

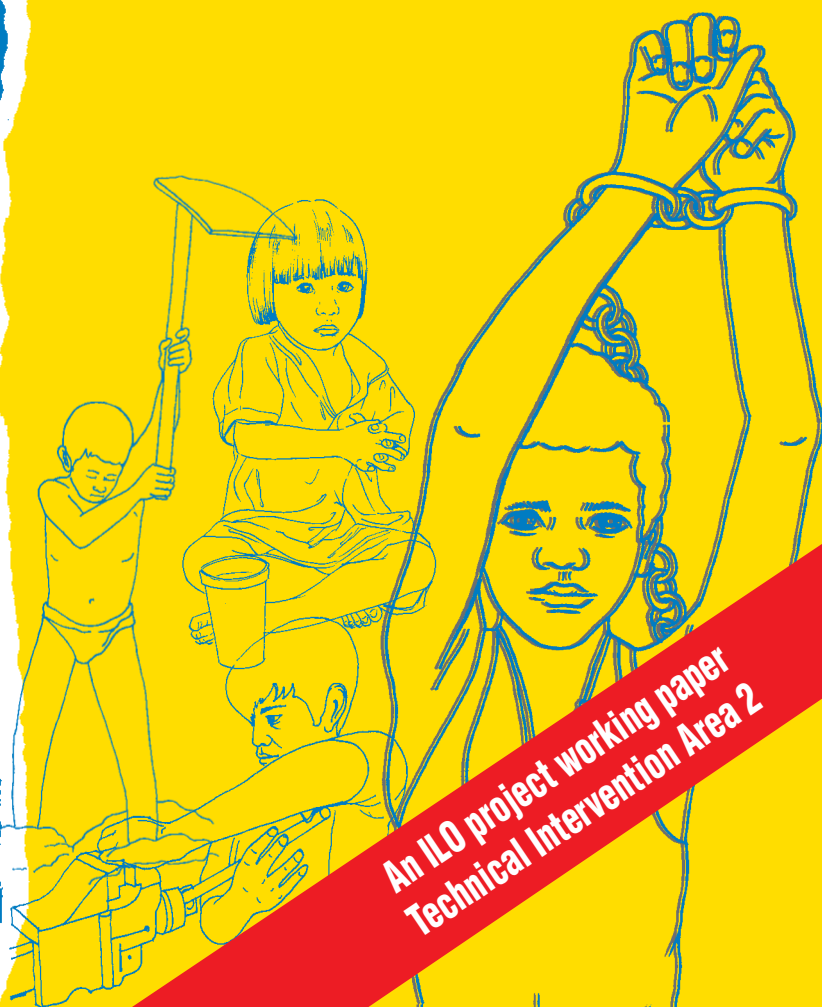


**ILO Mekong
Sub-Regional Project
to Combat
Trafficking in
Children and Women**

**In collaboration
with
ILO-IPEC
Footwear &
Fishing Projects**



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AND RURAL SKILLS TRAINING: TOOLS TO COMBAT THE WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR INCLUDING TRAFFICKING



**An ILO project working paper
Technical Intervention Area 2**

**International Labour Organization (ILO)
International Programme on the Elimination
of Child Labour (IPEC)**



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AND RURAL SKILLS TRAINING:

**TOOLS TO COMBAT THE WORST FORMS OF CHILD
LABOUR, INCLUDING TRAFFICKING**

Hans Christiaan Haan

May 2002

For:

**ILO Mekong sub-regional project to combat trafficking in
children and women &**

**ILO/IPEC projects to combat child labour in the deep-sea fishing and
footwear sectors in South-east Asia**

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ILO/IPEC

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Foreword

Worst forms of child labour, including trafficking, are not new issues – and neither is the ILO's work to ensure recognition of the fundamental human right to freedom from forced labour and child labour. The ILO's Constitution and Declaration of Philadelphia uphold this principle unequivocally. Other important landmarks include the ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) and the ILO Minimum Age for Labour Convention, 1973 (No. 138). Most recently, the ILO's Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182) have added more impetus to the struggle to end this terrible practice. And yet, it is an enormous task as the magnitude of the problems is huge and of a hidden nature.

More encouragingly, we have also seen unprecedented international interest in the fight against the worst forms of child labour and trafficking. The ILO has been at the forefront of international efforts to combat trafficking, within the framework of ILO Convention No. 182. In south-east Asia, the ILO's work includes a project to combat trafficking in women and children in the Greater Mekong Subregion – funded by the United Kingdom Government's Department for International Development (DFID-SEA) – and the ILO/IPEC projects to combat child labour in the deep-sea fishing and footwear sectors in south-east Asia – funded by the United States Department of Labour.

These projects joined forces in the development of technical capacities to address the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking. The initiative included a desk review of state-of-the-Art literature and field research in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. The desk review and research were undertaken by Hans Haan, an expert in community based training – with more than 20 years of relevant working experience, and resulted in this paper. The joint initiative was co-ordinated by Hans van de Glind, who, together with Anna Engblom, also provided technical backstopping and editorial support.

The paper aims to contribute to more effective non-formal education and rural skills training, and ultimately prevent children from being drawn into the worst forms of child labour. The paper is a stand-alone document that complements other papers in related areas, in particular a paper entitled 'Micro-finance interventions: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking'. Together these papers form a series of tools covering a range of Technical Intervention Areas (TIAs) that may each contribute to combating worst forms of child labour, including trafficking.

I take this opportunity to convey my thanks to those who provided technical inputs during the course of the initiative: Jim Tanburn (ILO-FIT); Rie Vejs-Laursen (ILO-SED); Judith van Doorn (ILO-SFU); Nelien Haspels, Ian Cumming and Max Iacono (ILO-EASMAT); Paula Kelly ; Anna Engblom and Antero Vahapassi (ILO-Footwear & Fishing projects); Eriko Kiuchi, Herve Berger and Hans van de Glind (ILO-TICW project).

I hope that this publication will make a meaningful contribution to effective non-formal education and skills training interventions and to this initiative's overarching goal – combating the worst forms of child labour, including, trafficking, in south-east Asia.

Yasuyuki Nodera
ILO Regional Director
Asia Pacific Region

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Executive Summary

This publication on micro-finance interventions results from a joint initiative by the ILO's Mekong sub-regional project to combat trafficking in children and women (ILO TICW project) and the ILO/IPEC projects to combat child labour in the deep sea fishing and footwear sectors in south-east Asia.

It is part of a series of publications covering various technical intervention areas that the TICW project focuses on. Other topics addressed include non-formal education and rural skills training, legal labour migration, gender equality promotion, networking and coordination, participation, project management, psycho-social counselling and working with employers' and workers' organizations. Together – not alone – these interventions are thought to contribute to combating the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking.

Non-formal education and skills training programmes may prevent children from entering employment prematurely, by training them and/or their parents. They also give children the knowledge and the skills they will need if they are to find better and less exploitative jobs when they reach working age. This is relevant given the high fertility rates in recent years in many south-east Asia nations, which will result in millions of youth joining the labour force in the next few years. Many of these youngsters will end up in exploitative situations if decent work options are insufficient.

Not all micro-finance interventions are successful however. This publication highlights and discusses a number of critical concerns related to micro-finance programmes, with a particular focus on rural areas. Questions such as who to target and how, how to establish and maintain savings and lending schemes, what kind of training to provide, how to reach out to the poorest of the poor, gender concerns and how to ensure cost effectiveness and sustainability are raised and thoroughly discussed. The findings are based on a review of literature and field work in Cambodia, the Philippines and Viet Nam. Though the suggestions and considerations in the publication may be used broadly – beyond the three countries where the field work was undertaken, they are no “blue-prints” and should be interpreted in specific local contexts.

This document has three key parts: Chapter 2 discusses the role of, and experiences in providing non-formal education. The second part, Chapters 3 to 6, deals with rural skills training, and is the most prolific topic of the study. In Chapter 3 an overview is given of different approaches to rural skills training, Chapter 4 deals with the organization and delivery of rural skills training, Chapter 5 deals with its' financial aspects, and Chapter 6 deals with organizational aspects. Each one of these chapters includes at the end a summary of key points.

The third part, Chapter 7, presents a summary of the main arguments together with an overview of established good practices in providing non-formal education and rural skills training.

ACRONYMS

ABD	- Asian Development Bank
Barangay	- lowest administrative level in the Philippines, comparable with rural villages
BDS	- business development services
CIDSE	- Cooperation Internationale pour le Développement et la Solidarité (VTN)
DECS	- Department of Education, Culture and Sports (Philippines)
DED	- Deutsche Entwicklungs Dienste (German Development Service)
DfID	- Department for International Development (UK)
ED	- entrepreneurship development
EU	- European Union
GEMINI	- Growth and Equity through Micro-enterprise Investments and Institutions (USAID)
GDP	- gross domestic product
GENPROM	- Gender Promotion Programme (ILO)
GoC	- Government of Cambodia
GoP	- Government of the Philippines
GoV	- Government of Viet Nam
GTZ	- Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
ICTs	- information and communication technologies
IFAD	- International Fund for Agricultural Development (ROME)
IGAs	- income-generating activities
ILO	- International Labour Organization (Geneva)
IPEC	- International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
IPEC/F&F	- footwear and fishing projects
IPEC/TICW	- Greater Mekong Sub-regional project to Combat Trafficking In Children and Women

IS	- informal sector
ITC	- ILO Training Centre (Turin)
LWS	- Lutheran World Federation/dept. for World Service
MoEYS	- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (Cambodia)
MSEs	- micro and small enterprises
NFE	- non-formal education
NGO	- non-government organization
NTF	- National Training Fund (Cambodia)
RIS	- rural informal education
SAP	- Structural Adjustment Programme
SIYB	- Start and Improve Your Business (ILO methodology)
SKIP	- Stiftung Kinderdorf Pestalozzi
TESDA	- Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (Philippines)
TENA	- Training and Employment Needs Assessment (DTVET, Cambodia)
TICW	- Trafficking in Children and Women
TNA	- Training Needs Assessment
TNO	- Training Needs and Opportunities assessment
UNDP	- United Nations Development Programme
UNIDO	- UN Industrial Development Programme (Vienna)
USAID	- United States Agency for International Development
USD	- USA dollar
VETA	- vocational education and training authority (generic)
VTC	- vocational training centre
VTI	- vocational training institute
WV	- World Vision

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AND RURAL SKILLS TRAINING: TOOLS TO COMBAT THE WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR, INCLUDING TRAFFICKING

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Paper in Its Context

Child labour is a multi-dimensional issue requiring multi-dimensional responses. In south-east Asia, both the ILO Mekong sub-regional project to combat trafficking in children and women (ILO TICW project) and the ILO/IPEC projects to combat child labour in the deep-sea fishing and footwear sectors in south-east Asia (F&F projects) employ a multitude of interventions. In both cases these interventions include a focus on non-formal education and rural skills training for children at risk of labour exploitation and/or their parents.

Local partner agencies through which the projects implement a range of interventions – and one of the target groups of this publication – indicated an interest in tools to professionalize their services, among others in the field of non-formal education and rural skills training. The TICW project and F&F projects hence launched a joint initiative to explore the state-of-the-art knowledge in these areas and identify outstanding needs.

This paper is the result of these collaborative efforts and aims to offer practical tools to a wide range of local service providers involved in combating the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking, in south-east Asia (and beyond). These agencies are mostly humanitarian in nature and typically offer a wide range of services of which the effectiveness can be enhanced.

The initiative is composed of a literature review and field research in three selected countries (Cambodia, the Philippines and Viet Nam) and suggestions have been put forward in such a way that they can be applied in a variety of situations and countries – provided that local contexts are taken into account. The results include practical guidelines for offering non-formal education and rural skills training services, suggestions for collaboration with expert service providers in the field of non-formal education and rural skills training, good practice examples and lessons learned, pointers for action and literature references. The paper aims to contribute to more effective non-formal education and rural skills training and ultimately prevent children from being drawn into the worst forms of child labour.

The paper is a stand-alone document that complements other papers in related areas, in particular a paper entitled: “Micro-finance interventions: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking”. Together these papers form a series of resources covering a range of Technical Intervention Areas (TIAs) that may each contribute to combating the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking.

When offering rural skills training, micro-finance and business development services to poor families whose children are at risk of the worst forms of child labour, it is important to determine: i) the poverty level of the target group (see the vertical poverty continuum in Diagram 1); (ii) the most promising type of income generation they should embark on (from basic survival activities for the absolute poor to small enterprises for those with longer term economic security (see the boxes under income generation in Diagram 1); and, (iii) the type of support services that would be needed for the particular type of income generation (see the vertical bars in Diagram 1).

Diagram 1 – Support services to generate income

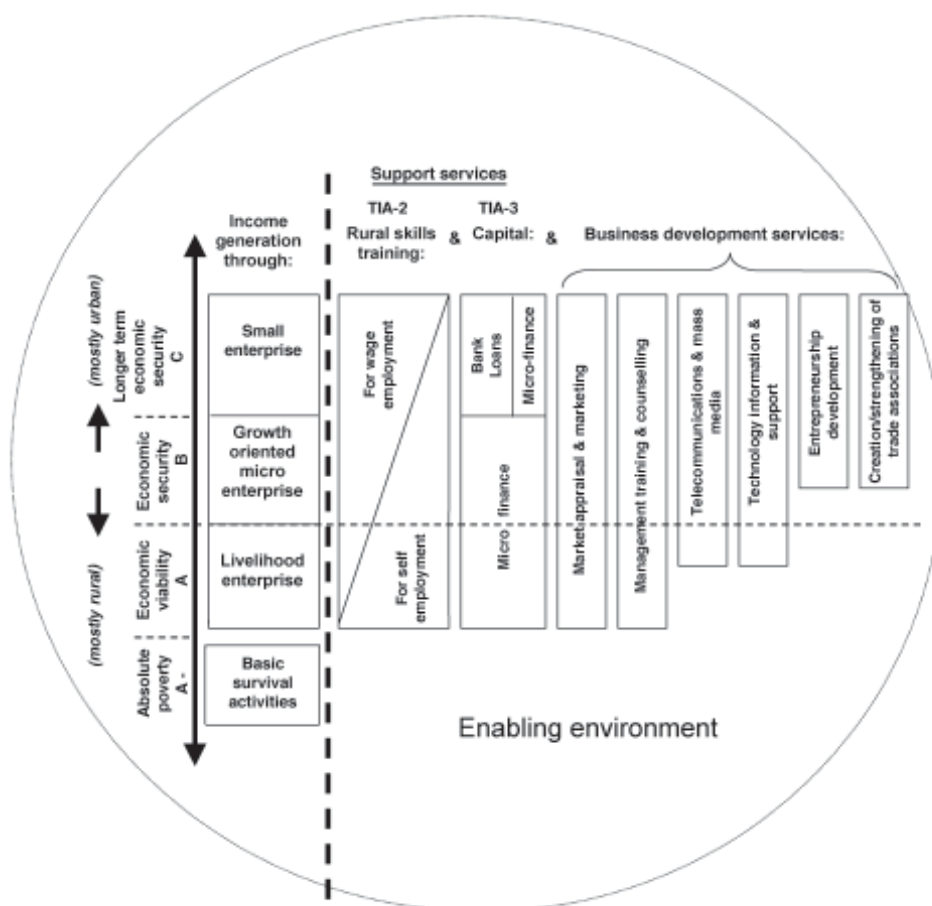


Diagram by Hans van de Glind, ILO

1.2 Rural Poverty and Child Labour

Poor families in rural areas are severely suffering from problems associated with access to and quality of basic education and rural skills training. Parents probably have had little, if any, education themselves, which is a factor explaining the low level of their incomes and the consequent need for their children to contribute to household incomes. It may also mean that they do not value education for their children and therefore may prefer to take them from school to put them to work. Often they see little point in making any effort to send their children to school as they have little faith in the quality of the teaching and especially its use in obtaining future employment. They think that the extra income the children can contribute to the household budget is more important. They may even argue that working children learn something useful and acquire practical skills.

For the children, education is more than just a basic right: it is a critical fundamental for their activities, position and role as individuals, workers, community members and citizens. If they drop out of school, they will sooner or later be tempted to start working to supplement meagre household incomes. Working at an early age increases the likelihood that these children will end up in hazardous activities, since either they cannot find better work for a lack of skills or because they are lured by incomes that are relatively high when compared to other unskilled work.

In this way, a lack of education for parents and their children becomes a vicious circle. Low educational achievements among young people may also inhibit their chances with alternative education opportunities if they find it difficult to pass the requirements for entry into skills training programmes. Lack of skills generally relates to low income. And thus the circle of poverty easily envelopes a new generation. Ultimately, child labour perpetuates poverty rather than helping to eradicate it.

1.3 Working Methodology

The critical questions to be examined in the study for this document concerned:

1. *Programme design*: What is the exact target group of a programme?
2. *Delivery of educational and training services*: What works best in the selection of participants, curriculum development, preparing trainers and instructors, promotion of gender aspects, financing programmes, the nature of the physical structures and materials, developing target groups and developing different types of skills training, including traditional apprenticeship training?
3. *Post-training assistance*: How can links to other support services for the training graduates (such as credit, marketing assistance) be improved?
4. *Institutional issues*: Specifically, what are the characteristics of successful alternative education and training programmes?
5. *Results and impact*: What have been the main lessons learned?

The work was carried out in two phases. First, a desk review was conducted of relevant documents on the approach, design, institutional anchorage and experiences of education and training programmes aiming, in general, to alleviate poverty, or, in particular, to combat the worst forms of child labour. These documents included a large number of papers and information obtained from various sources, including the Internet. Relevant references are included at the end of each chapter. Annex V provides references for useful manuals and handbooks and Annex VI a list of relevant Web sites.

The field research was carried out during short visits from July to September 2001 in Cambodia, the Philippines and Viet Nam. As many organizations as possible with experiences in the provision of non-formal education (NFE) and rural skills training in the rural areas were contacted – even when working children or their parents were not specifically included in the target group. Contacts included government ministries and agencies, non-government organizations (NGOs) and other resource persons with knowledge of the NFE and/or rural skills training fields (see Annex II for a list of all people consulted). The objective of the field research was to visit organizations in rural areas, obtain first-hand impressions of local conditions¹ and have discussions with the final beneficiaries. For a comprehensive overview of the assignment, please refer to the terms of reference for the study in Annex I.

1.4 Structure of the Report

This document is organized as follows: Chapter 2 discusses the role of and experiences in providing non-formal education. Chapters 3 to 6 deal with rural skills training and is the most prolific topic of the study. In Chapter 3 an overview is given of different approaches to rural skills training, Chapter 4 deals with the organization and delivery of rural skills training, Chapter 5 deals with its financial aspects and Chapter 6 deals with organizational aspects. The final Chapter 7 presents a summary of the main arguments together with an overview of established good practices in providing non-formal education and rural skills training.

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¹ Some of the examples make reference to costs. For ease of reference all the amounts in local currencies have been converted to US Dollars. The exchange rates at the time of the country visits were: In Cambodia, USD 1 = Riel 3,925; in the Philippines, USD 1 = Pesos 53; in Viet Nam, USD 1 = Dong 14,900.

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2 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Many young people in rural areas who feel a need to work, for whatever reason, believe opportunities are more readily found in urban areas. Education to make them aware of the limitations in finding employment as well as the risks of working at a young age are discussed in this chapter.¹

2.1 The Context: Rural Education

Although there have been increases in the overall literacy or enrolment rates in most south-east Asian countries, divides in the quantity and quality of basic formal education services persists. Recent data for Cambodia, for instance, shows that 80 percent of the population only received primary education, while around only 4 percent completed senior secondary school. And a mere 0.1 percent obtained a university degree. In the countryside, illiteracy is substantially higher among rural households (29 percent) when compared to urban ones (15 percent in the capital Phnom Penh) and is especially high among rural women at 50 percent compared to the 37 percent rate for rural men (ILO/EASMAT, 2000).

