state of Sarawak, is known for various minority groups called *Orang Asli*, or first peoples (Sugimura, n.d.). Noticeably, in 2012, the states of Kelantan, Perak and WP Kuala Lumpur had the highest number of dropouts with about 20,000 in each state. In addition, the states of Selangor and WP Kuala Lumpur had the most number of students who entered and abandoned school before Grade 6 for the period covering 2008-2013. In 2013, there were about 15,000 students who did not continue to secondary education (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015).

A gender comparison would show that there are more girls than boys among OOSC of primary school age. Note, however, that the UIS rates have not been updated to more recent years. This gender disparity may no longer be significant if more recent performance indicators are taken into consideration. For instance, no significant gender disparity has been noted for GER, completion, transition, and survival rates at the primary level since 2000 (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015). Moreover, in the transition to secondary education, girls were slightly disadvantaged prior to 2005. Since then, the rates have been almost equal (EFA National Review, Malaysia, 2015).

7 Near-universal access has been achieved at the primary and lower secondary levels. Malaysia has achieved near-universal enrolment at the primary level at 96% (all enrolment rates are for public schools and private schools registered with the Ministry of Education). The attrition rate (the percentage of students who drop out of primary school) has been reduced in recent years from 3% in 1989 to around 0.2% in 2011. Enrolment rates at the lower secondary level have reached 91%.

8 These numbers include school-age children who are homeschooled and those attending alternative education centers that are not registered with the MoE such as Tahfiz Religious Schools.

Figure 11. Rate of OOSC of Primary School Age, Malaysia: 1999-2003 (in percent)



	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Both sexes	4.86	2.19	2.97	4.13	3.27
Female	5.39	2.17	3.43	5.2	5.03
Male	4.35	2.2	2.54	3.09	1.55

Source: UIS data

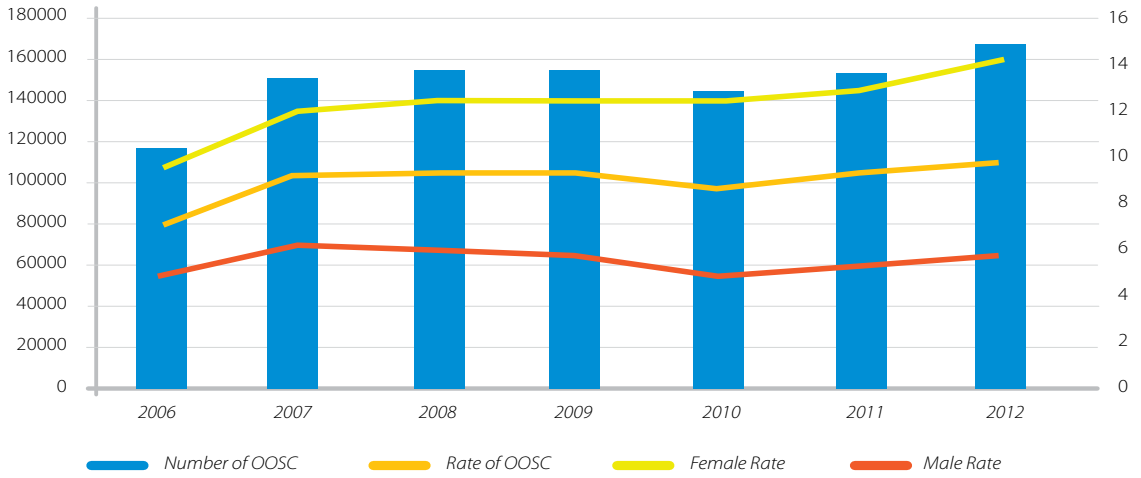
In Malaysia, as elsewhere across the region, the strongest predictor for primary school access and retention is the socio-economic condition of families. Poverty remains a factor limiting access and retention in primary schooling. A case in point is the Penan community in Sarawak, a tribe still leading a nomadic lifestyle. The cost of books, uniforms, and transportation demotivates Penan families from sending their children to school (Symaco, n.d.). It is more likely that children living in poverty either do not attend school or drop out of school. The proportion of children not in primary school is higher among the poor. The percentage increases in relation to the level of education. In 2007, the proportion of children in poverty aged under 5 and under 15 were 8.1 and 9.4, respectively. In terms of location, the proportion of children under 15 in poverty in rural and urban locations were 15.1 and 5.9, respectively. Half the children in poor families who are not in primary school are in Sabah, suggesting that state-focused activities will significantly improve the overall figures (EPU and UN, 2011).

Lower Secondary School-Age Children

In 2013, the population of the official secondary school-age children was 2.68 million, while enrollees reached 2.44 million. GER was 91.12% and GPI was 1.066. On the other hand, the number of OOSC in secondary education was over 300,000 in 2013 (EFA National Review Malaysia, 2015). The number of OOSC seems to have been declining over the years.

Based on the UIS data, however, the number of lower secondary school-age children who are out of school seems to have been increasing in recent years. The female rate is also much higher than the male rate. The picture presented by the UIS data do not seem to cohere with the official data presented by the MOE.

Figure 12. Number and Rate of OOSC of Secondary School Age in Malaysia: 2006-2012



Source: UIS data

Poverty is a deterrent to school attendance as two-thirds of primary school-age children and almost 90% of lower secondary school-age children who are not in school come from households at the bottom 40% of the income distribution. In 2007, nonattendance in school by poverty status shows the stark contrast between the poor and the non-poor. In lower secondary, it was more than 10% for the poor as opposed to less than 5% for the non-poor (EPU and UN, 2011).

Stateless and Undocumented Children

Stateless children are another major concern for the government to address in its pursuit of providing protection and access to education to all, especially to those hardest-to-reach segments of the OOSC population. Undocumented children in Malaysia belong to several categories: (1) children from very poor families who live in urban, sub-urban, and remote areas, and also on small islands; (2) ethnic Pala'o children who live on boats and their nationalities are uncertain; (3) immigrant children from the southern Philippines (around 1972) who are IMM-13 document holders; (4) Rohingya and Acehnese children whose parents are UNHCR card holders; (5) stateless and street children; and (6) children of high-risk parents (sex workers, AIDS patients and drug addicts) (MOE, 2009 as cited in Yunus and Norfariza, 2012).

Children without documentation, particularly children born to non-citizens, are among the most marginalized (UNICEF, 2013c). The children of migrant parents who are born in Malaysia may become undocumented if they do not possess a birth certificate. Without any government recognizing these children as nationals, they become vulnerable to statelessness. Children living at plantations in both Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah – many of whom have parents who are migrant workers from Indonesia – face issues of being excluded or not being able to join the mainstream schooling. These children, without proper citizenship documents, are unable to access government schools (Symaco, n.d.). Non-government organizations and other development partners are the ones providing education services to them instead. Children are able to access these "informal" or charitable schools that generally follow the school curriculum, but are nevertheless unrecognized by authorities or considered of inferior quality (Letchamanan, 2013).

According to one report, there were approximately 52,000 stateless children in Sabah alone in 2009 (Mulakala, 2010). UNHCR (2012) reports that there are 18,500 refugee children under 18, and that around 13,800 of these are of school-going age (6 to 17 years old). Around six in 10 of these refugee

children do have access to any kind of education. A study conducted by MOE in 2009 found that there were 43,973 undocumented children aged 7 to 17 in Malaysia who are not attending school, the majority of whom were non-Malaysians (cited in Yunusand and Norfariza, 2012).

Children with Disabilities

Despite the lack of a comprehensive system of data collection in measuring the number of children with special needs, it is estimated that they constitute around 1% of the population in Malaysia (GOM, 2012 as cited in Symaco, n.d.). The percentage might be higher in reality, however, as families rarely register their children as such. These children with disabilities make up another segment of out-of-school population in Malaysia (Symaco, n.d.).

As tracked by the Department of Social Welfare in 2011 and 2012, the percentage of children with disabilities who were registered was 34% of the total number of new registrants for each year (UNICEF, 2014d). According to the Ministry of Health, there was a total of 22,089 children with disabilities registered from 2004 to 2012, although the data are inconclusive because there might have been cases when the child's disability was not apparent or detected during a medical examination.

Data from the MoE, on the other hand, show that the total number of children with disabilities who enroll in special needs education programmes of the government comprise only 1% of the total number of children enrolled between 2010 to 2012. Since this does not consider those registered in private schools and those in the mainstream education system, this is not a conclusive estimate as to the number of children with disabilities who attend school.

In 2012, there were 50,738[9] enrollees in special needs education out of the 5.27 million students in preschool, elementary school and secondary school. It should be noted though that such schools with special facilities tend to be located in cities and towns, and thus rural children with physical disabilities are less likely to attend school (Symaco, n.d.).

MYANMAR

The data on the number of out-of-school children in Myanmar suggest an increasing trend. Using the EMIS data of the average proportion of OOSC over a five-year period from 2006-2011, it is estimated that the number of OOSC in Myanmar is 1,015,340 (cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013). Most are at the primary level (533,906 or 52.58%), although significant numbers are also at the lower secondary (252,932 or 24.91%) and upper secondary level (228,502 or 22.5%).

Data from the 2014 Census population data and from the Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey (IHLCS) have revealed, however, that children aged 5 to 16 who are out-of-school – that is, have never enrolled or else have dropped out of formal school – are estimated to be 2 million (Myanmar MOE, n.d.).

The IHLCS 2009-10 reported that the factors that led these children to be excluded from the formal system are mainly unaffordable school expenses and lack of interest (cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013). For those aged 5 to 15, school expenses account for 65% of the children, while lack of interest was cited by 46.5%. The other reasons for non-attendance in schools include illness, family obligations, and agricultural work.

9 Enrolment in the special needs educatwion system means the total enrolment in government-run special education schools, special education integrated program (SEIP), and inclusive education programs.

Based on the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) data, male OOSC (10.2%) of primary school age have a slightly higher rate than female OOSC. Rural-based OOSC of primary school age are also greater in number (11%) than urban-based ones (7%). The trend is similar among secondary school-age children.

Children with Disabilities

Myanmar's first national survey on persons with disabilities in 2010 found that the national prevalence rate of disability is 2.32%, or one person with disabilities in every nine households. One in two persons with disabilities have never attended school (cited in EFA Review Myanmar, 2015). The causes of disability are mostly due to congenital factors or injury (cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013). While the rate of disability among males and females are almost similar, there are observed regional disparities, particularly in rates of disability among children (cited in MNPED and UNICEF, 2012). Children with disabilities younger than 15 years old number around 318,000 nationally, 78% of whom are between the ages 6 to 15. The survey also showed that more than a third (37.1%) of children with disabilities have received educational opportunities, which suggests that the remaining two-thirds of these children have not (cited in Myanmar MOE, 2013).

According to a recent study, the reasons parents gave for children being out of school include impairment, financial costs, difficulties with teachers, schools refusing enrolment, geographical inaccessibility or transport barriers, and peer discrimination (ECDC and VSO, 2015). Poverty is still considered a significant barrier, but this study found that, contrary to the EFA Review Report findings about out-of-school children, children with disabilities who are not attending school do not leave school early to find work.

Child Labourers

The IHLCS conducted in 2009-10 noted that around 18% of children aged 10 to 14 in poor households are engaged in the labour force, while around 10% belong to the non-poor (cited in MNPED and UNICEF, 2012). Data suggest as well that many of these children are unpaid family workers who are handling small tasks in farms, in family businesses or at home. The IHLCS has also revealed a low enrolment rate among children aged 10 to 14 who are engaged in work (11.6%), compared to the general enrolment rate registered by children of that age (78%). Thus, children involved in the labour force have a higher probability of not attending school and not being able to do recreation and play.

In an earlier study conducted in 2006 covering 14 townships in six regions, over a third of children aged 7 to 16 were found to be working (Department of Social Welfare and UNICEF, 2006 as cited in MNPED and UNICEF, 2012). They are generally from poor families who relied on poorly paid jobs, or from families who migrated from other places in search of work. Most of the children were involved in work that requires selling basic food items and other commodities, while others were engaged in manual labour, such as in agriculture, fishing, and carpentry. The study found that most of them started school but dropped out before completing primary level in order to respond to a problem requiring money. Rarely do they return to school (cited in MNPED and UNICEF, 2012).

Stateless Children

Stateless children are mostly found among the Muslim population, known as Rohingya, in the northern Rakhine state. These people have been rendered stateless because of the citizenship laws of Myanmar. Approximately 810,000 stateless people are in Rakhine State alone (UNHCR, 2014).

The conflict that erupted in this state in 2012 resulted in an estimated 140,000 displacements, including internal displacements. Others fled to other countries, usually by sea (UNOCHA, 2013). Such situations have been rife for exploitation, violence, and trafficking (MNPED and UNICEF, 2012).

Children who have been living in government-designated camps in Rakhine – numbering more than 20,000 – tend to miss schooling (UNOCHA, 2013). They are not able to access the schools outside the camps due to existing tensions between communities and the attendant safety issues. Teachers being hired to work in the camps are reluctant to do so for fear of being harassed.

Internally Displaced Children/Children in Armed Conflict

Many people have been displaced where armed conflicts and inter-communal violence exist. As of 2014, an estimated 642,600 people have been displaced, involving border areas in Kachin, Kayin, Rakhine, and Shan states (IDMC, 2014). The UNHCR, however, estimates that internally displaced people (IDPs) number approximately 587,000 as of January 2015. In Rakhine State, where 140,000 IDPs are living in camps, around 60% (84,000) of these are believed to be children under 18: they include approximately 23,000 primary school-age children (UNOCHA, 2013). Given that they are not allowed to leave their camps, these displaced children have little or no access to formal education. It has been reported that only 7% of secondary school-age children were experiencing some form of education (IDMC, 2014). Even prior to the conflict, this state was already experiencing very poor education performance indicators, such as low rates of attendance and enrolment. It has also been reported that 91% of the camps have insufficient or no education facilities or materials (UNOCHA, 2013). A number of interventions are taking place to address the needs of the primary school-age children in the camps, but little is being done for the post-primary age groups (IRIN, 2013).

Since Myanmar is prone to natural hazards, including floods, cyclones, landslides, earthquakes and storm surges, displacements have also occurred because of these. People are also forced to leave their homes whenever heavy rains cause severe flooding, particularly in the states of Kayin and Mon, as well as in Tanintharyi region. Other displacements occur as a result of relocation brought about by large-scale development and infrastructure projects. Many children from these areas are at risk of missing out on education and psychosocial support. They are also generally considered to be highly vulnerable to trafficking and abuse (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015).

PHILIPPINES

The government has pushed for educational reforms that promote inclusive education, especially for the marginalized and the most vulnerable sectors of society (EFA Review Philippines, 2015). The prevalence of out-of-school children – due to a confluence of factors, such as poverty, natural disasters and climate change, child labour and armed conflict – is a major challenge that Department of Education (DepEd) and the government have to address.

In 2011, research conducted by the Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), using 2008 national survey data by the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) and 2010 DepEd data from its Basic Education Information System (BEIS), showed OOSC incidence for various age groups in the country.

According to estimates from the Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (APIS) in 2008, there were a total of 2.9 million children between the ages of 5 and 15 that were out-of-school, about 1.74 million or three-fifths of whom were boys. Due to developments that occurred in the DepEd and the institution of major programmes that affect OOSC – such as the enactment of the Kindergarten Law, the K to 12 programme, and the 4Ps or the conditional cash transfer programme – the total

number of OOSC in 2013 significantly decreased to 1,026,686 (UNICEF, et al, 2012). Using the 2008 data, however, around 44.5% of OOSC belonged to households in the poorest 20% of per capita income distribution. About two in three of OOSC (65.5%) resided in rural areas. A significant number of these children have mothers with low educational attainment.

There were approximately 1.27 million primary school-age OOSC in 2008. More recent data show that this number had gone down considerably to 444,442 by 2013 (UNICEF, et al, 2012). The OOSC rate in 2013 also decreased from 6.55% in 2011 to 3.55% in 2013. Based on the 2008 data, there was a bigger proportion of boys aged 6 to 11 (56.9%) than girls of the same age (43.1%) who were not in school. The majority of OOSC were between the ages 6 and 7 years old. Most of the six-year-old children who were not in school were said to be too young for schooling. More than half (56.4%) of OOSC of primary school age in rural areas come from households in the poorest 20% of the per capita income distribution, much higher than the 19.7% of primary school-ages OOSC based in urban areas. The Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) also has the biggest proportion of primary school-age OOSC.

Children of secondary school age who were out of school in 2008 numbered 870,000. The number declined to 582,245 in 2013 (David, 2015). The OOSC rate in 2013 went down to 6.88% from its rate of 8.35% in 2011. The 2008 data revealed some gender disparities. Compared to girls (7.6%), boys (13.3%) had a higher proportion among out-of-school children in the secondary school-age group. Most secondary school-age OOSC were located in rural areas (71%). Older children constituted a significant number of secondary school-age OOSC. The 2008 study also indicated that the three regions with the biggest proportion of secondary school-age OOSC are Eastern Visayas (16.1%), ARMM (14.1%) and MIMAROPA (13.9%).

In the Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS) in 2013, the proportion of out-of-school youth (aged 15-24) was higher than among out-of-school children (aged 6-14). Excluding the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR), the rates of out-of-school youth across regions ranged from 14.5% to 20.4%. For OOSC, the figure ranged from 1.7% to 4.9%, except in ARMM, which registered 10.9%. Across all regions, the combined proportion of out-of-school children and youth was higher among females than males. However, when considering only the out-of-school children, boys tended to outnumber girls across all regions.

Table 25. Proportion of Out-of-School Children and Youth by Region, Age Group and Sex, Philippines: 2013

Region	6-24	Age Group								
		Region			6-14			15-24		
			Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Philippines (in 000)	36,238	10.6	7.9	13.3	3.5	4.5	2.4	17.5	11.2	24.0
National Capital Region	4,556	10.3	9.9	10.8	2.4	4.1	0.6	16.9	15.0	18.8
Cordillera	681	7.1	4.2	10.0	2.1	3.1	1.1	11.4	5.1	17.9

Table 25. Proportion of Out-of-School Children and Youth by region, age group and sex, Philippines: 2013										
Region	6-24	Age Group								
		Region			6-14			15-24		
			Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Administrative Region										
I – Ilocos	1,806	9.9	7.5	12.6	1.7	2.6	0.8	18.0	12.3	24.2
II – Cagayan Valley	1,261	8.7	4.3	13.3	2.5	3.8	1.0	14.5	4.8	25.0
III – Central Luzon	4,060	11.6	8.8	14.5	3.5	4.8	2.0	19.5	12.9	26.3
IVA – CALABARZON	5,209	9.7	8.0	11.5	3.5	4.9	2.1	15.9	11.2	20.6
IVB – MIMAROPA	1,189	11.2	6.9	15.7	3.4	4.3	2.5	19.9	9.7	30.9
V – Bicol	2,344	8.6	6.2	11.2	2.3	3.1	1.4	16.0	9.7	23.1
VI – Western Visayas	2,832	10.1	7.8	12.6	3.1	4.5	1.5	16.9	10.8	23.5
VII – Central Visayas	2,776	10.6	8.6	12.7	4.0	4.6	3.4	17.1	12.5	21.9
IX – Zamboanga Peninsula	1,475	11.3	7.2	15.6	3.8	4.3	3.4	19.0	10.2	28.3
X – Northern Mindanao	1,846	9.8	6.4	13.4	2.6	3.4	1.8	17.0	9.4	25.1
XI – Davao	1,862	12.2	6.3	18.4	4.2	4.3	4.2	19.7	8.1	31.8
XII – SOCCSKSARGEN	1,791	12.3	10.0	14.8	4.9	7.0	2.6	19.7	12.8	27.2
XIII – Caraga	1,039	11.3	7.4	15.5	2.5	3.4	1.6	20.4	11.5	30.3
ARMM	1,511	14.4	10.3	18.5	10.9	11.5	10.3	18.7	8.7	28.4

Source: Philippine Statistics Authority Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey
Note: Data excludes Region XIII for this round due to typhoon Yolanda

Around 916,000 children (22.9% of the nearly 4 million out-of-school children and youth) have declared marriage as their main reason for not attending school. The gender difference is evident as almost four out of 10 females have cited this reason. The second topmost reason for not attending school is insufficient family income (19.2%) as many parents are not financially able to pay for other educational expenses outside the tuition fee. The proportion of out-of-school children and youth whose family income was not sufficient for sending a child to school was 22.7% and 17.0% among males and females, respectively. The lack of interest in attending school ranks third in frequency with 19.1%. There are more males (three in 10) than females who have no interest in attending school.

Table 26. Proportion of Out-of-School Children and Youth by Reason for Not Attending School, Philippines: 2013			
Reason	Both sexes	Male	Female
Marriage	22.9	1.7	36.2
Family income not sufficient to send child to school	19.2	22.7	17.0
Lack of personal interest	19.1	33.1	10.3
Housekeeping	9.1	1.8	13.7
High cost of education	9.0	9.8	8.6
Illness/Disability	8.2	12.2	5.8
Employment/Looking for work	5.5	8.0	4.0
Others	6.9	10.8	4.5

Source: FLEMMS (PSA, 2013)
Note: Data excludes Region XIII for this round due to typhoon Yolanda

Children from Poverty-stricken Families

Although public education is free, many children still do not avail themselves of education because of the "hidden costs" involved in schooling, such as transportation, supplies, and daily allowance. Malnutrition caused by poverty also leads to poor attendance and performance in school and to shorter attention spans. Based on the Family Income and Expenditure Survey (FIES) and Labour Force Survey (LFS) data using the national official poverty estimation methodology, there are around 13.4 million children, or over a third of all children aged below 18, who are considered to be income poor; that is, their families cannot meet the minimum food and basic non-food needs (Reyes, et al, 2014). The number of poor children grew from 33% in 2003 to 35.5% in 2009, translating to an increase of around 2.3 million children within that six-year period. Studies show that it is the children of poor families who are more likely to drop out than of non-poor families. Information from the 2008 Annual Poverty Indicator Survey (APIS) indicates that most of early school-leavers come from poor families. The majority of those aged 16-17 who are from the poorest 20% of the population do not go to school, as compared to only 10% of those in the richest group (Reyes, et al, 2014).

Children in Conflict Situations

The OOSC phenomenon is a manifestation of wider socio-economic and political contexts, including issues of poverty, regional inequalities, and conflict-stricken areas due to ideology-based disputes. In Southeast Asia, the Philippines was included in the list of conflict-affected countries in 2002-2011 (UNESCO, 2011). The country has had a number of long-running ideology-based armed conflicts (IBACs), which pertain primarily to communist and Muslim insurgencies and are often perceived to be the main contributors to armed conflict (OPAPP and STRIDES, 2009).

The Philippines was among the 35 countries affected by armed conflict for a decade (1999 to 2008) because of Muslim insurgency in the south. In the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM), the non-attendance rate is more than four times the national average. The proportion of 7- to 16-year-old children and youth without education is 12%, while the national average is 2%. The proportion of young people with less than two years of education is more than four times the national average (UNESCO, 2011).

The clashes between the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) and authorities in 2008 resulted in more than 700,000 evacuees in 567 evacuation centres in Mindanao. The adverse effects of disruption or deprivation of education feed into the dismal functional literacy rate in ARMM – the lowest across all regions, as revealed in the 2013 FLEMMS. Only 71.6% of those from 10 to 64 years old can read, write or count. Nationally, nine out of 10 people are functionally literate. In Eastern Visayas, one of the country's poorest regions, the functional literacy rate is 72.9%. It is also one of the areas where government is fighting a nearly half-a-century-old communist insurgency (Chua, 2011).