Even in countries where general educational enrolment rates are relatively high, the situation in rural areas is considerably worse than in urban areas. In Thailand, for instance, all children are by law to be provided with nine years of basic education and the average illiteracy rate is 7 percent. But among the hill tribes, with a population of approximately 550,000, the illiteracy rate is 88 percent (Haspels *et al.*, 1999).

In the past decade, in part as the consequence of cuts in government spending on social services within the framework of economic reform policies, resources available for general education have declined in many countries. As a result, particularly in rural areas: (i) not enough schools are being built or maintained; (ii) there is a severe lack of qualified and experienced teachers and many of the presently employed ones are under-paid and ill-motivated; and (iii) teaching materials, where they exist, are not very innovative.

In many south-east Asian countries, the situation of schools in the rural areas is depressing. They are few and far between, and the ones that do exist are generally in a tattered condition.

In the Philippines, for example, which probably has one of the better standards of the three countries studied when it comes to education with 99 percent of the child population of school age enrolled, the rural areas are lagging considerably behind: One third of the country's villages does not have complete public

¹ This chapter owes a great deal to the information and views of Haspels *et al.*, Action against child labour: Strategies in education (ILO/IPEC 1999).

elementary schools to provide the necessary six-year basic education programme. It would take an additional 34,000 teachers to reach the official government goal of having one primary school in each *barangay*.²

As part of the general low priority given to rural schools, they often receive only minimal – if indeed any – budget for furniture, equipment and necessary school supplies. There are frequent stories of pupils sharing desks and schoolbooks, classrooms lacking blackboards or even chalk and students working without pens or notebooks. The curricula tend to be outdated and have not taken on board many of the recent educational insights. Teachers determine to a large extent the quality of the education given at a school. Still, in many developing countries, the salaries of the teachers are very low and do not reflect the importance that government documents and statements attach to their work. They are often burdened by a multitude of tasks, many of which are not educational but rather administrative. As a result, the best qualified often do not stay long but try to find another job. The lack of good teachers is usually felt first in the rural areas, as many teachers are not interested to work where the general level of services is low and where there are few cultural and other stimulating events. Often there are also financial reasons for this disinterest as, for instance, in some countries the teachers receive only a minimal allowance that enables them to visit their hometown (where they often have left their family behind).

Consequently, teachers in the rural areas tend to be the least qualified and experienced. Moreover, the training of teachers has not been widely improved. The classic “teacher-knows-everything” attitude is still common in south-east Asia and students are expected to passively listen; curiosity and critical thinking are not typically encouraged, the teaching methodology is generally top-down, and students working on their own to actively search for information is unknown or undoable.

2.2 Increasing Drop-out Rates

The lack and low quality of basic education in many developing countries is having two consequences: Enrolment rates, which had been progressing steadily, have come under threat, while at the same time the drop-out rates are rising. National child labour surveys in eight countries indicated that school drop-out rates ranged between 30 and 50 percent (Haspels *et al.* 1999:2). In the Philippines, four out of five children drop out of the education system before Grade 6 (age 11 to 12), though most of them left before finishing Grade 3 – making it likely that they will enter the labour force at the age of 9 or 10 (*ibid.*). Invariably, enrolment rates are lower in the rural areas where drop-out rates are often significantly higher.

² *Barangay* refers to the lowest administrative level in the Philippines, comparable with rural villages. To overcome the lack of schools, the Philippines has experimented with “incomplete elementary schools”, which are multi-grade classes of 30 to 40 students per teacher.

Another factor in accessing education for the rural poor is the costs involved. While most countries have "free" compulsory education, in practice there are many actual costs. Even when school uniforms are not obligatory, the children need to be properly dressed. Often the parents have to bear the costs of books and, at least, school supplies (pens, etc.). Meals and transport can be expensive. In addition to those immediate costs, by letting the children go to school their families give up the income that they could earn. It is for this reason that in the rural areas many children do not attend school in the agricultural season, since they are required to help out with a harvest – either on the family's land or by working on somebody else's farm. Remarkably, and rather unfortunately, the school year does not always run in synch with the agricultural season. If this was the case, some of the absentee problems could be avoided.

Despite the issues or problems in going to school, it is certainly not true that the rural poor do not value education. On the contrary, as in the Philippines, for instance, an important reason for some children to start working (and thus leave school) is paradoxically to earn money so that siblings can obtain an education.

2.3 Alternatives: Non-Formal Education Programmes

To mitigate the lack of access and the low quality of formal basic education, non-formal education (NFE) programmes have been set up in many developing countries. Essentially, they are organized outside the formal schooling system, focus on particular sub-groups (adults, rural communities, ethnic minorities), have shorter hours, have particular objectives (literacy, numeracy and/or life skills courses) and are identified for and by specific groups to meet certain needs of those groups. The programmes seek to impart not only general education topics focused on improving literacy and numeracy of students, but also life skills to help them function better and possibly some pre-vocational skills that prepare them for future skills training.

NFE is especially relevant for child workers (in acceptable working conditions). As they are already working at least part of the day, it is often difficult for them to enrol in full-time schooling. For the children who dropped out of school at an early age and subsequently started working, going back to the formal education system is most likely to be problematic. Re-entering school can be quite a negative experience as they may be over-aged, not always well received by the younger children, and when they, in spite of their age, do not manage the basic duties they become very insecure. Moreover, the general school curriculum and teaching style usually do not relate well to their experiences. As a result, many of such children get frustrated and quit school again – seemingly preferring the sordid conditions of the street and/or hazardous work.

NFE refers to relatively short education programmes that seek to complement or even to replace regular general education in primary and secondary schools. The

NFE programmes can be directed at (i) children and youth who did not have a chance to go to primary school and who dropped out of the general education at an early age, or at (ii) adults who have never been in a position to follow regular education and remained illiterate. NFE programmes working with adults generally aim to educate them to become (at least) functional literates, focussing on reading and writing skills. In the case of children and youth, the objectives differ; some try to facilitate a return to the regular school while others accept that few will in fact go back and seek to provide an equivalent of regular education. The targeting of NFE programmes, in part, depends on local conditions. While in Cambodia, for example, NFE is seen as a substitution for general education, which is still not available in many rural areas, in the Philippines it fills a complementary role that is directed at out-of-school youth who are 15 years and older – apparently assuming that all children below this age have access to regular education (see Example 1).

Example 1: NFE for Basic Literacy (Philippines)

The Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS), through its Bureau for Non-Formal Education, has an ample track record in non-formal education. It is currently carrying out an Asian Development Bank-funded NFE-programme for basic literacy, which is implemented together with local NGOs. The general features are:

- The programme is directed at out-of-school youth and adults; students must be at least 15 years old.
- Basic modules of the educational curriculum are provided by DECS and aim at general literacy and numeracy; there is some leeway for the participating organizations to deviate in their lesson plans to allow for differences in the level of the students, incorporate local features, etc.
- DECS has an education officer in each district to monitor the programme (who can, for instance, also be contacted on proposed changes in the curriculum).
- Facilitators, who according to DECS criteria should have at least two years of college education, are responsible for developing the actual lessons plans.
- Facilitators work with a maximum of two groups of not more than 25 students in total; the NFE course has 150 contact hours of education (which, those involved say, is not enough for students who are working at the same time).
- There is no fixed schedule for the classes, but they are conducted on a weekly basis.
- Classes take place in a *barangay* learning centre (or another venue when the *barangay* does not have such a centre).
- Classes consist of group sessions (such as story telling) and individual teaching, for instance, with students who have been absent or are slow learners;
- At the end of the course the students are evaluated by the DECS to facilitate their being mainstreamed into formal education.
- Teachers are paid per student (some receive USD 180 for the entire three-month course).

2.4 Organization and Delivery of NFE Programmes

2.4.1 Setting up NFE programmes

NFE programmes should, in addition to a number of standard features, reflect the particular features of its target group and the conditions of the area where they live. If the programme, for example, targets working children, it is important to include sessions that reflect the hazards involved in premature employment, child rights, etc. Setting up NFE programmes involves a number of steps (see the following Good Practice) and it has been found that involving the community from the start is extremely important for the programme's success.

Good Practice Suggestions: How to Set Up NFE Programmes

1. *Literacy mapping* of an area to detect places with large numbers of prospective students.
2. *Social mobilization of community leaders* to orient them on the programme and convince them to organize community meetings to discuss the programme.
3. *Orientation of the parents*, together with municipal staff and local NGOs and/or community-based organizations (CBOs), on the objectives, target group and activities of the programme.
4. *Recruitment of local NFE facilitators*.
5. *Enrolment of participants*.
6. *Learning needs assessment* of the participants.
7. *Setting time schedule* together with students at most convenient times for them.
8. *Structuring NFE classes* on the basis of education modules.
9. *Testing participants* at the end of the NFE course.

One of the most important lessons learned in setting up NFE programmes is the important role that community leaders play. Only when they are convinced of the value of such programmes will they work together with the NFE provider to make the courses a success.

2.4.2 NFE facilitators

Facilitators, also referred to as para-teachers, are considered to form the backbone of the NFE programmes. In addition to the teaching, they are usually also responsible for the preparation of the actual lesson plan. They are, moreover, an important element in the communication with the parents, for instance through house visits (especially of children who are frequently absent). It is crucial to maintain parents' motivation in sending their children to the NFE course.

The organizations that offer NFE programmes work with a wide range of facilitators. They can be grouped into three categories: (i) former school teachers and sometimes even teachers who are still working but who take on NFE teaching in the morning or afternoon when they do not have school duties (or on weekends); (ii) college students or recent graduates; (iii) parents; and (iv) others from the community. Facilitators from all these categories, but especially the latter, need to receive special training before beginning.

Discussions with NFE organizers visited during the field research give the impression that the higher the education level of the facilitators, the better are the results of the NFE course. However, it is obvious that there are a lot of other qualifications that play a role and other organizers seem to suggest that familiarity with the participants and their conditions also makes a significant difference. In NFE programmes directed especially at child workers, it has been found that former child workers who have managed to return to education and receive appropriate training make very good para-teachers (such as experienced in the Sabana project in Manila, Philippines). They, and others, feel that it is worthwhile to train beneficiaries to become trainers themselves.

2.4.3 Enrolment of students

Enrolling students for NFE programmes is mostly done through self-selection. Those who belong to the target group apply and are usually accepted. There tends to be few explicit criteria. In the Philippines, for example, NFE participants need to be at least 15 years old. In the case of NFE for working children, the organization will want to know if the applicants are genuinely interested in pursuing an education and willing to leave their work or reduce their hours.

Among the working children and youth, there is usually a large number of school drop-outs. They left school for a number of reasons: (i) Their parents lacked money (for school fees, uniforms, school supplies, meals or transport); (ii) they – especially girls – were tasked by parents to take care of younger siblings or do other household duties; (iii) they were taken from school to work to bring in extra money; (iv) they got into problems and were expelled (girls who became pregnant); or (v) they – especially boys – were pressured by peers (such as by gangs) to quit school. Many of these circumstances still apply when the children want to go back to formal school.

It therefore requires extensive discussions with the parents to convince them to send their children back to school. This can be further facilitated by various incentives – in fact, some observers maintain that there is hardly a chance for the children to get back to school unless income guarantees, in the form of a nominal amount of money to cover basic living expenses or support in kind, are given to their families. In the Sabana project for child scavengers in Manila, a contract is made with the parents to establish that they will ensure that the children will not go back to working in the garbage dump but will go to school, and that the children

will be properly fed and clothed in exchange for support. Violation of the contract results in the child being removed from the programme.

It is already at this early stage that there is gender segregation and discrimination. Girls are generally the first ones taken from school to help their mothers with various household duties. Many parents readily view the education of girls as circumspect since they will eventually marry and mainly work in the household; the investment in education is therefore seen as less fruitful. Therefore, more and explicit efforts are needed to convince parents to send their daughters to NFE courses. In the case of NFE courses aimed at the parents of working children, it is also important to closely monitor the participation of women, as studies show that they have less time to actively participate (see Example 2).

Example 2: Women and Literacy Training (Viet Nam)

Although there is a Vietnamese tradition of allowing women to manage household finances, it seems male priorities are internalized at household-level and especially financial decision-making. Women repeatedly complain about the expenditures of alcohol, tobacco and over-extravagant contributions to social events, which are male priorities, but feel unable to curtail these expenditures. Women report limited control over reproductive decisions, although they are expected to take the responsibility for contraception. Studies suggest that women work harder than men, often beyond their physical capacities, and that they have very limited time for relaxation, socializing, taking part in community affairs or attending training courses or literacy classes. Studies also report that physical abuse of women is commonplace and that wife beating is often associated with alcohol abuse or economic stress, or both.

Source: Taken from *Synthesis of participatory poverty assessments from four sites in Vietnam: Lao Cai, Ha Tinh, Tra Vinh and Ho Chi Minh City* (1999).

2.4.4 NFE curriculum

Often NFE curricula are a watered-down versions of the regular basic education curriculum. That is unfortunate because the NFE students have particular characteristics that need to be reflected in the teaching. For instance, NFE teachers may want to instil a more inquisitive and assertive attitude in the students than what is done in the top-down teaching in regular basic education. Such a teacher-knows-all approach is reflected in a general lack of initiative and a collective waiting for others (the government, community leaders, project organizers, etc.) to suggest what has to be done.

In view of the different features of the programmes and their participants, the NFE content should also be more to the point and practical. Depending on the

exact objectives of the NFE courses, the curriculum will be a mixture of different elements: (i) general education subjects for literacy and numeracy, (ii) life skills that will help the participants to function better in their community and society and (iii) pre-vocational skills that prepare them for subsequent skills training (see Example 3).

Example 3: Life Skills and Pre-Vocational Skills	
<p>Examples of life skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• reasoning and problem solving• searching for and making use of information• decision making• negotiation• basic legal knowledge	<p>Examples of pre-vocational skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• knowledge of basic (hand) tools and simple equipment• tools and methods of measuring (such as for tailoring and carpentry)• simple line drawing• using a calculator

Indeed in the Philippines, the modules (a total of 152) that DECS/BNFE developed for the curriculum for its Accreditation and Equivalency Programme centre on the following learning themes: self development, judgment and comprehension, communicating skills (writing), critical thinking, environmental preservation and globalization.

In the case of NFE programmes especially directed at children working in acceptable conditions, it is particularly important to develop special education curricula that pay adequate attention to the students' contexts, characteristics and experiences (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: NFE and Combating Child Labour

In the case of NFE-programmes to prevent or remedy child labour, the curriculum should be carefully tailored to raise and maintain the interest of the students:

- Education should be student-centred, letting the students do the work instead of sitting and listening to the teacher, and include special elements to keep the interest of young people who do not know or have outgrown classroom conditions.
- Teaching should focus on practical knowledge that can be used immediately in the daily life of the students; this also greatly adds to the appreciation of the NFE by parents.
- Teaching should be done, to the extent possible, in the local language by local teachers.
- Topics should touch on the special conditions of the students and discuss the causes and consequences of child labour.

In all countries in the region, NFE curricula are readily available from different sources. Most of the government ministries responsible for non-formal education have developed NFE curricula over the years – often with international support.³

ILO/IPEC, for instance, has provided support to the Ministry of Education in Cambodia to develop special NFE curricula for courses given as part of interventions to combat the worst forms of child labour, the operations of child and women traffickers, the risks of particular types of child labour (commercial sex work, for example), how to deal with hazardous work, etc. Similarly, in the Philippines ILO/IPEC supported the development, testing and use of learning materials that focus on work hazards and dangers of scavenging and integrated them into a revised curriculum of the *Paaralang Pantao* (People's School), which is life-based and targets child scavengers (see Example 4).

Example 4: NFE Manual for Child Scavengers (Philippines)

The *Care Teachers Manual* is a refreshing manual on non-formal education, including main steps in building an alternative education programme together with suggestions for curriculum development and methods of teaching, learning and monitoring.

The manual is based on the experiences of the *Paaralang Pantao* (People's School), which began as a small project of a women's organization in the Dumpsite Neighbourhood Organization in *barangay* Payatas for child scavengers working at one of the large garbage dumps in Metro Manila. The initial objective was merely to have recreation at least once a week with a makeshift structure, which grew into a full-fledged NFE programme providing support for 250 children per year.

The programme uses para-teachers from the community who were intensively trained and receive regular technical backstopping from the Children's Laboratory for Drama and Education Foundation. The manual forms the basis for this training.

Reference: E.M. (Bing) Baguioro, 2001, *Alternative learning: A liberating experience*, A care teachers manual (available from ILO/IPEC, Manila).

Many – especially small – organizations that are engaged in NFE efforts in relation to combating the worst forms of child labour rely on their own curricula, invariably determined by the teachers. While this provides maximum opportunity for allying the lessons to the particular circumstances of the children in the group, it also presents some drawbacks. There is no guarantee that important lessons learned

³ The most important international organizations involved are UNESCO, UNICEF and, financially, ADB or World Bank. In the Philippines, for instance, the DECS/BNFE developed, with support from ADB and UNESCO, an elaborate package of NFE modules. NGOs sometimes access NFE curricula that are developed by international organizations (such as World Education).

elsewhere, with regard to content or pedagogies, are being fully utilized. Also, it might be that when the teacher leaves the programme, the new teacher will need or prefer to prepare a different curriculum. Fixed NFE curricula prevent this and allow for standardized training of para-teachers in support of these curricula and the learning materials that go with it. Government-approved NFE curricula, moreover, facilitate recognition for the courses and may even result in official certification.

2.4.5 NFE delivery

There are many ways in which NFE courses for child workers are organized and delivered, making it difficult to give general lessons learned. Some of the common elements are presented in the following Good Practice list.

Good Practice Suggestions: NFE Delivery for Child Workers

- NFE teaching should be scheduled for only part of a day (two to four hours) so as not to over-stretch the attention of the children and allow for other training or work activities.
- NFE for child workers should differ from regular NFE courses, which try to condense one regular school year into three or four months, and allot at least six months – especially because of the part-time nature of the teaching.
- The size of the classes should not exceed 25 students; 20 participants per class would be ideal.
- Careful monitoring of the attendance of the participants should be maintained. In the case of frequent absence, the facilitator must make inquiries.
- Certification should be available that ensures the possibility for the NFE graduates to continue general education in the formal system or enrol in a vocational training institute.

All countries in south-east Asia have experimented with a variety of measures to enhance NFE enrolment from the target group. In the Philippines, for instance, DECS has tried and now advocates flexible school schedules, allowing working children the opportunity to both work and study, special teaching modules for out-of-school working children, remedial instruction programmes for in-school children and tutoring for drop-outs and out-of-school youth (see Example 5).

Example 5: School-Based Work-Study Programme (Philippines)

In Lapu-Lapu (near Cebu), the Department of Education, Culture and Science (DECS) has developed a school-based work-study programme directed at almost 600 working children enrolled in local elementary schools. They are employed in cutting Mactan stone and the manufacturing of fireworks to supplement family income. Within the programme, classroom instruction is provided in the morning and the children report for work after lunch. The programme seeks to move the children to less hazardous production phases or move them out to other forms of income generation. Some children who were engaged in stone-cutting have been introduced to the production of fashion accessories made of indigenous materials (shells, stones and twines). Some of the children in firework production have been removed from the most dangerous activities, such as mixing chemicals and filling shells with gunpowder, to activities such as folding paper and rolling, wrapping and pasting shells. The production of the firecrackers has also been moved closer to the schools so that it can be better monitored. The project has reportedly reduced occupational risks, raised incomes (by increasing productivity) and lowered school drop-out rates among the working children.

Source: Department of Labour (USA), *By the sweat and toil of children* (vol. 5, 1998)

2.4.6 Parental and community involvement in NFE

Convincing children, and their parents to support them, to go back to school or follow an NFE course is usually not enough on its own. There is need for constant attention to the economic and family situation of the children to ensure that they do not fall back into the habit of staying away and getting into work activities. Home visits by facilitators play an important role, as does involving parents into activities of the NFE course or school (see Example 6).

Example 6: Role of Parents in NFE

The involvement of the parents in NFE programmes can be very stimulating and practical.

In the Sabana project (Manila, Philippines), for instance, every Saturday is family day in the school, to which all parents are expected to come. It is an occasion for conversations with the teachers and other parents, for special activities (songs and plays by the children) and a communal lunch.

Stiftung Kinderdorf Pestalozzi (SKIP) in Cambodia has parent committees, composed of 5 to 10 members from the community. The committees play a role in

resource mobilization by encouraging the students' parents to contribute in kind toward the costs of the programme (rice and furniture), maintaining contact with the community leaders and committees and creating school governance by monitoring teacher and student performances. They also assist in practical matters, such as school gardening.

Not only parents but also the wider community in which they live can be instrumental in promoting and strengthening NFE programmes. Firstly, they are important for peer-to-peer motivation. Secondly, they can be instrumental in monitoring attendance of both NFE teachers and students. Thirdly, they can be involved in the organization of NFE programmes, for instance, by making available training venues and running support facilities (such as libraries). Several observers stated during the field research that most communities could in fact be made responsible for the funding of the accommodation and often also the remuneration of the NFE staff and teachers. And finally, communities can be very important in assisting the NFE graduates to continue their education or use their knowledge and skills in other ways.

Experiences among different programmes show that the involvement of women is especially important. Often they volunteer as para-teachers. They are instrumental for community ownership of the NFE programme, organizing preparatory meetings, village role plays (such as in Lao PDR), setting up child-care facilities to liberate girls and boys who have to watch over their siblings and monitoring various aspects of programme implementation.

2.4.7 Community libraries and Drop-in Education Centres

Children need opportunities to practice their newly acquired reading and other skills. In developing countries, children, especially in rural areas, generally have little access to books other than schoolbooks. They have no money even to buy comic books to practice reading. To stimulate them, they should be provided with possibilities to read storybooks.

Some NFE programmes, therefore, include setting up village libraries. Others have organized courses so flexible that they prefer to call them Drop-in Education Centres where a librarian or facilitator, often a college intern, is present to assist students (see Example 7).

Example 7: Drop-in Education Centre (Cambodia)

In Cambodia, World Vision's Child Labour Project experimented with a pilot Drop-in Education Centre. It provides a library with flexible learning hours for study and creative learning experiences for urban working children who are too busy and/or not interested in attending regular classes.

After three years, some lessons learned include:

- *A drop-in, semi-scheduled format* allows for flexible attendance according to the schedule of busy working children.
- *Creative, hands-on lessons/activities* hold the interest of students who are unaccustomed to formal classroom settings.
- *Clear educational objectives* provide more focussed learning than traditional libraries.
- *Infrequent attendance by children* limits the impact on their literacy progress (and hampers monitoring).
- *Extra-curricular sports and group games* provide opportunities for positive socialization and relationship building.
- *Location* (near children's homes) is important, as is being close to sports or play area.
- *Prevent overcrowding* by focussing on children eight years of age and older.
- *Provide* as many children's books in the local language as possible.

Source: Taken from *Look before you leap: Strategic approaches to urban child labour* (Child Labour Project, World Vision Cambodia, Cambodia).

2.4.8 Remedial teaching and after-school tutoring

Working children enrolled at public schools and NFE courses (and others who are frequently absent and at risk to start working) require a personalized approach. They benefit from flexibility in the course programme, individual learning plans, self-paced study options, study circles, use of non-print instructional materials, self-assessment activities, etc.

For instance, many children are weak in language and math skills. To improve the levels in these two areas, they need to receive remedial teaching and tutoring to prevent them from completely falling out of the education system. This can be done by forming small groups (7 to 10 children) and using volunteers (possibly other students) to tutor them. The tutoring should be done at least once or twice per week but more often if possible (see Example 8).

Example 8: After-School Tutoring (Cambodia)

Another pilot activity set up by World Vision in its Cambodian Child Labour Project was the After-School Tutoring for working children. It aims to support their educational needs and achievements as a way to prevent them from dropping out or having to repeat grades.

Some of the lessons learned after three years include:

- *A less time-intensive schedule* for working children is most effective if it can be arranged according to their availability.
- *Complementing other sources of education*, such as public or NFE schools (also useful for NFE students who have been mainstreamed into schools), can help prevent young people from dropping out and strengthen their literacy skills.
- *University students who volunteer as tutors* require training in tutoring techniques to better serve as mentors and positive academic role models for children.
- *Progress can be slow* and therefore difficult to measure.

Source: Taken from *Look before you leap: Strategic approaches to urban child labour* (Child Labour Project, World Vision Cambodia, Cambodia).

2.5 Income Aspects

One of the crucial issues for NFE programmes aimed at working children or those at risk of working at an early age, concerns the provision of support to their families to take away any material obstacles that might inhibit them from attending. In principle, this can be done through: (i) scholarships for the children, (ii) special support measures for the children (school meals, waiving school fees, clothing and even cash stipends) and their families (provision of food and health care) and (iii) schemes to promote income-generating activities for the parents or even other members of the household. In actual practice, various combinations are found.

Some projects direct their earning opportunities not at the parents but rather at the children themselves. They set up so-called “learn and earn” projects in which children are engaged in suitable income-generating activities. The Sabana project working with child scavengers in Manila has equipment for silkscreen printing with which the children produce T-shirts with colourful drawings. This provides the children with additional opportunities for learning design, art and marketing. The shirts are sold to the people who visit the project. In the Don Bosco Literacy Centre in Battambang, Cambodia, the children are taught to repair bicycles to give them an opportunity to earn some pocket money.

Importantly, an ILO study has concluded that while economic incentives can help reduce child labour and keep children in school, the success largely depends on flanking efforts that include awareness raising, improving educational quality and enhancing community involvement (Anker and Melkas 1996).

2.6 Institutional Framework

2.6.1 Role of the government

In most countries in south-east Asia, governments tend to take first responsibility for providing non-formal education programmes, often with the assistance of international organizations (ADB and World Bank, for instance). Even so, it should be realized that the number of NFE programmes specifically related to the problems of child labour is very limited. Even in the Philippines, where there are a large number of NGOs engaged in NFE programmes, few were found to focus on working children as a specific priority group (ILO/IPEC-Philippines 1999).

2.6.2 Contribution of NGOs

In many developing countries, NGOs play a major role in the implementation of NFE programmes. They do this both as part of a government project as well as with their own funds.

In general terms, the technical assistance provided by NGOs to NFE programmes consists of: (i) improvement of teaching methodology, (ii) preparation of lessons plans/curricula and (iii) preparation of teaching materials. They are also instrumental in the forming of parent groups, linking with community leaders and providing crucial financial inputs (such as teachers' salaries, funds for library, etc.).

2.6.3 Other organizations

There are other organizations that can contribute to the organization, financing and implementation of NFE programmes. The communities and their leaders are of special importance. Increasingly, local education committees are being established and parents and the wider community are becoming involved in the construction and running of primary schools. Usually as volunteers, they serve as teachers, resource persons and administrators, contributing knowledge, skills, experience and time. According to some community leaders, even very poor communities can pay for most of a programme's running costs – even the salaries of the teachers.

Other organizations that can contribute in some way to NFE programmes include: teachers' organizations, trade unions and employers federations and the media (Haspels *et al.* 1999).

In some cases community solidarity is needed to break initial hesitations of local leaders against NFE programmes as they may affect the leaders' power base.

2.7 Cost of NFE Programmes

Total expense will vary widely, depending on the delivery details. From the field research, it would seem that for a three- to four-month course for a group of 20 to 25 participants, including a snack/food allowance, the cost will range from USD 700 to USD 1,500 (see Example 9).

Example 9: St. Catherine Family Helper Project, Inc. (Philippines)

St. Catherine Family Helper Project is a small NGO with four staff at its headquarters and 31 "technicians" in the field, operating from Dumaguete. It has carried out two NFE contracts for DECS involving the teaching of 3,000 and 4,000 students respectively.

The main experiences in the programmes were:

- *Inadequate management* by DECS/Manila, especially with regard to the disbursements of funds, which at times arrived six months late (during which period St. Catherine's had to advance the expenditures).
- *Lack of experience in working with NGOs* by the local DECS staff. In the beginning, there were obvious ill feelings (as DECS staff felt by-passed and even threatened in their jobs because an NGO had "taken over our work"), although later on relations became quite harmonious.
- *Suspicion of the NGO's role* from the side of the municipality as, for instance, the mayor, with an eye on upcoming elections, felt insecure about the political consequences of an NGO providing services to such a large number of voting households. (Conclusion: Always be friendly when dealing with staff from government agencies and "don't get into politics".)
- *A major role for the barangay captain* or community head is crucial in promoting, together with the NGO as well as on his/her own, the NFE courses.
- *Well-educated para-teachers (college graduates) have best results* as they are better in working out lessons plans and tend to have better teaching techniques.

The main weakness of the NFE programme was found to be a total lack of follow-up. While at the end of the NFE the participants were interested and ready for skills training, St. Catherine's did not have the capacity to provide it, and there was no coordination between DECS and, for instance, the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) or a national NGO, to offer skills training. In the case of one group, the *barangay* itself took the initiative to organize a simple skills training course (in banana chip making) for the NFE graduates.

Source: Interview with Executive Director of St. Catherine FHPI (July 2001)

2.8 Impact of NFE Programmes

There are important differences in experiences in the NFE programmes throughout south-east Asia. Some countries (such as the Philippines⁴ and Indonesia) started to implement large NFE programmes years ago while others (Cambodia, for example) are only now beginning to provide small NFE interventions.

The potential for NFE to fill the void created by the poor quantity and quality of education services, particularly in rural areas, is described as great in much of the available literature in terms of preventing children from being drawn into some of the worst forms of child labour. But it seems not to be succeeding, at least according to anecdotal evidence from NGOs. Why is it falling short?

Certainly there is very little information available about the impact of education and NFE programmes in relation to children's involvement in the worst forms of child labour. Partly this is caused by the flexibility of programmes, which hampers a monitoring of the participants. A number of organizations do have some data but are hesitant to share it. There is an enormous need for organizations at the international, national and local levels to exchange information on approaches, strategies, methodologies, instruments and above all, lessons learned and good practices.

The anecdotal information from NGOs seems to indicate that only a limited number of children continue their education after an NFE course. According to the Educational Research and Development Assistance Foundation, Inc, which runs a Care Centre in Manila where street children can stay for up to six months while receiving shelter, food, care and education and/or training, only 10 percent of them move on to regular school after that allotted time period, while two thirds of them find some type of employment.

From the available information, it would seem that only a small minority, maybe 10 to 15 percent, move on from NFE programmes to some kind of skills training (see Example 10).

⁴ The Bureau of Non-Formal Education under the Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS/BNFE) initiated an extensive NFE programme in the 1980s, which is still ongoing. It implements programmes at two levels: (i) *basic literacy* and (ii) the *Accreditation and Equivalency Programme* aiming to provide education equivalent to primary and secondary education. Initially DECS/BNFE was solely responsible for implementation of the NFE programmes, however, since the late 1990s, an ADB-funded NFE programme is implemented in the Philippines in collaboration with NGOs.

Example 10: What Kind of Follow-Up for Non-Formal Education?

A most crucial and still partially unresolved issue is the final objective of the NFE courses, especially in the case of NFE courses for working children. While it appears that initially the main purpose was mainstreaming the children into regular basic education, their subsequent high drop-out rates seem to make this at best an incomplete strategy. Certainly, NFE programmes need to be complemented with follow-up in the form of continued monitoring (such as home visits) and support (such as tutoring classes). From field research interviews, it would appear that a better option would be to more closely link non-formal education programmes that are specifically targeted at working children to rural skills training programmes. Various observers have noted that NFE students are keenly interested in, and ready for, skills training. However, the main weakness of NFE programmes so far appears to be that they are viewed as an end in themselves and not linked to any kind of follow-up activity. As a result, only a few of the participants go on to rural skills training.

Key Points

- Education is often seen as a key strategy to fight child labour. The lack and low quality of education in rural areas, together with poverty and socio-cultural factors, clearly contribute to the incidence of child labour: Children tend to be available and more ready to participate in child labour when education is not available or when the available form of education does not meet the criteria of affordability, quality and relevance. Improvements in rural education therefore are an important factor to prevent child labour. Education is thus an essential and cost-effective component of any comprehensive strategy to eliminate child labour.
- Basic education and especially NFE are major elements in assisting working children. Innovative NFE programmes for working children might be successful in piloting new approaches, but by themselves they will be inadequate for education to solve the problem of child labour. Rather than setting up a parallel system, there is a need for fundamental changes to occur in the formal education system.
- To be successful, the design and delivery of NFE programmes must take into consideration the conditions and interest of the working children (and those at risk to start working). It also pays off to involve the community from the start in setting up an NFE programme.

- The curriculum in the traditional formal education was entirely dedicated to generic topics, such as reading and writing. In recent years, more and more practical issues and skills related to the “real world” have crept in. So-called *life skills*, even though broader in scope, have taken the place and to a certain extent reduced the need for pre-vocational training.
- Linking education, especially NFE interventions, with skills training and income-generating programmes provides more effective results. All too often captive groups of graduates are left to fend for themselves. Usually there are no immediate links to assist them to enter into the formal education system, find a relevant skills training programme or get assistance to set up some income-generating venture.

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3 RURAL SKILLS TRAINING

In this chapter, a general overview of various approaches to rural skills training will be presented. At the end, an attempt will be made to argue which of these approaches are most relevant for programmes that aim to prevent and halt the worst forms of child labour including trafficking.

In the best of circumstances, the creation of employment and the generation of additional incomes in rural areas is a tough challenge. The low levels of education and skills in those areas add to the challenge. While the majority of the rural population still works in the agricultural sector, the labor-absorption capacity of farming is steadily declining. The average size of farm plots is continuously decreasing, and the slow but steady agricultural mechanization means that many of the young people have to find work outside the sector. As a result, non-agricultural activities, both those related to the farming sector (such as agro-processing and the repair of agricultural equipment) and those providing consumption goods and services to the population, are becoming more and more important. It is estimated that they already contribute 40 to 60 percent of rural incomes.

By far, most of the non-agricultural incomes in the rural areas are small-scale, using, at best, a mixture of traditional and more modern technologies and are mostly dependent on local materials and markets. This rural informal sector is not homogeneous but can be further segmented into: (i) livelihood activities – referring essentially to pre-entrepreneurial self-employment ventures that require few skills and little capital but are an important source for women; (ii) micro enterprises – employing some 10 or fewer workers (including unpaid family workers and apprentices) and using traditional technologies, local raw materials and relying on local markets; and, (iii) small enterprises – with 10 to 50 workers, applying some modern technologies, often registered and having some potential for development and expansion.

The enterprises in these segments tend to face different constraints in their operation and expansion and therefore require different intervention strategies (see Annex III for a more elaborate discussion on the rural informal sector).

Wage jobs are mostly to be found in modern formal enterprises, the majority of which are located in urban areas. For the creation of non-agricultural employment in rural areas, preparation for self-employment would appear to be more relevant, even though self-employment might not be immediately appropriate for people younger than 20 or 25 years because running a business requires a certain maturity, business experience as well as some savings with which to start a business.

3.1 The Context: Vocational Training

Vocational training – defined as skills training provided by a purposely equipped training centre – only plays a minute role in the rural areas. This follows from the fact that it is not concerned with farming and households skills, which are traditionally passed on within the family (as indeed happens for trades like blacksmithing and tailoring). It also reflects the cultural values in many countries that highly regard careers in the civil services and in some countries the military and police, while there is little appreciation for hard work, menial jobs and entrepreneurial initiatives. Rural skills training for self employment – which does not necessarily take place in a training centre – would be more appropriate than vocational training for wage employment in rural areas.

There are also other constraints described in the following sections that prospective trainees from rural areas face in accessing vocational training: (i) general lack of training providers, (ii) inappropriate skills training programmes and (iii) the organization of the training.

3.1.1 Rural training providers

Skills training is generally seen as a government responsibility. Conventionally, most of the public sector training programmes are based at vocational training centres (VTCs), and in view of the relatively high costs of such centres and that they have to serve large numbers of trainees, they are invariably located in district capitals and other regional locations. Few of them initiate training services that reach out to the rural areas.

In many countries there are also some NGOs that run small training centres. Typical examples of those are temple- and church-based training programmes, of which the Don Bosco centres are well-known.

Rural youth and others interested in skills development therefore have to travel to the towns. This means that they have to find accommodation (which is sometimes provided at the VTC) and incur other costs. This is a major constraint for the rural poor interested in pursuing training courses. In many countries women are particularly disadvantaged in their access to training centres because of their lack of mobility, entry requirements for training and inadequate facilities at the training centres. Where there are VTCs that to some extent serve the rural areas, they tend to be either public sector or church-based VTCs; there are very few private training providers operating in the rural areas – except for a limited number of apprenticeships in small workshops.

Public sector VTCs have come under increasing criticism for their internal and external inefficiencies in recent years. Their training courses do not stem from the demand for skills on the labour market and do not reflect the opportunities for

employment. They tend to use inflexible, standardized training curricula, and few, if any, of the courses are specifically aimed at rural self-employment. The training usually takes place at a training centre where the facilities and training equipment are often sub-standard. Course duration is invariably long and teaching is full time, which means it is inappropriate for people already working. The supply-side nature of conventional VTCs is closely related to the fact that they have few links with the local business community. This means that the training offered by both public sector and NGO-based VTCs no longer forms a guarantee or even a likelihood for a job and often has little impact on the economic situation of the trainees.

While many of these problems are faced by all VTCs, rural training centres seem to have additional difficulties (see the following Ineffective Practice).

Ineffective Practice: Some Problems of Rural Vocational Training Centres

Rural VTCs generally have low internal and external efficiencies related to a number of specific problems they face:

- most of the standard VTC courses assume the training graduates to find wage employment and to migrate to urban areas;
- when training for local self-employment, the groups (in skill areas such as carpentry, motorbike repair, welding, tailoring, etc.) need to remain small as otherwise too much competition is created and incomes will then be too low;
- it is difficult to attract well qualified and motivated trainers;
- in agricultural peak seasons, trainees do not show up;
- training equipment is often idle;
- unit costs of training are high; and
- the management of rural VTCs is often weak (high absenteeism).

3.1.2 Relevancy of training programmes

The training courses provided by these VTCs conventionally aim to prepare the trainees for wage jobs in the modern sector. This is reflected in the training curriculum as well as the training equipment, which is at a level of technology that is distinctly higher than that used in the informal sector. Moreover, VTCs tend to provide standard training in a small range of trades: woodworking, metalworking, welding and the repair of cars, electric appliances and radio and televisions. For female trainees, the available courses are usually very gender-stereotyped, as women are assumed to take up tailoring or food processing. The training is also mostly pre-employment training – and is thus largely directed at the youth; very few VTCs offer skills upgrading courses for people who are already working.

3.1.3 Organization of training

In view of the type and level of training, the VTCs tend to set rather high entry requirements, such as having completed secondary school for a diploma level or having completed third year secondary school for certificate courses. This poses problems for trainees from the rural areas who generally have only low levels of education.

The training courses offered by VTCs usually take place at two or three different levels and require a few years of investment: three years for certificate training and four years for diploma level. This is generally too long for trainees from the rural areas both because they have to work in certain farming activities and also because staying in the district capital or regional centre for a long period is too costly.

3.2 Categories of Skills Training

Taking the segmentation of the rural informal sector (livelihood activities, micro and small enterprises) together with the final objective, target group and general features of the training delivery modalities, the following categories of skills training can be distinguished: (3.2.1) skills development for wage-employment, (3.2.2) skills training as part of the promotion of self-employment and micro enterprises, (3.2.3) traditional apprenticeship training, (3.2.4) general promotion of livelihood activities and (3.2.5) product-based training to improve production techniques and product designs.