Since January 2015, armed conflict across Mindanao has displaced more than 120,000 people (Daluz, 2015). The United Nations refugee agency and its partners estimated that 13 municipalities in the areas of Maguindanao and North Cotabato have been affected by the frequent clashes between the Bangsamoro Islamic Freedom Fighters (BIFF) and the authorities. An estimated 120,000 displaced people are now sheltered in schools and public buildings.

Similarly to natural disasters, armed conflicts displace families and communities and disrupt people's lives. Caught amidst these skirmishes and clashes, people flee their homes and seek refuge in safer places. In these circumstances, school buildings tend to be converted into shelters

as well into evacuation centres. Children become especially vulnerable to becoming insufficiently schooled or dropping out altogether. In some cases, children are recruited to become child soldiers or combatants in the war between government troops and insurgency groups.

Child Labourers

The 2011 Survey of Children reveals that out of an estimated 5.5 million working children aged 5 to 17, around 58.4%, or 3.2 million, are considered to be child labourers (PSA, 2012). Of these, 98.9%, or around 3 million, are exposed to hazardous environments. The term "child labourers" refer to "children who reported to have worked in hazardous work environment regardless of the number of hours they spent at work, or those who have worked for long hours, that is, more than 20 hours a week for children 5 to 14 years old and more than 40 hours a week for children 15 to 17 years old" (PSA, 2012). More boys (66.8%) than girls (33.2%) are working in hazardous labour. Most are in the 15-17 age group (49.4%), followed by 10-14-year-old (44.3%) and 5-9-year-old children (6.2%) (NSO and ILO-IPEC, 2011).

This is consistent with the finding of a 2008 study by UNICEF and PIDS that saw more child labourers among secondary school-age OOSC than primary school-age OOSC (UNICEF and PIDS, 2008). In this study, children aged 5 to 15 who were engaged in child labour numbered around 1.1 million. Among OOSC who were engaged in labour, a little over half (50.3%) were found to work as unpaid family workers, while around four in 10 worked outside the home. It is often the case that these children engage in work after dropping out of school (UNICEF, et al, 2012).

A higher number of 10-14-year-old (13.3%) child labourers in hazardous labour are not attending school, compared to 5-9-year-olds (9%). Almost half (47.3%) of the non-attendees, however, come from the 15-17 age group (NSO and ILO-IPEC, 2011). Thus, the proportion of child labourers not attending school increases with age.

The incidence of child labour is strongly associated with poverty and the lack of decent employment opportunities for parents. Children are therefore denied the chance to attend school and be equipped to become productive adults.

Children with Disabilities

Based on the 2010 Census of Population and Housing, for every five persons with disabilities in the Philippines, one was aged 0 to 14 (18.9%). Persons with disabilities were also more likely to be in the ages of 5 to 19 years and 45 to 64 years. Among the household population with disabilities, children aged 10 to 14 make up the largest age group (7.2%) (PSA, 2013).

Using calculations by the Asian Institute of Management (AIM) for the Advisory Council for the Education of Children with Disabilities, the total population of children with disabilities in the Philippines was projected to be 2.1% of the national population in 2015.

Table 27. Philippine Population Estimates for CWDs using WHO Formulation: 2013				
Year	Total Population	Age 5-14	% of Population	CWD Estimate
2000	76,946,500	17,703,400	2.3	1,770,340
2005	85,261,000	19,478,500	2.3	1,947,850
2010	94,013,200	20,171,800	2.2	2,017,180
2015	102,965,300	21,294,500	2.1	2,129,450
2020	111,784,600	22,288,400	2.0	2,228,840
2025	120,224,500	22,870,500	1.9	2,287,050
2030	128,110,000	23,012,400	1.8	2,301,240

Source: Philippine Statistical Authority, Asian Institute of Management, 2013 as cited in Garcia, 2014

According to a now outdated 2000 report by the SPED Division of Department of Education, however, the children with special needs were estimated at 12%, while 2% were seen as gifted and 10% were found to have disabilities. Of the more than 5 million children with special needs, it was projected that the majority (97.4%) would not receive appropriate educational services for the school year 2002-03 (cited in Sta. Ana, n.d.). The Philippine Association for Citizens with Developmental and Learning Disabilities, Inc. (PACDLD), on the other hand, estimates that of the 4 million children and youth with disabilities, only 2% attend school and only 1% are properly diagnosed (cited in Buenaobra, 2011). The lack of reliable data on disabilities is to a large extent due to the stigma associated with reporting disabilities within families. This stigma – along with other access and retention issues brought about by economic considerations, lack of school facilities, and socio-cultural realities –make up the main education issues that continue to beleaguer children with disabilities in the Philippines.

Undocumented/Stateless Children

One of the most marginalized groups due to their risky situation are Filipino children in Sabah. They have no access to regular education. Since 2014, DepEd, together with various stakeholders, has been implementing Alternative Learning Centres (ALCs) for community-based education programmes in Sabah. The programme caters to school-age Filipino learners in Sabah, especially those who cannot afford to pay school fees in private schools. To date, more than 2,200 school-age Filipino children are enrolled in these ALCs, such as Learning Translation and Review Centre (Keningau), Persatuan Kebajikan Pendidikan Kanak-Kanak Miskin (The Society for Education of Underprivileged Children) (Lahad Datu and Semporna), and others (DepEd, 2014).

THAILAND

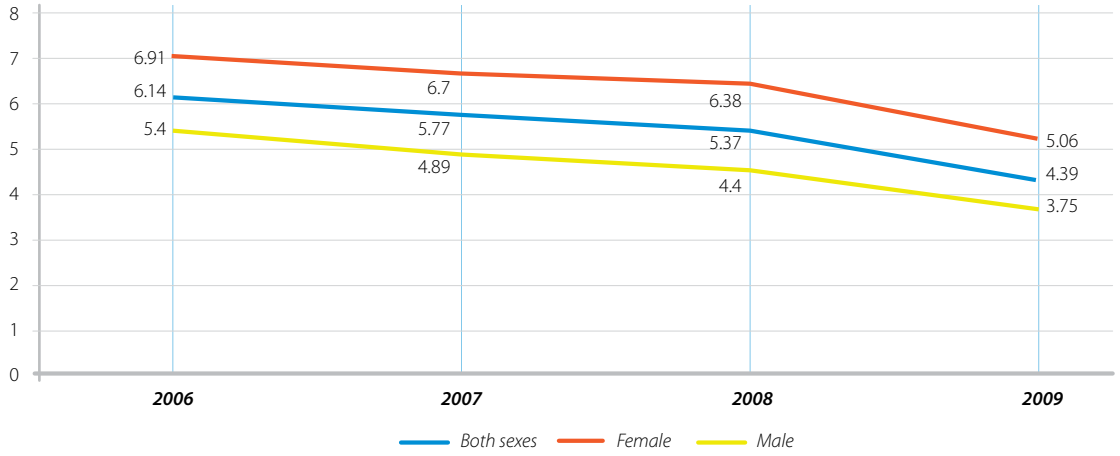
After nearly a quarter of a century, Thailand continues to uphold its commitment to the 1990 World Conference on Education for All Declaration that declared that "[e]ducation is a basic human right and that governments must manage education so that all have access to and equal opportunity for quality education through at least the primary level." The country has made significant strides in ensuring that all children have equal access to quality education by providing free basic education until the 12th grade, including children who belong to poor families, have physical and learning disabilities, and children in difficult circumstances (EFA Review Thailand, 2015).

To fast-track and ensure the second goal of providing universal basic education for all, the government created and expanded education opportunities, taking into consideration the need

for equity and fairness of every group within society, including the poor, the disadvantaged, the minority groups, and those with physical and learning disabilities. The government's scaled-up efforts include the expansion of compulsory education from 6 to 9 years. This has resulted in the increased enrollment of students continuing on to secondary education during the academic years 2004-2011. However, EFA mid-decade assessment indicated that some groups – children of ethnic minorities, children with disabilities, disadvantaged children, and stateless children or those without household registration documentation – are still unable to access these education opportunities.

Based on UIS data, there seemed to be a declining number of OOSC of primary school age in Thailand from 2006 to 2009. In 2009, the number stood at 243,883, which decreased from 306,596 in 2008. More girls were out of school than boys.

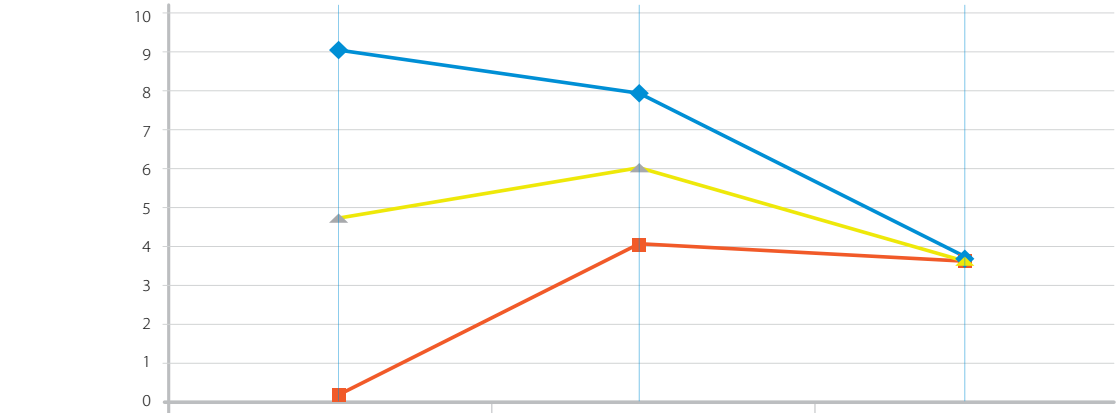
Figure 13. Rate of OOSC of Primary School Age, Thailand: 2006-2009 (in percent)



Source: UIS data

Compared to primary school-age children, there were fewer out-of-school children of lower secondary school age. The number in 2009 represented a decline from the 2006 rate. Males were higher in number than girls among those out of school, particularly in 2006-2007. It seemed, however, that the male rate improved much in 2009.

Figure 14. Rate of OOSC of Lower Secondary School Age, Thailand: 2006-2007, 2009 (in percent)



	2006	2007	2009
Male	9.12	7.95	3.85
Female	0.07	4.1	3.66
Both sexes	4.68	6.06	3.76

Source: UIS data
Note: 2008 rate for females is missing.

Children from lower-income families

Thailand has given a great deal of attention to ensuring that by 2015, all children – particularly children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities – are part of an effective, inclusive and equitable education system. Children from lower-income families have fewer opportunities than those belonging to families with higher incomes. In 2012, the percentage (across age groups) of children belonging to lower-income families not studying were 0.66% (ages 6-11), 4.58% (ages 12-14) and 31.03% (ages 15-17) respectively. Noticeably, the rate increased with age groups. Similar trends for middle-income families were noted in the same year with 0.37% (6-11 age group), 1.43% (12-14 age group), and 15% (15-17 age group) respectively. The rate for lower-income families was twice those at the middle-income level.

A government-initiated survey[10] of household economic and social conditions reported that not all children had studied through the compulsory education level, particularly those in impoverished circumstances. The survey also showed that the number of children from families whose annual income was less than US$1,200 was 4,585,207. In addition, there were also 160,000 children living in remote areas of the country who lacked opportunities for quality education.

Table 28. Percentage of Children Not Studying By Age and Income Level, Thailand: 2012

Age Group	Lower Income	Middle Income
6 – 11	0.66%	0.37%
12 – 14	4.58%	1.43%
15 – 17	31.03%	15.00%

Source: Data from Survey of Household Economic and Social Conditions by the National Bureau of Statistics; Evaluation by the Office of Social Data and Indicators of Social Conditions, National Economic and Social Development Board

Children with Disabilities

The government has to step up its initiatives in providing education for children and youth with disabilities. A recent survey conducted by the National Office for Empowerment of Persons with Disability (NEP),[11] has reported that 1,031,429 individuals with disabilities were registered with the government agency in 2009 (cited in EFA Review Thailand, 2015). Among these, 224,290 were children with disabilities under the age of 18 (0-18 years of age), and 188,783, or 84%, had access to inclusive education. In 2013, the number of students with special needs who had access to inclusive education reached 252,182.

Table 29. Number of Students with Special Needs Access to Inclusive Education, Thailand

	[2009]	[2013]
Total number of registered individuals with disabilities under 18 years of age	224,290	No data
Total number of registered individuals with disabilities under 18 years of age who had access to inclusive education	188,783	252,182
Percentage who had access to inclusive education	84%	–

Source: Bureau of Special Education, the Office of Basic Education Commission, 2014, as cited in EFA Review Thailand, 2015

10 Conducted by the National Statistical Office from 2010 to 2013.

11 Bureau of Special Education, the Office of Basic Education Commission, 2014

A Disabled Persons Survey in 2001 showed that children aged 0 to 14 constituted 8.8% of the total number of persons with disabilities, and that there were more males than females within this demographic (cited in UNESCO Bkk, 2009).

In an analysis of UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) data from 2005-2008, it was reported that the risk of not currently attending school for children with disabilities was more than double, compared to children without disabilities (Llewelyn, et al, 2012).

Migrant/Stateless/Undocumented Children

Thailand is reported to be one of the countries with the highest number of stateless people. According to UNHCR, there are over half a million stateless people in Thailand, many of whom are children (UNHCR, 2015). Many of the stateless children belong to ethnic minorities. It is estimated that around 1.2 million people are part of the 20 different ethnic groups in the western and northern parts of Thailand, known as hill-tribes (Dombrowski, 2014). Plan International approximates that around 37% of these people lack citizenship and are thus denied many of their rights (cited in Dombrowski, 2014).

Through the years, Thailand has also found itself hosting many migrants and refugees who are fleeing conflict or poverty in their countries of origin. In 2013, the Thai Ministry of Labor estimated that there are around 2.5 million migrant workers from Myanmar, Lao PDR, and Cambodia, half of whom are undocumented, who are based in Thailand. These migrants, together with their families, arrive in the country to look for work in the agriculture, industrial and service sectors (SC and WE, 2014). Migrant children face high risks of being excluded from the formal system and its attendant benefits and services. They are also vulnerable to exploitation, abuse and trafficking. There is a lack of accurate data on the number of migrant children in Thailand. Only those who are actually registered in school or who have parents that have documentation are included in the official data, which means that many other OOSC who are undocumented are not part of the official picture. There are still approximations, however.

In 2010, the Ministry of Education estimated that of the 260,000 stateless children in Thailand, only 60,000 were enrolled in public schools (ILO, 2014a). The International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2011) reports that there are approximately 375,000 migrant children in Thailand. These children, who include child labourers, children of migrant workers, and refugee and asylum-seeking children, constitute 11% of the total migrant population of 3.4 million people (IOM, 2011 as cited in Human Rights Watch, 2014). World Education estimates that of these migrant children, around 20% to 40% are able to access education (ILO, 2014a). As indicated in the summarized Migrant Education Sector Review (SC and World Education, 2014), the limited government data suggest that around two-thirds of migrant children in Thai schools are at the primary level, while a mere 3% and 1% are enrolled in the lower and upper secondary levels, respectively. Additionally, it is estimated that around 200,000, or over 60%, of migrant children in Thailand are out of school. Those who do attend school are either in learning centres (LCs) (5%) or in Thai schools (34%). The children who are studying in learning centres receive education services which are perceived to be inconsistent in quality and beset by financial problems as well as limited resources. These learning centres, with a few exception, are not recognized by the Thai and Myanmar governments.

Under Thai law, all children should be able to access the Thai education system. However, in reality, these migrant and stateless children face a host of challenges that prevent them from accessing educational opportunities in Thailand, which include the lack of data, financial constraints, language barriers, lack of awareness of existing services and opportunities, and perceived discrimination (SC and WE, 2014).

TIMOR-LESTE

Timor-Leste is a young democracy with a young population. Close to half of the population is below 18, while around 68% of the population is under 30 (NSD, et al, 2010). Its population growth rate, while slowly declining between 2006 and 2012 (UIS data), is still one of the highest in Asia. Its fertility rate of 5.7 births per woman is also the highest in Asia (PRB, 2010 as cited in NSD, et al, 2010). The country is said to be experiencing a "youth bulge" similar to that being experienced by other developing countries. These demographic characteristics have impacts on educational outcomes.

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, those who have never been to school among children aged 6 to 9 comprise 27% of the total population of that age group (NSD and UNFPA, 2012a). Those aged 10-14 had a smaller proportion at 13% of that age group's population. These figures represent a decline from the 2004 rates. There are more males than females in this group of children who have never been to school.

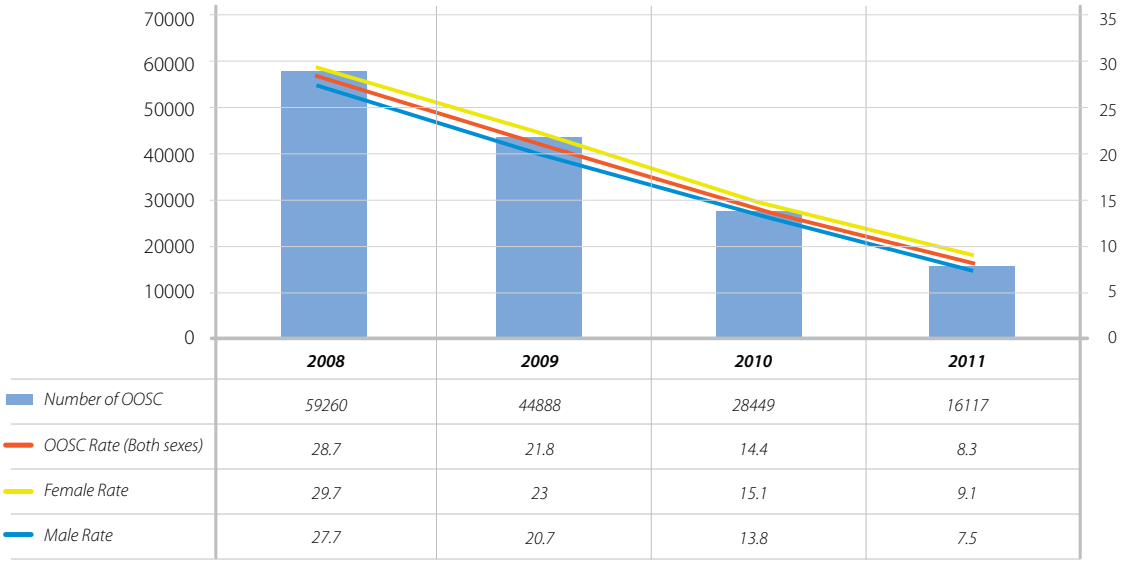
Table 30. Children Who Have Never Attended School by Age Group, Timor-Leste: 2004 and 2010 (in percent)

Age Group	2004			2010		
	Number with no schooling	Total Population	Percent that has never attended school	Number with no schooling	Total Population	Percent that has never attended school
6-9	64,931	103,052	63%	32,883	121,714	27%
10-14	38,063	118,213	32%	17,104	134,812	13%

Source: 2010 Census

The total number of OOSC in Timor-Leste, however, has been declining since 2008. This is most evident at the primary level. The OOSC among the primary school-age children went down to a rate of 8.3% in 2011, a huge drop from previous years (UIS data). More girls than boys within this age group are out of school.

Figure 15. Rate of OOSC of Primary School-Age Children, Timor-Leste: 2008-2011 (in percent)

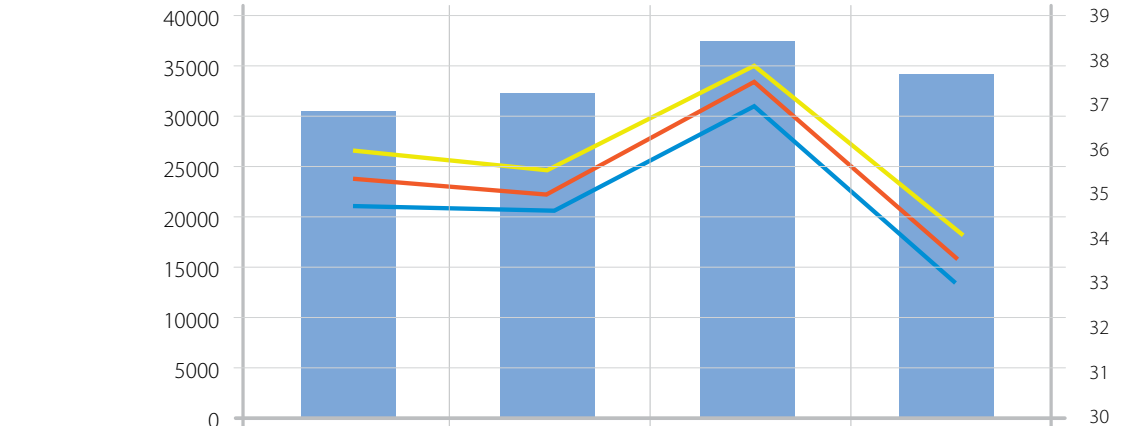


	2008	2009	2010	2011
Number of OOSC	59260	44888	28449	16117
OOSC Rate (Both sexes)	28.7	21.8	14.4	8.3
Female Rate	29.7	23	15.1	9.1
Male Rate	27.7	20.7	13.8	7.5

Source: UIS data

The number of OOSC among lower secondary school-age children had a generally declining trend as well, although it rose briefly in 2010. The rates at the lower secondary level are much higher than at the primary level, suggesting that students tend to drop out or leave school more at this level. There are more girls than boys among OOSC of lower secondary school age.

Figure 16. Rate of OOSC of Lower Secondary School-Age Children, Timor-Leste: 2008-2011 (in percent)



	2008	2009	2010	2011
Number of OOSC	31136	32284	37542	34223
OOSC Rate (Both sexes)	35.4	35.1	37.5	33.7
Female Rate	36	35.6	38	34.2
Male Rate	34.8	34.7	37	33.2

Source: UIS data

The 2010 Census in Timor-Leste had a different estimate, however, with around a quarter of primary school-age children (6-11 years) who either never attended school (23%) or who had left school (2%). At the pre-secondary school age (12-15 years), approximately 15% are not attending school while 85% are in school but mostly attending primary school. The EPDC estimated that 18% of children of official primary school age are out of school.

Gender Disparity

The data from the UIS and from the EMIS data of Timor-Leste (cited in EFA Review Timor-Leste, 2015) have presented conflicting pictures about the gender situation in school enrolment and non-attendance in schools. While the UIS data show that females tend to outnumber males among those who are not enrolled in the formal primary level system, the EMIS data suggest that a higher number of OOSC can be found among males, particularly starting 2010. The GPI for NER, AIR, and NIR have become slightly more in favor of girls beginning 2010. Dropout rates also tend to be higher among boys at the primary level. Another study saw that the participation of girls start to decline after completing the compulsory basic education (UNICEF and MOF, 2014). This is attributed to gender-based violence within and outside schools, as well as early marriage and pregnancy among adolescent girls.

Rural-based Children

The majority of the Timorese population lives in rural areas (70%), with most of the urban population concentrated in the capital, Dili (18%) (NSD and UNFPA, 2012a). Despite having a smaller proportion, urban areas tend to provide better quality education than their rural counterparts. The 2010 census data show that a third (more than 32%) of children in rural areas are not in school, compared to 20% in urban areas. More than 26% of these rural-based children have never attended school relative to the 11% of the urban-based children (NSD and UNFPA, 2012a). According to another estimate, however, using 2009 household survey data, the out-of-school rate in rural and urban areas are 30% and 20%, respectively (UIS). The EPDC's calculation using the DHS dataset in 2009, on the other hand, is only 20% for rural and 13% for urban communities. In spite of their disparity, all these figures suggest, though, that rural-based children are more likely to be out of school.