3.2.1 Training for Wage Employment

3.2.1.1 Relevance for rural areas

Conventionally, all vocational training has been directed at wage-employment: A set of skills is transferred to youth (such as with pre-employment training) who subsequently search for a job in a factory or other enterprise. Taken in the strictest sense, such type of skills training only holds very limited relevance for the rural areas: There are very few modern sector firms located in the rural areas so that training courses for wage jobs imply a migration – even if temporary – of rural trainees to urban areas. The only major exception is formed by garment factories and electronics assembly plants that are located in the rural areas as the result of significantly lower wage-levels or in response to specific government incentives (such as tax rebates). Often, only a few graduates find a wage job of the type for which he or she has been trained.

For the rural poor, this type of training is also less relevant because of other reasons already mentioned (the expense because of the location being elsewhere and the course duration taking two to four years). Even without training fees and

being able to stay with extended family or at subsidized dormitories, young people would not be able to assist in the family farming and other work activities. A final argument against conventional vocational training is that the quality of the training is often poor.

3.2.1.2 Rural youth and training for wage employment

Still, it should be realized that for children from rural areas who are engaged in work at a very early age, urban wage labour may indeed have a strong appeal. Possibly modern companies already, illegally, employ them on a contract or piece-work basis. Or they feel that the rural areas have little to offer for young people “with work experience”, and they are determined to leave for the promises of the city in any case. Wage jobs may also be attractive for the parents of child workers, especially when they are living in poor rural areas where the possibilities for work in both the short and medium terms are bleak. Wage work is often – but mistakenly – thought to be better remunerated, even though it is usually a more stable source of income (see Example 11).

Example 11: Assessment of Hai Phong Vocational Training Centre (Viet Nam)

As part of the preparation of a support project, a review was made of the strength and weaknesses of the Employment and Services Centre under the (provincial) Department of Labour, Invalids and Social Assistance in Hai Phong. While it found that the Centre with the assistance of the National Job Creation Fund, had placed thousands of unemployed persons in new jobs and provided 48 training courses in 1997 for 1,037 trainees, the Centre –as many other VTCs in almost all developing countries – was considered to have a number of critical weaknesses:

- lack of qualified staff; direly in need of strengthening in planning and management;
- a large part of equipment outdated;
- low levels of technical knowledge and low salaries among teachers and other staff;
- lack of industrial experience among the teachers, which handicaps them in career counselling;
- very slow modifications in the training curriculum to reflect labour market changes;
- lack of public relations to publicize its activities and results;
- limited articulation with other training and employment programmes; and
- weak linkages with local industries and enterprises.

Source: Manchak, *Findings and recommendations for centre for employment services in Hai Phong, Viet Nam* [1998].

In other words, while in general training for wage employment may be inappropriate, ineffective and expensive, there may be cases for which this type of training is relevant. For instance, it appears to happen that young people (especially young women) choose to work in a (garment) factory or other wage-employment for a while to save to open their own business.

3.2.1.3 Support for wage-employment training

An interesting way to support rural young people to follow training at an urban-based vocational training centre was found in Cambodia, where a limited number of rural youth were sponsored by an NGO to be trained at a VTC (see Example 12).

Example 12: Training Support for Wage Jobs (Cambodia)

The Lutheran World Services provides, as part of its Integrated Rural Development Programme in Kandal and Takeo provinces, support for a small number of local youth from among the poorest families in the project area so that they can attend training courses at local or provincial VTCs.

To be eligible for the training sponsorship, the youths need to come from the poorest families, demonstrate clear affinity to the trade for which skills will be imparted and be nominated by their community. A joint committee decides on the acceptance of the nominations. In 2001 the project budgeted for some 20 sponsorships.

The amount of the sponsorship depends on the actual costs involved in the training. For a government VTC, where no training fee is charged, the support – essentially for meals and accommodation – is USD 20 per month (and transport costs to travel to and from the town where the VTC is located). For trainees to other VTCs, the project also bears the costs of the training materials that the trainees have to purchase.

Source: Interview with Project Coordinator LWS IRDP in Kandal and Takeo (July 2001).

Both government agencies and NGOs in Cambodia and Viet Nam are directing their training for the rural poor on subsequent wage employment: They provide industrial sewing courses for girls and young women, hoping that they will find a job in one of the growing number of garment factories that are being built. This strategy may not be the best recommendation as these factories are invariably located in or near the capital, their working conditions tend to be questionable and the salaries low. Moreover, these factories in any case provide short (two weeks), intensive training courses for all their employees, so that it seems a waste for NGOs to spend their modest resources on such training.

3.2.2 Skills Training for Micro Enterprise Development

In view of the limited availability of modern sector wage jobs, it will be a better training strategy to provide skills courses that prepare child workers and/or their parents and family members for self-employment in micro enterprises or the promotion of rural livelihood activities. Such skills training can take place in small, rural VTCs as well as in the form of mobile and out-reach training, which are special approaches that have been developed only in the past couple of decades (see Example 13).

Example 13: Mobile Vocational Training (Viet Nam)

An example of mobile training is found in Viet Nam where VTCs directed by the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) make use of their trainers and equipment for courses in the rural areas. This type of training is thus a way of the stronger VTCs to help weaker ones and to reach out to the poorer and underprivileged sections of society. The equipment is loaded onto a truck and a rural VTC or location is provided by the community (pagoda, ward/district facilities, rehabilitation camps) as the training venue. The training topics are the same as in the regular VTCs (in fact, most of the training concerns industrial sewing courses).

A Swiss Contact monitoring survey of 23 mobile courses (469 trainees) found that:

- almost two thirds of the trainees were from underprivileged households;
- most of the trainees were young and two thirds had only primary education (as a result of which the same training course takes longer than when given in a VTC);
- only a minority (85) could pay training fees;
- the average drop-out rate was 8 percent and the pass rate was 98 percent; and
- more than half of the training graduates migrated out of the rural areas (most likely since the training was geared towards wage-employment).

SDC/Swiss Contact sponsors this type of training at USD1 per student per hour (for groups of maximum 20 persons).

Source: Swiss Contact, internal document (2000).

3.2.2.1 Mobile skills training

Mobile training essentially refers to training courses similar to those conducted in VTCs but use is made of trucks that are outfitted with the required training equipment so that the skills training can take place in rural villages. While this type of training could in principle also be used to prepare youth for wage-employment, the main idea is to impart technical skills for self-employment as a

way to counteract rural-to-urban migration, or, in other words, for the youth to use the skills in local livelihood activities and micro enterprises. Obviously, the skills that can be transferred under this training modality are constrained by the limitations of the mobility factor.

The general impression is, from the literature review, that mobile training is rather difficult to organize and often rather expensive both in terms of investment and operational costs.¹

3.2.2.2 Out-reach training

Out-reach training seeks not only to take the training to the rural areas, but also to base the training, to the extent possible, on local materials and local markets. More than in the case of mobile training, out-reach training constitutes a totally different approach to skills training all together. It is relevant for both micro enterprise development and for the promotion of income-generating activities.

Community-based training (CBT) is a prime example of out-reach training. It is a very specific methodology for self-employment creation in the rural areas. It centres on the notion that the identification of employment opportunities prior to conducting training, and it therefore includes special participatory instruments to carry out simple research of the village economy to detect such possibilities in its labour market. The design and implementation of CBT training consists of a number of clearly defined steps (see the following Good Practice).

¹ An interesting programme of mobile training for the rural areas is being implemented by SENATI, the national training organization in Peru. It has relatively small training trucks, which have only a small number set of training equipment, as they rely mainly on video presentations that show the trainees the actual working of the equipment. This significantly reduces the time required for hands-on practice so that the number of pieces of training equipment can be limited.

Good Practice Suggestions: Community-Based Training

The community-based training methodology (CBT), which is the basis of TESDA (Philippines) and Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (Cambodia) rural training programmes, essentially centres around the identification of (self-) employment opportunities prior to conducting training, community involvement (in selection of trainees), combining technical skills training with entrepreneurship development and management training and careful attention for post-training assistance (such as credit for those who want to enter into self-employment).

The community-based training methodology essentially revolves around six steps:

1. Institutional planning

The application of the approach starts at the institutional level with the assessment of the need and scope for community-based training, the formulation of a framework (including decisions on target groups and areas) and the creation of implementation capacity.

2. Assessment of training needs and opportunities

The centrepiece of the methodology are the instruments to identify and screen the actual opportunities for employment and income generation within the community; in this process, including the prioritization of the training areas, the community and other “rural development actors” are involved through the Local Training Council and the Resource Committee.

3. Preparation and organization of training

Within the community-based training approach, there is no list of standard prescribed courses, as the training area follows from the assessment of local training needs and opportunities and course content and materials will have to be designed or adapted; instructors, often local artisans, receive pedagogical and business training.

In Cambodia, a special team was formed for the development of training curricula and materials.

4. Training delivery

The design of the training courses and the actual delivery are also tailor-made for the selected clients, as they reflect the characteristics of prospective workers and conditions of (self-) employment; in addition to technical skills, the training also includes instruction in basic management matters.

In Cambodia there are two types of courses:

- a.) centre-based courses: more than one month in duration, technology intensive and more suited to urban needs, trainees from different villages and
- b.) mobile courses: short, agriculture-oriented, with trainees from same village.

5. Post-training assistance

Another pivotal area of community-based training programmes concerns support for the trainees after completion of the course, such as in areas of group formation, credit and business consultancies.

In Cambodia, the training is linked with a credit scheme, which is either

- a.) non-collateral: involves a group guarantee, 5 percent interest per month, and six-hours of business training or
- b.) collateral: USD 150 to USD 4,000 for MSEs 18 percent interest per year; business training for two to four days, collateral (land, house) plus a guarantor.

6. Monitoring and evaluation

Integral in the community-based training approach is a continuous monitoring of activities to identify and solve implementation problems and evaluation to assess the ultimate impact of the training interventions.

In Cambodia, tracer surveys are conducted after 4- 6- and 12- month periods to get feedback on training impact and as basis for curriculum revisions.

Although all community-based training programmes will be built around these steps, this should not be taken to mean that they will all be uniform. In the actual application of the methodology, different options exist and will invariably lead to adaptation to local economic, socio-cultural and institutional conditions. Please refer for more details on the instruments and processes of the approach to the *ILO Community-based Training Manual*.

From: H.C. Haan, Community-based training: Guidelines for decision-makers (ILO 1994), ILO/UNDP CMB/98/009 1998 and Duangsa 1997.

3.2.3 Traditional Apprenticeship Training

In addition to centre-based training and out-reach/mobile training, another type of training can be distinguished: enterprise-based training or, as it is better known, apprenticeship training. It refers to skills development that takes place within medium and large enterprises, including factories and modern workshops (formal apprenticeship) and training in small and informal firms and especially workshops (traditional or informal apprenticeship).

3.2.3.1 Main characteristics of traditional apprenticeship

In the traditional apprenticeship training (TAT) system there is no *training* in the conventional sense of the word. Rather, the trainee is to observe and imitate the owner of the business (or the workshop supervisor) or “master” and will be

corrected if his or her own efforts fail. The apprentice invariably has to start with simple manual jobs before gradually moving to more complex tasks. Some masters follow a written or more informal training plan or even structure the training, but in many cases the training offered is determined by the regular production, such as the manufacturing and repair jobs that the firm has to carry out.

The training is often product-specific and theoretical aspects and some basic technical practices (such as precise measuring) are largely ignored; as the trainees do not learn the whole spectrum of skills of a particular craft, some consider them, at best, semi-skilled upon completion of the training. Few apprentices appear to start their own business immediately upon completing their TAT period. A typical career path passes through a number of years of, formal or informal, wage employment.

The apprenticeship period varies with the trade, but usually ranges from three to four years. Some apprentices do not complete the training. The drop-out rate is estimated at 25 percent of the intake and is lower in the more traditional trades, which tend to attract less educated apprentices. Working hours of the apprentices are long while the working conditions, for all those working in informal sector enterprises, leave much to be desired.

3.2.3.2 Organization of traditional apprenticeship training

Apprenticeship training is usually based on an agreement between a master and usually the parents or guardians of the apprentice for a period of attachment to the firm of the mastercrafts(wo)man with the purpose of acquiring a set of relevant and practical skills. Sometimes the master receives a training fee, in other situations the apprentice has to “earn” the training by receiving no or a minimal remuneration for his or her labour. Generally, such a fee is lower than comparable training fees charged by private training providers, ranging, for instance, in Cambodia from USD 50 to USD 250.

Family ties continue to play an important role in TAT, and in Asia as elsewhere many, if not most, of the apprentices are selected on the basis of kinship; the masters also carefully review the aptitude and trainability of the prospective trainees, particularly their honesty (for which family ties help).

3.2.3.3 Importance of traditional apprenticeships

Such training is, in fact in most developing countries, the dominant mode of skills training, with a capacity that is many times that of public sector and NGO VTCs together. In Cambodia, for instance, the total number of people trained in the informal sector is estimated at 110,000 (information from MoEYS/GTZ), of which 30,000 are in family enterprises and 80,000 in other informal workshops, while the formal and non-formal training institutes have an estimated capacity of only 4,000 – or in other words, MSEs of the informal sector are responsible for more

than 95 percent of all basic skills training,² of which one quarter refers to training provided within family enterprises and the rest between mastercrafts(wo)men and apprentices.

3.2.3.4 Deficiencies of traditional apprenticeship training

Traditional apprenticeship training is generally recognized to be relevant and effective – but at the same time far from perfect. Some of the main limitations concern:

- TAT is limited to a number of trades, often benefitting boys more than girls;
- the quality of the training hugely varies, depending on teaching skills of the mastercrafts person, available equipment and the number and type of jobs carried out in the workshop, stipulations in apprenticeship contract on training content;
- at least in some cases, unscrupulous employers exploit the apprentices as cheap labour without administering any training;
- TAT learning is generally passive and non-experimental (it is usually not much appreciated for the apprentices to pose questions); and
- apprenticeship training is an almost closed system: Few, if any, new technologies (such as production techniques and product designs) enter into the training – in a way TAT makes for technological stagnation (even though some innovations occur).

While there is a need to improve upon TAT, especially to ensure training for the ever-increasing number of out-of-school youth, there is general consensus that any interventions in the system need to be introduced step-by-step. The intricate balance that has evolved over a long period can be easily upset. It is especially important that the masters see clear and tangible benefits and that their authority is not undermined. Uninformed introduction of legislation to “improve” TAT would appear to be counterproductive.

Possibly the best options are to provide incentives and support services. Complementary training in the form of short courses for a few hours per week could be offered to both the apprentices and the masters. Apprentices would benefit from counselling and guidance – before and during the training. Masters could receive advice and training on selection and training of apprentices. General support measures for the informal sector, including study tours for masters to meet other mastercrafts(wo)men will indirectly benefit the TAT. Dissemination of information on training methodologies, together with other information on markets, technologies and support programmes, would also be helpful.

Support to traditional apprenticeship training would also appear to be an interesting option for NGOs as well (see Example 14).

² Another estimate holds that in the 1993-98 period, some 5,000 trainees received institutional training, against as many as half a million in the informal sector (EASMAT 2000:32).

Example 14: NGO-Supported Apprenticeship Training (Cambodia)

Meatho Phum Komah (Homeland), a small NGO in Battambang, Cambodia, operates a care centre to provide a safe environment for street children and supports them to go (back) to school. Homeland takes care of all the costs of the schooling (food, uniform and school materials). For some of the older children, literacy training is provided – by a teacher who, in addition to her work as a government teacher, is contracted part time (half day and weekends for USD 50 per month).

Homeland also provides skills training. For the young children, simple training is provided at the centre in scarf and mat weaving, handicraft making and pig raising. It is a kind of training-cum-production system in which the products are sold to get some income for running the centre.

For the older children (15 to 18 years old), Homeland has found an interesting way to organize skills training. They are placed in suitable workshops as an apprentice. The workshop is carefully selected for its reputation (through feedback from current apprentices) and visited to meet the owner. The training is then agreed upon in a written contract between Homeland and the owner, stipulating the apprenticeship fee (paid by Homeland), the duration of the training and the level of pocket money to be paid to the apprentice after six months or more. Homeland closely monitors the progress of the apprentices by visiting them in the workshop and checking on their knowledge (by asking for names and functions of tools and spare parts).

Source: Interview with director of *Meatho Phum Komah* (July 2001).

3.2.4 Para-Training and the Promotion of livelihood Activities

In the rural areas, and especially those that are resource-poor and have little potential for farming, the scope for skills training to create local employment is inherently limited. In fact, the most common way for government organizations and especially NGOs interested to improve the living and working situation of the rural poor is to promote livelihood activities. Most of the livelihood activities promoted in the rural areas in south-east Asia are often rather traditional. They can be categorized as follows:

- (i) animal husbandry, such as raising poultry (chickens, ducks), pigs, frogs and snails;
- (ii) growing different kinds of vegetables, including mushroom cultivation;
- (iii) traditional handicrafts, especially for women, such as handloom weaving, embroidery, hat making and various reed-based products (mats, brooms, baskets, kitchen wares); and
- (iv) home-based trading, especially of food and daily consumption items.

3.2.4.1 Promotion of livelihood activities

The most important features of livelihood activities are that they are part time, take place in or near the house, usually based on local materials and nearby markets. They do not require much capital, skills or even entrepreneurship – which presents certain advantages for the organizations providing support for these activities as their promotion can be done with limited amounts of credit, skills training, etc. A further advantage of the promotion of this kind of activity is their short turnover period, meaning that the investments yield incomes – albeit at a rather low level – within a period of weeks or months (and in the case of trading, sometimes even days). This is especially the situation with small trading activities, which usually make up more than half of all livelihood activities.

Skills training does not play a prominent role in the promotion of livelihood activities because in these activities technical skills usually only play a secondary role and/or are locally available (such as in the case of handicraft making). Rather, this is done through a micro-credit scheme. The beneficiaries, after appropriate community organizing and/or specific group formation and some orientation on credit management and bookkeeping aspects, are eligible for small loans. The amount of these credits is usually initially (well) below USD 100. Such schemes have generally proven to be successful – if provided to those willing to be self-employed (after some training) – at least in terms of repayment of the credits (now routinely at 95 percent).

3.2.4.2 Livelihood activities and para-skills training

Few organizations involved in the promotion of livelihood activities have integrated skills training into their interventions. However, even when the level of skills would be low, there is great need to take the technical side of livelihood activities into consideration. The beneficiaries need to be oriented about the need for relevant technologies, the selection of the right equipment and minimum standards of product quality as demanded in the market. Without all this, it is quite possible that livelihood activities may fail (even endangering the repayment of the micro-credit).

To guard against this, there is need for the transfer of practical knowledge that could be called para-training. Already many organizations involved in the promotion of livelihoods, link credits with advice or training on technical matters (such as vaccinations in case of poultry projects). Such para-training activities would not necessarily have to be carried out by the credit organization itself; rather, accessing them through networking with specialized agencies would appear to have important advantages (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: Promotion of Livelihood Activities

To complement the provision of small amounts of working and investment capital, the following activities could be conducted (in order of increasing intensity in terms of time and qualifications of support staff and financial resources):

- **Pre-credit orientation** to prospective recipients of small credits on (i) credit management, (ii) basic business aspects and (iii) interesting livelihood activities and micro-enterprise opportunities in their locality (as well as references how/where more extensive information could be obtained).
- **Demonstration of technologies/production techniques**, which could be short sessions by staff from technical agencies to introduce non-traditional production techniques, including the use of other materials and product designs (or improvements in traditional ones).
- **Short training courses**, lasting no longer than a few days on certain technical aspects of the livelihood activities (this would be very similar to the community-based training discussed earlier).
- **Business counselling** in the form of frequent visits to the beneficiaries who have initiated livelihood activities to strengthen their confidence, give follow-up advice and information, monitor and, to the extent possible, solve unexpected problems, initiate linkages with others engaged in livelihood activities as well as suppliers and traders, set up linkages with service providers, etc.
- **Marketing assistance** by being actively involved (through transporting and trading) in ensuring the supply of production inputs and selling of livelihood activities products.

3.2.4.3 Non-traditional livelihood activities

Most of the activities that are – explicitly or implicitly – promoted by micro-credit and other support activities for the poor tend to be traditional livelihood activities. However, as the demand for the products is generally waning, their markets are easily over-supplied, putting still more pressure on already low-income returns. Women are especially keen to diversify their livelihood activities (as different from men entrepreneurs who are thought to attach more priority to expanding their business). More general diversification of the rural economy is important to absorb those who do not find adequate employment and income in farming. Exactly for such reasons, para-training is important in relation to the provision of small amounts of credit. There is, therefore, a crucial need for the introduction of non-traditional livelihood activities (see Example 15), for instance through technical demonstrations, specific skills instructions, technological information, etc.

Example 15: Non-Traditional Rural Non-Agricultural Activities in Asia

Agriculture-related activities:

- Non-traditional fruits and vegetables (mushroom growing)
- Animal husbandry and small rodents (poultry, frogs, snails)
- Beekeeping
- Horticulture (mushrooms, flowers)
- Tree nurseries
- Shrimp farming
- Fishponds

Resource-based activities:

- Increased processing of agricultural products and fruits
- Processing seafood products
- Natural fertilizer (compost)
- Fodder for cattle, feed for poultry
- Decorations of (semi-precious) stones, shells, etc.

Linked with increasing incomes:

- Bakeries and especially pastries
- Food catering
- Ice cream and dairy products (yoghurt)
- Weaning food
- Beauty salons (hairdressing and cosmetology)
- Toys
- Various forms of entertainment (video screenings)
- Specialized products (baby clothes, loudspeaker boxes, etc.)

Linked with improved housing:

- Concrete and, in some areas, adobe blocks, cement roof tiles, etc.
- House decoration (dried flowers, Christmas decorations, etc.)
- Electric wiring
- Repair of household appliances

Note:

Obviously the innovative characteristic of non-agricultural activities depends foremost on existing consumption patterns. Whereas bakeries may be new in one context, it could be more conventional in others.

In supporting the rural poor who are already engaged in traditional livelihood activities, a gradual approach should be taken. In addition to providing minimal support to the existing activity, people should be transferred out of the real survival activities into others that have more potential for stable, and even increasing, incomes. This would be a first step to improve the household situation and possibly

allow for some investments that will lead to some diversification and even limited growth of the venture – or moving on to more interesting economic activities, such as setting up a micro enterprise.

More and more training organizations are now moving into basic skills training that are often directed at some form of livelihood activity. This has proven very successful in rural areas (see Example 16).

Example 16: Skills Training for Subsistence and Home Consumption Activities (Cambodia)

An impact study of the training conducted by Vocational Training Centres under the Ministry of Rural Development, supported as Micro Enterprise Centres by the European Union, shows that the training was not very successful in the creation of local employment. For lack of adequate follow-up support (capital for the start-up of micro enterprises, for example), one third of the trainees left their village after finishing their training to look for employment elsewhere. Most others could not change their profession and continued to work as farmers (without any improvement in their incomes).

Still, the evaluation found that most of the trainees themselves believed they had benefitted from the training. For instance, those who were trained in pump repair said that they were now much better at repairing their own pumps. The implication is that, while their income had not yet increased, at least their expenditures had gone down, and that the productivity of their farming activities most likely had gone up. In other words, it is reasonable to expect that sooner or later there will be a positive income effect, even though it might be small.

While the effect of the training in terms of employment and additional incomes was very limited, in wider terms it can still be considered beneficial for the rural areas since it infused crucial skills for rural development. The communities where the trainees came from were found to be quite enthusiastic about the skills and knowledge that their members had received during the training. As a result, pump repair and other services had become available at a lower price and even, for family, friends and neighbours (a total of one third of the cases) is available free of charge.

The conclusion drawn from this experience is that it is better to focus on (i) promotion of livelihood activities that require little or no start-up capital and (ii) provision of training for skills to upgrade existing micro enterprises.

Source: SAWAC/PRASAC II, *Impact of training courses on job creation and microenterprise development* (Phnom Penh 2001).

Interestingly, even conventional training organizations and VTCs are now offering short training courses in agriculture-related livelihood activities, such as animal husbandry, vegetable and flower growing, or even improved farming techniques. TESDA-Cebu, for instance, has started, together with an NGO, training on sustainable agriculture (courses of two weeks and three months are offered), and Don Bosco Philippines has opened Agro-Mechanic Training Centres especially geared towards rural areas.

3.2.5 Some Recent Approaches to Skills Development

Skills training usually refers to pre-employment training. More and more however, special training interventions are being designed to upgrade the skills of the informal sector operators outside the regular VTCs. They aim to improve the production techniques to improve the quality of particular products or seek to introduce new product designs. This process used to be transacted through appropriate technology programmes, but it is now done through training for product development programmes.

3.2.5.1 Technology demonstrations

In searching for short-term and low-cost forms of transferring technical knowledge and practical skills, training and other organizations more and more use a demonstration format. This essentially involves inviting technical/technology experts to demonstrate a certain piece of equipment or the production of a particular product or new product design (see Example 17).

Example 17: Skills Transfer Through Demonstrations (Viet Nam)

Cooperation Internationale pour le Developement et la Solidarit (CIDSE), a small NGO for rural development operating in Viet Nam, recently changed the way it is providing transfer skills for farming and non-agricultural activities. It found that in case of a regular training, when the attending farmers were paid a sitting allowance, they would pay little attention, and even fall asleep.

Now the training is done through participatory demonstrations. An expert is contracted (from the Ministry of Agriculture or a university), who first meets with the participants to get to know them and their expectations. He or she then prepares a kind of lesson plan. The actual short training course consists of a set of demonstrations. For instance, in the case of industrial poultry raising, the training pays attention to the composition of food, hygiene and veterinary service; in the case of bee keeping, a hive is constructed together with the participants. Also, as part of the training, exposure visits are made to other farms.

At the end of the training, the participants prepare a follow-up plan, reflecting on what they have learned and what kind of support they will need (such as credit) to make good use of the knowledge and skills.

CIDSE has learned that the selection of the trainers is very important. In the past system, some of the teaching staff did not have good rapport with participants and had problems making the training practical. The extension workers are proving to be effective, as are many of its beneficiaries who have been trained (key farmers) to train others.

Source: Interview with CIDSE Programme Officer (August 2001).

The advantages of this type of training is that it is entirely flexible, based on the needs of a particular group of participants and is usually given in a practical and participatory manner. Its costs are low. However, this type of skills transfer is obviously better suited for simple livelihood activities and not for skills-intensive trades.

3.2.5.2 Training for product development

Training for product development usually refers to programmes that link a small-group of artisans to an expert in a particular trade. They are very flexible; at the start, the only thing that has usually been fixed is the period for which the expert will be available. The training approach is informal, without following a specified lesson plan. They mainly focus on:

- improving the quality of the products by upgrading the skills of the artisans, using better quality materials or more sophisticated tools and equipment, and
- making the products more attractive by improving the design of the product, changing the colours of the materials used, introducing packaging, etc.

Product development programmes are often set up by organizations (or firms) that are involved in the marketing of particular items produced by small producers, such as handicrafts. The skills development is usually linked to one or a few products so as to make them more attractive for medium- and high-income groups. These products are then sold to tourists or exported to the USA, Japan and Europe (see Example 18).

Example 18: Training for Product Development (Philippines)

The Community Craft Association (CCA) in the Philippines is involved in social development as well as acting as an intermediary marketing agency for rural producers (what it calls development marketing). It is a member of the International Federation of Alternative Trade Organizations that are exporting handicrafts and other products to Europe and the USA and has links to the trading arm of Oxfam-UK.

CCA, with a staff of 21, has organized 12 Social Production Units of small producers of kitchen and housewares (mainly made from natural fibres). The activity finds its origin in the realization that with local NGOs increasingly promoting small-scale activities, the local market was becoming flooded with products and the prices were being driven down steadily. When trying to find more up-scale markets, CCA encountered, however, two major problems: (i) the quality of the products of the local artisans was often inadequate and (ii) it was difficult to fill orders as small producers often do not deliver on time.

CCA revamped and initiated small product-development programmes, during which the small producers also received training in business management. For the product development activities, CCA contracts a local designer for three months (cost: USD 1,500) to develop a particular product line while working with five production groups. The type of products to be developed are chosen on the basis of market information, sometimes even in the form of orders from exporters. CCA pays 40 percent of the price of the products in advance and the remainder upon their sales.

CCA is currently experiencing difficulties as competition (from China, in particular) is fierce and the buying programme of Oxfam has closed down. As a result, its sales in 2000 (USD 600,000) were down 10 percent from the previous year. CCA now sees itself forced to find commercial buyers: While several years ago commercial buyers were responsible for 10 percent of the total sales, this has jumped to 50 percent.

Source: Interview with the Director of Community Crafts Association (July 01).

Product-development interventions hold potential benefits for small producers: They may receive a higher price for their products, have a larger or at least more stable turnover and upgrade their skills and knowledge – usually free of charge as the costs are borne by the marketing intermediary. Most importantly, product development helps small producers to diversify. One of the most critical problems of livelihood activities and micro enterprises is the deadly rate of imitation in this sector: There is often mindless copycatting of other businesses. Product differentiation is one of the best ways to overcome the fierce competition from other micro and small enterprises.

Example 19: The Importance of diversification in Moving Out of Poverty

Nga's household 10 years ago belonged to level A (absolute poverty), now they belong to level B (economic security). They started off in a small house at the edge of the village left to them by their parents when they first began to live as a separate household. This house now has a tile roof. They have developed their income and assets step by step. First they raised chickens, ducks and pigs. "Farmers need to know how to choose breeds" says Mr. Nga. He learned this by reading books and participating in agricultural extension programmes.

He also grows oranges and from this has earned an annual income of USD 107 for four successive years. His orange trees were stricken with blue fungus and yellow leaf disease so he switched to growing litchi planted with low-growing crops (peanut) providing him with high output (the peanuts are harvested every four months). He twice obtained loans to invest in tree cultivation and livestock, and he always repaid on time. Besides this, he also keeps three bee apiaries that provide him with an income of USD 71 (20 bottles of honey).

Source: Taken from *Synthesis of participatory poverty assessments from four sites in Viet Nam: Lao Cai, Ha Tinh, Tra Vinh & Ho Chi Minh City* (1999).

There are, however, also a number of risks attached to producing for the higher end of the market: (i) production costs increase as better materials have to be used and possibly even new equipment will have to be bought, (ii) the small producers usually become more dependent on the intermediary, (iii) producing for export especially is a highly complicated chain, which is difficult to manage and fraught with organizational problems and (iv) the world market is very volatile as it is typically driven by fashions and fads.

3.2.5.3 Workshop and exposure visits

Some more low-cost approaches to improving the skills and production techniques of small producers that appears to be successful concern forms of peer-to-peer training. This includes, for instance, organized visits to peer-producers (workshop visits) or to other relevant companies or businesses (exposure visits).

Workshop exchange visits refer to an organized way in which small producers pay a visit to pre-selected peers to exchange information on technologies and equipment in use, suppliers of equipment and materials, market prices, marketing channels, etc. The visits take place in workshops, which provides a hands-on context for discussions on various topics and the direct exchange of experiences. Enterprise exchange visits can be organized on an individual basis, but it has been found more cost-effective to form groups of 5 to 10 small producers and on a sectoral basis. Where informal sector associations and other informal groupings

of say, metal workers and food processors, have been involved there has been noticeable impacts in the areas of technology, management and marketing.

Exposure visits can take producers to small, medium and even large enterprises as well as to supplier outlets in urban areas, international expositions and research and development organizations. The conclusion invariably is that the small producers learn exponentially from what is usually simple and low cost to organize.

In both cases it is important to stipulate prior to the travel what are the objectives for the planned visits and the way in which follow-up will be given. Without this, they may end up mere shopping trips.

3.2.5.4 Dissemination of information

It is becoming more and more clear that information is essential for all producers engaged in economic activities at whatever scale.

There are endless ways to disseminate information to small producers. Some of the more innovative ones that have been tried in recent support programmes for MSEs, in addition to the exposure visits described above, include

- making available product catalogues with pictures, from large commercial firms selling clothing, furniture (such as IKEA)
- special weekly radio programmes (one hour) directed at small entrepreneurs
- rural tele-centres where small producers can access Internet (and assistance to use it).

3.2.5.5 Appropriate technologies

Appropriate-technology projects were popular in the 1980s but are almost not heard of anymore. This is mainly because only a few projects were successful. Most of them encountered problems such as the following:

- equipment development was often supply-led, without active involvement of the intended clients and this led, at times, to socio-cultural problems and some of the technologies were technically unsound under local conditions;
- frequently, there were implementation problems owing to weak management skills, lack of community support, poor training preparation, weak repair capacity and/or inadequate marketing arrangements; and
- projects paid insufficient attention to economic fundamentals: steady supply of raw materials, identification of demand and ensuring that the business would be profitable under normal circumstances.

All this is not meant to say that the introduction of more efficient technologies is no longer necessary for income-generation. On the contrary, deficient technologies are the main cause of the low levels of productivity and product quality and lead

to marketing/demand problems. It is crucial for small producers to address technological improvements, especially with the opening up of local markets and wider globalization issues, such as product improvement and diversification.

The key message is that technology development interventions need to be market led; a tangible business- like message has to be adopted; final users have to be perceived as clients (customers) – not recipients of charity; incentives have to be understood and built into the value-added chain; marketing techniques must seek to educate potential customers and raise awareness; and the people who provide support must have a feel for business as well as a commitment to poverty alleviation. Finally, it should be considered that in the end, once the phase of the initial development costs has passed, technology development and transfer should become self-financed.

Key Points

- Generally, the lack of wage jobs in rural areas would make skills training for self-employment (rather than wage- employment) the best option for income-generation.
- Rural skills training needs to have a clearly defined objective and strategy, should be directly related to the target group to be served and should state the conditions for the use of the skills to be transferred. Community-based training is a prime example of out-reach training for self-employment.
- Centre-based vocational training for wage-employment usually leads to out-migration to urban areas and would appear to be only relevant in a few cases. Centre-based training generally takes too long, is consequently too expensive and offers too few guarantees for landing a job. For parents, this type of training would appear to have no relevance at all. In the case of youth, it may hold some appeal and could be useful if jobs have been identified prior to the training, or if it is seen as a period to save for starting a self-owned business.
- Centre-based vocational training courses may take place at a higher technical level, but they tend to lack adequate follow-up to smooth the entry of the graduates into a business. Also, graduates may be too young to be able or even interested to start a business for themselves.
- Traditional apprenticeship training offers a huge potential in terms of numbers of training places available, and seems suitable as many of the apprentices tend to stay on after finishing the training. As such they are in a position to slowly gather experiences, business contacts and some savings to start for their own.

- Promotion of livelihood activities is probably the best way to increase the incomes of the households of working children and those at risk. They can provide additional income, which can help to keep them in school and out of work at an early age. It will be usually the parents who are engaged in such activities – there are few livelihood activities that have a strong attraction for the youth and they may not be interested in this type of training.
- It is crucial that these livelihood activities are varied so as to prevent imitation and create a diversified local economy.

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4 RURAL SKILLS TRAINING ORGANIZATION AND DELIVERY

In this chapter some of the lessons learned in setting up and conducting skills training programmes will be reviewed. Important innovations that are emerging in this area are also presented. The emphasis is on basic level training, which is most relevant for the rural areas.

The final result of rural skills training programmes depends to a large extent on their organization and delivery – irrespective of the objective pursued. One of the central points that will be reiterated in the following chapter is that training needs to be flexible and needs to take into consideration the characteristics and interests of the targeted trainees. This surmises that the organization has formulated clear objectives and target groups for skills training courses it wants to conduct. Also, in the planning of the training, the available human and financial resources should be known.

4.1 Determining the Training Areas

4.1.1 New methodologies and instruments

A frequent shortcoming of rural (and urban) training programmes is that they are not based on a clear notion of the ultimate use of the skills that are being transferred. The training trades are mostly determined by the locally available raw materials (such as bamboo furniture in bamboo growing areas), the ideas of training organizers and, remarkably often, by convention (the centre has always given training in tailoring, carpentry, etc.). Inadequate consideration of the market, either directly in the form of demand from potential employers, or indirectly in the form of opportunities in the market to sell the goods and services of those who enter into self-employment, is still common-place in many countries (see the following Ineffective Practice).

Ineffective Practice: Determining Training Areas

In Cambodia, a small NGO providing, among other things, skills training to women and youth, encountered frequent problems with its training. One of the first batches of participants were trained in sewing and each given a loan to buy a sewing machine. But they did not get enough business and never repaid the loans. Another batch of youth was trained in bicycle repair but most of them left the activity after a few months. Again, because they did not find enough demand for their services.

Clearly there was a problem with determining the demand for the skills prior to conducting the training courses. As a result, the resources invested in the training

were wasted, and the trainees left frustrated because in spite of their time and efforts to complete the training, they did not find any employment.

Source: Interview with the NGO in Cambodia (July 2001).

It has become a widely accepted good practice that training needs to be demand-led; skills to be taught are determined by existing or recognizable potential opportunities in the labour market for (self-) employment. New approaches to skills training have been developed that are based on this principle. The community-based training (CBT) approach, for instance, includes special procedures and instruments for this purpose.

Identifying the employment and training needs and opportunities consists of: (i) collecting baseline data on the present demographic, social and economic situation in the village or district where the training will be conducted, (ii) identifying potential and training opportunities and (iii) validating the economic viability of the identified opportunities (via a rudimentary feasibility study). Essentially, the instruments involved are survey variations of Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) techniques; they are called Training Needs and Opportunities surveys in the Philippines and Training and Employment Needs Assessment (TENA) in Cambodia.

The analysis of the rural/ village economy should adopt a dynamic perspective. It should take into consideration government development programmes and planned investments by the private sector. To the extent possible, it should try to identify upcoming niches in the market. In this way, the research can address one of the limitations of poor entrepreneurs – their limited business vision. Poor entrepreneurs tend to imitate activities from others and hardly ever engage in research to diversify their economic activities.

4.1.2 Implementation aspects

There are several different formats to carry out the training needs and opportunity assessments (see the following Good Practice). Most small organizations cannot attempt a solid collection of data through surveys because, while yielding good results, they are time- and staff-intensive and costly. The challenge is to match the objective of a good and transparent analysis of the markets for (wage) labour and for the goods and services produced by employment ventures with the use of “rapid” instruments and techniques that are simple and appropriate. There is scope to involve other, more experienced agencies in this research, such as government departments or agencies responsible for economic development or financial institutions interested in providing loans to the training graduates.

Good Practice Suggestions: Training Needs and Opportunity Assessments

Different methods have emerged to undertake training needs and opportunities (TNO) data collection and analysis:

- The most solid but also intensive way is to conduct actual surveys of the local economy for every village where a training course is planned. This is rather heavy on human and financial resources and may take one week for the field work and another for the validation and reporting (see for example ILO/NMYC 1993).
- A number of training organizations, while maintaining the surveys, have condensed the TNO format to apply it to a wider area and rely on secondary sources of information and on key informants and the communities to analyze needs. This format is used more as reference research that will need to be updated after one or two years (see for example ILO/UNDP/CMB 1998).
- Many NGOs have further shortened the TNO format, probably in view of their limited staff and finances, relying no longer on actual surveys but on key informants and community members through RRA methodologies to understand training needs.