Aside from gender and geographical factors, out-of-school children in Timor-Leste, as elsewhere in the region, are also likely to come from the lowest income quintile, children with disabilities, and those involved in child labour.

Children from Poor Households

A strong link between school attendance and household economic status has been established in the 2009-2010 Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey (NSD, et al, 2010). Non-attendance in primary school tends to be far higher in the lowest wealth quintile (40.6%) than in the highest quintile (18%). There are slight differences between boys and girls in terms of attendance. However, among the poorest households, there is a slightly higher tendency for girls to attend school than for boys (GPI = 1.09).

The trend is similar at the secondary level (12-17 years), with children from the poorest households (28.1%) less likely to attend school, compared to those from richest ones (66.7%). It is quite evident from all GPI rates that girls tend to stay in school more than boys upon reaching secondary level. This seems to conflict with the finding of UNICEF and the Ministry of Finance in 2014 suggesting that girls' participation start to weaken after completion of compulsory basic education.

Children with Disabilities

There are no reliable data regarding those who have dropped out or are unenrolled among children with disabilities at the school or community level. However, a national disability survey conducted in 2008 revealed a national prevalence of 1.02% of primary school students with disabilities in Timor-Leste, which if compared to the global prevalence of 10% and assumed to apply to Timor-Leste, could mean that a large percentage of school-age children with disabilities are not attending school (Plan International, 2008). Either they dropped out of school or have never enrolled in school as a result of the challenges associated with their disabilities.

Based on the 2010 Census, only 59% of the children aged 6-14 with disabilities were attending school (NSD & UNFPA, 2012b). The rate of children with disabilities who tend to have never attended school is 34% compared to 20% of all the other children.

Table 31. Children with Disabilities Aged 6-14, Timor-Leste: 2010				
	All children aged 6-14		Children with disability aged 6-14	
In-school	198,566	77.40%	1,447	59.20%
Left school	6,331	2.50%	80	3.30%
Never attended school	49,987	19.50%	889	36.40%
Don't know	1,642	0.60%	28	1.10%
Total	256,526	100.00%	2,444	100.00%

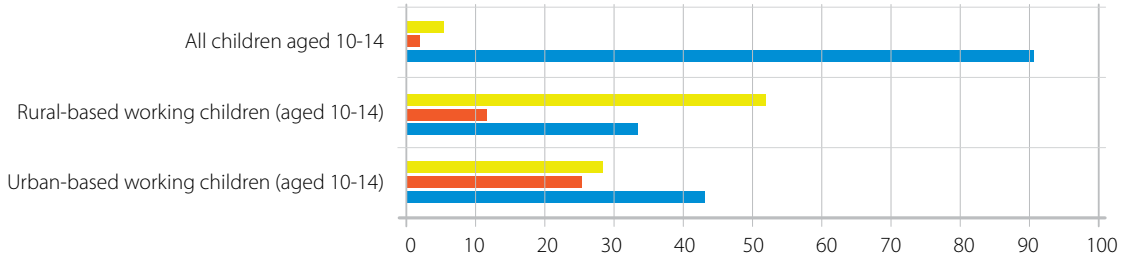
Source: 2010 Timor-Leste Population and Housing Census (NSD and UNFPA, 2012)

Child Labourers

The 2010 Census showed that there were more than 8,000 working children aged between 10 and 14 in Timor-Leste. The 2007 Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSLS) estimated that 18% of children were involved in child labour (cited in Guarcello, et al, 2014). Most of them were boys (58%) (NSD and UNFPA, 2012). A majority were found in the rural areas (93%). There are more working children in the 12-14 age range than in the 7-11 group (TLSLS, 2007, as cited in Guarcello, et al, 2014). Only a little over a third of the working children are in school (35%), as compared to 92% of all children aged 10 to 14. Among those in rural areas, there is no significant difference between girls and boys.

Among 7-14-year-old children, only a small proportion of the working children are attending school. Among those who are out of school, 37.3% are child labourers. The OOSC rate of child workers is higher among child labourers than among other children. Data show that most of the work in which these out-of-school child labourers engage are economic activity that are exclusive of household chores. Disaggregating by gender, though, it has been seen that household chores tend to be performed more among out-of-school girls, which is in line with stereotypical gender roles associating such kinds of work with females.

Figure 17. Working Children Aged 10-14 Who Currently Attend School by Urban/Rural Location, Timor-Leste: 2010 (in percent)



	Urban-based working children (aged 10-14)	Rural-based working children (aged 10-14)	All children aged 10-14
Never Attended School	29	53	6
Left School	26	12	2
In-School	44	34	92

Source: 2010 Timor-Leste Population and Housing Census (NSD and UNFPA, 2012)

VIETNAM

Since 2000, Vietnam has advanced considerably in education as a national priority. By 2012-2013, the net enrollment rate (NER) for primary education was 98.31%, while NER for lower secondary education reached 88.04% (EFA Review Vietnam, 2015). After nearly a decade and a half, the government continues its commitment to Education for All. However, there is still a pressing need to step up its efforts and seek out children who are excluded from the education system, especially children with disabilities, those belonging to ethnic minorities, and migrants.

The report "Out-Of-School Children in Viet Nam: A Country Study"[12] provides a comprehensive statistical profile of primary and lower secondary school-age out-of-school children in the country (UNICEF, et al, 2013). The following findings are culled from the aforementioned study.

The total primary school-age population reached 6.35 million, while the number of children of lower secondary age was 5.47 million. OOSC in primary education was 3.97% of the total group population (TGP), or 262,648 children. In lower secondary education, the number of OOSC was nearly three times that of students in primary education at 688,849 children, or 11.17%. Overall, close to a million (951,497) children in primary and lower secondary education were out of school. This translates to 0.76% of the total 124 million[13] OOSC worldwide.

The number of male OOSC was consistently higher than that of the female OOSC, both in primary education (136,309 males, as opposed to 126,339 females) and lower secondary education (377,698 males in contrast to 311,152 females). Statistics show that male OOSC are higher than female OOSC across all ages, and the figure is at its highest at age 6 (for primary education) and at age 14 (for lower secondary education). Noticeably, the percentage of OOSC increased dramatically as age increased in lower secondary education.

Table 32. OOSC Rates in Primary and Lower Secondary Education by Age, Sex, Vietnam: 2009

	Male		Female		Total	
PRIMARY EDUCATION	**Ratio**	**Number**	**Ratio**	**Number**	**Ratio**	**Number**
6	7.21	48,256	7.35	45,379	7.28	93,635
7	2.81	19,304	2.82	18,012	2.81	37,316
8	2.59	19,559	2.62	18,007	2.60	37,566
9	3.26	21,735	3.30	19,773	3.23	41,508
10	4.12	27,455	4.14	25,167	4.13	52,622
Total	**3.96**	**136,309**	**3.99**	**126,339**	**3.97**	**262,648**
LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION						
11	5.53	41,237	5.20	35,526	5.37	76,763
12	8.47	65,278	8.27	58,987	8.37	124,265
13	12.99	108,989	11.52	89,185	12.29	198,175
14	18.99	162,193	16.20	127,453	17.65	289,646
Total	**11.77**	**377,698**	**10.52**	**311,152**	**11.17**	**688,849**

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013)

12 UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific Regional Office (EAPRO), the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and global working teams have provided financial and technical support for the preparation of the report. Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and Department of Planning and Finance, in coordination with UNICEF Vietnam, collaborated on finalizing the report. This report utilized data from the 2009 Timor-Leste Population and Housing Census.

13 For the school year ending in 2013

Rural-based Children

Among primary school-age children, the rate in rural areas was almost twice the rate in urban areas, at 4.5% and 2.4%, respectively. In lower secondary education, disaggregated data clearly show the stark contrast between the urban and rural populations of children with 114,934 and 573,915 of them out of school, respectively. The ratio in rural areas was 12.31%, as opposed to 7.64% in urban communities.

Children from Minority Ethnic Groups

Of the various ethnicity groups, the Mong had the highest OOSC rate in primary education at 26.5%. Notably, around one-third (32.78%) of Mong girls of primary school age did not go to school. The Tay had the lowest OOSC rate at 1.77%. The OOSC rate for the Khmer was 13.34%.

There are officially 54 ethnic groups in Vietnam, and Kinh represents 85.7% of the population. Three-fourths of the minority population of Vietnam are located in rural and remote areas, predominantly in the Northern Mountains and the Central Highlands. These areas have poor infrastructure and limited access to health care, education and other government services. While Vietnamese is the official language in Vietnam, many minority communities do not interact in Vietnamese and instead speak their own ethnic languages (McDougall, 2011).

Table 33. Out-of-School Children in Primary Education by Location and Ethnicity, Vietnam: 2009

	Male		Female		Total	
URBAN-RURAL	**Ratio**	**Number**	**Ratio**	**Number**	**Ratio**	**Number**
Urban	2.52	22,065	2.27	18,061	2.40	40,120
Rural	4.45	114,244	4.50	108,277	4.50	222,521
Ethnicity						
Kinh	2.61	73,725	2.41	62,505	2.52	136,229
Tay	1.92	1,206	1.62	979	1.77	2,184
Thai	5.23	3,607	5.70	3,712	5.46	7,319
Muong	2.78	1,343	2.36	1,055	2.58	2,399
Khmer	14.22	7,563	12.36	5,916	13.34	13,479
Mong	20.58	16,817	32.78	25,228	26.50	42,045
Other	10.52	32,047	9.49	26,945	10.02	58,992

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013)

Among the lower secondary school-age children, those from Mong and Khmer communities had the highest OOSC ratio at 41.36% (49,534 children) and 38.63% (35,880), respectively. The ethnic majority Kinh had 8.74%, which translates to 445,050 OOSC. The Tay had the lowest out-of-school rate at 6.62%. The rate of OOSC for Mong girls was higher than the rate for boys among both primary and lower secondary school-age children. Over half the Mong girls of lower secondary school age had never attended school. The Kinh and the Muong also had rates lower than the national average, at 8.74% and 9.83%, respectively.

Table 34. OOSC in Lower Secondary Education by Location and Ethnicity, Vietnam: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
URBAN-RURAL	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number
Urban	8.35	65,394	6.88	49,540	7.64	114,934
Rural	12.87	312,304	11.70	261,611	12.31	573,915
ETHNICITY						
Kinh	9.66	256,291	7.74	188,759	8.74	445,050
Tay	8.08	5,092	5.08	3,031	6.62	8,123
Thai	13.76	9,340	17.55	10,987	15.57	20,327
Muong	10.92	5,307	8.64	3,862	9.83	9,169
Khmer	39.74	18,984	37.46	16,896	38.63	35,880
Mong	28.40	17,648	55.34	31,886	41.36	49,534
Other	24.38	65,035	22.51	55,730	23.48	120,765

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013).

Children with Disabilities

A large number (11,120, or 87.10%) of children of primary school age who had disabilities were not in school, while the number of partially disabled children reached 19,316 (23.81% rate). Boys with disabilities have a higher OOSC rate than girls. For children with no disabilities, the out-of-school rate was 3.56%. In addition, less than 2% of the more than 15,000 deaf or hearing-impaired children under 6 years old receive an early education, which is vital to children's development (CNA, 2015).

Table 35. Out-of-School Children in Primary Education by Disability, Vietnam: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
DISABILITY	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number
Disabled	87.38	6,444	86.72	4,676	87.10	11,120
Partially Disabled	24.59	11,222	22.82	8,094	23.81	19,316
No Disability	3.50	118,643	3.63	113,569	3.56	232,212

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013).

The majority of children of lower secondary school age with disabilities had not had any schooling. Their out-of-school rate was very high, at 91.4%. Partially disabled children had an OOSC rate of 31%.

Table 36. OOSC in Lower Secondary Education by Disability, Vietnam: 2009						
	Male		Female		Total	
DISABILITY	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number
Disabled	91.97	7,652	90.63	5,673	91.40	13,325
Partially Disabled	32.84	17,391	28.91	13,385	31.01	30,776
No Disability	11.20	352,655	10.06	292,093	10.65	644,748

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013).

Migrant Children

In the 2011 report of an independent expert on minority issues, which was submitted to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, it was reported that about 6.6 million people migrated internally in Vietnam, most of them to urban areas. The data was from a census covering the period 2004-2009. The number is official statistics; however, it does not fully capture the reality on the ground as other estimates indicated that an overwhelming number of migrants were left uncounted by the census, and their actual number could reach up to 16 million. It has also been reported that more than 60% of internal migrants work without a formal contract, and thus have no access to social services or health insurance. They are also highly vulnerable to exclusion from a decent and adequate standard of living, education, and health (McDougall, 2011).

A UNICEF study shows that there are more OOSC among migrant children of secondary school age than of primary school age. The OOSC rate for migrant children (7.23%) at the primary level was nearly twice that of non-migrant children (3.89%). Similarly, the out-of-school rate of migrant children of secondary school age (25.72%) is much higher than the rate for children of non-migrant families (10.8%). Thus, the likelihood of not being in school is higher among migrant children.

Table 37. Out-of-School Children Rate by Migration, Vietnam: 2009

		Male		Female		Total	
	MIGRATED	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number
Primary Education	Yes	6.78	6,105	7.74	6,256	7.23	12,360
	No	3.88	130,204	3.89	120,083	3.89	250,287
Secondary Education	Yes	23.82	17,177	27.83	18,109	25.72	35,286
	No	11.49	360,521	10.13	293,043	10.84	653,564

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UIS and MOET (2013).

Note: There were data limitations in terms of migration purposes. It was often impossible to identify whether the drivers of migration involved looking for jobs in urban areas, looking for seasonal work, or were due to natural disasters.

In term of the typology of OOSC, half of the OOSC of primary school age may attend school in the future, three-tenths of the children had dropped out, and one-fifth of them will never go to school. More than eight in 10 of the OOSC of lower secondary school age had dropped out, while 15% will never be in school.

Table 38. Typology of Out-of-School Children, Vietnam: 2009

	Dropped Out	May Go To School	Will Never Attend
Primary School Age	29.5	49.9	20.7
Lower Secondary School Age	85.1	0.1	14.7

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF),), UIS and MOET (2013).

Note: According to the Conceptual and Methodological Framework on Out-of-school Children, OOSC can be divided into three groups based on their previous educational experience: attended but dropped out, never attended but will attend in the future, and will never enter school. The key point is that not all OOSC are excluded permanently from the education system.

Child Labourers

Based on the study[14] "Vietnam National Child Labour Survey 2012," undertaken by the International Labour Organization (ILO) International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour in collaboration with Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) and the General Statistics Office (GSO) of Vietnam, one-sixth (2.82 million), or 15.5% of the 18.3 million children and youth aged 5 to 17, are engaged in economic activities (ILO, 2014b). Eighty-six percent (86%) live in rural areas, two-thirds of whom belong to the 15-17 age group. Around four in 10 do not attend school (41.6%), while around 2% have never attended school.

There are 1.75 million who are categorized as child labourers[15] (9.6%). The majority are located in rural areas (85%). Most belong to the 15-17 age group (60%) and are males. More than half do not attend school (55%) and around 5% will never attend school. Approximately three in 10 (32.4%) work more than 42 hours per week on average, which consequently limits their schooling, and of these 96.2% are not in school at all.

Around 1,315 million of the 1.75 million child labourers are at risk of engagement in activities prohibited for adolescent workers or in hazardous working environments.

Stateless Children

Stateless people in Vietnam numbered around 11,000 as of December 2014. There are no data found on the number of stateless children. Based on a survey that Vietnam undertook in 2012, these stateless people are mostly residing in the border provinces of Vietnam (UNHCR, 2013). These people include former Cambodia refugees who have been residing in Vietnam for decades and Vietnamese women who have renounced their nationality and later been rendered stateless after failing to acquire new nationality. As of 2012, many of them have already been naturalized, while others are still in the process of undergoing naturalization. The 2008 Law on Vietnamese Nationality has been able to legislate provisions that allow children who were born to stateless parents with permanent residence in Vietnam or children born in Vietnam to a stateless mother with permanent residence and an unknown father, as well as abandoned children of unknown parents, to acquire citizenship.

Those people who have difficulty proving their links to a State via birth registration documents also put themselves at risk of statelessness. Around 12% have not been registered at birth, according to one estimate (Humanium, 2012). This situation is, to some extent, a result of unmarried women not registering their children out of shame or due to a wrong belief that children born out of wedlock cannot be registered. In an effort to reduce the number of stateless children, the government abolished the penalties and even extended the deadlines for registering children late.

Children who do not hold Vietnamese nationality are ineligible to enrol in government schools (IOS, n.d.).

14 The nationwide survey's respondents are households with children in the 5-17 age group, with questions designed to gain information about household members, household characteristics and accommodation arrangements. The respondents are heads of households or children aged 5-17 with permission to participate from their parents or guardians. The Vietnam National Child Labor Survey 2012 is incorporated in the GSO's annual survey on work and employment implemented during March, April and May with a sample of 50,640 households nationwide (i.e. about 16,880 households/month) Data from 41,459 children in the 5-17 age group was collected and all statistical analysis conducted by the GSO.

15 "Not all working children are identified as child laborers. Those engaged in light work for an accepted duration of time or in work excluded from the prohibition list are not child laborers. Only work classified as having a negative impact on the physical and psychological development and the dignity of children is defined as CL. Though there is no universally accepted interpretation of CL, countries worldwide generally categorize children performing work prohibited under national legislation, the worst forms of CL under ILO's Convention No.182 or in hazardous working conditions as child laborers."

V. PILLARS OF FLEXIBLE LEARNING STRATEGIES: APPROACHES FROM SEA

Flexible learning strategies (FLS), an umbrella term that encompasses initiatives such as certified non-formal education programmes, second chance education, bridge programmes/ alternative learning programmes, accelerated learning programmes, equivalency programmes, alternative delivery modes, community-based education, and others, generally

> *"represent a shift away from a piecemeal approach to provision for the educationally excluded towards more systematic, flexible and rights-based/inclusive interventions, appropriately designed to match their needs and circumstances. The objective of FLS is that, regardless of mode, duration and place of study, excluded children can acquire solid basic literacy and numeracy skills as well as the competencies and life skills required to live safe and dignified lives" (UNESCO, n.d.)"*

The use of FLS in many countries is an acknowledgment that the conventional system is no longer sufficient in addressing the educational needs, particularly of marginalized children and youth in disadvantaged communities and congested settings. Conventional schools no longer provide the means for serving specific populations or for expanding education beyond a certain point that would accommodate those who could not keep up with and are/ have been pushed out by the traditional system (Figueredo and Anzalone, 2003). In the search for strategies that will permit expanding the path to basic education for more young people, flexible learning strategies have been one of the most significant responses.

These programmes have provided education to many out-of-school children with varying degrees of success. While no one solution may be considered as the best, commonalities among the effective strategies and programmes may be deduced from studies conducted on these. Based on UNESCO's (n.d.) primer on FLS which highlighted the different characteristics and lessons to be learned from effective programmes; on another study that highlighted the features of alternative models of education in developing countries (Figueredo & Anzalone, 2003); and a literature review which compiled the standards that enhance the effectiveness of non-formal education (Blaak, Openjuru, and Zeelen, 2013 as cited in Shanker, et al, 2015), the following features may be considered as essential in the delivery of the FLS.

1. Content, delivery modes and approaches that adapt to the special circumstances and life challenges of children. Among the learning programmes discussed in this section are those that respond to the needs and adapt to the realities of street and slum children, children from ethnic groups, stateless children and migrants, and children in conflict,.
2. Promote open learning and flexible learning methods.
3. Close partnership between government's and non-government organizations/ non-state actors in support of innovative and community-based approaches.
4. Equivalency of accreditation.
5. Ease of transition between alternative (non-formal) and regular (formal) education.
6. Potential for accelerated curriculum and a curriculum that integrates basic literacy with life skills.
7. Recruit and train teachers/ facilitators from the community.
8. Monitoring and evaluation of learning.

This section shall highlight different flexible learning programmes by government, non-government organizations (NGOs), and the international community which have demonstrated the effectiveness of the aforementioned features as applied in Southeast Asia. For each feature, selected programme interventions and their aspects relevant to the feature were underscored. The programmes included in this report are:

- **Cambodia:** NFE Equivalency for Primary Education; Cambodian Volunteers for Community Development (CVCD) NFE Programme, Re-Entry Programme, and Accelerated Learning (A/L) Programme
- I**ndonesia:** "Paket A" Programme; and "Paket B" Programme;[16] Gerobak Pintar (Smart Cart)
- Lao PDR: Mobile Teacher Programme
- **Malaysia:** Sekolah Bimbingan Jalinan Kasih (SJK), Education for Refugee, Undocumented and Stateless Children in Sabah project; Education Programme for Young Prisoners and Juvenile Offenders; School in Hospital (SIH) Programme
- **Myanmar:** World Vision Myanmar NFE Programme; Scholarship for Street Kids–Myanmar (S4SK-M); Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) Programme; Extended and Continuous Education and Learning (EXCEL) Programme
- **Philippines:** K4 Programme (*Kariton Klasrum, Klinik, Kantin*) or Pushcart Classroom programme; Alternative Learning System (ALS) programmes (e.g., Indigenous Peoples Education; Arabic Language and Islamic Values [ALIVE]; Accreditation and Equivalency [A&E] Programme; Radio-based Instruction Programme; Adolescent-Friendly Literacy Enhancement Programme; ALS for Persons with Disability); Floating Schools (BRAC); Open High School Programme (OHSP); Mindanao for Youth Development (MyDEV) Project
- **Thailand:** Janusz Korczak School of Southeast Asia, Non-Formal Basic Education Programme for Stateless Children in Primary Level, Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centres, Hill Tribe School, Refugee Schools and Migrant Learning Centres
- **Timor-Leste:** National Equivalence Programme
- **Vietnam:** Non-Formal Education Programme, Complementary Programme in Primary Education

1. Adapt to the Circumstances of Children

Different alternative learning system approaches and delivery modes are needed to be able to respond to the varying needs of children in totally diverse life circumstances and challenging situations, such as street children, stateless children, migrants, and children living in conflict-afflicted areas. Such programmes may also have to tailor the content of the curriculum and learning materials depending on the educational and occupational needs of the learners. A need-specific content, delivery or approach is more attuned to the realities of the learners and the community.

For instance, the Philippines' Alternative Learning System (ALS) curriculum is designed to cater to the needs and requirements of marginalized learners, such as learners from poor households and indigenous groups, Muslim communities, victims of armed conflict, child and youth laborers, children in conflict with the law, and street children.

In Myanmar, one of their biggest challenges for the Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) programme is to be able to respond to the learning needs of children in refugee camps.

16 Paket C is the alternative equivalent programme equivalent to senior secondary level. Senior secondary level is not included in this review.

Learning Programmes for Street and Slum Children

K4 PROGRAMME – *KARITON KLASRUM, KLINIK, KANTIN*

Philippines

The increasing number and issues of street children have been grave concerns in the Philippines since the 1990s (KidsRight & Leiden University, 2012). An old but oft-cited study estimated that there are around 246,011 street children in the country, comprising 3% of the population aged 0 to 17 years old and 5% of the country's urban poor children (Lamberte, 2001). According to studies (UNESCO, 2015), a majority of the street children are boys because girls are generally expected to help younger siblings at home, are usually employed as household help, or are lured into prostitution (Silva, 2003 as cited in UNESCO, 2015).