4.1.3 Participatory approaches

Many of the NGOs involved in skills training tend to rely on participatory approaches in which the community is a prominent party in deciding what trades should be trained. While this indeed is an important way to create “ownership” of the intervention, it should be realized that poor, rural communities have a rather limited horizon when it comes to non-agricultural activities. Having the participation of local experts, such as extension workers, businesspeople, rural bankers, school principals, etc. is sufficient enough to achieve realistic, business-like considerations and outcomes.

In determining the type of skills training, it is critical for the staff of the training organization to stimulate non-traditional activities in the area, as these will encounter less competition and result in higher incomes for the training graduates. Also, “modern” activities tend to be more attractive for youth who are apt to dislike agricultural production. In practice, this is a tricky balancing act, since the entrepreneurial role expected from the trainees should not be entirely taken over. And then there is the possibility that a finger is pointed at the training organizers when the market prospects of the suggested activity do not work out as expected.

4.1.4 Other conditions

While of prime importance, the market needs and opportunities should not be the only criterion in the selection of the training trades. The interest of the prospective trainees is also of great significance. In the case of training programmes specially targeted at working children, there are two aspects that are important for the

areas chosen for the skills training. Firstly, in view of the most likely low educational levels of those trainees, there are advantages in selecting simpler trades, such as hairdressing and masonry. Secondly, for youth, there is usually far more interest in mastering motorbike repair, electronics repair, etc. than for more traditional activities, such as agriculture and handicrafts.

More practical issues include whether specific trainers, training facilities and equipment are available. The seasonality of the use of certain skills can also play a role (see Example 20).

Example 20: Combination of Skills to Overcome Seasonality Constraints (Cambodia)

A study on rural skills training in Cambodia clearly established that there is ample and growing demand for small engine repair, such as for irrigation pumps and generators. At the same time, it found that such an activity is highly seasonal. “I operate three months per year. For most of the [rest of the] year [there are] few engines,” acknowledges the owner of a small engine repair shop in that study.

To address this issue, the study recommended combining training for small engine repair with training in agricultural machinery repair, such as for threshing machines, rice mills, etc. The additional training is actually simple. Having those skills makes sense in that context because of the increasing agricultural mechanization in rural Cambodia.

The change puts the total course duration at some five months, of which 14 weeks are dedicated to small engine repair and six weeks for agricultural machinery repair. The equipment required for a small engine and agricultural equipment repair workshop is relatively simple (considering that a lathe machine is not immediately required).

As a follow-up module, a short (possibly three months) training course in welding also could be provided. Use of these skills would require additional welding equipment which, when given as part of the initial training, would significantly increase start-up capital costs (USD 400 to USD 500). Welding is, however, a skill well in demand in both construction and car/ motorcycle repair.

Source: Strategic Management Solutions, Curriculum and Demanded Skills Survey: An exploratory survey into the future prospects of the PRASAC Micro-Enterprise Centres in Svay Rieng and Prey Veng (May 2001, EU/PRASAC, Phnom Penh).

4.2 Selection of Trainees

The selection of the trainees needs to be done in a transparent manner on the basis of clear criteria. Grierson (1997) correctly points out that it is necessary at the selection stage to determine a person's interest in self-employment. Common practice currently treats self-employment, or entrepreneurship development, as an add-on toward the end of the course. When the trainees have not been purposely selected for self-employment training and actually are intending to look for wage-employment, effectiveness of the training will be low. Available evidence indicates that the later in the process that specific support for self-employment is created, the least likely it is that it will be successful. Getting an early start by selecting those with self-employment intent and potential is a critical success factor.

Good Practice Suggestions: Criteria for the Selection of Trainees

The most common criteria applied for the selection of basic skills trainees include:

- **Age.** This is especially relevant for programmes directed at youth (in which case the age is usually limited from 16/18 to 24/25 years). In general, training programmes limit their intake to trainees of at most 45 years old.
- **Level of education.** Even though many non-formal training programmes differ from formal ones by not demanding relatively high educational entry requirements, most do want trainees to know how to read and write. Otherwise the training might be ineffective or will have to make use of special training materials.
- **Employment status or income level.** Many training programmes aim at special target groups and select their trainees who are unemployed, come from poor families, etc. A transparent selection process is therefore important to ensure the right participants.
- **Interest in training.** The most important question is whether the applicant is genuinely interested in acquiring the skills offered and determined to use them to obtain an income (and not just for home use).
- **Readiness for use of skills.** If the purpose of the training is self-employment, the applicant's entrepreneurial abilities, savings or access to finance might be checked to assess the feasibility.
- **Support from parents and the community.**

There are no scientific methods to predict the chances for entrepreneurial success of individual applicants. Some programmes use an "effort test" by requiring applicants to show a preliminary business plan. But most training providers make use of a personal interview during which a number of simple criteria are applied. Experience shows that the selection of trainees is done best in consultation with the community or a trade association.

Experience also emphasizes that not too many trainees from the same area or village should be selected, at least for training in the same trade as they will only become competitors after the training. In the case of tailoring, carpentry, motorbike repair, etc., not more than one or two trainees should be selected from the same community (see Example 21).

Example 21: VTC Trainee Contract (Cambodia and Viet Nam)

During the field research, an interesting innovation was found with regard to ensuring the interest of beneficiaries in training. A number of NGOs in Cambodia and Viet Nam have resorted to training contracts with the trainees or their parents/guardians. They are written agreements in which the applicants state their interest in the skills training and their intention to make “commercial” use of the skills required. The involvement of the parents/guardians was thought important to stiffen the resolve of the trainees and ensure attendance. One of the sanctions for low attendance is that the trainee would have to pay the costs of the training course.

Young children pose special conditions. Many of them are not yet interested in technical training – they still want to have fun and have problems in concentrating continuously for longer periods. Also, for some types of training, such as welding, they are physically not strong enough. For those younger than the legal working age – 15 years in most cases – they cannot immediately use the skills and by the time they can, the skills may have lost their market value.

Finally, few young children are in a position to make efficient use of entrepreneurship development and management training. Training of children younger than 15 should therefore focus on pre-vocational skills, such as basic knowledge for life and/or for future rural skills training.

4.3 Training Content

One of the reasons why many conventional VTCs only offer a limited number of courses is that they feel restricted by the training curricula that they have available. Demand-led training that is determined through some kind of analysis of labour market needs and opportunities necessarily requires access to a large number of different training curricula. In actual practice, training organizations often do not pay much attention to the suitability of the content of their training.

4.3.1 Curriculum development

Ready-made training curricula, and especially those produced by central training agencies, tend to aim for standard courses in a particular trade. This means that they are general and do not take into consideration the special conditions of the training target group. They bring, however, the advantage that it is more likely to

lead to externally administered trade tests and training certificates that are widely recognized and more likely to result in a job (see Example 22).

Example 22: Training Content Development (Cambodia)

The National Technical Training Institute in Cambodia offers a service to prepare training curricula for other organizations – on the basis of a training and employment needs assessment. The fee is USD 1,500 for NGOs but possibly more for training programmes financed by international donors.

Most of the training curricula are “home-made”, usually prepared by or in collaboration with the instructor. This is attractive as it allows the curricula to reflect the particular characteristics of the target group and/or the expected conditions for the application of the skills. It is recommended that small NGOs link-up with such government services rather than operating in an isolated manner.

4.3.2 Modular training

It is becoming more and more apparent that the training courses should be short, which means that it is crucial that the training curricula be developed in a modular form. The preference for short courses should not be mistaken to mean that regular training courses of six to twenty-four months can be compressed into courses of only a few weeks or months. For welding, tailoring and most other trades, it is definitely not feasible to transfer the complete set of skills to be an all-round carpenter, tailor, etc, in only a few months. Short courses should be designed with an entirely different logic: They should be modular, instead of trying to transfer the entire set of skills for a particular trade in one go. Short courses should provide building blocks, starting with a basic set to which gradually other sets of skills can be added through other equally short courses. When a trainee has gone through all the modules, he or she will have mastered all the skills usually equated with an occupation at a particular level.

Such a modular approach as the basis of training curriculum development would solve the problem of many of the existing short skills training courses. These courses tend to limit themselves, by necessity in view of the short course duration, to a rather rudimentary set of skills. Often, this set is inadequate for the training graduates to set up a stable and profitable business, and many of them complain that they not only want to learn more but also need to do so to be able to satisfy their customers (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: Basic Skills Training Curricula

There are a number of important “rules” for the development of curricula for effective basic skills training. The training content should be:

- practical and only dedicate some 10 to 40 percent of the time to theory;
- accessible for those with low levels of education by including pictures, comics, etc.;
- in the local language whenever this would significantly improve the results of the training and
- the training content should lend itself to modern, student-centred training using adult-education techniques.

4.3.3 Entrepreneurial skills

In case of training for self-employment, it is important to include in the training curriculum the provision of basic entrepreneurial and business skills. Some prime examples of such skills are investing, costing, production planning and marketing, and they can also include: business preparation, credit application, negotiations, customer relations, etc.

Some training organizations schedule the entrepreneurship and business skills as a separate module at the end of the course, while others prefer to mix the technical and business skills training, providing 15 to 30 minutes of trade-specific business training each day.

See a separate ILO project working paper entitled: ‘Micro-finance interventions: Tools to combat worst forms of child labour including trafficking (TIA - 3)’ for more details on business development services.

4.3.4 Training content for working or former working children

The training content for children should not only consist of rural skills, but also importantly should include the teaching of literacy, numeracy and life skills.

A study by ILO/IPEC in 1998 found that the provision of vocational training specifically for working or former working children/youth should:

- leave room for learning basic knowledge and creative activities;
- if possible link up with the backgrounds of the children and their parents;
- not be physically or mentally harmful and include knowledge on occupational safety and health (need for protective gear); and
- not offer an option for re-entry or early entry of other children into the labour market.

4.4 Training Facilities, Training Aides and Training Materials

4.4.1 Training facilities and equipment

Lack of budgetary resources often mean that there is only little investment done in training facilities and equipment. The buildings are often old and in desperate need of repairs, with leaking roofs, toilets that are not working, etc. The equipment is usually extremely limited so that the trainee/equipment ratio is too high.

Training equipment and materials are of crucial importance for a hands-on approach to skills training. Unfortunately, many rural training programmes can hardly afford to buy training aides and materials for each course. It is not uncommon to see tailoring courses that try to make do with only a few sewing machines and newspapers as material. Obviously, this has a major effect on the quality of the training.

4.4.2 Training aides

Most of the available training aides and materials are expensive, especially when they have been imported. It is quite possible for training providers to make their own. The National Technical Training Institute in Cambodia, for instance, has produced models of electrical generators that can be assembled and taken apart from Styrofoam, *papier mache* and plastic. Many trainers have similar ingenuity and once challenged and given some funds, can probably make most of the training equipment they need. In the case of major pieces of equipment, it is also possible to ask for discarded tools, equipment and models (engines, cars, etc.) from private businesses.

4.4.3 Training materials

Trainees should also be provided with handout sheets of information, instead of asking them to write down all the important points made by the instructor. In fact, they need reference books, if not purchased on an individual basis then at least available in a library in or near the VTC.

4.5 Recruitment and Training of Trainers

A major bottleneck in the provision of basic training concerns the lack of well-qualified trainers. Many of the instructors in the existing training centres are not well qualified, are under-paid and not well motivated. In fact, many of them turn out to be recent graduates from these training centres themselves. They are still young and lack any significant teaching experience and have not gained any experience in running their own business. As a result, they usually do not succeed to inspire the trainees.

Most of the training organizations still work with permanent instructors. This is a high-cost solution and reduces the flexibility of the training significantly. More and more, training organizations are relying on part-time instructors who are contracted for the duration of the course. Such short-term trainers often come from government technical departments, such as agriculture, science and technology, or from other NGOs.

Positive experiences have been gained by getting trainers from the business sector itself. Mastercraftspeople from the area are being contracted as trainers for technical training courses. They have the correct technical and business skills. As they do not necessarily possess the right teaching skills, it might be useful to train them in instructional methodologies – especially adult learning.

4.6 Training Venue and Time Schedule

It has become generally accepted that self-employment training should take place at hours convenient for the trainees. Especially for those who are already engaged in a job or income-earning activity, the training can best be done in the afternoons, evenings or weekends. Involving women in the decision on venue and the time schedule of the training course can be important in view of their multi obligations. Also, in the rural areas, trainees generally prefer training to take place in the agricultural slack season – many VTCs close during harvest time.

Similarly, the venue for the training course should be located near to the workshops, so as to facilitate short pre- and after-training work activities. However, while important for the attendance of those working or responsible for household duties, the use of such makeshift training venues is only feasible for short courses in trade areas involving light technologies. In community-based training programmes, for instance, the courses are often given in community halls, school buildings, etc. But this is not really an option for more technical courses, including carpentry and metalworking, which require more substantial and heavy pieces of training equipment.

4.7 Trade Testing and Certification

Trade testing and subsequent certification is an important issue. In most developing countries, there is a kind of diploma syndrome: Receiving a certificate is an end in itself, apart from the further use of the acquired skills themselves. One of the attractions of formal training is that it culminates in a nationally administered trade test at the end of the course. Such certificates were originally meant for recruitment by modern sector employers and would therefore, at first sight, appear to be less relevant since the occurrence of such jobs has dwindled.

Still, most trainees, even those in informal training systems, are very keen to participate in external or internal trade testing, or at least to receive a certificate of

attendance. They maintain that such a paper also helps to get entry into an informal sector workshop (as an apprentice or worker), or even in the event they become self-employed, certificates will help to get customers, as a diploma establishes their skills level (see Example 23).

Example 23: Training Certificates (Cambodia)

In Cambodia, the SABORAS NGO only grants training certificates to its trainees some six months after the end of the training course – and only after the graduates have succeeded in setting up their own business.

4.8 Post-Training Follow-Up Support Services

A crucial aspect of self-employment training concerns the availability of complementary support services. These should start during the career counselling and job placement services for the trainees and graduates. For those graduates who aim to enter into self-employment, such services refer to credit, technology, marketing and business counselling.

4.8.1 Job placement

Job placement is especially relevant for wage-employment training. A training centre official locates potentially interesting companies and workshops, visits them to see if they might be interested to take on course graduates and sends them curriculum vitae in the hope of an interview for any of the trainees.

For self-employment, job placement officers are useful in finding workshops where the trainees can do their “attachment” period, which is similar to being an apprentice for a short period. Such attachments have been found to be extremely important for some of the same reasons discussed in relation to the traditional apprenticeship system.

4.8.2 Post-training counselling

Some training organizations have organized a system of counselling for their training graduates. Essentially this means that graduates are visited regularly after the training (such as every week for the first month, every two weeks in the following months and after six months only once a month). This is in fact a one-on-one provision of advice similar to agricultural extension and is strongly recommended.

While counselling is done by a limited number of training organizations, its potential usefulness is considerable. Currently, services are mostly set up to remedy management and administrative problems, but they also could be effective in

assisting small producers to overcome their production and marketing problems. Moreover, self-employment graduates greatly benefit from a marketing officer who assists them in identifying and linking up with markets for his or her goods and services. Counselling also has the potential to assist micro and small enterprises in the more technical areas of production techniques, selection of equipment, product quality control, and occupational safety and health.

Shortcomings include the low density of rural producers and large distances to visit the workshops, and the lack of local resource persons (engineers, businessmen, consultants, staff from research and development organizations, etc.), especially for technical issues.

4.8.3 Financial support

Credit is an essential pre-requisite for training graduates who want to set up a business for themselves. The amount required is often small USD 70 to USD 100 for a tailoring business (a sewing machine costs USD 50 to USD 60), around USD 100 for basic tools for carpentry and motorbike repair, and far less than that for masonry and electronics repair.

A number of training organizations have initiated some schemes to provide training graduates with small loans or sometimes in-kind support (toolboxes or sewing machines). The results are mixed; while some of the larger training organizations manage such a credit offer well, for others their abilities are clearly more in the training than in the credit area and the repayment rates are poor.

4.8.4 Networking

It is becoming clear that training organizations should be dissuaded from providing credits and other support services, such as marketing, that do not belong to their core activities. Far better results are achieved through networking with other service providers. In the case of credit, for instance, training organizations should seek to establish link-ups with suitable credit schemes. Admittedly, in actual practice it is not always easy to synchronize services among different organizations.

To some extent, post-training assistance can also be organized by the training participants themselves in the form of self-help groups and mutual-support networks. Early involvement of relevant persons from the community, such as representatives from the business community, has also been proven to be important. Using local crafts (wo)men as instructors in the training course ensures the availability of relevant technical knowledge on the ground (although special incentive schemes may be necessary to tap it).

4.8.5 Working or former working children

One of the main differences in the post-training follow-up for working children is that they require much more guidance after completing the training. If they are

young, they are often unable to formulate clear plans and even might not be intellectually mature enough to reflect clearly on their future aspirations.

4.9 Impact of Training Courses

There are unfortunately very few training providers who keep track of the post-training activities of their graduates (see also the next chapter). A major effort was undertaken in Cambodia, where the impact of basic skills courses on more than 9,000 training graduates was measured (see Example 24).

Example 24: Employment and Incomes After Basic Skills Training (Cambodia)

An average of 79 percent of 9,200 trainees in basic skills training courses supported by the National Training Fund found employment upon graduation (71 percent of the trainees were school drop outs, and 47 percent were poor people).

Their average incomes were USD 53 per month, distributed as follows over the different training courses:

	<u>No. of*</u> <u>trainees</u>	<u>Employment</u> <u>rate</u>	<u>Average</u> <u>income</u>
– welding	130	80%	USD 73
– motorbike repair	687	34%	USD 66
– masonry	237	23%	USD 64
– hairdressing	485	100%	USD 59
– TV and radio repair	424	42%	USD 59
– sewing	2,930	70%	USD 57
– agriculture	na.	100%	USD 43
– rattan processing	62	100%	USD 32

*Note: Number of training graduates surveyed out of a total of 11,706 graduates.

Source: GoC/MoEYS/DTVET, July 2001, Basic Skills Project for TVET development in Cambodia (internal document).

The Cambodian data provide some useful indications of the results of basic skills training, which may also be representative for other countries:

- More modern occupations, such as welding and motor bike repair, yield the highest income; to the extent that the training graduates have entered into self-employment, it should be kept in mind that such activities also require more substantial investments than the others.

- Some of the economic activities (like masonry) have low employment rates, pointing to a faulty training needs and opportunities assessment.
- Post-training incomes for typical rural activities, such as rattan products and agriculture, yield the lowest incomes – but have the highest employment rates.

4.10 Monitoring and Evaluation

Unfortunately, monitoring and evaluation is probably the weakest aspect of training programmes. Only a few training organizations try to keep track of the results of their efforts. Such feedback is crucial for the continuous improvement of the performance and impact of education and training interventions.

4.10.1 Monitoring of activities

While most training organizations have set up some kind of monitoring system, it is rather disappointing what they do with the information collected. At best, but definitely not always, it helps in the solving of the more immediate, operational problems. But it is seldom used to review the overall training set-up and even less to assess the structure and staffing of the organization. Small NGOs do not appear interested in reflecting on their role in the provision of education and training services *vis-a-vis* other organizations, new education training strategies and methodologies, etc.

4.10.2 Evaluation studies

A disconcerting small number of training organizations (including those with donor-funded activities) regularly engage in quality-and impact-evaluation exercises. Interest and financial possibilities to do so seems to be decreasing. The Philippines training authority, TESDA, for example, used to have a separate department to conduct independent evaluation and tracer studies but in recent years has suspended these activities.

Evaluation exercises

Most common are evaluation exercises to assess the quality of the training courses: Training graduates are requested to fill in a short questionnaire with a number of questions about the quality of the course. Their opinion is sought regarding the trainer, the training equipment, the training facilities, the training curricula/lesson plan and suggestions for improvements. Although not uncommon, it would seem that little analysis of the information is done and that they seldom lead to changes in the training organization and delivery.