Kariton Klasrum (pushcart classroom), which was started in the Philippines and has been replicated in Indonesia and Kenya, is an internationally acclaimed programme that caters to street children. It became internationally famous in 2009 when DTC leader Efren Peñaflorida was named the international news organization CNN's Hero of the Year. The program was further recognized in 2013 when UNESCO chose it as one of the promising initiatives in the Asia-Pacific region that have helped accelerate Education for All (EFA) progress. It began in Cavite City, in the province of Cavite, as a six-month-long, weekly educational intervention initiative conducted among street children and out-of-school youth, but has now spread to underprivileged children in other areas of the country.

The lowly *kariton* (pushcart) is a symbol of poverty and destitution in the Philippines. Many homeless families, also called street families, live in these pushcarts which serve both as their bedroom and livelihood tool as they scavenge for recyclables and junk, such as scrap metals, rubber, old newspapers, and wood.

The *Kariton Klasrum* originated in 2007 when 20 teenage members of Dynamic Teen Company (DTC) under the religious charity group Club 8586, used the *kariton* as the main tool for their K4 education and health outreach programmes. K4 stands for *Kariton* (pushcart), *Klasrum* (classroom), *Klinik* (clinic), and *Kantin* (canteen) for the street children they serve. They used the *kariton* as a means to house and transport all the learning materials, food and first-aid supplies needed by the children (UNESCO, 2015).

Pushing the *kariton* packed with books and learning materials, food, first-aid kits, and bathroom kits, the members of DTC visit street children and slums on a regular basis to bring education to the children. They provide food, learning and first-aid services without any financial burden on learners. To date, the DTC possesses four pushcarts and these have made their way to various parts of the city, particularly to areas that have a high number of street children and out-of-school youth (UNESCO, 2015).

While the K4 project provides an alternative to formal schooling, it is not envisioned as a programme that can replace traditional schools. Instead, the K4 project provides alternative learning opportunities for street children and out-of-school youth with the aim of reducing illiteracy and instilling a love of learning and with the long-term goal of encouraging them to return to formal schooling. Thus, the K4 project seeks to act as a bridge to formal education for children who have dropped out, who have never been to school, or who have lost interest in attending formal schools.

GEROBAK PINTAR (SMART CART)

Indonesia

Indonesia and the Philippines share similar problems on poverty and education. Hence, after the international recognition of *Kariton Klasru*m, the women's nongovernmental organization Yayasan Wadah Titian Harapan (Wadah), based in Klendar, East Jakarta in Indonesia, sought the help of DTC in July 2013 for implementing a similar programme (UNESCO, 2015). To prepare for the programme's launch in Jakarta, DTC volunteers conducted visits to the city and Wadah volunteers went to Manila for training with DTC.

They named the programme *Gerobak Pintar* (Smart Cart), modeled after *Kariton Klasrum*. It aims to ensure literacy among urban poor children who do not have the resources and opportunity to go to school. It also seeks to promote community awareness and appreciation of the importance of education for disadvantaged children.

Gerobak Pintar also provides skills training for parents, in addition to education, health and food supplement services. As a women's organization, Wadah was also able to provide education on livelihood and proper child rearing to mothers in the community.

Wadah volunteers first facilitate a learning programme in a community for three months, then transfer facilitation to the community itself. Wadah will continue to supervise the community and help mobilize support from donors. Among its donors is the Rotary Club of South Jakarta.

JANUSZ KORCZAK SCHOOL OF SOUTHEAST ASIA (MERCY CENTRE)

Thailand

Thailand had faced difficulties in educating certain groups of slum children. These groups include older street children who lag behind their peers and have little or no confidence in their own intellectual skills, as well as academically motivated poor children who find it difficult to advance within the formal Thai education system (HDF Mercy Centre, 2008).

The Janusz Korczak School of Southeast Asia was established by a Catholic priest from the US, Father Joseph Maier, in 2004 in memory of the influential Polish educator Janusz Korczak.[17] It aims to provide education to street children, orphans and illiterate adults in the slums of Bangkok, as well as poor children who cannot attend formal schools because of their personal circumstances, such as children living with physical or emotional disabilities. The learning sessions include reading, writing, and arts (music, drawing, dance and woodworking). The school caters to the poorest children through its Mercy Kindergarten and its adjacent orphanage, The Mercy Centre.

In 2006, the school expanded its arts and music learning sessions for all children living in the Mercy Centre. In 2007, the school's mission expanded further to include literacy courses and primary and secondary school equivalency trainings for adults in the slums who have not attended or completed basic schooling.

17 "Janusz Korczak was a Polish-Jewish educator and pediatrician who introduced progressive orphanages into Poland, trained teachers in what is now called moral education, and pioneered the legal rights of children everywhere. During the Nazi occupation of Poland, his Jewish orphanage was removed to the Warsaw Ghetto. Korczak refused an offer of help for his own safety. Months later, he and his children walked together in quiet dignity to the train bound for Treblinka, where they perished." (http://www.mercycentre.org/en/education/the-janusz-korczak-school)

SEKOLAH BIMBINGAN JALINAN KASIH (SBJK)

Malaysia

Sekolah Bimbingan Jalinan Kasih (SBJK), which first opened in 2013 in Kuala Lumpur, is an alternative educational programme for abandoned and street children in Malaysia aged 5 to 18 years old who are unable to pursue or continue their education (EFA Review Malaysia, 2015). The programme serves children who are thwarted from accessing education due to poverty, unhealthy social life, family issues, and lack of legal identification document. It is being implemented by the Ministry of Education (MoE) in partnership with the Social Welfare Department, National Security Council and NGOs such as the Nur Salam Foundation and Chow Kit Foundation.

The school offers a modified national curriculum blended with vocational elements, and is run by teachers who have been trained by the MoE (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015b). The school is also supported by counselors who provide motivation and guidance. The children use textbooks and other learning materials provided by the MoE. The whole programme is financially supported by the MoE (Yufus and Norfariza, 2012). It is expected to be rolled out nationwide in stages.

WORLD VISION MYANMAR'S NON-FORMAL EDUCATION (NFE)

Myanmar

In Myanmar, one non-formal education programme for out-of-school children and youth is the World Vision (WV) Myanmar's Non-Formal Education (NFE) Programme. Started in 1997, the programme "provides second chance learning opportunities for children aged 8 to 18 years who have not been to school before, children who dropped out of primary education, and children who cannot access the formal school system," using a curriculum that includes basic Myanmar language classes and basic mathematics (UNESCO Bkk, 2015). Through the program, the children hopes to attain functional literacy, numeracy and essential life skills, and for those above 13 years old, pre-vocational skills. To date, nearly 3,000 out-of-school children per year benefit from studying at 99 NFE centers located in 25 townships in four Regions (Yangon, Mandalay, Ayeyarwady, and Tanintharyi) and two States (Mon and Kayin).

SCHOLARSHIP FOR STREET KIDS – MYANMAR (S4SK-M)

Myanmar

The Scholarship for Street Kids – Myanmar (S4SK-M), a registered charity in the United Kingdom, implements a project that is helping about 200 children and young people through the provision of non-formal education for the very poor and out-of-school children. The programme includes further education for learners through scholarships in vocational training centers and colleges. Myanmar and the UK both advise and raise funds to support the work of S4SK-M (Scholarship for Street Kids – Myanmar, n.d.).

The target learners for the programme are children scavenging and begging in the streets, orphans, and young people from poor homes who do not have the resources to progress their education. They are selected by NFE teachers in cooperation with community leaders. S4SK also provides a support package for learners, which comprises of school uniforms, satchels, stationery and the requisite donation to the school. Raincoats are also provided to the learners during the rainy season as part of the effort to care for the health of the children.

S4SK-M's aim is to help children who have completed the non-formal education course to achieve the basic learning competencies equivalent to the primary level. The curriculum includes literacy, numeracy and life-skills. It also includes music and aesthetic values. Handicraft skills are included in the curriculum to serve as a bridge to serious vocational training later.

In January 2014, under its Basic Literacy and Income Generating Activities Project, S4SK-M was able to provide primary education, including life skills and handicraft skills, to 96 street children aged 8-15 in the Yangon and Bago regions through 13 non-formal education classes (EFA 2015 National Review Report, 2015).

Learning Programmes for Ethnic Groups

ALTERNATIVE LEARNING SYSTEMS – INDIGENOUS PEOPLES EDUCATION

Philippines

The Indigenous Peoples Education in the Philippines, implemented by the Bureau of Alternative Learning Systems (BALS) of the Department of Education, primarily aims to provide basic education support to the indigenous peoples' (IPs) communities. This program aims to address the learning needs and aspirations of the IPs through a contextualized, culture-sensitive and rights-based curriculum that is anchored on the five (5) learning strands of the ALS curriculum. The core areas of the IP curriculum include family life; health, sanitation and nutrition; civic consciousness; economics and income; and environment. It includes learning sessions on the need for the protection of ancestral domains and IP family life.

FLOATING SCHOOLS (BRAC)

Philippines

The Floating Schools operated by the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) Floating Learning Center in Barangay (village) Lamion brings education to the Badjao and Sama children in Mindanao.

The Badjaos, known as the "Sea Gypsies" of the Sulu and Celebes Sea, live mainly on the coastal areas of Tawi-Tawi, Sulu, Basilan and other coastal municipalities of Zamboanga del Sur in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM). They live on houseboats and make their livelihood primarily as deep sea divers, navigators and expert fishers. (Peralta, 2002 as cited in Ethnic Groups of the Philippines).

Patterned after the BRAC's Boat School Project in Bangladesh, these floating schools are considered more culturally appropriate for the Badjao and Samao people who tend not to socialize much with those from other more dominant Moro tribes (Alipala and Manlupig, 2014).

In June 2014, the BRAC Floating Learning Center was established with the help of Australian aid through Basic Education Assistance for Mindanao (BEAM) and the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao's Department of Education (DepEd). The Alternative Delivery Model project component is being implemented by BRAC Philippines for Muslim Mindanao. The ARMM, the DepEd and BRAC Philippines organized a fleet of seven floating schools which were delivered to seven villages in Basilan, Sulu and Tawi-Tawi provinces to cater to at least 200 Badjao and Sama children (Alipala and Manlupig, 2014).

Learning Programmes for Stateless Children and Migrants

ARABIC LANGUAGE AND ISLAMIC VALUES (ALIVE) in ALS

Philippines

The Arabic Language and Islamic Values Education (ALIVE) in ALS is a learning intervention for Muslim out-of-school children, youth, and adults who migrated to other places due to peace and order problems in their communities of origin. It uses Arabic as the language of instruction in order to address their learners' need to be able to read and understand the teachings of Koran and to practice Islamic values in their daily life. The programme also aims to inculcate love for their own culture, religion, and language. The programme's learning components includes Basic Literacy Programme + ALIVE; Accreditation & Equivalency (A&E) Programme + ALIVE; Informal Education + ALIVE; Technical Vocational Education Programme + ALIVE; and Entrepreneurship Development + ALIVE (DepEd, n.d.). The Imams and Asatidz serve as the facilitators/ instructional managers.

NON-FORMAL BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR STATELESS CHILDREN AT PRIMARY LEVEL

Thailand

Although all children, regardless of status, should be able to attend school under Thai law, the stateless children and children of migrants tend not to be in school due to a number of barriers that prevent them from accessing such opportunities. Among these challenges are language barriers, financial constraints, and lack of awareness of existing services (SC and WE, 2014).

Thailand's Non-Formal Basic Education Programme for Stateless Children at Primary Level employs the non-formal curriculum of Basic Education (B.E.) 2551 with flexible time schedules of three to four days every week based on the readiness of the learning centre. The curriculum has flexible contents on literacy and life skills. The instructors in the local learning centres can communicate in the children's vernacular language. The programme is expected to instill literacy among stateless children and reduce the risk of child labour.

BURMESE MIGRANT WORKERS' EDUCATION COMMITTEE (BMWEC) LEARNING CENTERS

Thailand

Discrimination, fear of deportation, indirect costs of schooling and language barriers have kept thousands of migrant Burmese families living in western Thailand from sending their children to public schools (CEI, n.d.). Meanwhile, only around 40-60% of primary school-age children among Burmese migrants are enrolled in areas where there are learning centers easily accessed by Burmese migrants. On the other hand, only 10-20% of their children are enrolled in schools in areas where a migrant learning center is not present (CEI, n.d.).

The Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC), a community-based organization, was established to address the educational needs of these children and prepare the latter for a future in either Myanmar, Thailand, or a third country. The BMWEC learning centers, first launched in 2000, aimed to provide education for thousands of migrant youth and internally displaced persons (IDPs) living along the Thai-Burmese border. There is a network of 25 BMWEC learning centers, including 16 early childhood and primary learning centers, which BMWEC operates. An additional network of 13 associate member Internally Displaced People (IDP) schools in Karen State likewise benefit from the administrative and professional support being provided by BMWEC.

EDUCATION FOR REFUGEE, UNDOCUMENTED AND STATELESS CHILDREN IN SABAH

Malaysia

The Education for Refugee, Undocumented and Stateless Children in Sabah project targets the provision of basic education to out-of-school children who are mainly refugees from the Philippines in Sabah, Malaysia. For this initiative, UNICEF – together with the Ministry of Education, Sabah Special Task Force, Teacher Foundation, and various communities – established the Education Centre in Kampung Numbak, Kota Kinabalu, and Sabah on 3 January 2011. The program follows the national curriculum, with particular emphasis on reading, writing, arithmetic, Islamic Studies and life skills. Since 90% of the children are unable to read or write, pre- and post-Literacy and Numeracy screening (LINUS) tests are administered to monitor their progress.

As of 2012, it was able to provide basic education for more than 300 refugee and undocumented children (Yunus and Norfariza, 2012). Other alternative learning centers (ALCs) have been established in different parts of Sabah, many of which cater to Filipino undocumented children in Sabah who have no access to education. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) that was signed between Malaysia and the Philippines in 2013 helped facilitate the cooperation in this area (DepEd, 2014).

Learning Programmes for Children in Conflict

REFUGEE SCHOOLS IN THAILAND

Along the Thai-Burma border lies a number of refugee camps housing refugees mostly from the Karen and Karenni states in Myanmar where conflicts between the military and ethnic armed groups frequently occur (Lwin, n.d.). Insurgency and counter-insurgency activities in these areas has often disrupted the schooling of the children. Being in the refugee camps has not made quality education easier to access. To help address the situation, local and international organizations and community-based organizations (CBOs), with approval from the Royal Thai government, have supported the education within these camps (Oh, 2010). The education system is managed and administered by the Karen Refugee Committee Education Entity (KRCEE), with assistance from NGOs and CBOs (Gross, 2011). Some of the major NGO supporters include ZOA (a Dutch NGO), Consortium (an American NGO) and the Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS). However, the Royal Thai government retains overall authority over the education system while the National Security Council (NSC), the Ministry of Interior (MOI), and the Ministry of Education (MOE) decide on the policies related to education services (Oh, 2010).

The refugees themselves are proactive in setting up and operating these schools with the help of external organizations and with principals, teachers, school staff and camp education committee members coming from the communities. Such set-up is partly because foreigners are restricted from living in the camps. It has resulted therefore in a high level of community ownership over the education system established (Oh, 2010).

There are around 70 schools in the Karen camps staffed by 80 head teachers and 1600 teachers handling 34,000 students (Oh, 2010). At the start of a school year, the number of students tends to be higher as young people from Myanmar cross the border and enter refugee camps to seek for opportunities to get an education (Lwin, 2006). The Karen Education Department and the Karenni Education Department designed their own curriculum based on their own history and values. Pre-school, general education, post-secondary schooling and vocational and adult education are available in the camps.

2. Promote Flexibility and Open Learning

Flexibility is a core concept of flexible learning strategies. The effectiveness of these programmes hinges much on their ability to be flexible in "time, period, curriculum, pedagogy, venue and languages (UNESCO Bkk, n.d.)." UNESCO's manual on equivalency programmes (1993) explains that one of the ideal characteristics of an equivalency programme is to be "open in terms of admission, age, place, and pace." The more recent term 'open learning' was adopted to refer to approaches that minimize the barriers to learning, such as time, place, method of study, curriculum content, or any combination of these (UNICEF, 2009).[18] Thus time, place, duration, and mode of delivery are not pre-established factors but tend to be open in order to respond to the diverse and unique learning needs of the learners, particularly those who are disadvantaged and excluded from the formal system. Organizational arrangements should allow learners the flexibility to learn at a place and time more suited to their particular conditions. Pedagogies need to motivate and be tailored to students' learning styles.

Strategies may include the use of communication technologies (e.g., radio) that can be effective as supplementary tools in providing distance learning for people living in the farthest, hard-to-reach areas, especially indigenous people and mobile populations. It also makes learning more fun and interesting while expanding access to education.

The street and slum children at the Janusz Korczak School of Southeast Asia in Thailand receive individualized instructions and personalized curricula. The Philippines' Alternative Learning System (ALS), recognized for its innovation in providing education for the out-of-school youth through the 2000 UNESCO NOMA Literacy Award, also demonstrates a flexible approach to non-formal education as seen in the table below.

18 Myanmar. National Education Sector Plan 2016-2021. Comprehensive Education Sector Review Phase 3. p. 9

Table 39. Philippines' Alternative Learning System's Flexible Delivery of NFE	
NFE Aspect	**Rules**
Place	• Community Learning Centre • Any place convenient to the learner (homes, under shades of trees, inside mosque or church, playground • Any available space and venue
Curriculum and Assessment	• More life skill-based than academic-focused curriculum • Traditional and authentic assessment methods for formative assessment • National equivalency exam for certification
Age	• Not prescribed. Communities can learn together
Materials	• Facilitators are encouraged to develop supplementary learning materials that suit the local need and context and are locally available • Contextualized curriculum and materials for indigenous peoples and Muslim learners are available
Methods	• Self-driven modules • Modules for basic and elementary level learners come with Facilitators' Guides • Modules for advanced elementary and secondary levels designed for self-learning

Source: Panaligan, S, (2013)

OPEN HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM (OHSP)

Philippines

The Philippine Department of Education Open High School Program (OHSP) caters to children who cannot attend the regular secondary level (high school) programme due to problems with time, distance, physical disability, financial difficulties, and social and family constraints. The four objectives of OHSP are as follows: (1) afford all elementary graduates, high school dropouts, and successful examinees of the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT) a chance to complete secondary education; (2) avert school-leaving by offering an alternative delivery mode to encourage potential high school dropouts to finish secondary education; (3) maintain and/or increase participation rate and thereby reduce the number of high school dropouts; and (4) increase achievement rate in secondary schooling through quality distance education (DepEd, 2008).

Its most important feature – "independent, self-pacing and flexible study" (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015a) – has made it as one of the country's important strategies in keeping potential dropouts in school and in persuading out-of-school adolescents to return to high school. All public and private secondary schools can apply to adopt the programme, which is open to "Filipino learners who can demonstrate a capacity for independent learning and are willing to undertake self-directed learning (DepEd, 2008)."

Its flexible programme delivery procedure enables learners to come to school once or twice a week according to a schedule jointly agreed with the subject area teacher for face-to-face interaction and evaluation of competencies. Subject areas with required hands-on experiences, such as physical education, music, computer, and science laboratory are scheduled on an individual basis. During the first half of the school year, meetings with teachers are more frequent (at least weekly) to ascertain that students are engaged in independent learning. Once the students develop their own pace of working independently, the frequency of meetings may be decreased to monthly meetings in the second half of the school year (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015a).

The learning plan is also flexible, based on the learning plan of the student. With the assistance and guidance of the subject teacher, the learners identify their learning needs and prepares their self-directed learning plan. The students will then implement their individual self-learning plans. The teacher-adviser helps learners gain access to learning materials/resources; guides the learners in their self-directed learning tasks; and tracks their progress (DepEd, 2008).

An OHSP class must not exceed 20 learners at a time so that teachers can attend to each learner who each has his or her own study programme. Schools are encouraged to use blended learning approaches as much as possible. They also need to assist the OHSP students as they access available learning resources (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015a).

The evaluation of learning in each subject may include written and oral tests and the assessment of required outputs. The student's promotion is based on the fulfillment of requirements and mastery of at least 75% of the competencies in each subject area. A learner may be retained in the program for a maximum period of six years, but may opt to be mainstreamed in the regular programme anytime within the period of study. Acceleration by learning area and by year level may occur in highly meritorious cases, i.e., upon fulfillment of the requirements and mastery of at least 90% of the competencies in the subject area (DepEd, 2008).

As of 2013, some 500 public high schools were offering the OHSP programme (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015a). Based on a survey of 155 schools, OHSP enrolment increased to over 15,000 in SY 2012-13 for grades 7 to 10 from over 2,500 students in SY 2008-2009. This number included some students who enrolled in Grade 11 under the Senior High School modeling programme of the Department of Education (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015a).

SCHOOL IN HOSPITAL (SIH) PROGRAMME

Malaysia

The School in Hospital (SIH) is one of Malaysia's innovative programmes for reaching marginalized children with health conditions. It aims to provide educational services for children and adolescents who are hospitalized or being treated for more than three days. It was established to ensure that continuous learning can be done in a systematic manner inside hospitals by providing an environment conducive for teaching and learning to ensure the readiness of children and adolescents even while they are being treated (Yunus and NorFariza, 2012).

The Malaysia Ministry of Education (MoE), Ministry of Health (MoH) and Nurul Yakin Foundation (NYF) have collaborated on the design and implementation of this programme. The MoE appoints and trains all teachers for the SIH programme. The MoE also provides the textbooks and other learning materials, as well as internet access. The MoH provides the space for the classes. The non-government organization NYF provides other learning tools that may be needed such as laptops, softwares, and additional reading materials (EFA Review Malaysia, 2015). Volunteers from non-governmental organizations coordinated by NYF also serve as teachers. The programme, whose budget is provided by the MoE and MoH, uses fun, engaging and flexible delivery of a modified national curriculum. The assessment and monitoring of the programme are conducted periodically.

The SIH programme started being implemented in 2011 as a pilot test in the Pediatric Institute of Kuala Lumpur Hospital, Ampang Hospital and Serdang Hospital. As of 2015, there are eight hospitals involved in the programme which is expected to eventually become a common feature in all state hospitals across the country (EFA Review Malaysia, 2015; Yufus and NorFariza, 2012).

ALS – Radio-based Instruction Programme

Philippines

The Philippines' Alternative Learning System (ALS) programmes are delivered in various modes, including radio-based and computer-based learning. These multimedia tools activate multi-sensory learning and help both ALS teachers and learners access new information and technology (DepEd, n.d.b). By adapting the learning materials to the various delivery methods such as mobile teaching, clan teaching, radio, TV, and digitized modules, learners in remote areas get to be reached.

The Radio-Based Instruction (RBI) Programme is one of the ALS programmes for illiterates and dropouts of formal elementary and secondary level. It is an alternative learning delivery mode that uses local community radio and other modes of broadcasts to deliver ALS programmes. The ALS implementers transform the core learning modules into radio scripts for public broadcast (BALS, n.d.a). By broadcasting these lessons, it is able to provide learning opportunities to listeners that would allow the latter to acquire equivalency in basic education. As a form of distance learning, the programme is able to expand access to education by bringing it to where learners are.

3. Partnership between Government and NGOs/ Non-State Actors

The government agencies implementing flexible learning programmes should be able to build close partnership with nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The coordinating and collaboration mechanisms should allow for the government's support or adoption of successful community-based approaches and models by NGOs and community-based organizations. National or local policy support is also crucial for private sector/civil society initiatives or collaborations to thrive creatively and effectively.