Tracer Studies

For feedback on the relevancy of the training courses, tracer studies should be carried out. Ideally, they should take place at three-, six- and twelve-month intervals after completion of the training. Graduates are asked (i) if they are employed and

(ii) if they make use of their skills in this employment. If some kind of baseline survey is also carried out at the time of the intake of the trainees, a comparison can be made between household income and other socio-economic indicators at that point and after the training graduate has found a job.

It is discouraging to see that almost no organizations undertake tracer studies (or baselines surveys at the start of their intervention) even though they are widely recognized to be indispensable to measure the impact of the interventions. As a result, very few organizations are informed about the immediate and medium-term effect of their education and training activities. In other words, they have problems to justify the continuation of the courses. It is also immediately relevant for the content of the training to know in what kind of employment the graduates end up, in wage or self-employment. And tracer studies crucially permit modification of training courses to reflect changes and trends in the labour market.

Certainly, when statistics are collected, the data needs to be separated between male and female trainees/graduates, as there is an urgent need to analyze the effects that education and training have on gender roles and to review the role of education and training for improving the situation of women accordingly.

4.10.3 Collection and dissemination of good practices

There is a huge need for national and regional clearinghouses that collect, synthesize and disseminate good practices in the area of skills training and especially of basic level and community-based training. Although training monitoring and tracer studies are seldom being done, when they are undertaken, the results are hardly used – in large part because they are not available (see Example 25).

Example 25: Dissemination of Training Experiences (Philippines)

An interesting way to disseminate results of basic skills training programmes was found in the Philippines, where the national training authority, TESDA, has set up a competition for case studies of community-based training and entrepreneurship development projects. Local training providers contract consultants to write up a case study, which is then submitted to a special committee. The award-winning case studies are published (TESDA 2000).

4.11 Gender Aspects

There is a crucial need to consider gender aspects when organizing and delivering skills training programmes to ensure that girls and women fairly benefit from such interventions.

Most of the constraints indicated for accessing non-formal education and rural skills training programmes by the rural population apply especially for girls and women. As they are generally the first ones taken from school, they have the lowest chance to enter into training programmes. If they do, they tend to be guided into stereotype activities, such as weaving, garment making, food processing and handicrafts that tend to have only weak marketing prospects. Also, women do not always qualify for support programmes (collateral problems for credit, for instance). Poor rural girls and women are disproportionately found in simple income-generating activities, which only yield meagre earnings. It is therefore necessary to provide extra assistance to them to enter into interesting and decently remunerated activities. Training can play an important role in this, for which reason a host of suggestions is given to enhance the participation of girls and women in rural skills training programmes (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: Promotion of Skills Training for Women in South Asia

There is a great need to significantly expand training provisions for women:

- Women should be integrated more effectively in existing vocational training institutions, structures and facilities.
- Increased training provision for women should be relevant to local manpower requirements and employment opportunities, which will require a review and revision of curricula in vocational training institutions.
- Specific targets should be set to increase the enrolment and integration of women into existing training programmes.
- Training in non-traditional fields should be promoted through the establishment of specific training programmes and pilot support schemes.
- MSE development programmes and training should be available to women.
- Specific training provision should be made to meet the training needs of women in rural areas and in agriculture.
- Training programmes for women should include personal development and life skills training modules.
- High priority should be given to management training for women.
- Support facilities and measures, including hostels, transport facilities, childcare centres and tool kits are required to enable women to participate in all training.
- Special mechanisms should be devised in the delivery of training to enable increased participation and take-up by women, including mobile training units, extension schemes and in-factory training.
- The pool of women trainers should be increased; staff development programmes should be established to take into account the special needs of women.
- Progress in increasing the participation and integration of women in training and employment should be carefully monitored and training institutions held accountable.

- Community-based training and production units for women should be established.
- Public and private employers should be encouraged to employ increased numbers of female apprentices.

Source: From Bennel 1999, based on ILO, 1991, Women in non-traditional fields.

There are two other aspects that need to be taken into consideration in creating (self) employment for women: (i) their business strategies and (ii) socio-cultural traditions with regard to the entry of women in business.

Since many of the income-generating activities in which they are involved have a seasonal character with fluctuating returns, most of the rural women tend to adopt risk-averse and multi-activity strategies (see for example Dignard and Havet eds. 1995). This means that many women do not seek to maximize the profits of their venture for re-investment in the business, but rather strive for spreading their risks and use profits for starting up another business so as to avoid putting all the eggs in one basket (see also section 3.2.4.3). Such behaviour, when indeed proven correct for women in general, would mean that women in business do not necessarily meet the characteristics that are taken as typical for an entrepreneur: risk-taking and motivation derived from business profits. If indeed correct, this would and should have important implications for entrepreneurship development programmes for women.

In many societies in south-east Asia, it is traditionally not common for women to be involved in commercial activities. Simple and practical ways should therefore be sought to address this socio-cultural issue. This could be done, for instance, by creating positive role models for girls through talks by successful local businesswomen at secondary schools.

Key Points

- All types of training should be employment opportunity led and the training area and delivery modality type should respond to market demand and opportunities (requiring a training and employment needs assessment). Skills training should reflect the possibilities to apply the skills after finishing the training, including the possibility for the graduates to set up their own business.
- Skills training should be flexible as demand for labour changes constantly. Training organizations have to move away from standardized training and no longer base their training offerings on standard courses and standard delivery methods. Training should also be geared towards the characteristics and interest of the targeted trainees.

- The training should (i) reflect the demand for skills as derived from labour market developments and (ii) take into consideration the interests and socio-economic situation of the prospective trainees. In addition, (iii) the quality of the training needs to be considerably improved and (iv) more low-cost approaches to skills development sought.
- Full-time, long-term, centre-based courses are generally out of reach for the majority of the population and especially create serious obstacles for trainees from poor rural families. A more suitable delivery of training skills is done through training modules, or short courses, which, when all have been followed, constitute the set of skills that make up an occupation.
- In addition to drastically shortening the training period, ways to take the training to the trainees should be considered; this includes using mobile and out-reach training programmes as well as choosing a local venue and choosing a time schedule convenient for the trainees.
- Many training interventions remain conventional and have low effectiveness. Programmes need to modernize and try more innovations geared toward specific target groups. Training contracts, use of local craftsmen and businessmen as course instructors, and networking for post-training assistance are some of the new methods discovered in the field research.
- Training providers need to pay more attention to monitoring and evaluation. Tracer studies are highly recommended to monitor impact and ensure future training is relevant.
- Skills training for women needs to avoid gender stereotype activities, and successful local business women may serve as positive role models for girls.

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5 FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF RURAL SKILLS TRAINING

The issue of the funding of training opportunities is still bedevilling many governments and NGOs providing the service. So far, most of the training is entirely subsidized. Many NGOs actually pay incentives in the form of snacks or meals and some even offer a kind of sitting allowance. There are, in principle, four ways to finance skills training: (5.1) reduce costs, (5.2) some form of training levy, (5.3) training fees paid by the trainees, and (5.4) various revenue-generating activities by the training providers.

5.1 Training Costs

There is only scant information about the cost of rural skills training, including both the investments required for the construction of training facilities and the purchase of equipment and the operational costs of skills training programmes.

5.1.1 Investments

The investment required for rural skills delivery depends on various factors: (i) training capacity planned, (ii) type and number of training offerings and (iii) level and quantity of training equipment required.

Very rough estimates indicate that a small rural training centre with a capacity for some 150 trainees in three to five different courses would need between USD 10,000 and USD 20,000 to set up (see case study of a small rural VTC in Annex IV for details).

5.1.2 Operational costs

While it is always assumed that formal, centre-based training implies much higher costs than non-formal training (such as out-reach training), there are few reliable and detailed statistics available to actually prove this point and give an indication of the magnitude involved. Going by estimation, standard six- to twelve- month, centre-based training courses cost around USD 200 to USD 500 per trainee per course, while short (a few weeks) out-reach training courses (such as agriculture-related courses) will only cost between USD 35 and USD 45 per trainee per course (cf. Duangsa 1997).

Another study of basic skills training costs for both centre-based and out-reach types indicates that about half of the costs are incurred for salaries of trainers and other staff (see Example 26).

Example 26: Costs of Basic Skills Training (Cambodia)

In Cambodia, the National Training Fund (with support from ADB) provides training grants. A review of eight centres in different parts of the country that received funds during the late 1990s found that the basic training unit cost was USD 93 per trainee per course.

Of this amount, 50 percent went to salaries and wages, 30 percent covered teaching aides and materials, 10 percent to electricity/telephone/water, 9 percent to transportation and fuel and only 1 percent to administration costs. There was a wide range in the remuneration of the trainers, from USD 30 to USD 70 (VTC in Battambang) to USD 200 per month (sewing courses in Phnom Penh).

Source: Lee, Report on the benefit, monitoring and evaluation test surveys conducted by the NTF (Basic Skills Training Project/MoEYS-DTVET, 2000).

Training costs do not only depend on the duration of the course but also differ per training area. For instance, from the data on a small (training capacity 150 trainees) rural VTC in Viet Nam, it can be seen that some training courses require substantial input of training materials (such as tailoring, carpentry), or of training tools and equipment (mechanics and welding) and are thus more expensive than other courses that have minimal inputs in these areas (such as house-wiring and electricity connections) (see Appendix IV).

5.1.3 Lowering training costs

This analysis, even though far from complete, clearly shows that there are substantial differences in training unit costs. Training organizations with only limited funding available should carefully review investments and operations and consider lowering: (i) investment costs by manufacturing their own training equipment and aides, (ii) fixed costs by replacing permanent trainers with contracted instructors, and (iii) variable costs by adopting different training delivery modes, such as shorter courses and out-reach training in which the community pays for the training venue, electricity costs, etc.

5.2 Training Funding or Levies

Up to now, the costs of training provision have been largely subsidized. Formal vocational training has been financed by governments from general tax receipts or from a training levy. Some countries in south-east Asia have already enacted a training levy or are considering it. In the Philippines, for instance, the law creating TESDA includes the establishment of a training levy. Generally, a training levy means that companies have to contribute a certain amount to some sort of a

National Training Fund, usually in proportion to their wage bill (from which all expenditures incurred for training that is organized and funded by the company can be deducted).

A problem with a levy is that it is mostly paid by the formal modern firms, as informal MSEs usually fail to contribute. As a result, the contributing enterprises want the funds to be used for training that aims to develop the skills of their prospective workers, which means that skills training for self- and informal employment will not be a popular application of the funds from a national training fund.

In Cambodia, where a decision on a training levy has been thwarted by the employers, a National Training Fund (NTF) was created in the 1990s, which for the time being has been capitalized through resources under the ADB Basic Skills Project (see Example 27).

Example 27: National Training Fund (Cambodia)

The National Training Fund (NTF) in Cambodia only supports the lowest level of skills training, both through centre-based short courses (three to six months) and a form of community-based training (called mobile training). It provides training grants to public, NGO and private training centres for them to conduct basic skills training to out-of-school youth, women, disabled and war victims, refugees and returnees and other disadvantaged groups. To receive financial help, training providers submit a substantiated application for an allocation from the Fund for a particular course. NTF applies standard training unit costs, depending on the type, duration and location of the training. For centre-based short courses, it provides some USD 2,000 to USD 2,500 per course.

NTF also extends funding for micro loans to promote self-employment and as matching grants for training providers who offer non-traditional, innovative skills training. This practice of linking training to the possibility for graduates to obtain credit is debatable. International experiences show that many of those who follow the training are not immediately interested in the skills offered and that loans linked to training are often not repaid.

Source: Lee, Report on the benefit, monitoring and evaluation test surveys conducted by the NTF – phases 1 to 3 (Basic Skills Training Project/MoEYS-DTVET, 2000).

5.3 Training fees

Trainees generally have not, or hardly have, had to contribute to the costs of training provision. In a number of countries, especially in Asia, donor and local

agencies have accustomed themselves and their beneficiaries to the practice of paying attendance allowances to the participants. This was perceived as necessary as the training would take up productive time of the small producers, for which they should be reimbursed. Anecdotal evidence however suggests that one should doubt the commitment levels of such 'sponsored' trainees. Some trainees have used this provision to make a living by following one training course after the other, without ever using the skills imparted.

Cost-sharing is only incidentally practiced by training providers. For a long time, there has been the notion that cost-sharing in skills training for income-generating activities would be difficult to achieve because of the poverty of the target group. Similar thinking was common among NGOs before the micro-credit revolution, when it was a widely held belief that the poor should get grants or at least soft loans. In the meantime, it has become almost universal practice, as noted in the field research, to charge, even the rural poor, interest rates that are at least at commercial level and sometimes even significantly above that. Provided that the credit clients are adequately oriented and supported in investing the loans, this has proven quite beneficial and has greatly increased the sustainability of such credit schemes. There is no reason to believe that applying some charges would not be possible in the case of training.

In most countries, it is generally accepted that a fee has to be paid for training under the traditional apprenticeship system (see Example 27). The "back-street colleges" charge sometimes hefty fees for computer and other types of training. Studies show that trainees are more genuinely committed to the training when they have to pay and, interestingly, are more likely to demand good quality training from the VTC. Fees could be an important mechanism to enhance the quality of training provision (see also Example 28).

Example 28: Apprenticeship Training Fees (Cambodia)

In Cambodia, the traditional apprenticeship system, through which skills training was provided in exchange for cheap labour, became monetized in the past decade. The training is now offered at a fee, which is substantially lower in rural areas where the apprentices are much poorer.

Going rates for apprenticeship training*:

	<u>In Phnom Penh</u>	<u>In rural towns</u>
Carpentry (9-12 months)	USD 500	USD 150
Hairdressing (6 months)	USD 150 – 250	USD 50 – 70

* The apprentices receive meals but no pocket money.

Source: SKIP and GTZ Phnom Penh (July 2001).

Ideas about charging training fees are changing, as it is realized that training should be seen as an investment that will bear fruit once employment is found. More training providers are starting to charge for their training – at least resorting to participation fees (the Women’s Union and Maryknoll in Viet Nam, for example, charge USD 1 to USD 1.50 per month). Other programmes now ask their trainees to purchase their training materials (tailoring courses, for instance). But there are some training and technology NGOs that have gone beyond that and have started, step by step, to increase the training fees.

The possibilities for significant contributions from the trainees toward the actual training are not yet clear. The Community Based Training evaluation in Cambodia (Duangsa 1997:2) indicates that a number of graduates would have been willing to pay USD 20 and even up to USD 40 for a training course of a few weeks because, according to the feed back it was a worthwhile one without which they “would not have been able to earn the income they are earning now,” and that they were even willing to borrow for it. However, other studies (such as Nelson 1997) indicate that even when the poor are willing to contribute toward the cost of training, total cost recovery is still only small.

Even in the long run, it is probably not possible to finance all the training costs from fees. There is a need to link fees to the type of training that is being provided. It might be considered that pre-employment training for the youth, similar to general education, should be lightly charged, possibly in the form of a commitment fee. More significant cost-recovery could then be introduced for subsequent training for skills up-grading. Similarly, follow-up services, such as post-training counselling, could be offered for free for a limited period and subsequently be charged. Creative ideas and pilot activities are needed to further the discussions on the type and level of training fees. In Cambodia, some NGOs have started to experiment with a repayment of training costs in kind (see Example 29).

Example 29: Repaying Training Costs (Cambodia)

As part of its contract with trainees, Saboras, a small NGO in Battambang, Cambodia, obligates its graduates to take on apprentices after they have established a successful small business. It is a new method for the NGO, and there are no experiences yet. Such an approach appears, though, to contain advantages for the training provider:

- It opens the way for a considerable up-scaling of the transfer of technical skills, since the training facilities or equipment no longer form a bottleneck.
- It also places the NGO in a different position as it is no longer responsible for the direct provision of training but instead can take the position of facilitating, coordinating and monitoring the training.

- The NGO builds up expertise to improve the quality of the training by providing advice and technical assistance services.

Another similar option would be the introduction of training loans: The trainee is advanced the fee for the training that is repaid (possibly in installments) after he or she has completed the training and found employment. That idea has been well received in conversations with some micro-credit providers, but there are few examples.

5.4 Revenue-Generating Activities by Training Providers

In many developing countries, the discouraging situation of the government budget is necessitating public-sector training providers to look for extra-curricular ways to supplement their low and often still diminishing contribution from the state.

5.4.1 Training-cum-production

A conventional method is to have training-cum-production, in which the training centre operates a production unit to make school uniforms, clothing, furniture, etc, or to repair cars, pumps, etc. (see Annex IV). Sometimes the trainees work in the production unit, but commonly the units employ regular workers. In a similar way, some NGOs link their training to a shop it operates in town. Training-cum-production appears to have gone out of favour, as training experts feel that either the quality of work of the production units is low (as part of it is done by trainees) or the unit (run with workers) deviates from the training purpose.

5.4.2 Use of training facilities and staff

Another option for training centres to generate extra revenues is by making more extensive use of the facilities and/or staff: paid evening classes for those already working, use of equipment by small workshops and advisory services by the staff. In Cambodia, some of the state-owned VTCs have become unexpectedly entrepreneurial by offering commercial training courses, such as training in computer skills, in a manner similar to the back street college.

5.4.3 Training contributions and sponsorships

The capacity of communities, even poor ones, to pay for training should not be under-estimated. When convinced of the quality and impact of the training, even poor communities have been found to share substantially, if not solely, in the training cost. They may organize a community party, a raffle or just collect for the funds. They are also known to approach the local business sector to sponsor the training.

Contributions can also be solicited from another, largely untapped potential source, namely contributions in kind (staff time, training materials, or training venues) or cash from the private business sector.

Key Points

- There is increasing interest in adopting low-cost training modalities as well as in introducing mechanisms for cost-sharing with the training beneficiaries. Rural skills training should be treated in a business-like manner, rather than be viewed as an extension of the national education system.
- Studies show that trainees are more genuinely committed to the training when they have to pay. Also, when they pay for a service it seems they start demanding good quality training from the VTC. Training fees could be an important mechanism to enhance the quality of training provision.
- When convinced of the quality and impact of the training, even poor communities have been found to share substantially, if not solely, in the training cost. They may organize a community party, a raffle or just collect funds.
- There is an imperative need for training organizations to (i) reduce their training costs by adopting low-cost training organization and delivery modalities, (ii) introduce mechanisms for the trainees to contribute toward the training costs and (iii) search creatively for ways to solicit support from the community and the private business sector.

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6. INSTITUTIONAL ASPECTS OF RURAL SKILLS TRAINING

This chapter covers some of the institutional and financial aspects related to the provision of basic skills training, such as training costs and finances, monitoring and evaluation and, most importantly, a review of different training providers.

The institutional context for non-formal education and rural skills training are markedly different in south-east Asian countries, including those visited in the field research. In the Philippines, government agencies have a strong position in both these areas; there is an extraordinary number of NGOs active in the country, mostly in community development, though a number of them touch on NFE. In Viet Nam, the NGO scene is far less abundant and with high literacy rates in almost the whole country there are very few NFE programmes. In Cambodia, there is a strong push for vocational training, while NFE is only now beginning to take off. There are, at least, a remarkable number of local NGOs involved in vocational training, some of which have developed interesting training modalities.

Conventionally, non-formal education and vocational training are provided by the state, through the Ministry of Education, the national training organization and a network of schools, training centres and other government buildings. Since the 1980s, NGOs have become more and more important in the delivery of these services, especially in areas where the government was not in a position to deliver them.

The field research for this document confirms that indeed no single organization will be able to provide all the necessary services to ensure that NFE and vocational training results in the generation of employment and incomes that will take away one of the root causes of child labour, and trafficking. It is worthwhile to take a closer look at the roles of the public, private non-profit (NGO) and also private-for-profit sectors in relation to NFE and especially skills training for rural employment.