ALTERNATIVE LEARNING SYSTEM (ALS)

Philippines

The Philippines Alternative Learning System (ALS), implemented by the Department of Education (DepEd) through the Bureau of Alternative Learning System (BALS), is either DepEd-delivered, DepEd-procured, or DepEd partners-delivered (DepEd, n.d.b).

The DepEd-delivered ALS programmes are those directly carried out by the ALS mobile teachers and District ALS coordinators. The DepEd-procured programmes are those contracted by DepEd to service providers such as non-government organizations, other government agencies and literacy volunteers. Contracted service providers are expected to adhere to DepEd ALS guidelines and quality standards. They are selected through a competitive procurement process.

In addition to DepEd-financed programmes through service contracting, there are also DepEd Partners-delivered programmes which are implemented by non-DepEd organizations such as local government units (LGUs), non-government organizations (NGOs) and other government organizations (GOs), international donor agencies, and church-based groups. These organizations carry out the programmes using their own resources or supported by other donors.

K4 PROGRAM – *KARITON, KLASRUM, KLINIK, KANTIN*

Philippines

The Philippines' Department of Education (DepEd) signed a Memorandum of Agreement (MOA) with the Dynamic Teen Company (DTC) in August 2011 on the DepEd's adoption of the *Kariton Klasrum* model that would allow the expansion of the programme to other cities and districts in the country. The partnership between DepEd and the DTC has demonstrated how an NGO-initiated programme can be upscaled on a nationwide level with the support of the government, as well as the private sector, other NGOs and individuals.

Under this partnership, the tasks of the DepEd include the following: (1) acknowledge DTC as an organization providing ALS, alternative delivery modalities (ADM) and tutorial programmes using its own curriculum, approved by the DepEd, as well as DepEd-implemented curricula; (2) train DTC volunteer teachers and learning facilitators; (3) provide initial sets of teaching-learning materials to the trained teachers and facilitators; (4) work with the DTC on the ongoing review and enhancement of the existing DTC curriculum, modules and instructional materials; (5) accept test registrants among learners of DTC in the acceleration schemes provided by DepEd (e.g., A&E test); and (6) implement a massive advocacy campaign (UNESCO, 2015).

The obligations of the DTC include: (1) conduct programme intervention using the ALS curriculum and ADM modalities; 2) increase the capacity of the volunteers, teachers and facilitators; 3) participate in monitoring and evaluation exercises; 4) submit progress and other types of reports to the DepEd as required; and 5) share best practices in the various interventions implemented for replication (UNESCO, 2015).

This programme was initially replicated in Negros Occidental province and in a number of cities in the Metro Manila area. The programmes were implemented through the cooperation of DepEd's Bureau of Elementary Education, the Bureau of Secondary Education, and the Bureau on Alternative Learning Systems together with the local city and barangay (village) officials. The local government units prepare the pushcarts based on the design forwarded by DepEd.

In the replication sites, classes were also held on Saturdays – similar to the original model implemented by DTC – when the volunteer teachers did not have classes in their formal schools. The programme adopted the original two-hour class period of *Kariton Klasrum*, as well as its canteen and clinic components. As in the original programme design, food is served at the end of the two-hour class period and children with wounds and illnesses were given treatment.

The government also encouraged other private groups and local government units to replicate the programme. Some academic institutions provided services and scholarships, and some companies donated school supplies, food and cash. International organizations, such as SEAMEO INNOTECH, provided technical assistance for some aspects of the programme. An international bank gave a grant for the purchase of some equipment. Many private individuals have also contributed supplies, food and expertise (e.g. medical) to the programme (UNESCO, 2015)

The Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) also partnered with DTC for its Modified Conditional Cash Transfer (MCCT) programme, an offshoot of the government's flagship poverty alleviation program which specifically caters to the homeless and street families (UNESCO, 2015).

NON-FORMAL BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR MIGRANT AND STATELESS CHILDREN

Thailand

Thailand's Non-Formal Basic Education Programme for Stateless Children at Primary Level is implemented by the Office of Non-Formal and Informal Education in cooperation with the Thai Health Promotion Foundation, Help Without Frontiers Foundation Thailand, and Foundation for Rural Youth. It serves stateless children in Chiang Rai Province, Tak Province, Samut Sakorn Province, Ranong Province and Phang-Nga Province. Most of the students drop out of formal schools because of language problems and the need to work (Lakkum, 2015).

In Ranong Province, Thailand, 13 Learning Centres (LCs) for migrants and stateless children were set up to cater to the migrants from Myanmar. While the LCs serve a number of limited areas, the number of attendees is not restricted. It is estimated that among the 10,000 migrants from Myanmar based in the Ranong province, 4,000 were registered while 6,000 were still unaccounted for (Aungkyimyint, 2013).

A non-governmental organization (NGO), which reports to the government's Ranong Education Department, supervises and funds a particular LC. The Department has the ultimate responsibility for migrant education. Since 2012, the NGOs were required to register the LCs (Aungkyimyint, 2013). Among the NGOs implementing literacy programmes for migrants and stateless children in Ranong Province are Lotus Pond Learning Centre, Victoria Learning Centre, Soi Seven Learning Centre, and Ranong Thani Learning Centre (Lakkum, 2015). The sponsor NGOs provide some financial and in-kind support. Together with the MOE, these groups also provide technical training. It is the parents' contributions though which make up the most significant source of funding. The parents also spearhead the conduct of community activities like dance classes and study trips (Aungkyimyint, 2013).

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (NFPE) PROGRAMME

Myanmar

The Non-Formal Primary Education Programme is is an accelerated two-year primary education course offered to 10-14 year olds who have missed out on opportunities to complete formal primary education or who have never attended school. Developed in 1998 by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with UNESCO and UNDP, the programme got revived in 2008 (EFA Review 2015). UNESCO experts assisted educators from the then Myanmar Education Research Bureau (MERB), the Department of Educational Planning and Training (DEPT), and Yangon Institute of Education (YIOE) in the development of teaching-learning materials (MOE, 2011). Since 2010-2011, it is being run by the Myanmar Literacy Resource Centre (MLRC)[19], and strongly supported by United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the MOE, and local donors. Among the 80 townships that participated in the NFPE in AY 2013-14, a total of 16 were supported by the MOE, 35 by UNICEF, 27 by local donors, and 2 by community members of two townships (EFA Review 2015).

EDUCATION FOR REFUGEE, UNDOCUMENTED AND STATELESS CHILDREN IN SABAH PROJECT

Malaysia

Malaysia's Ministry of Education designed the Education for Refugee, Undocumented and Stateless Children in Sabah project in collaboration with the Teacher Foundation, Sabah Special Task Force and community leaders. Community leaders were involved in the planning of the learning center.

19 MLRC is a non-government organization founded in 2000 that aimed to promote literacy activities in Myanmar.

Members of the community worked together to build the school building in the spirit of *gotong-royong*, or volunteerism. This gave a sense of community ownership to local stakeholders (Yunus and Norfariza, 2012).

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME

Vietnam

The Non-Formal Education Programme of Vietnam has among its aims the development of basic education skills among out-of-school The Vietnamese Government manages its Non-Formal Education (NFE) programme through its ministries and committees. The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) implements the literacy, post-literacy and continuing education under the programme (Lam, 2007).

In 2003, the Government created Provincial Education for All (EFA) Task Forces composed of representatives of Provincial People's Committees, selected District People's Committees, Provincial Department of Education, selected Bureaus of Education, and other stakeholders at provincial, district and commune level. Provincial EFA Planning Units were also created which report to both the Department of Education and the People's Committees. The National EFA Committee (NEFAC) oversees the NFE implementation process and coordinates the different ministries involved in the implementation of EFA. (Lam, 2007).

Social organizations also help the government implement NFE at the national, provincial and grassroots levels. Among these are the Vietnam Fatherland Front, the Vietnam Confederation of Labour, the Vietnam Farmers Association, the Vietnam Women's Association and the Ho Chi Minh Youth Union (Lam, 2007).

4. Equivalency of Accreditation

To improve the quality of life of people and promote equal opportunity for every citizen, alternative learning programmes should run parallel to the formal system and should be recognized as equal to the formal systems. ALS learners should be free from discrimination; their learning outcomes, life skills, and capacities should be highly recognized by the government as well as by other learning and employment institutions.

ALS ACCREDITATION AND EQUIVALENCY (A&E) PROGRAMME

Philippines

The Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) Programme is the Philippines' Alternative Learning System's programme for dropouts of formal elementary and secondary schools. It aims to provide an alternative pathway of learning for out-of-school youth and adults who are basically literate but who have not completed the ten years of basic education mandated by the Philippine Constitution.

The programme is mandated to remain equivalent to the formal school system in terms of standards and competencies so that school dropouts can complete elementary and high school education outside the school system.

The ALS learners are allowed to take the Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) test for certification as long as they have reached the minimum age of 11 years old for the elementary-level test and

15 years old for the secondary-level one. Learners who pass the Elementary Equivalency Test are eligible to enroll in the formal school system at the appropriate age. Should they wish to re-enter the formal school system, the learners need to take the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT), an exam for out-of-school youth that determines the grade or year level appropriate for them in the formal education. The test is also for "validating and accrediting knowledge and skills in academic areas gained through informal and non-formal means for re-entry into formal school, job promotion, entry to job training, for employment and self-fulfillment."

Learners who attended ALS for secondary level and who pass the certification and equivalency tests can then proceed to the tertiary level if they so desire. The certification is accepted by most universities except public universities because of the great nationwide competition for the state-subsidized tuition fees in public universities (Panaligan, 2013).

EQUIVALENCY EDUCATION PACKAGES (PAKETs A and B)[20]

Indonesia

Indonesia's school equivalency programme supports the country's goal of accelerating access to basic education by providing education specifically designed for those who are not able to attend formal school and those who dropped out of school due to social-cultural, economic, legal, geographical and many other factors (MoEC, 2013). These equivalency programme packages consist of Pakets A, B, and C:

- "Paket A" is the alternative education programme equivalent to the primary level.
- "Paket B" is equivalent to the junior secondary level.
- "Paket C" is equivalent to the senior secondary level. (Harjautama, 2013)

Those who enroll in the packages may either be school-age children who have limited or no access to formal schooling or adults who need to complete their education at the primary and secondary levels (UNESCO, 2006). The Board of National Education Standardization established national education standards in content/curriculum standard, competency standard, process, evaluation, management, teachers and education personnel, facilities, and financial standards that both equivalency education and formal education follow. The competency equivalence standards for the different pakets mandate the competency levels that need to be attained and states the targets to be followed at each level (UNESCO Bkk, 2010). These also pave the way for learners to fulfill the requirements of higher education.

The learning activities are held three times a week with tutors on days depending on the consensus reached by the learners, tutor, manager, and organizer. Students must also study by themselves or in small groups when not in classroom learning sessions. Students are evaluated by a multiple-choice test on each subject at the end of each semester to determine if they will move on to the next set of modules.

The learning assessments are conducted through diagnostic, formative and summative assessments. The five subjects assessed nationally are citizenship, Indonesian language, mathematics, natural science and social science (Harjautama, 2013).

20 Since this report is limited to OOSC of primary and secondary school age, Paket C – which is equivalent to senior secondary level – is not included.

Paket A Programme

Paket A programme mainly targets those aged 13 years and above who are not able to complete primary education (UNESCO, 2010). It utilizes a curriculum largely similar to the one used in primary schools, but with more emphasis on life skills education. The programme provides both general and vocational education to dropouts or to those who could not be accommodated in formal schools. State and local government (provincial) budgets, grants and loans, and community sponsorships fund Paket A programmes (MoEC, 1999).

At the end of the second level of Packet A, the students take the national examination for equivalency education, similar to students of the formal education system. Those who pass receive a certificate equivalent to the primary school certificate and can proceed to further their studies either through formal or non-formal programmes. One study reveals that 7.7% of programme graduates tend to continue on to junior secondary level (UNESCO Bkk, 2010).

The Education Evaluation Centre, in collaboration with the National Standard Education Board, which are both under the Ministry of Education and Culture, manage the national examination. Paket A Programme learners' scores are based on a combination of 60% of their national examination result and 40% of their Level 2 (equivalent to Primary School Year 4-6) learning assessment reports (Harjautama, 2013).

Paket B Programme

The Packet B programme is intended for those who have dropped out of junior secondary school. Since some Paket B students are not expected to continue schooling after graduation, the vocational component of the Paket B curriculum is deemed to be a critical part of the programme. It helps ensure that the learners of the programme possess the skills to make them qualified for employment or self-employment. Should the graduate need further training, they have the option to enrol in income-generating courses and other relevant subjects under the continuing education programme.

Those who successfully complete the programme receive a certificate equivalent to junior secondary level. Around 15.3% of graduates from Paket B tend to go on to senior secondary schooling (UNESCO, Bkk, 2010).

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (NFPE)

Myanmar

Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) is a two-year programme equivalent to the five-year formal primary education in terms of relevant knowledge and skills. It provides students who have dropped out or who have never attended schools an opportunity to enrol or re-enrol in formal primary education. There are two levels in NFPE, namely, Level 1 (first year) which is equivalent to lower primary level and Level 2 (second year) which is equivalent to upper primary level (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015). Learners are placed into either of the two levels depending on their placement results. The completion of Level 2 meant completion of primary education and therefore allows the NFPE graduates to enrol in formal lower secondary school starting at Grade 6. A total of 7553 students in 80 townships participated in NFPE in AY 2013-14 (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015).

NFE EQUIVALENCY FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

Cambodia

The Primary Equivalency Programme, whose initial curriculum and learning materials were developed by the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) with assistance from the International Labour Organization's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO-IPEC) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), is aimed at providing educational opportunities leading to equivalency certification at the sixth grade level for the out-of-school children or those without access to formal education (Vanna, et al, 2012).

Majority of the new curriculum were adopted from formal school content (70%) while the rest consist of life skills. The new curriculum being implemented targets out-of-school children, school dropouts, children from poor family, child laborers/ working children, children from ethnic minority groups, orphans and children living in poor or disadvantaged areas. The learning time for the whole programme lasts for 700 to 750 hours or 2 hours a day for 2 years. The completer gets to earn a certificate equivalent to grade 6 of formal education (Vanna, et al, 2012; flexlearnstrategies.net, n.d.). The programme is being implemented by development partners such as Cambodian Volunteers for Community Development (CVCD), Friends, and Mloup Tapang and is anchored on the Policy on NFE Equivalency Programme developed in 2008 (flexlearnstrategies.net, n.d.).

The programme implemented by CVCD follows the NFE curriculum standards established by the Cambodia MoEYS. It has sub-programmes in Basic Skills (equivalent to grades 1 and 2), Medium Skills (equivalent to grades 3 and 4) and Self-Study skills (equivalent to grades 5 and 6). Their curriculum includes subjects such as Mathematics, Khmer reading and writing, geography, history, science, environmental studies, health and hygiene, and social morality (CVCD, n.d.).

MOBILE TEACHER PROGRAMME

Lao People's Democratic Republic

The primary education equivalency programme delivered through the mobile teacher approach has specifically targeted the OOSC aged 6 to 14 years who live in poor, remote villages without schools (Southivong, n.d.). The programme, developed by the Department of Non=Formal Education, is part of the broader Education for All-Fast Track Initiative framework that is jointly funded by Australia, the Global Partnership for Education and the World Bank.

In 2012, over 7,000 children aged 6-14 years living in 282 poor and remote villages with no schools in Lao PDR gained access to education through the government's primary education equivalency programme using the mobile teacher approach (Yamada, 2012). These teachers manage classes and monitor out-of-classroom activities. The curriculum is equivalent to Grades 1 to 5 in formal education. Mandatory subjects include Lao language, mathematics, moral education and general knowledge. The total learning time for the curriculum is three years. The learning time for Level 1 is one year, while the learning time for Level 2 is two years (Southivong, n.d.).

It was initially implemented in a total of 114 villages in Savannakhet province, in the central part of Lao PDR, as well as in four districts of Pinh, Nong, Thapangthong and Sepon (Southivong, n.d.). As of December 2011, the primary equivalency programme has been implemented in 40 villages in Savannakhet, with an additional 62 villages in the same province set to follow in the coming months. The programme aimed to be expanded to additional 180 villages in two new provinces, (Yamada, 2012).

EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR YOUNG PRISONERS AND JUVENILE OFFENDERS

Malaysia

The Educational Programme for Young Prisoners and Juvenile Offenders being offered at Integrity School (SI) and Henry Gurney School (SHG), as its name suggests, provide educational services to children in conflict with the law, ensuring that each young prisoner and juvenile offender receives an education of a standard similar to what their peers receive in formal schools (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2015b). The national curriculum is applied in the programme. Upon completion of the programme, learners can take public examinations such as the Lower Secondary Assessment, Malaysia Certificate of Education and Malaysia Higher School Certificate (Yunus and Norfariza, 2012).

The Ministry of Education (MoE) appoints and trains the teachers, as well as provides textbooks and teaching aids. Counselor teachers help in the rehabilitation of young prisoners by providing motivational support and a career development programme. The assessment and monitoring of the programme is conducted periodically by MoE and Persatuan Dyslexia Malaysia (Prison Department of Malaysia) (PDM).

NATIONAL EQUIVALENCE PROGRAMME

Timor-Leste

The National Equivalence Programme (NEP) of Timor-Leste, part of the government's recurrent education programmes, aims to provide those individuals who face difficulties in accessing or completing basic education, those who are not able to complete basic education, and those have never enrolled in formal school, opportunities to complete basic education (NDRE, n.d.). It is composed of Levels I and II. Completion of NEP Level 1 would earn a certificate equivalent to grade 6 while completion of level II is equivalent to the achievement of grade 9. The first classes for Level I were piloted in 2009. By 2013, there were already 130 classes being conducted in 65 sub-districts.

Development of Level II curriculum is one of the activities under the Second Chance Education Project being funded by World Bank. The project's development objectives are two-fold: "1) to increase the number of out-of-school youth and young adults who complete recognized equivalency programs; and 2) to decrease number and/or rate of leavers from each program and level, thus increasing internal efficiency of the programme" (World Bank, 2015).

The project has four components. The first component covers the development of a quality equivalency curriculum and the enhancement of the quality and availability of instructional materials. The second component involves improved quality of service delivery, through the capacity-building of staff, teacher, teacher-trainer, and community facilitators; programme promotion, and the development of monitoring and evaluation system. The third component is the expansion of local capacity for service delivery through community learning centres. The fourth component involves the use of information, monitoring and evaluation technologies in the development of IT manuals, modular courses, multi-media materials, legal document on recurrent education, and others (World Bank, 2015.

Equivalency programmes continue to be one of the government's priority education programmes. Thus, despite the delays due to changes in leadership and the restructuring as a result of revision in the project design and results framework, the project continues to be relevant to the government's long-term strategic plan. As of September 2015, a draft legal framework for recurrent education

was being developed. A draft curriculum was being revised based on inputs from the trials and studies conducted. The lessons learned from the trials are also being utilized to inform the training needs of the teachers. The learning materials have been revised while the teachers and pedagogic team have been recruited and trained. Additional community learning centers (CLCs) would be established. The project has been extended to December 2016.

COMPLEMENTARY PROGRAMME IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Vietnam

Complementary education in Vietnam offers programmes for educationally disadvantaged children, youth and adults who have no access to or who have dropped out from formal schooling (Carlsen, 2010). It has equivalency programmes in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary levels. These are provided at continuing education centres located throughout the country.

These programmes are designed to provide a basic level (equivalent to primary level) and advanced level of literacy skills (equivalent to lower secondary level) to children and youth aged 11 to 18 (Lam, 2007). However, some regions in the country target different groups depending on their local situation. The programmes provide equivalency to formal basic education and assure that learners would be able to transfer or re-enter formal education.

The curricula used in EPs were based largely on the curricula used in formal education. The former, however, tends to be simpler, shorter, more practical and more flexible than the latter (MoET, 2009). It contains the most fundamental and practical knowledge and skills from the formal schools' curricula. The textbooks used in formal schools are also the same ones used in the equivalency programmes.

5. Ease of Transition

The purpose of non-formal primary/basic education is to offer second-chance education to out-of-school children and young people and to enable them to re-enter formal schooling should they want to do so. Formal and non-formal education should have common standards and provide recognition and ease of transition in terms of shifting to formal or non-formal education to be able to provide equal opportunities for education to every citizen with different real-life challenges and circumstances.

CAMBODIAN VOLUNTEERS FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT'S (CVCD) NFE PROGRAMME

Cambodia

The CVCD was founded in 1992 by a group of Khmer youth with the support of Peter Pond, and American missionary, and his adopted Khmer son, Arn Chorn-Pond (CVCD, n.d.). Their Non-Formal Education programme, which was first implemented in 1999 in Rotes Ploeng Community, originally had 48 students but was later expanded to serve the poor people in other communities like Kork Kleang Muy, Kork Kleang Pei, Phum Boun, and Ark Phiwat Meanchey (Dara, n.d.). The programme aims to provide educational opportunities at the primary level to children from poor communities and eventually integrate them into public schools. It "seeks to enhance the standard of Khmer literacy, English and technical education" in those low-income areas (CVCD, n.d.; Dara, n.d.).

CVCD's NFE programme used the formal curriculum of the Ministry of Education Youth and Sports (MOEYS) from 1999 to 2006. Starting 2007, however, the CVCD adopted the Department of Non-Formal Education's (DNFE) Primary Equivalency Programme curriculum (Dara, n.d.).

For school year 2011-2012, CVCD was able to provide alternative education, using the primary equivalency curriculum, to 605 students in five poor communities in Phnom Penh, namely, Kor Kork Leang Muy, Kork Kleang Pei, Krang Ang Krang, Phum Boun, and Ark Phiwat Meanchey (CVCD, n.d.). For that school year alone, CVCD was able to transfer 35 students to formal public schools at secondary level. Between 1999 and 2012, CVCD has already sent 111 students, 42% of whom are girls, to study in formal public schools (Dara, n.d.).

ALTERNATIVE LEARNING SYSTEM (ALS)

Philippines

The Philippine Department of Education's Bureau of Alternative Learning System (BALS) has established formal arrangements with many higher education institutions to facilitate ALS learners' transition from non-formal to formal schooling. Once learners have completed a program of study using the ALS modules, they may take the accreditation and equivalency (A&E) test or the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT) that would allow them to enter or re-enter the formal system. Alternatively, they may seek Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) industry skills certification (Panaligan, 2013).

MIGRANT LEARNING CENTRES

Thailand

In 2012, the Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) negotiated for their learning centers to be officially recognized by the Myanmar government (BMWEC, 2013). Through this recognition, their students who return to Myanmar can enter public schools according to the grade level they achieved while attending BMWEC-approved learning centres. They can also take the national matriculation exam for higher education and for employment opportunities. BMWEC vocational schools also arrange for internships and apprenticeships, and negotiate with local vocational colleges in Thailand for recognition and acceptance of BMWEC certificates (BMWEC, 2013.).

As a strategy, the BMWEC maintains high standards of achievement in its Migrant Learning Centers. In addition to day-to-day classroom activities, it also provides curriculum guidance and support, coordinates funding, provides professional development, and collaborates with government and other external bodies. The languages of instruction used are Burmese, Karen, Thai, and English. Most learning centres currently implement the Burmese curriculum (CEI, n.d.).

Among the Migrant Learning Centers in Ranong Province (on the Myanmar-Thailand border), the Thai language is a major curriculum component that would prepare children to be integrated into the Thai formal education system. The Migrant Learning Centers likewise negotiate with schools in the Myanmar formal system to allow their learners to participate in one of the formal exams offered at grades 9, 11 or 13. Part of the negotiation is developing another placement test to allow Learning Center students to re-enter the formal education system of Myanmar (Aungkyimyint, 2013).

PAKET A

Indonesia

Under the Indonesian education system, citizens can choose to go to formal, non-formal, or informal education as all three forms of education[21] are equally recognized. Learners are allowed to transfer from non-formal and informal education to formal education, and vice versa. The transfer between formal and non-formal education is regulated. For instance, in order to reintegrate into the formal system, Paket A students must take an entrance exam. The transfer, however, from informal to formal education is not direct, that is, the transfer goes through non-formal education first before proceeding to formal education (Harjautama, 2013).

Indonesia's Paket A curriculum prepares learners for the national examination. The exam, held in July and October each year, includes citizenship, mathematics, Indonesian language, natural science and social science. These learners are also eligible to receive certification. The certification is recognized throughout the country (Harjautama, 2013).

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION'S (NFPE) LEVELS 1 AND 2

Myanmar

For Myanmar's Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) programme, the acquisition of Level 2 completion certificate is recognized as the completion of primary education. The NFPE graduates are then eligible to enrol in Grade 6 of formal education. To graduate, learners' achievements are assessed based on regular attendance, accomplishment of expected learning outcomes, performance in class work, and completion of level-end test developed by the technical team (Myanmar MOE, 2011). A nationally recognized standardized test was introduced in 2013-14 that facilitates the transfer of the NFPE graduates to any middle school or technical-vocational center (Myanmar MOE, n.d.). The learner earns a certificate upon successful completion of each level.

RE-ENTRY PROGRAMME

Cambodia

Cambodia's Re-Entry Programme provides opportunities for students who drop out of primary school to continue and get re-integrated in formal schooling (MoEYS, 2015). The target learners are students who drop out at grades 3, 4, 5 and 6 of primary education and who have been out of school for less than three years. The two-month course occurs from 1 August to 30 September of every year, which is the vacation period for formal schools. The students use formal education textbooks. Multi-Grade Teaching (MTG) is implemented if the number of students do not reach the minimum number set in the guidelines (Vanna, 2012).

Re-entry teachers are often teachers in primary schools who are selected by re-entry working groups with the approval of District Education Office (DoE). The Provincial Office of Education (PoE) provides a three-day-long orientation-training for these chosen teachers (Vanna, 2012). The programme allows flexibility in the way that re-entry teachers conduct learning activities through teaching-learning approaches such as multigrade teaching methodology.

21 The formal education system consists of six years of primary school, three years of junior secondary school, three years of senior secondary school, and higher education. Non-formal education consists of courses, training, and early childhood learning groups. Informal education includes family education (e.g., home schooling and education within families).

The teachers evaluate and measure the learning achievement of the learners through oral, written and practical exams prepared by the Department of Education (DoE). Students who pass the final test will be sent back to formal primary schools and promoted one step to a higher grade level. For instance, a student who drops out of Grade 2 in primary school can enrol in the Grade 2 re-entry classes. If the student finishes the re-entry course and passes the final test, he or she will be sent to Grade 3 in formal primary school (MoEYS, 2015; Vanna, 2012).

6. Life Skills-based and Accelerated Curriculum

Flexible learning programmes must take into consideration the potential for accelerated curriculum and one that can integrate academic with life skills enhancement in consideration of the learners' needs and special interests as the most economically disadvantaged sectors in society. It is useful for out-of-school children to learn practical skills and knowledge that would enable them to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of daily living, to solve real life problems, and to function effectively in society. These would enable them to take positive actions to develop health behaviors, environments, and quality of life.

ALTERNATIVE LEARNING SYSTEM (ALS)

Philippines

The goal of the ALS curriculum is lifelong learning that "allows individuals to continue learning and developing knowledge and competencies necessary for the effective participation in solving real life problems and in functioning effectively in society." (BALS, n.d.) It uses the life skills approach, where life skills are defined as "abilities for positive and adaptive behavior that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands, challenges, experiences and situations of everyday life." The core life skills that constitute the essential abilities that people must learn are the following: self-awareness, empathy, effective communication, interpersonal relation skills, decision-making, problem-solving, creative thinking, critical thinking, coping with emotions, coping with stress, and entrepreneurial skills.

The objective of the ALS Curriculum is the attainment of functional literacy. Functional literacy is the outcome of a lifeskills-based education. The curriculum contains five (5) learning strands that are based on what a functionally literate person should be able to do, namely:

1. Communicate effectively (listening, speaking, reading and writing)
2. Solve problems scientifically, creatively and think critically (numeracy and scientific thinking)
3. Use resources sustainably and be productive (ability to earn a living through self-employment, outside employment, entrepreneurship, sustainable use of resources and appropriate technology and productivity)
4. Develop oneself and a sense of community (self-development, a sense of personal and national history and identity, cultural pride and recognition and understanding of civil and political rights)
5. Expand one's world view (knowledge, respect and appreciation for diversity, peace and non-violent resolution of conflict, and global awareness, independence and solidarity)

MINDANAO FOR YOUTH DEVELOPMENT (MYDev) PROGRAMME

Philippines

The USAID-funded Mindanao for Youth Development (MYDev) project is a five-year project funded by USAID and supported by Education Development Center (EDC), SEAMEO INNOTECH, private sector resource partners, and local service providers in Mindanao. It aims to address the key constraints to peace and stability in selected conflict-affected areas in Mindanao through enhancing the life skills and employability of out-of-school youth. It has pioneered the development of a life skills-work programme as a supplementary programme for its OOSC ALS learners. The 50-hour long life skills programme covers eight modules: (1) personal awareness and development, (2) interpersonal communication, (3) work habits and conduct, (4) leadership, (5) health and safety, (6) rights and responsibilities, (7) financial fitness, and (8) exploring entrepreneurship.

EXTENDED AND CONTINUOUS EDUCATION AND LEARNING (EXCEL) PROGRAMME

Myanmar

The curriculum content of the Extended and Continuous Education and Learning (EXCEL) Programme in Myanmar, a non-formal nine-month programme for out-of-school youth, includes health issues and disease prevention such as personal safety, protection against HIV/AIDS, drug abuse, reproductive health and disease prevention. It likewise includes a prerequisite basic literacy component for illiterate learners in 2011 (Htoo, n.d.).

K4 PROGRAMME – *KARITON, KLASRUM, KLINIK, KANTIN*

Philippines

The *Kariton Klasrum's* curriculum is primarily life skills-based. As the lessons address the lack of literacy among street, slum, and out-of-school children, the content of the topics reflects the conditions and experiences of the learners which the latter can easily relate to. The curriculum and competency guide has four main units: 1) Self-care and development (personal); 2) Relating and being one with others (interpersonal); 3) Knowing and living in one's community (communal); and 4) Love of country (patriotism), with each unit requiring six sessions (UNESCO, 2015).

PAKET A PROGRAMME

Indonesia

Indonesia's Paket A Programme, a programme to obtain an educational level equivalent to the primary school level, utilizes a curriculum whose content includes moral and religious education, personality and citizenship, science and technology, arts, sport and health. While similar to the one used in primary school, this tends to underscore life skills education more (Harjautama, 2013). Other learning outcomes focus on basic literacy and preparation for the next level of education such as Paket B or junior secondary school. These are covered in 11 subjects, namely, religious education, citizenship, Indonesian language, mathematics, natural and social sciences, arts, culture, sport and health, functional skills (optional), local content, and personal development skills. The content may be localized for integration into the various subjects.

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (NFPE)

Myanmar

The NFPE programme's curriculum is skills-based, flexible, adaptable to the local context, and designed to meet the needs and interests of the children aged 10-14 years old. It covers the most

essential basic learning competencies of the formal primary education. Four main subjects – Burmese, English, Mathematics and General Studies – are included in the curriculum covering the three major areas of formal primary level curriculum, namely, basic communication skills, expansion of knowledge, and skill and attitudinal development (Myanmar MOE, 2011.). General Studies includes the study of the natural and social environment, life skills, moral education, physical education, aesthetic education, and union spirit.

Besides the four subjects, the programme's curriculum also includes training on income-generating activities and participation in local community services that aimed to help learners improve their quality of life. The learning activities and integrative workbook promotes practical applications of lessons in real life (Htoo, n.d.).

ACCELERATED LEARNING (A/L) PROGRAMME

Cambodia

First launched in 2011 and approved officially by the MoEYS in 2014, Cambodia's Accelerated Learning (A/L) Programme generally aims to accelerate the learning of overage children; get the overage children who drop out to re-enrol in schools; and reduce the overall repetition and dropout rates (Vanna, 2012). As of 2012, it is being implemented in five provinces and is managed by the MoEYS' Primary Education Department (PED) in cooperation with UNICEF and Save the Children Norway (SCN).

The programme uses the national curriculum and 12 textbooks covering Khmer, Mathematics, Social Studies and Applied Sciences (MoEYS, 2015). The learning course lasts for three years. The first year is equivalent to Grades 1 and 2 in formal school; the second year is equivalent to Grades 3 and 4; and the third year is equivalent to Grades 5 and 6. The learner receives a primary school certificate upon completion of the three-year programme (Vanna, 2012).

Below are some of the learning courses in the curriculum of government-managed non-formal education programmes:

Table 40. Learning Courses in the Curriculum of Government-Managed NFE Programs

Programme	Literacy	Personal and Community Development	Arts / Sciences
ALS-Programme for Disadvantaged Children (Philippines) [a]	• Listening • Speaking • Reading & writing • Numeracy • Scientific thinking	• Self-development • Personal history • National history • Cultural, civil and political rights • Diversity • Peace • Non-violent resolution of conflict • Global awareness • Solidarity	• Entrepreneurship • Sustainable use of resources • Appropriate technology • Productivity • Employment
Paket A Programme (Indonesia) [b]	• Reading • Writing • Numeracy • Indonesian language	• Moral and religious education • Citizenship • Social sciences • Local content	• Health • Sports • Personality • Personal development • Science and technology • Natural sciences • Arts and culture • Functional skills
Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) (Myanmar) [c]	• Languages: Myanmar and English • Mathematics • Basic communication	• Skill and attitudinal development • Participation in local community services • Union spirit • Moral education • Social environment	• Aesthetic education • Physical education • Quality of life development • Expansion of knowledge • Income-generating activities • Natural environment
Mobile Teacher Programme (Lao PDR) [d]	• Lao language • Mathematics	• Moral education	• World around us
Refugee Schools in Sabah (Malaysia) [e]	• Reading • Writing • Arithmetic	• Islamic Studies	• Knitting • Sewing • Other skills

a – Panaligan, 2013
b – Ngadirin, 2012
c – National Workshop on Development of Strategies for Promoting Continuing Education through Community Learning Centres in Myanmar by MERB, ACCU and UNESCO/PROAP at Yangon on 23 February to 4 March 1999
d – Southivong, n.d.
e – Yunus and Norfariza, 2012

ADOLESCENT-FRIENDLY LITERACY ENHANCEMENT PROGRAMME (AFLEP)

Philippines

Implemented by the Department of Education's Bureau of Alternative Learning System (BALS), the AFLEP is an informal education learning intervention for adolescents and young adults. The core areas of the program include the physical and psychosocial well-being of adolescents; legal and ethical aspects of adolescent reproductive health (ARH); and demography and ARH. It is an ALS program that employs the life skills approach in its teaching and learning process (BALS, n.d.).

7. Recruit and Train Teachers/ Facilitators from the Community

Alternative learning systems would be most sustainable and effective in helping better lives in the communities if the people themselves will be tapped as the teachers/facilitators of flexible learning programmes. This will provide opportunities for community stakeholders to be trained as educators for their own people. Their dedication and effectiveness to provide holistic education that bridges basic literacy with life skills lies in their deeper understanding of the realities in their own villages.

HILL TRIBE SCHOOL

Thailand

For the Hill Tribe Schools located in Northern and Western Thailand which cater to the educational needs and concerns of the highland communities, teachers are recruited from among committed local people willing to provide education to first-generation learners. The teachers are supported by the government and UNICEF through small stipends and professional development through bi-monthly meetings that provide training on instructional techniques and service ethics (Wiboonuppatum, 2013). To avoid isolation while working in remote areas, networking opportunities among teachers in neighboring areas are also put in place.

Even as they conduct NFE classes, pre-qualified teachers recruited from the communities may become qualified teachers by taking professional training during weekends through the Teacher Training Institute. The Thai education system and UNICEF sponsor the teachers' professional training in recognition of their services and to boost their morale and motivation (Wiboonuppatum, 2013).

MIGRANT LEARNING CENTRES

Thailand / Myanmar

Teachers in each of the Migrant Learning Centers in Ranong Province are recruited from the local communities. Most of them are Thai but there are also Burmese teachers who have migrated from the southern part of Myanmar. Teacher training is provided by the Ministry of Education and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that sponsor the learning centres. The key source of funding though comes from the parents' contributions. The parents also spearhead the conduct of community activities like dance classes and study trips (Aungkyimyint, 2013).

The Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centres recruits and trains paid teachers from the local migrant population. Two unique training opportunities are available for the teachers: Early Childhood Education and Development (ECED); and Reading, Writing, and Critical Thinking (RWCT) (CEI, n.d.).

ALS MOBILE TEACHERS

Philippines

The Alternative Learning System (ALS) mobile teachers and District ALS Coordinators are the implementers of ALS in all 17 regions of the Philippines. The mobile teachers, numbering 2,581 nationwide (BALS personal communication, December 22, 2015), are "specialized" teachers who live among the people in the poor and remote *barangays* (villages), serving as learning facilitators in the conduct of intensive community-based learning services for illiterate out-of-school youth and adults in far-flung and remote areas (DepEd, 2008). ALS Coordinators, on the other hand, also serve as learning facilitators but their primary task is to harmonize ALS initiatives in a district (DepEd, n.d.b). All of them are regular employees of the Department of Education who possess standard teaching qualifications.

The ALS Mobile Teacher and ALS Coordinator concentrate on conducting the Basic Literacy Programme in one village until such time that the programme is completed and the learners have become literate. After that, they transfer to another village where the programme and their services are needed. They also visit villages they have formerly served for monitoring and follow-up (DepEd, n.d.b).

ALS INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGERS

Philippines

Non-government organizations (NGOs) contracted to provide ALS programmes by the Philippine government employ instructional managers (IMs) to provide learning support services for OOSC learners. These IMs should preferably come from the village or municipality where the learning center is located (DepEd, 2007). The required minimum education qualification is any four-year course, although IMs should preferably be graduates of an education course. In remote, rural areas, persons without a four-year college qualification may occasionally be considered as IMs and provided trainings.

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (NFPE)

Myanmar

Local persons who are interested in non-formal primary education (NFPE) are recruited as NFPE teachers after passing the minimum admission requirements (Htoo, 2011). A few teachers from basic education schools have also taken on the responsibility of teaching in NFPE. All newly recruited NFPE teachers need to undergo the NFPE facilitators' training, which is provided twice a year in three zones (areas), to acquire the required professional knowledge, skills and attitudes. Informal professional development sessions are also being provided through discussions with the technical team and monitors during visits (MOE, 2011). Instructor trainings are also conducted at the central level for those who will serve as trainers for the zonal training of recruited NFPE teachers (Htoo, n.d.). Although two teachers are generally expected to be assigned in each center, the actual number of teachers to be assigned really depends on the number of learners in the area.

EDUCATION FOR REFUGEE, UNDOCUMENTED AND STATELESS CHILDREN IN SABAH

Malaysia

Teachers for the refugee schools in Sabah are recruited from the communities. They pass through an interview process jointly conducted by the Ministry of Education, Teacher Foundation and the Sabah Special Task Force. The Gaya Teacher Training Institute provides the basic training (Yufus and Norfariza, 2012).

MOBILE TEACHER PROGRAMME

Lao PDR

Under the Primary Education Equivalency Programme through mobile teachers, qualified community members are encouraged to apply as teachers. At a minimum, applicants should be graduates of Teacher Training College, or lower secondary schooling with three years of teacher education and training, if experienced teachers (Yamada, 2012). Few candidates meet the criteria though. They are offered a salary roughly equivalent to that received by a teacher from the formal system. Each mobile teacher is assigned to cover two remote villages with the support of a teaching assistant, a literate resident from the community. The teaching assistant supports the mobile teacher but conducts follow-up activities as well whenever the latter is busy in the other village (Southivong, n.d.).

These teachers run their classes for five hours a day for five days a week (DNFE, 2015). The classes are conducted in learning shelters in each village that are financially supported by the Village Education Development Committee. Whenever learners from agricultural areas relocate to farmlands during the planting and harvesting seasons, the mobile teachers and their assistants tend to follow to monitor their students (Yamada, 2012).

The Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE), with assistance from UNESCO, leads the implementation of this program, has developed the curriculum and learning materials, and has provided continuous in-service trainings to enhance the facilitation and training skills of the master trainers, the mobile teachers, and the village teaching assistants (EFA 2015 Review Lao PDR, 2015).

EXTENDED AND CONTINUOUS EDUCATION AND LEARNING (EXCEL) PROGRAMME

Myanmar

The Extended and Continuous Education and Learning (EXCEL) programme is a nine-month life skills education (LSE) programme targeting 10-17- year-old out-of-school youth in Myanmar. It is currently being implemented by different non-government organizations, including Border Areas Development Association (BDA), Karen Baptist Convention (KBC), Karuna Myanmar Social Services (KMSS), Myanmar Literacy Resource Centre (MLRC), Tedim Baptist Convention (TBC), Thiri May Women Development Co-operative Society (TWDC), and Yinthway Foundation (YF). It is supported by MOE and UNICEF (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015).

The youth facilitators from the communities are responsible in delivering the EXCEL training package to out-of-school youth in their respective communities. These EXCEL activities take place at schools, homes, churches, temples, and other convenient places (Htoo, n.d.)

Between 2006 and 2010, the EXCEL programme reached more than 75,000 out-of-school youth. There were nearly 11,000 out-of-school children and teens in 24 townships who took part in the programme in 2011–2012. The following year saw 9,500 learners from 21 townships receiving EXCEL training. In 2013-2014, the programme reached 10,800 learners in 29 townships (EFA Review 2015). According to an independent evaluation conducted in 2010, the EXCEL programme was deemed "innovative and a very promising form of continuing education," particularly because it was able to reach and retain out-of-school adolescents in their programme, and their impact on the lives of the children are noteworthy (Clarke, 2010). There is a future plan to integrate the EXCEL and NFPE programmes (EFA Review Myanmar, 2015).

8. Monitoring and Evaluation Strategies

In managing policies and programmes, an efficient monitoring system is indispensable to support continuous improvement and help improve programme content and methodologies as well as learning outcomes of out-of-school children. Due to the wide-ranging stakeholders involved, the varied modes of delivery, and the inadequate financing allotted for these programmes, the monitoring and evaluation tends to be a complex task that many countries still find challenging to conduct systematically. In most countries, the role of M&E of OOSC programmes is spearheaded by the MOE units responsible for oversight of non-formal education. The MOE has developed and designed M&E tools for their local field personnel to conduct local monitoring of OOSC programmes. Beyond the M&E conducted by MOEs, additional monitoring and evaluation strategies implemented across the region include the following:

KUMUSTAHAN SA BARANGAY (Updating in the Village)

Philippines

The *"Kumustahan sa Barangay"* (informal sessions) is conducted annually to monitor the effectiveness of the ALS programmes in each village. This is an innovative participatory advocacy, and a non-threatening monitoring and evaluation strategy that aims to gather data and information from implementers, beneficiaries and stakeholders about programme implementation, as well as to document the successes and challenges at the grassroots level (UNESCO Bkk, 2013; Guerrero, 2007). These sessions are conducted in community learning centers where learners, implementers and other stakeholders of the programme are urged to share their experiences, issues, challenges, and gaps about the programs being implemented in their respective communities. The results of this "kumustahan" serve as inputs to be used for policy direction and improvement of ALS programs, and to showcase best practices. An in-depth monitoring scheme, the "ALS Inter-Regional Monitoring and Evaluation" is also used that has allowed innovations to emerge in terms of better networking among stakeholders, individual learning portfolios, and non-traditional assessments (UNESCO, Bkk, 2013). Under this scheme, a number of forms are filled out to keep track of financial, management and administration and technical data.

BMWEC LEARNING CENTRES

Thailand

The 25 Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centres monitor their learners' academic progress through regular testing and exams. Classroom observations are employed to track student and teacher attendance, enrollment, and retention rates. The Ministries of Education of both Thailand and Myanmar, as well as the various donors, frequently visit the Learning Centres to evaluate quality and ensure transparency. An external team based in Dubai and Los Angeles developed and monitors the financial system (CEI, 2015).

NON-FORMAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (NFPE)

Myanmar

The monitoring and evaluation of the NFPE centers and programmes are undertaken by supervisors, township and state/ division education officers, the technical team, and the central working committee (Myanmar MOE, 2011). The central monitors conduct field visits three times in each academic year, followed by reporting and feedback sessions (Htoo, n.d.).

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

This desk review has reinforced the observation that not all social groups and regions have benefitted from the expansion of educational opportunities across the nine countries explored in Southeast Asia. Many children continue to suffer from disadvantages brought about, to a significant extent, by structural disparities and unequal power relationships that are associated with wealth, ethnicity, language, disability, location/geography and religion. A concerted and targeted effort is still needed in order to reach these disadvantaged groups who continue to be out of school, to drop out early, and to remain on the fringes of society.

Given these, the following recommendations should be considered.

Policy Environment

1. All nine countries have shown that the basic legal and policy frameworks for providing free and compulsory education for all children are in place. These education policies play a critical role in expanding the entitlements to services, and changing the educational opportunities and outcomes for out-of-school children. These policies have helped pave the way for the different countries to establish and implement programmes for OOSC based on equity and non-discrimination. However, there is a need to strengthen and enforce these laws and policies more fully, as well as increase awareness, especially among concerned sectors, of existing initiatives and mechanisms.

   Policies should likewise address the structures of inequality that perpetuate the marginalization of these out-of-school children. This requires that leaders commit to equity and recognize that strategies in education must be backed by wider interventions that strengthen empowerment among disadvantaged groups and counteract various forms of discrimination. It also requires that education policies and broader anti-marginalization policies work within a coherent framework. For instance, laws on citizenship as well as birth and marriage registration need to be reviewed with a view to eliminating loopholes that allow traditional practices that are inimical to girls and boys to continue unabated.

Mapping and Monitoring

2. Enhance mapping, targeting, profiling and tracking of OOSC as inputs to program planning, investment programming and policy formulation. Integral to the strategies employed in identifying these marginalized children is monitoring and measurement that would allow the gathering of accurate and current data on out-of-school children, particularly those who have been pushed out of the system because of their ethnicity, of their disabilities, of their need to work, of their lack of legal documentation, or of their early marriage. This includes a mapping of these children and investing in disaggregated and more context-specific information in order that the government and other education providers may be able to respond appropriately to the need for increased resources, such as teachers, facilities and materials; to design educational content, methods and materials specific to their needs; and to eventually address equity gaps.

This further includes the need to improve data management/information systems to identify and profile OOSC and the different sub-sectors belonging to various disadvantaged groups, assess their learning needs, and track their learning progress, which includes conducting regular community-based OOSC mapping and strengthening OOSC data management and tracking systems. There should also be efforts undertaken to strengthen the capacity of service providers and government agencies for OOSC data analysis as input to informed decision-making about program planning, targeting, investment planning and policy making.

Research

3. Findings based on research that aim to understand the interaction and complexities between the different dimensions of marginalization, need to be integrated into national and sector planning. That the gender gap at the national levels is not as wide in Southeast Asia as in other regions, for instance, should not mask the specific situation of girls and boys at the rural areas, those belonging to bottom wealth quintiles, those with disabilities, and many others. These more detailed analyses are necessary for more targeted and effective approaches that take into consideration the data and their nuances that capture the situations of diverse sub-groups of OOSC on the ground better.

4. Further empirical research is needed as to the effectiveness of policy and programme interventions in the different countries and the impact of these on enrolment and retention of children in school and on the situation of out-of-school children in general

5. Investments in additional research and development are needed to ensure curricula, learning materials, delivery methodology and assessment systems are sufficiently flexible to respond to the learning needs and contexts of a diverse range of OOSC particularly those from disadvantaged and marginalized groups.

Flexible Learning Programme Management

6. Enhance the enabling governance environment for flexible learning strategies and other programmes targeting OOSC. This means strengthening the capacity of national and local oversight agencies to improve their institutional capacities in policy formulation and in developing targeted, tailored interventions; the setting of standards; as well as monitoring and evaluation. It also entails strengthening the regulatory environment governing minimum programmatic standards; certification and equivalency mechanisms; accreditation of service providers; and fiscal transparency and controls; and quality assurance. There is also a need to increase national and local government financial support for OOSC programmes and support systems to expand the reach and quality of programmatic interventions to a level necessary to reach targets and goals. Opportunities for expanding participatory governance of OOSC programs need to be explored to encourage greater OOSC engagement in decision-making regarding program planning, design, monitoring and evaluation.

7. Successful and effective interventions as initiated and implemented by non-government organizations should be integrated into national plans while monitoring the quality of the services being provided. Many non-government organizations are leading

implementers of education programmes meant for out-of-school children. They have long been active in delivering these services directly to the different groups of children – children with disabilities, children in conflict areas, street children, and many others.

8. Strengthen mechanisms and capacity for quality assurance of the various FLS programmes.

   - National FLS would be strengthened by the development/promotion of minimum quality standards/benchmarks to guide implementers, e.g., minimum curriculum standards; standards for trainers, instructional facilitators, and teachers; standards in enacting the best appropriate practices; as well as standards in assessment and certification. These standards need to be designed to be contextually relevant and responsive to the varying situational realities of different OOSC marginalized groups.
   - Strengthen quality assurance of OOSC programme inputs, processes and outputs in order to maximize impact – through follow-up programmatic quality audits of service providers as a basis for targeted capacity building interventions.
   - Establish a system of accreditation for OOSC programme service providers.
   - Strengthen programme monitoring and evaluation systems: e.g., development and deployment of exemplar monitoring and evaluation (M&E) tools for project implementers and critical project partners (MOEs, LGUs, NGOs); database development; and consolidation of data inputs from multiple FLS program providers.
   - Conduct impact assessments and cost-benefit studies of promising national and local initiatives as inputs to program scale-up and sustainability planning.
   - Integrate appreciative inquiry approaches to M&E with existing traditional results-based M&E systems.

9. Strengthen coordination and communication among providers of programs for OOSC. This entails the following:

   - Strengthen coordinative and collaborative planning mechanisms.
   - Enact complementation of programming and improved targeting and resource allocation prioritization.
   - Develop databases of OOSC programme providers.
   - Create associations/networks of accredited providers, umbrella networks, and lead organizational mentors
   - Promote collaborative projects/institutional partnerships.
   - Develop databases of accredited trainers and instructional managers/facilitators to facilitate the sharing of expertise.
   - Develop information and materials clearing house e-portal for sharing learning materials, assessment tools, M&E tools, case studies, as well as innovations/lessons learned.
   - Use ICT tools to facilitate networking/communication (e.g. mobile phones, email, blogs, e-forums).

- Strengthen interface/coordination between NGOs and Local Government and National Government to maximize the use of limited resources: e.g. coordinated planning; complementation of programmes; joint/collaborative programme implementation; cost sharing/resource sharing.

10. Investments are needed to build the institutional capacity of FLS providers as implementers of relevant and high-quality programmes addressing the following critical competencies

    - Localization of curriculum.
    - Development of customized/contextualized learning materials, including integration of indigenous knowledge and materials.
    - Use of differentiated instruction that responds to individual learner needs.
    - Application of appropriate and varied forms of formative and assessment methodologies, including an expanding use of non-traditional assessments, such as authentic assessment and performance assessment.
    - Enacting instructional supervision.
    - Creating and sustaining safe, healthy and conducive learning environments.
    - Use of ICT and social media as productivity tools, teaching-learning devices and opportunities for knowledge sharing, collaboration and support.

11. Strengthen the capacities of FLS teachers/ instructional managers (IMs)/facilitators as catalysts for programme success.

    - Establish common standards/benchmarks for recruitment and performance management.
    - Invest in enhancing quality/effectiveness of teachers/ IMs/facilitators through an integrated set of targeted capacity-building interventions, including: short- and long-term training; accelerated teacher-training programs for non-college graduates; mentoring and coaching; instructional supervision; peer learning; on-the-job learning; provision of technical assistance; establishment of professional learning networks (assisted by technology such as social media).
    - Develop career paths for FLS Instructional personnel to facilitate sustained capacity-building and professional development and the growth of a community of professionals.
    - Tap literacy and FLS practitioners as experts for the conduct of training inputs/ provision of technical assistance.
    - Enhance the system of recognition, remuneration and awards for FLS personnel.

12. Documentation of promising FLS practices should be strengthened and systematized to facilitate knowledge sharing.

    - Document good practices/innovations using multiple lenses (children/youth, MOE, local governments, employers, service providers, trainers) and multiple media formats (e.g., YouTube videos, Before/After photographs, essays/pictorials, comic books, newsfeeds' web portals, social media, presentation materials, infographics, story books, case studies, posters, pamphlets, etc.).

- Use the power of numbers to provide quantitative supports/evidence to emotion-charged anecdotal stories.
- Deepen inputs/knowledge-sharing among partners/implementers/stakeholders to strengthen the already recognized good practices on the ground.
- Disseminate/diffuse recognized good practices and create a platform for information sharing and exchange.
- Provide technical assistance to support local initiatives for replication in other geographic areas, thereby supporting lateral technology transfer and scale-up to complement top-down government-led expansion efforts.
- Conduct operations research to drive programme improvements; strengthen/sustain innovations; and measure programme impacts in preparation for upscaling/diffusion and technology transfer.

Advocacy and Social Marketing

13. Strengthen advocacy and social marketing in support of OOSC programs. A strong advocacy is needed to raise awareness of the learning opportunities provided by available FLS programs and promote their legitimacy and credibility as alternative pathways of learning. Such advocacy efforts should document and celebrate gains and peak experiences of OOSC programs through initiatives such as joint publications; partnership/advocacy events; documentation and dissemination of best practices and effective pilots/models/innovations; use of technology such as radio, email, web, e-tools, multimedia; and building networks of champions. Advocacy efforts should also seek to build on existing indigenous/local knowledge and communication systems to help ensure accessibility to social marketing messages by local communities and groups which do not have access to technology-based communications.

OOSC Engagement

14. To be truly rights-based, it is necessary to deepen/expand opportunities for OOSC engagement and empowerment. This requires reaching out to more OOSC through expansion of geographical coverage and the targeting of marginalized OOSC sub-sectors, e.g., children with disabilities, girls/ boys, indigenous people, youth offenders. It includes supporting service providers, technical skills trainers and local governments to nurture the growth of OOSC representative bodies/structures, such as OOSC development alliances, youth assemblies/youth councils/youth networks to facilitate dialogue/ideas exchanges/youth agenda formation/youth skills Olympics/youth excellence awards/youth markets/youth sports and arts festivals, etc., as an institutional support mechanism for youth representation.

    Action research needs to be conducted as well on new creative modes of children and youth engagement and post-training support, e.g., dialogues, peace camps, leadership training, youth-led social enterprise, on-the-job opportunities, internships, apprenticeships, youth entrepreneurship/cooperative development, job-matching fairs, and youth exchanges. It would also help to leverage the use of technology, e.g., social media, in connecting the OOSC in the region, and creating an online platform for learning and exchange.

References

Chapter 1: Introduction

UNESCO (2015). *Education for All 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges. Paris, France: UNESCO.* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002322/232205e.pdf

UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) Data Centre. Retrieved from http://data.uis.unesco.org/

UIS and EFA GMR (July 2015). *A growing number of children and adolescents are out of school as aid feels to meet the mark* (Policy Paper 22/ Fact Sheet 31). Retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/fs-31-out-of-school-children-en.pdf

UIS and UNICEF (2015). *Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children.* Montreal, Canada: UIS. Retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/oosci-global-report-en.pdf

Chapter 2: Social, Economic and Political Context

Andaya, B. (n.d.). *Introduction to Southeast Asia: History, Geography and Livelihood.* Retrieved from http://asiasociety.org/introduction-southeast-asia

Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2015). *Asian Development Outlook 2015: Financing Asia's Future Growth*. Mandaluyong, Philippines: ADB. Retrieved from http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/154508/ado2015-highlights.pdf

_____(2014). *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific*. Mandaluyong, Philippines: ADB. Retrieved from http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/43030/ki2014-mdg1.pdf

Asian Disaster Preparedness Center (ADPC) (2008a). *Impact of Disasters on the Education Sector in Cambodia. Bangkok, Thailand: ADPC*. Retrieved from http://www.preventionweb.net/files/15375_mdrdeducationcambodiafinalmar08.pdf

_____(2008b). *Impact of Disasters on the Education Sector in Lao PDR.* Bangkok, Thailand: ADPC. Retrieved from http://www.preventionweb.net/files/4004_LaoImpactsDisastersEducation.pdf

Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). *The World Factbook.* Retrieved from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/cb.html

ChildFund International (n.d.). *Unseen workers: Child labor in the Philippines.* Retrieved from https://www.childfund.org/child-labor-in-the-philippines/

Chua, Y. (2011). *Mindanao conflict affects PHL's chances of achieving education for all.* Retrieved from http:/pi/verafiles.org/mindanao-conflict-affects-phls-chances-of-achieving-education-for-all/#sthash.Q6UFsHo4.dpuf

Daluz, C. (2015). *Armed conflict displaces 120,000 in Mindanao.* Retrieved from http://cnnphilippines.com/regional/2015/03/23/Armed-conflict-Mindanao-unhcr.html

David, C. (2015). *OOSC Report: Status Update "What has been accomplished and what work remains?"* (Powerpoint slides). Retrieved from http://livestreaming.pids.gov.ph/files/presentations/oosc/OOSC%20Update.pdf

Department of Education (DepEd) (2014). *DepEd expands education access for Filipino children in Sabah.* Retrieved from http://www.deped.gov.ph/press-releases/deped-expands-educ-access-filipino-children-sabah

Don, A. (2011). Exploring Border, Exploiting Boundaries. *BankWatch Newsletter*. QC, Philippines: NGO Forum on the ADB.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Cambodia.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Malaysia.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Myanmar.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Philippines.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Thailand.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Timor-Leste.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Vietnam.

EduStat. *Key Education Data and Trend for the Last 30 Years, Socio-Economic Indicators 2012* Retrieved from http://www.edustat.net

Herrera, E. (2015). Child labor persists in the Philippines. *The Manila Times*. Retrieved from http://www.manilatimes.net/child-labor-persists-in-the-philippines/169878/

HV, V.,Thompson, F., and Tonby, O. (2014). *Understanding ASEAN: Seven Things You Need to Know.* Retrieved from http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/public_sector/understanding_asean_seven_things_you_need_to_know

International Labor Organization (ILO) (n.d.). *Child Labour*. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/manila/areasofwork/child-labour/lang--en/index.htm

Lunn, J. and Thompson, G. (2011). *Southeast Asia: A Political and Economic Introduction.* Research Paper 11/78. House of Commons Library

National Statistics Office (NSO) and ICF Macro (2009). *Philippines National Demographic and Health Survey 2008.* Calverton, Maryland: National Statistics Office and ICF Macro.

Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) (2015). *Out-of-School Children and Youth in the Philippines* (Results from the 2013 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey). Retrieved from https://psa.gov.ph/content/out-school-children-and-youth-philippines-results-2013-functional-literacy-education-and

Plan International Australia (2014). *Just Married. Just a Child. Child Marriage in the Indo-Pacific Region. Melbourne, Australia: Plan International.* Retrieved from https://www.plan.org.au/~/media/plan/documents/resources/plan_child_marriage_report_july_2014.pdf?la=en

Plan UK (2011). *Breaking Vows: Early and Forced Marriage and Girls' Education. Melbourne, Australia: Plan International.* Retrieved from http://www.plan-uk.org/resources/documents/Breaking-Vows-Early-and-Forced-Marriage-and-Girls-Education/

Rigby, B. (2013). *Southeast Asia's big dilemma: what to do about child marriage?* Retrieved from http://news.trust.org//item/20130827050032-zr80c/

SEAMEO Regional Center for Educational Innovation and Technology (SI) (2014). *Toolkit for Building Disaster-Resilient School Communities in Southeast Asia.* Quezon City, Philippines: SEAMEO INNOTECH.

_____(2007). *Alternative Options to Expand Access to Quality Basic Education.* Quezon City, Philippines: SEAMEO INNOTECH.

Sharma, M.; Inchauste, G.; and Feng, J. (2011). *Rising Inequality with High Growth and Falling Poverty (An Eye on East Asia and Pacific).* Retrieved from http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTEASTASIAPACIFIC/Resources/226262-1291126731435/EOEA_Manohar_Sharma_May2011.pdf

United Nations (UN) (2014, Dec. 18). *Asia-Pacific report: World's most disaster prone region experiences three-fold rise in deaths. UN News Centre.* Retrieved from www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=49642#.VeU9KX2u-KE

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) (2014). *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2014.* Retrieved from http://www.unescap.org/resources/statistical-yearbook-asia-and-pacific-2014

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2011). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011 – The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education.* Paris, France: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190743e.pdf

UNESCO (2007). *Education for All by 2015. Will We Make It? (EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008).* Paris: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001547/154743e.pdf

UNESCO and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2015). *Out-of-School Children and Adolescents in Asia and the Pacific (Fact Sheet).* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002351/235152E.pdf

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2014). *The State of the World's Children in Numbers 2014: Every Child Counts.* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/SOWC2014_In_Numbers_28_Jan.pdf

_____ (2012). *UNICEF Evaluation on Alternative Delivery Modes: MISOSA and e-Impact.* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/files/Philippines_ADM_Evaluationl_Philippines-2012-001.pdf

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) – Indonesia (2015). *Child Marriage Takes Centre Stage at 2015 AJI-UNICEF Media Awards.* Retrieved from http://unicefindonesia.blogspot.com/2015/08/child-marriage-takes-centre-stage-at.html

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS), and the Department of Education (DepEd) Philippines (2012). *All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children – Philippine Country Study.* Retrieved from http://livestreaming.pids.gov.ph/files/presentations/oosc/OOSC Country Report.pdf

United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2014a). *Human Development Index and its Components.* Retrieved from http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/table-1-human-development-index-and-its-components

_____(2014b). *Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities And Building Resilience.* Retrieved from http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr14-report-en-1.pdf

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (2012). *Marrying Too Young: End Child Marriage. NY, USA: UNFPA.* Retrieved from http://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/MarryingTooYoung.pdf

Vergara, E. (2015, May 9). Education for All (EFA) through Alternative Delivery Mode (ADM). *The Freeman.* Retrieved from http://www.philstar.com/freeman-opinion/2015/05/09/1452873/education-all-efa-through-alternative-delivery-mode-adm

World Bank (2015a). *Country and Lending Groups.* Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups

_____(2015b). *World Development Indicators: Distribution of Income or Consumption.* Retrieved from http://wdi.worldbank.org/table/2.9

_____. *World Development Indicators database.* Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org

Yap, J.T. (2013). *Addressing Inequality in East Asia through Regional Economic Integration.* Retrieved from http://www.pids.gov.ph/files/3rd%20RIN%20Statement%20Final.pdf

Chapter 3: Education Systems and Performance

Aungkyimyint, S. (2013). Case Presentation 21: Migrant Education in Ranong Province (Thai-Myanmar Border) (Thailand). *In UNESCO (Ed.) Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO.* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

Center for Education Innovations (CEI). (n.d.). *Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centers.* Retrieved from http://educationinnovations.org/program/burmese-migrant-workers-education-committee-bmwec-learning-centres

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Malaysia

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Myanmar

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Philippines

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Timor-Leste

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Vietnam

Htoo Htoo (2012). Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) in Myanmar: A short summary on the current operation and implementation of alternative learning/ schooling programme for primary education in Myanmar. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Myanmar Ministry of Education (MOE) (2013). *Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Phase 1. Rapid Assessment Report.* Retrieved from http://www.cesrmm.org/index.php/en/documents/category/27-comprehensiveeducationsectorreview-cesr-phasei-rapidassessmentreport

SEAMEO INNOTECH (2015). *Scoping Study into Human Rights-based Approaches to Education in Southeast Asia*. Unpublished Report. Quezon City, Philippines: SEAMEO INNOTECH.

Social Watch Philippines (SWP) (2014). *Alternative Budget Initiative Education Cluster. Alternative Budget Proposal on 2015 Education Budget*.

Thomas, M. and Burnett, N. (2015). *The Economic Cost of Out-of-School Children in Southeast Asia*. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002339/233993e.pdf

UNESCO (2015). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015: Achievements and Challenges. Paris, France: UNESCO*. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002322/232205e.pdf

UNESCO Bangkok (2015). *Asia-Pacific Regional Education for All Report: A Synthesis of the National EFA Report*. Paris, France & Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002332/233236E.pdf

_____ (2014). *Flexible Learning Strategies: Making Learning a Reality for All Children and Youth (Policy Brief)*. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user_upload/news/doc/Policy_Brief_FLS_2210614_Revised_b.pdf

_____(2013). E*ducation Systems in ASEAN+6 Countries: A Comparative Analysis of Selected Educational Issues: Education Policy Research Series.* Discussion Document No. 5. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002267/226757E.pdf

_____ (2010). *Reaching the Unreached in Education in Asia-Pacific to Meet the EFA Goals by 2015: A Commitment to Action*. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO Bangkok. Retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/Library/Documents/reaching-unreached-efa-goals-2015-policy-education-2010-en.pdf

UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS). Various data. Retrieved from http://data.uis.unesco.org/

UNESCO and UIS (2015). *Out-of-School Children and Adolescents in Asia and the Pacific: Left Behind on the Road to Learning Opportunities for All.* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002351/235152E.pdf

UNICEF, UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS), and the Department of Education (DepEd) Philippines (2012). *All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children – Philippine Country Study.* Retrieved from http://livestreaming.pids.gov.ph/files/presentations/oosc/OOSC Country Report.pdf

Vanna, L.; Kannara, K.; and Sophat, L. (2012). *Summary Report: Regional Meeting on "Alternative Learning/ Schooling Programmes for Primary Education*, 7-9 November 2012, Bangkok, Thailand. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

World Bank (WB) (2015). *Timor-Leste – Second Chance Education Project: Restructuring.* Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2015/10/25078198/timor-leste-second-chance-education-project-restructuring

Yunus and Norfariza (2012). *A short summary on the current operation and implementation of alternative learning/schooling programmes for primary education in Malaysia.* Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Chapter 4: Profile of Out-of-School Children

Australian Indonesia Partnership for Justice (AIPJ), PEKKA, and Family Court of Australia (2014). *AIPJ Baseline Study on Legal Identity: Indonesia's Missing Millions.* Retrieved from http://www.cpcnetwork.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/AIPJ-PUSKAPA-BASELINE-STUDY-ON-LEGAL-IDENTITY-Indonesia-2013.pdf

Ball, J., Butt, L.; and Beazley, H. (2014). *Children and Families on the Move: Stateless Children in Indonesia. Preliminary Field Research Report, Lombok and Jakarta.* Retrieved from http://www.ecdip.org/docs/pdf/Research%20Report%201%20Stateless%20Children%20Indonesia%20UVic%20USC%20Sept%202014.pdf

Buenaobra, M. (2011). *Overcoming Disability Challenges in the Philippines.* Retrieved from http://asiafoundation.org/in-asia/2011/10/26/overcoming-disability-challenges-in-the-philippines/

Cassrels, D. (2013, April 13). Children Desperate and Born Stateless in Indonesia. *The Australian News*. Retrieved from http://www.theaustralian.com.au/news/inquirer/children-desperate-and-born-stateless/story-e6frg6z6-1226619233368

Chua, Y. (2011, March 1). *Mindanao conflict affects PHL's chances of achieving education for all.* Retrieved from http://verafiles.org/mindanao-conflict-affects-phls-chances-of-achieving-education-for-all/

Daluz, C. (2015). *Armed conflict displaces 120,000 in Mindanao.* Retrieved from http://cnnphilippines.com/regional/2015/03/23/Armed-conflict-Mindanao-unhcr.html

Department of Education (DepEd) (2014). *DepEd expands education access for Filipino children in Sabah.* Retrieved from http://www.deped.gov.ph/press-releases/deped-expands-educ-access-filipino-children-sabah

Dombrowski, K. (2014). *Minorities: Stateless and without rights.* Retrieved from http://www.dandc.eu/en/article/many-ethnic-minorities-thailand-are-stateless-and-thereby-without-rights

Economic Planning Unit (EPU) Prime Minister's Department and United Nations (UN) Country Team, Malaysia (UN) (2011). *Malaysia: The Millennium Development Goals at 2010. KL, Malaysia: UNESCO. http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/Malaysia-MDGs-Progress-Report-2010.pdf*

Eden Centre for Disabled Children (ECDC) and VSO (2015). *A Space to Learn for All Children? Inclusive Education and Children with Disabilities in Yangon, Myanmar.* Retrieved from http://www.themimu.info/sites/themimu.info/files/documents/Report_Inclusive_Education_Children_with_Disabilities_Mar2015.pdf

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Cambodia

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Malaysia

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Myanmar

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Philippines

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Thailand

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Timor-Leste

Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Viet Nam

Education Policy and Data Center (2014). *Laos: National Education Profile 2014 Update.* Retrieved from http://www.epdc.org/sites/default/files/documents/EPDC%20NEP_Laos.pdf

Graham, N. (2014). *Children with Disabilities.* Paper commissioned for Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UIS/UNICEF, 2015), Montreal, Canada: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).

Guarcello, L.; Lyon, S. and Rosati, F. (2014). *Child Labor and Out-of-School Children: Evidence from 25 Developing Countries.* Paper commissioned for Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UIS/UNICEF, 2015), Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).

Handicap International (2009). *Disability Facts in Cambodia (Briefing Paper).* Retrieved from http://www.addc.org.au/documents/resources/briefing-paper-disability-facts-in-cambodia_948.pdf

Hasan, M. (2012). *Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey 2009: Profile of Out-of-School Children.*

Humanium (2012). *Children of Vietnam, Realizing Children's Rights in Vietnam.* Retrieved from http://www.humanium.org/en/vietnam/

_____(2011). *Children of Laos, Realizing Children's Rights in Laos.* Retrieved from http://www.humanium.org/en/laos/

_____(2010). *Child Labour*. Retrieved from http://www.humanium.org/en/child-labour/

Human Rights Watch (HRW) (2014). *Two Years with No Moon: Immigration Detention of Children in Thailand. USA: Human Rights Watch*. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/thailand0914_ForUpload_0.pdf

International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) (2015). *Child Marriage Facts and Figures*. Retrieved from http://www.icrw.org/child-marriage-facts-and-figures

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) (2014). *Myanmar: Comprehensive solutions needed for recent and long-term IDPs alike*. Retrieved from http://www.internal-displacement.org/south-and-south-east-asia/myanmar/2014/myanmar-comprehensive-solutions-needed-for-recent-and-long-term-idps-alike

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2014). *Education for Child Labour and Migrant Children: Information Kits for Schools and Teachers. Geneva, Switzerland & Thailand: ILO*. Retrieved from https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0ahUKEwj8wbnPxLrKAhVEkpQKHULJAB8QFggdMAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.ilo.org%2Fipecinfo%2Fproduct%2Fdownload.do%3Bjsessionid%3Dfd38347d322c2f7af555ceb9a7a6347fedb1b79658df9b97fa3987e17b2fefbb.e3aTbhuLbNmSe34MchaRahaKah50%3Ftype%3Ddocument%26id%3D25735&usg=AFQjCNG7L5u5w40QKetb7FDY8CS3lxg7Eg

International Labor Organization (ILO), Lao Statistics Bureau (LSB), Ministry of Labor & Social Welfare (MLSW) (2012). *Report on the National Child Labor Survey 2010 of Lao PDR*. Vientiane, Lao PDR: ILO. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/ipecinfo/product/download.do?type=document&id=21256

International Labour Organization (ILO), Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) and General Statistics Office (GSO) (2014). *Vietnam National Child Labor Survey 2012 Main Findings*. Hanoi, Vietnam: ILO. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---robangkok/---ilo-hanoi/documents/publication/wcms_237833.pdf

International Observatory on Statelessness (IOS) (n.d.). *Vietnam*. Retrieved from http://www.nationalityforall.org/vietnam

IRIN (2013). *Analysis: Massive education gaps confront displaced children in Rakhine*. Retrieved from http://www.irinnews.org/report/98766/analysis-massive-education-gaps-confront-displaced-children-in-rakhine

Letchamanan, H. (2013). Malaysia: The Education of Refugee and Asylum-Seeking Children. In Symaco, L. (Ed.) *Education in Southeast Asia (Education Around the World)*. London, UK & NY, USA: Bloomsbury Academic.

Llewellyn, G.; Emerson, E.; Madden, R.; and Honey, A. (2012). *The Well-Being of Children with Disabilities in the Asia-Pacific Region: An Analysis of UNICEF MICS 3 Survey Data from Bangladesh, Lao PDR, Mongolia and Thailand*. Retrieved from http://sydney.edu.au/health-sciences/cdrp/pdfs/asia-pacific-mics-2012.pdf

McDougall, G. (2011). *Report of the independent expert on minority issues. Addendum: Mission to Viet Nam. Human Rights Council, 16th Session A/HRC/16/45/Add.2* Retrieved from http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrcouncil/docs/16session/A-HRC-16-45-Add2.pdf

Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC) (2013). *Overview of Education Sector in Indonesia 2012: Achievements and Challenges*. Jakarta, Indonesia: MoEC. Retrieved from http://www.acdp-indonesia.org/../ACDP-002-Overview-of-the-Education-Sector-in-Indonesia-2012-Indonesia.pdf

Ministry of Education (MOE) Malaysia (2013). *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-20125 (Preschool to Post-Secondary Education)*. Putrajaya, Malaysia: MoE Malaysia. Retrieved from http://www.moe.gov.my/cms/upload_files/articlefile/2013/articlefile_file_003108.pdf

Ministry of Health (MOH), Lao Statistics Bureau (LSB), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (2012). *Lao Social Indicator Survey (LSIS) 2011-12 (MICS/ DHS)*. Vientiane, Lao PDR: MOH & LSB. https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR268/FR268.pdf

Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED), Ministry of Health (MOH), and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2011). *Myanmar Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2009-2010. Final Report*. Nay Pyi Taw, Myanmar: MNPED & MOH, Myanmar.

Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED), SIDA, UNICEF, and UNDP (2011). *Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey in Myanmar (2009-2010) – MDG Data Report, Yangon*. Retrieved from http://www.mm.undp.org/content/dam/myanmar/docs/Publications/PovRedu/MMR_FA1_IA2_MDGDataReport_Eng.pdf

Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2012). *Situation Analysis of Children in Myanmar*. Nay Pyi Taw, Myanmar: MNPED & UNICEF. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/eapro/Myanmar_Situation_Analysis.pdf

Mulakala, A. (2010). *Sabah's Stateless Children*. Retrieved from http://asiafoundation.org/in-asia/2010/12/08/sabahs-stateless-children/

Myanmar Ministry of Education (MOE) (2013). *Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Phase 1. Rapid Assessment Report*. Retrieved from http://www.cesrmm.org/index.php/en/documents/category/27-comprehensiveeducationsectorreview-cesr-phasei-rapidassessmentreport

_____(n.d.) *Non-Formal Education* (Sub-Sector Report No. 4: National Education Sector Plan 2016-21)

National Statistics Directorate (NSD) [Timor-Leste], Ministry of Finance (MOF) [Timor-Leste], and ICF Macro (2010). *Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey 2009-10. Dili, Timor-Leste: NSD [Timor-Leste] and ICF Macro.*

NSD (Timor-Leste) and United Nations Population Fund UNFPA (2012a). *Timor-Leste Population and Housing Census 2010: Analytical Report on Education (Vol. 9)*. Retrieved from http://www.statistics.gov.tl/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/Disability_Monograph.pdf

_____(2012b). *Timor-Leste Population and Housing Census 2010: Analytical Report on Disability (Vol. 10)*. Retrieved from http://www.statistics.gov.tl/category/publications/census-publications/

National Statistics Office (NSO) and International Labor Organization (ILO) – International Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (IPEC) (2011). *2011 Survey on Children.*

OECD and ADB (2015). *Education In Indonesia: Rising to the Challenge.* Paris, France: OECD Publishing. Retrieved from http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/education-in-indonesia_9789264230750-en#page1

Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (OPAPP) and Surveys, Training, Research and Development Services (STRIDES, Inc). (2009). *Guidebook on the Conflict-Sensitive and Peace-Promoting Local Development Planning.* Pasig, Philippines: OPAPP.

Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) (2015). *Out-of-School Children and Youth in the Philippines (Results from the 2013 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey*). Retrieved from https://psa.gov.ph/content/out-school-children-and-youth-philippines-results-2013-functional-literacy-education-and

_____(2013). *Persons with Disability in the Philippines (Results from the 2010 Census).* Retrieved from https://psa.gov.ph/content/persons-disability-philippines-results-2010-census

_____(2012). *The number of working children 5 to 17 years old is estimated at 5.5 million (Preliminary Results of the 2011 Survey on Children).* Retrieved from https://psa.gov.ph/content/number-working-children-5-17-years-old-estimated-55-million-preliminary-results-2011-survey#sthash.Jn6MAGlA.dpuf

Pitriyan, P. (2006). *The Impact of Child Labor on Child's Education: The Case of Indonesia.* Retrieved from http://lp3e.fe.unpad.ac.id/wopeds/200609.pdf

Plan International (2008). *Report on the First National Survey of Disability in Timor-Leste's Primary Schools, 2008.*

Plan International Australia (2014). *Just Married. Just a Child. Child Marriage in the Indo-Pacific Region. Melbourne, Australia: Plan International.* Retrieved from https://www.plan.org.au/~/media/plan/documents/resources/plan_child_marriage_report_july_2014.pdf?la=en

Priyambada, A. Suryahadi, A., Sumarto, S. (2005). *What Happened to Child Labor in Indonesia during the Economic Crisis: The Trade-off between School and Work. Jakarta, Indonesia: SMERU Research Institute.* Retrieved from http://saber.eaber.org/sites/default/files/documents/SMERU_Priyambada_2005.pdf

Rigby, B. (2013). *Young Brides in Laos Face Uncertain Futures. Girls Not Brides.* Retrieved from http://www.girlsnotbrides.org/girls-voices/young-brides-in-laos-face-uncertain-futures/

Save the Children (SC) and World Education (WE) (2014). *Pathways to a Better Future: A Review of Education for Migrant Children in Thailand.* Retrieved from http://thailand.worlded.org/files/2015/03/MESR-Policy-Brief.pdf

SMERU Research Institute, Bappenas, and UNICEF (2012). *Child Poverty and Disparities in Indonesia: Challenges for Inclusive Growth.* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/indonesia/Child_Poverty_Indonesia.pdf

Sta. Ana, M. (n.d.) *Education of Children with Multiple Disabilities in the Philippines*. Retrieved from http://www.nise.go.jp/kenshuka/josa/kankobutsu/pub_d/d-228/d-228_18.pdf

Sugimura, M. (2007). Universalization of Primary Education in the Context of Multi-Ethnic Society: The Case of Malaysia. In Yonemura, A. (Ed.) *Universalization of Primary Education in the Historical and Developmental Perspective*. Retrieved from http://www.ide.go.jp/English/Publish/Download/Report/2005/pdf/2005_04_15_08.pdf

Symaco, L.P. (n.d.). *Perspectives on Practice and Policy: Success Increasing Access and Retention in Primary Education in Malaysia*. Retrieved from http://educateachild.org/sites/default/files/attachments/MALAYSIA.pdf

Thomas, M. and Burnett, N. (2015). *The Economic Cost of Out-of-School Children in Southeast Asia*. Paris, France & Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002339/233993e.pdf

Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme (2014). *Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment Outcomes in Laos. Rome, Italy: UCW Programme*. Retrieved from http://www.ucw-project.org/attachment/Laos_child_labour_youth_employment20140109_131450.pdf

UNESCO (2011). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011 – The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education*. Paris, France: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190743e.pdf

UNESCO Bangkok (Bkk) (2009). *Case Studies on the Inclusion of Children with Disabilities*. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO Bangkok. Retrieved from http:// unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002146/214603e.pdf

UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS). Various years and data. Retrieved from http://data.uis.unesco.org/

_____(2013). *Indonesia, East Asia and the Pacific*. Retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/das/Country/?

UNICEF and UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) (2015). *Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children*. Montreal, Canada: UIS. Retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/oosci-global-report-en.pdf

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (2014). *UNHCR country operations profile – Myanmar*. Retrieved from http://www.unhcr.org/pages/49e4877d6.html

_____(2013). *Submission by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees For the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights' Compilation Report – Universal Periodic Review: Socialist Republic of Vietnam*. Retrieved from http://www.refworld.org/pdfid/51c946514.pdf

_____(2012). *The UN Refugee Agency Malaysia*. Retrieved from http://www.unhcr.org.my/Education-@-Education.aspx

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2014a). *The Indonesian Story.* Jakarta, Indonesia: UNICEF. Retrieved from www.unicef.org/indonesia/Indonesiastory_FINALENGLISH_small.pdf

_____(2014b). *UNICEF Indonesia Annual Report 2014.* Jakarta, Indonesia: UNICEF. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/indonesia/UnicefAnnualReport2014_FINALPREVIEW_ENGLISH.pdf

_____(2014c). *The State of the World's Children in Numbers 2014: Every Child Counts.* NY, USA: UNICEF. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/SOWC2014_In_Numbers_28_Jan.pdf

_____(2014d). *Children with Disabilities in Malaysia: Mapping the Policies, Programmes, Interventions and Stakeholders.* KL, Malaysia: UNICEF Malaysia. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/UNICEF-Children_with_Disability_in_Malaysia_2014_lowres.pdf

_____(2013a). *Ending Child Marriage: Progress and Prospects.* NY, USA: UNICEF. Retrieved from http://www.data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded_pdfs/corecode/Child-Marriage-Brochure-HR_164.pdf

_____(2013b). *Indonesia Socio-Economic Survey 2011: Inequalities in Education.* Unpublished draft. UNICEF.

_____(2013c). *A Passport to Education: A Guide to Birth Registration Programming.* NY, USA: UNICEF. Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/protection/files/UNICEF_Birth_Registration_Handbook.pdf

UNICEF and Ministry of Finance (MOF) (2014). *Situation Analysis of Children in Timor-Leste.*

UNICEF, UIS, and Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (2013). *All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children – Vietnam Country Study.* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/vietnam/TENNT_eng_11_8_2114.pdf

UNICEF, UIS, Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS), and the Department of Education (DepEd) Philippines (2012). *All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children – Philippine Country Study.* Retrieved from http://livestreaming.pids.gov.ph/files/presentations/oosc/OOSC Country Report.pdf

United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA) (2013). "*Myanmar: Children affected by Rakhine conflict miss a year of school".* Retrieved from http://www.unocha.org/top-stories/all-stories/myanmar-children-affected-rakhine-conflict-miss-year-school

_____(2013). *Rakhine Response Plan (Myanmar) July 2012-December 2013.* Retrieved from http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Snapshot_Rakhine_UNOCHA_12_Aug2013.pdf

US Department of Labor (2014). *Indonesia: 2014 Findings on the Worst Form of Child Labor.* Retrieved from http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2014TDA/indonesia.pdf

VanLeit, B.; Channa, S., and Rithy, P. (2007). *Children with Disabilities in Rural Cambodia: An Examination of Functional Status and Implications for Service Delivery.* Asia Pacific Dsiability Rehabilitation Journal, 18 (2).

Welford, R. (2013). *Child Labor and Children at Risk in Laos.* Retrieved from http://csr-asia.com/csr-asia-weekly-news-detail.php?id=12210

World Health Organization (WHO) and World Bank (WB) (2011). *World Report on Disability.* Retrieved from http://www.who.int/disabilities/world_report/2011/report.pdf

Yunus and Norfariza (2012). *A short summary on the current operation and implementation of Alternative Learning/Schooling Programmes for primary education in Malaysia.* Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Chapter 5: Pillars of Flexible Learning Strategies: Approached from Sea

Alipala, J. and Manlupig, K. (2014). Floating schools bring learning to Badjao, Sama kids. *Philippine Daily Inquirer.* Retrieved from http://philippines.brac.net/news-a-media/186-floating-schools-bring-learning-to-badjao-sama-kids

Aungkyimyint, S. (2013). Case Presentation 21: Migrant Education in Ranong Province (Thai-Myanmar Border) (Thailand). In UNESCO (Ed.) *Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports*. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

Bureau of Alternative Learning System (BALS) (n.d.a) *Alternative Learning System* (leaflets).

_____(n.d.b). *List of A&E Core Modules.* Unpublished handout.

Burmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) (2013). *Annual Report 2012-2013.* Retrieved from http://educationinnovations.org/sites/default/files/Annual%20Report%202012-2013.pdf

Cambodian Volunteers for Community Development (CVCD) (n.d.) *Non-Formal Education.* Retrieved from http://cvcdwebsite.wix.com/cvcd#!non-formal-education/c1m7c

Center for Education Innovations (CEI). (n.d.). B*urmese Migrant Workers' Education Committee (BMWEC) Learning Centers.* Retrieved from http://educationinnovations.org/program/burmese-migrant-workers-education-committee-bmwec-learning-centres

Clapano, J. R. (2014). *The Philippine Star.* "MM has world's highest homeless population". Retrieved from http://www.philstar.com/headlines/2014/05/06/1319831/mm-has-worlds-highest-homeless-population

Clarke, D. (2010). *Independent Evaluation of UNICEF Education Programme: Improving Access to Quality Basic Education in Myanmar (2006-2010).* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Evaluation_of_UNICEF_Education_Programme_-_Improving_Access_to_Quality_Basic_Education_in_Myanmar_2006-2010_2010-002.pdf

Corpuz, R. (2013). The Alternative Learning System in the Philippines: Logistics and Management. In UNESCO (Ed.) *Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached)*. Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

Dara, I (2012). *Summary Report of Non-Formal Education*. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Department of Education (DepEd) (2014). *DepEd expands education access for Filipino children in Sabah*. Retrieved from http://www.deped.gov.ph/press-releases/deped-expands-educ-access-filipino-children-sabah

_____(2008a). *Open High School Program Handbook*. Retrieved from http://www.deped.gov.ph/sites/default/files/Open%20HS%20Program%20Manual.pdf

_____(2008b). DepEd Memorandum No. 313, s. 2008: Provision of Teaching Aid and Transportation Allowances to ALS Mobile Teachers and District ALS Coordinators.

_____(2007). DepEd Memorandum No. 443, s. 2007: Unified Guidelines for the Alternative Learning System (ALS) Contracting Scheme.

_____(n.d.a). *ALS Programs*. http://www.deped.gov.ph/als/programs

_____(n.d.b). *ALS FAQ*. http://www.deped.gov.ph/als/faq

Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) (2015). *FLS in Action: Regional Planning Workshop to Expand Flexible Learning Strategies for Out-of-School Children in ASEAN*.

Dynamic Teen Company (DTC). (2012). *Kariton Klasrum Toolkit*. Unpublished document.

EFA 2015 Review Report: Lao PDR

EFA 2015 Review Report: Myanmar

Figueredo, V. and Anzalone, S. (2003). *Alternative Models for Secondary Education in Developing Countries: Rationale and Realities*.

Flexlearningstrategies.net (n.d.) *Cambodia: Primary Equivalency Programme*. Retrieved from http://www.flexlearnstrategies.net/2012/12/14/primary-equivalency-programme/

Guerrero, C. (2007). *Philippines: Non-Formal Education (Country profile prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008, Education for All by 2015: Will we make it?)*. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001555/155532e.pdf

Harjautama, N. (2013). Alternative Learning Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached through "Paket A"-1 (Indonesia). In UNESCO (Ed). *Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached)*. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

HDF Mercy Centre (2008). *The Janusz Korczak School of S.E. Asia.* Retrieved from http://www.mercycentre.org/en/education/the-janusz-korczak-school

_____(2007). *The Mercy School System.* Retrieved from http://www.mercycentre.org/en/education/mercy-schools

Htoo Htoo (2012). Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) in Myanmar: A short summary on the current operation and implementation of alternative learning/ schooling programme for primary education in Myanmar. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

IRIN News (2009). *Thailand: Burmese migrant children missing out on education.* Retrieved from http://www.irinnews.org/report/84844/ Thailand-Burmese-migrant-children-missing-out-on-education

Lakkum, P. (2015). *Situations and Problems of Non-Formal and Informal Education for Migrant People/ Children in Thailand (*Powerpoint slides).

Lam, C. (2007). *Vietnam Non Formal Education (Country profile presented for the Education for All Global Report 2008).* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001555/155517e.pdf

Lamberte, E.E. (Ed.) (2001). *Ours to Protect and Nurture.* Manila: De la Salle University, Social Development Research Center.

Lwin, T. (n.d.) *Training Burmese Teachers.* Retrieved from http://www.hurights.or.jp/archives/pdf/asia-s-ed/v10/11Training%20Burmese%20Teachers.pdf

Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC) (2013). *Overview of the Education Sector in Indonesia 2012: Achievements and Challenges.*

Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS) (2015). *Flexible Learning Strategies in Cambodia. Powerpoint presented during the FLS in Action: Regional Planning Workshop to Expand Flexible Learning Strategies for Out-of-School Children in ASEAN.*

Myanmar Ministry of Education (2011). *NFPE: Helping Hand.* Retrieved from http://mmnfpe.org/wp-content/uploads/pdf/A-Helping-Hand-engilsh.pdf

_____(n.d.) *Chapter 5: Non-Formal Education (Sub-Sector Report No. 4: National Education Sector Plan 2016-21)*

National Directorate of Recurrent Education (NDRE) (n.d.). *Timor-Leste Second Chance Education Project Terms of Reference for District Support and Facilitator.* Retrieved from http://moe.gov.tl/sites/default/files/District%20Support%20and%20Facilitator%20%28DSF%29.pdf

Ngadirin, H. (2013). Alternative Learning Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached through "Paket A"-2 (Indonesia). In UNESCO (Ed.) *Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached).* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

Oh, S. (2010). *Education in refugee camps in Thailand: Policy, practice and paucity.* Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190709e.pdf

Panaligan, S. (2013). Alternative learning system/ schooling programmes for primary education to reach the unreached (Philippines). In UNESCO (Ed.) *Flexible Learning Strategies: Country Case Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached).* Bangkok: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

Save the Children (SC) and World Education (WE) (2014). *Pathways to a Better Future: A Review of Education for Migrant Children in Thailand.* Retrieved from http://thailand.worlded.org/files/2015/03/MESR-Policy-Brief.pdf

SEAMEO INNOTECH (SI) (2015a). *Evaluation of Open High School Program in the Philippines.* Unpublished report.

_____(2015b). *Scoping Study into Human Rights-based Approaches to Education in Southeast Asia.* Unpublished Report. Quezon City, Philippines: SEAMEO INNOTECH.

Shanker, A.; Marian, D., and Swimmer, C. (2015). E*ffective Interventions Aimed at Reaching Out-of-School Children: A Literature Review. Kathmandu, Nepal: UNICEF Regional Office for South Asia.* Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/education/files/LiteratureReview_InterventionsToReach_OOSC_UNICEF-ROSA.pdf

Southivong, S. (n.d.). *Summary of Non-Formal Education Mobile Teacher Programme for Primary Education for the 6-14 years Children in Remote Areas, Lao PDR.* Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

UNESCO (2015). *Promising EFA Studies in the Asia Pacific Region: The Philippines Kariton Klasrum.* Paris, France & Bangkok, Thailand: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002330/233005E.pdf

_____(1993). *Volume III Manual for Equivalency Programmes.* Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/413_48c.pdf

UNESCO Bangkok (Bkk) (2015). *Myanmar.* In NESPAP Open Platform. Retrieved from http://nespap.unescobkk.org/country/myanmar/

_____(2013). *Flexible Learning Strategies: Case Country Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached).* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

_____(2012). *Mobile teachers reach 7,000 out-of-school children in 280 Lao villages.* Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/education/news/article/planting-life-of-less-ordinary/?utm_medium=twitter&utm_source=twitterfeed451&cHash=7253520cd685033c7c3e21adef632bbc

_____(2010). *Achieving EFA through Equivalency Programmes in Asia-Pacific.* Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002141/214109e.pdf

_____(2006). E*quivalency Programmes (EPs) for Promoting Lifelong Learning*. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001496/149605e.pdf

_____(n.d.) *Flexible Learning Strategies for Out-of-School Children and Youth*.

Vanna, L.; Kannara, K.; and Sophat, L. (2012). *Summary Report: Regional Meeting on "Alternative Learning/ Schooling Programmes for Primary Education*. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

Wiboonuppatum, R. (2013). Case Presentation 11 – Case from Thailand: Hill Tribe Schools (Thailand). In UNESCO (Ed.) *Flexible Learning Strategies: Country Case Reports (Outcome Document of the Regional Meeting on Alternative Learning / Schooling Programmes for Primary Education to Reach the Unreached)*. Bangkok: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002233/223325E.pdf

World Bank (WB) (2015). *Timor-Leste Second Chance Education Project*. Retrieved from http://www.worldbank.org/projects/P116520/timor-leste-second-chance-education-project?lang=en.

Yamada, N. (2012). *Mobile teachers reach 7,000 out-of-school children in 280 Lao villages*. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/education/news/article/planting-life-of-less- ordinary/?utm_medium=twitter& utm_source=twitterfeed451&cHash=7253520cd685033c7c3e21adef632bbc

Yunus and Norfariza (2012). *A short summary on the current operation and implementation of Alternative Learning/Schooling Programmes for primary education in Malaysia*. Retrieved from http://www.unescobkk.org/fr/education/literacy-and-lifelong-learning/flexible-learning-strategies/country-cases/

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

Sustainable
Development
Goals

Bangkok Office
Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau
for Education

علّم طفلاً
EDUCATE A CHILD
A programme of education above all

SEAMEO
SEAMEO INNOTECH