6.1 Role of Government

For decades, skills and vocational training was seen as the almost exclusive domain of government training agencies (together with some in-plant training by large companies). There is now a growing realization, also within government circles, that the training task is so immense that the government cannot do it alone. Some observers would go even further and argue that, because of their bureaucratic structure and procedures, government training institutes have intrinsic constraints to inhibit effective response to changes in the labour market and make training programmes flexible.

There is an emerging consensus that governments should get out of direct training provision, at least at basic skills levels, and focus instead on the formulation of

training policies, provision of guidance and support to actual training providers and, possibly, trade testing and certification. Such tasks could be best taken up by a more independent and professional vocational education and training authority. In the Philippines, for instance, TESDA is tasked with coordination and the provision of technical assistance, as well as some financial support to public and private sector training providers (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: National Training System

A national training system should include the following elements:

- **Training needs and employment opportunities assessment** to provide assistance to training centres in carrying out labour market research to identify employment opportunities and pinpoint training needs in specific areas and for special target groups, as the basis for the development of training programmes;
- **Curriculum development** to update existing curricula as well as to design new, flexible, modular and competency-based training curricula that are responsive to the demands of the labour market as well as of interest to future trainees and the needs of society at large;
- **National occupational skills standards, testing and certification system** that provides the training providers, trainees and prospective employers with an objective system to measure the skills imparted in training programmes;
- **Accreditation system for training institutions and training programmes** to make the training capacity and quality of training providers more transparent and facilitate the selection process of prospective trainees;
- **Technical support** to strengthen a flexible and demand-led approach to training and to improve the quality of training delivery by public and private sector VTCs and training programmes;
- **Development and installation of monitoring and evaluation systems;**
- **Training of instructors** of both public and NGO/private sector training providers; and
- **National Training Fund;** to finance training provision by public, NGO and private sector training providers, including enterprise-based training programmes.

During the field research, examples of government agencies providing such services were already found. However, only very few of the NGOs contacted were aware of them, highlighting the need for enhanced information sharing.

6.2 Role of NGOs in Rural Skills Training

The preceding chapters have shown that in both non-formal education and rural skills vocational training, NGOs play an important role, especially in areas that are not covered by government agencies. At the same time, one of the conclusions

of this study is that this contribution can be further improved in terms of approaches, methodologies and instruments used. It is useful to make a distinction here between non-government training providers and general development NGOs who are engaged in some kind of skills training activities, which can be further divided into (i) traditional social NGOs and (ii) more business-like NGOs.

6.2.1 Non-government training providers

There is only a handful NGOs in developing countries that focus on the provision of skills training. Most NGOs involved in training activities do so as part of a wider range of development activities. The best-known training NGO is Don Bosco, which operates in many countries, including the Philippines and Cambodia (see Example 30).

The training programmes of these training NGOs do not substantially differ from those of the public sector: The training is centre-based, generally long in duration and limited to standard training courses (such as carpentry, metal working, welding, electronics and printing). The courses are strictly focused on the trade-test administered at the end of the training and aim at transferring skills relevant for formal sector wage-employment. The training is provided free of charge, which is steadily becoming a major constraint (even for Don Bosco¹) as it means that the training has to be subsidized from external contributions (see Example 30).

Example 30: Don Bosco² Vocational Training Centre (Cambodia)

Don Bosco operates four training centres in Cambodia, among which two are for female trainees. The VTC for male youth in Phnom Penh is based in a large, modern complex and has a capacity for 240 trainees. The training takes place at craftsmen and technician level, lasting three and four years respectively. It is foremost aimed at wage employment in the factories and workshops in the capital.

The entry requirement for training at the technician level (three years) is a Grade 9 education. The pre-selection of the trainees takes place through the church's diocese, after which the candidates are interviewed and undergo a four-hour exam involving mathematics, technical drawing and English. Only a few of the trainees (10 percent) come from the rural areas.

A job placement officer assists the training graduates in their employment search. About four out of every five graduates find employment after the training – some 75 percent in small and medium enterprises and the rest in informal workshops.

¹ Don Bosco is a Roman Catholic order that has dedicated itself to the provision of vocational training to the poor in developing countries, especially in rural areas. It is well-known and has amassed considerable experience in the area of skills development.

² Idem.

The Don Bosco training is very popular in Cambodia. In 2001 it received some 2,100 applications for the 240 training places available. It is facing two other growing problems: How to find jobs for the graduates and how to find contributions from abroad to finance the training.

Source: Interview with the Headmaster and Job Placement Officer (July 2001).

6.2.2 Traditional development NGOs

Among the large number of NGOs visited during the field research, significant differences were found between their organization and operations. Some of them still conform to the picture of traditional NGOs that solely base their activities on social considerations. While their intentions are laudable and they often show great personal dedication, their activities tend to yield only limited and often short-term results. Their main drawbacks are the minimal numbers of trainees, low internal efficiency and external effectiveness, and serious doubts about the sustainability of their operations (see Example 31).

Good Practice Suggestions: NGOs and Skills Training

The effectiveness of NGO education and training interventions could be significantly increased by:

- strategic planning to come up with more realistic and consistent institutional vision/mission;
- better preparation of the training programmes and especially basing the selection of the training areas on demand for skills in the labour market and demand for goods and services produced by self-employment ventures;
- more flexible training and particularly short, modular, low-cost training delivery;
- enhanced monitoring and evaluation as the basis for continuous assessment of activities;
- a minimum of fees charged to the trainees, to supplement other sources of income so as to improve training facilities, tools and materials and attract well-qualified instructors; and,
- networking with others and especially specialized service providers.

Example 31: A Typical Humanitarian NGO – A Case Study (Cambodia)

Many NGOs were visited during the field research, and the following case study describes the typical approach to skills training and delivery of a typical humanitarian or welfare-type NGO. The name has been withheld and will be referred to as ABCD .

ABCD has a total of 32 staff and operates four small care centres that also serve to provide education and training services. Its beneficiaries are all young girls, most of whom have been working in brothels or were at serious risks of ending up in one. The centres house the girls for a maximum of six months, within which period the care and NFE and vocational training has to be completed.

ABCD employs one teacher for the NFE, which teaches a group of girls for two hours in the morning and a group in the afternoon. Girls younger than 15 are deemed too young for vocational training and persuaded to go to the public school. Skills training is provided for sewing, handicrafts and weaving, which was added recently, because it is a traditional skill and ABCD was contracted by an organization for export of scarves to Europe and the USA. No proper market appraisal was undertaken however prior to the training.

The care, NFE and vocational training are provided without charge and the training graduates can get a small loan of USD 50 to start their own business after they have gone back to their village. The loan is interest-free. As the amount is considered too low for the start-up of a viable business, ABCD tries to find outside sponsors who usually make available some USD 30 to USD 100 for a graduate. ABCD makes follow-up visits, during which standard monitoring forms are used. However, no hard statistics about the employment rates of its trainees are available and during the interview only anecdotal evidence was provided on the success of trainees in generating income.

To defray some of the training expenses, the girls are stimulated to use the skills being acquired to produce items, which are sold to a befriended trader. The revenues go toward repayment of the materials (40 percent), a fund for emergency expenditures (20 percent) and to the girls who have produced the sold items (40 percent). In the first six months of 2001, total sales were about USD 500. The operation of the centre costs around USD 20,000 per year (excluding the meals for the girls). In other words, if half of the operational costs are taken to be incurred for the provision of skills training (and the other half for NFE), the cost recovery rate is only 10 percent. The management of ABCD thinks that, in view of the girls' condition (and the possibility for recidivism) and the poverty of their families and the communities to which they return, there are only limited possibilities to charge them for the support services.

Source: Interview with management of the NGO, called ABCD for this purpose, and located in Cambodia.

6.2.3 Business-like NGOs

In recent years a new generation of NGOs has emerged that have adopted a more business-like approach to the provision of services to particular target groups (see the following Good Practice).

Good Practice Suggestions: Business-like NGOs

Some of the characteristics of NGOs that have adopted a more business-like approach to the provision of services to particular target groups include the following:

- They no longer view their target group as poor beneficiaries but rather as clients who are interested in the services the NGO offers;
- Many of the staff being recruited must have a background in business administration, economics, agricultural or industrial engineering, instead of social sciences as before;
- Increased interest and investment in internal efficiency is taking place with modern management practices, short training courses for high-level staff and computerized financial administration;
- There is greater emphasis on monitoring and evaluation to assess efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of support services provided;
- There is also increasing reliance on external resource persons instead of employing a permanent staff for all activities; and,
- There are closer links to other NGOs as well as the private sector.

Some of the NGOs involved in NFE and rural skills training interventions have also adopted such a business approach. They place emphasis on the market-led selection of course trades, the quality of the training, the suitability of the delivery and the final result of the training. Also, they generally believe that some kind of training fees need to be charged, although they realize that the low incomes of the clients will always limit the level of cost-sharing.

6.3 Collaboration Between Government and NGOs

While there traditionally has been some animosity between government units and NGOs, there is a growing recognition for each other's roles and activities, which is leading to increasing coordination and collaboration between them. This is seen clearly in the Philippines, where a large number of NGOs are now working together with government organizations to complement their services (see Example 32).

Example 32: Community-Based Training (Philippines)

In the Philippines, NGOs generally take the responsibility for organizing the community to participate in the training and employment needs analysis, the selection of the participants of the training and the preparation of the training venue. Staff of the Dept. of Trade and Industry and the municipality may assist in the validation of the outcomes of the employment and training opportunities surveys; the former can help the new entrepreneurs with market linkages. The Dept. of Science and Technology and the Dept. of Agriculture contribute both know-how and loans as their staff members are made available as trainers and resource persons. The Dept. of Social Welfare and Development may assist the training graduates with a small loan from their credit scheme. The municipality provides coordinating support through its newly created Community Training and Employment Coordinators. TESDA essentially provides technical assistance for the training activities.

TESDA also appears to be the main financier of the community-based training courses, which to a large extent are funded by the World Bank and ADB technical assistance projects. Municipalities now also have a special budget for skills training, but this is far too small to fund any sizable number of courses.

Source: Interview Director TESDA/CBTED, Manila Philippines (July 2001).

In part at the suggestion of international donors, Philippine NGOs are now participating in a large government run NFE programme. In vocational training, the newly created TESDA means to withdraw from training delivery and devolve this function to local government and NGOs (see Example 33).

Example 33: Inter-Agency Collaboration (Philippines)

The Philippines provides a variety of case studies of development interventions in which various government agencies, NGOs and even private businesses work together. The Self-Empowerment Opportunities Toward Women Empowerment project (SEOWE) of the KABALINGAY NGO in San Raphael, Bulacan province (Central Luzon) presents an interesting example of such collaboration.

In a project to train and assist 150 beneficiaries in handloom-weaving and 100 women in making Christmas decorations, a large number of entities participated:

- Soroptimist International of San Rafael (SISR), initiator of KABALINGAY, acted as fund raiser and managed to raise a donation of USD 8,000 from Soroptimist International USA that was used to purchase a van for community-based training and seminars.

- NFE programme of the Dept. of Education, hosted training activities in terms of preparation, facilitators and graduation facilities.
- Dept. of Trade and Industry, provided design consultancy for both handloom weaving products and Christmas decorations.
- Bulacan Chamber of Commerce and Industries, conducted capacity-building seminars, among other things, on leadership, entrepreneurship and training of trainers, as well as exhibiting products made by the beneficiaries.
- Mrs. Lorna Silverio, a one-time president of KABALINGAY, provided financial assistance in the form of grants;
- Office of Congressman Ricardo Silverio, made a financial contribution toward the construction and maintenance of the KABALINGAY office/training centre.
- Provincial Government of Bulacan, through the Provincial Youth Development Council, provided USD 20,000 for the training programmes.
- TESDA, the major partner of KABALINGAY in training, provided around USD 8,000 for training-related expenses, apart from assistance in training supervision, trade and competency testing and monitoring of training graduates.

The collaboration succeeded in transferring new technical skills, inducing positive attitudes, promoting community spirit and generating incomes with new economic activities that have resulted in increases of USD 60 to USD 120 per month per trainee as well as the increased recognition by husbands for the activities of their wives.

At the same time, this example also points to some of the weaknesses of the comprehensive collaboration model:

- Project activities came to a standstill when Mrs. Silverio, who is heavily involved in the NGO, was elected mayor of her town and KABALINGAY was not able to overcome political divisions.
- The overall set up of the project interventions, essentially using the delivery capacity of different organizations and their services without any cost-sharing by beneficiaries, was not organized to be sustainable. For example, the handloom weavers were hampered severely when the Dept. of Trade and Industry stopped providing thread to the project beneficiaries.

Source: TESDA, Community-based training and enterprise development source book (2000).

On their part, NGOs involved in NFE programmes often build up a working relationship with the department of the Ministry of Education for curricula and other support. Similarly in the case of vocational training, many NGOs frequently turn to government agencies for technical information and contract public sector staff as trainers or resource persons in their skills training.

Networking between organizations brings important advantages. It essentially allows organizations to focus on their core activities and lets them do what they

do best. Reliance on other organizations for peripheral activities allows contracting experts while keeping the costs down. In Cambodia, SKIP formed an interesting partnership with workshop owners (see example 34)

Example 34: An NGO Experimenting in the Provision of Skills Training (Cambodia)

SKIP started as an NGO providing education and skills training for orphans, making use of orphanages as training centres. A few years ago it restructured its activities along a community-based rural development pattern, extending its activities into food security, children rights and social welfare. It now also provides training for adults in agricultural techniques (to introduce better rice varieties), vegetable growing and animal husbandry.

As part of the restructuring and seeking to increase its outreach as well as impact, SKIP drastically changed its approach to non-formal education. Prior to the change, it had provided centre-based non-formal education and skills training for two years. Now it gives community-based literacy classes to adults, youth and children. With regard to skills training, it gives preference to finding apprenticeship places for its target group with private, small workshops rather than placing its training centres in a central position. These workshops are selected on the basis of (i) good quality goods and services, (ii) volume of work, (iii) location (near the market), (iv) reasonable apprenticeship fee and (v) respect for government laws.

The negotiations with the workshop owners are left largely to the parents of the prospective apprentice, even though SKIP shoulders the apprentice fee. When it was realized that workshop owners tended to increase the fee for SKIP-supported apprentices, the parents were given a ceiling fee amount, based on a survey carried out by SKIP. A contract is concluded in which is stipulated (i) the apprenticeship fee amount and the instalments in which it will be paid, (ii) the objective of training, such as learning to make a chair or table, and (iii) obligations for the business owner (providing decent accommodation). SKIP provides for the daily livelihood of the apprentice (USD 0.80 per day). SKIP does not interfere with the training given by the business owner. Neither does it provide any additional incentives. For trades for which there appears to be a demand for skilled workers but no (or too few) workshops to place apprentices, courses are still organized in the training centers, now called Development Service Centres.

SKIP's change in its approach has major implications for its centre-based training. The duration of the courses have been reduced: from two years to nine months for carpentry, to six months for hairdressing, and to three months for handicrafts, and masonry. Instead of working with permanent trainers who were paid USD 240 per month, for 12 months, it now contracts available instructors for the courses being offered and pays them USD 180 for the course duration.

Most importantly, the training centres are now under strict instructions to work as the private workshops do. Before, they could be described as institutional, with a rather bureaucratic approach to training – never in a hurry to finish the training and

very lax on wastage of training materials (around 30 percent). Now they have to operate with lesson plans with budgets, which has greatly reduced wastage. There is also a clear benchmarking through the training given in private workshops, which has given rise to continuous improvement of training at the centres. Training courses have become shorter and product-based.

The results are quite impressive:

- Training unit costs have been cut in half to an average of USD 420 per trainee per course (or from USD 4 per day per trainee in 1998 to USD 2 per day per trainee in 2000);
- With the same training staff, the number of trained children/youth (aged 13 to 17 years) has almost doubled, from around 120 per year to some 200 per year;
- The apprenticeship training is found to be more effective than centre-based courses, since most apprentices are recruited with the workshop where they were trained as a wage worker; and
- The entry wage level of a carpenter with nine months training is just as high as one who has been trained for two years.

Source: Interview with SKIP Representative in Cambodia (July 2001); see also SKIP 2001.

Networking also has a major draw back: When working with government agencies at the municipal level, as in the case of an election bringing into office a new mayor (and staff in all departments), the collaboration may falter while new relations have to be built up.

The conclusion of the foregoing analysis seems to be that (i) governments are withdrawing from basic level skills training, (ii) some modern NGOs with interesting experiences in skills training are emerging and, most importantly, (iii) basic skills training is organized more and more through networking in which different organizations contribute specific elements (such as the organization of trainees, trainers and/or technology, follow up, etc.).

6.4 Business Sector and Rural Skills Training

If indeed governments are withdrawing from the provision of basic level training, how can the private-for-profit business sector move to fill this gap?

6.4.1 Private-for-profit training providers

In South-east Asia, the role of the private business sector in rural skills training appears to be limited to traditional apprenticeship training: No private sector training providers offering technical vocational training courses were found during the field research. In a way this is quite remarkable as, in contrast, this type of training provider (also known as back-street colleges) is quite common in urban areas where they conduct computer and secretarial courses.

The private business sector has a definite potential to contribute to rural skills training, which so far is still largely untapped. In a direct way, firms can assist in the transfer of skills by making staff available for training, demonstrating equipment and technologies and receiving exposure visits. Private businesspeople are, surprisingly, often willing to contribute in various other ways: conducting special training classes (see Example 35), acting as resource persons and advisers and carrying out business counselling, etc. Larger, more established and particularly international firms may constitute a worthwhile source for sponsoring and other forms of resource mobilization.

Example 35: Training Contribution From the Business Sector (Cambodia)

SKIP, the NGO in Cambodia already described in Example 34, is testing a public-private partnership between training centres and the local business sector. Successful local businesspeople will be asked to organize part-time (possibly two hours a day) skills training for school students for a few months. They will also be tapped to offer prep talks and question-and-answer sessions at secondary schools on different business topics. Training centres will conduct one-month entrepreneurship development courses during school breaks, the costs of which (estimated at USD 30) will be borne by the parents. The Government will assist in giving the scheme a high profile through public announcements and will present tokens of appreciation to the participating businesspeople for their contributions.

Source: Interview with SKIP Representative in Phnom Penh (July 2001).

6.4.2 In-plant training

Many private companies have an in-house capacity for the training of their workforce. Car assembly factories, for instance, are known for their high quality training programmes for new as well as already employed workers. Usually such companies would not be immediately interested in taking in people from the ILO/IPEC target group, as they tend to select their workers from among the graduates of higher vocational training institutes.

Still, there may be possibilities for NGO training providers to link up with companies and work out a scheme in which both parties contribute toward skills preparation and for the possibility to select parents whose children are at risk of child labour and trafficking. A major advantage of such arrangements is that the post-training employment of the trainees is guaranteed in jobs for which this target is usually excluded (see Example 36).³

Example 36: Pre-Training of Jollybee Workers (Philippines)

ERDA-TEC, an NGO involved in NFE and vocational training in Manila, Philippines, has entered into an interesting scheme to provide a pre-determined number of young workers to the Jollybee company (the largest indigenous fast-food chain in the country). The workers are taken from a group of former street children who receive a two-month course in food technology (pie crust making among other things) and life skills, such as conflict resolution, work values and job readiness. Upon completing this training, they are given an apprenticeship contract from Jollybee for its internal in-plant training programme to subsequently be employed in one of the Jollybee outlets.

The scheme also benefits Jollybee, which is known for its corporate charity, as it is offered to youngsters that are officially registered as apprentices trained by ERDA-TEC; and apprentices only need to be paid 70 percent of the minimum wage (against full minimum wage for the official Jollybee trainees) during their training period.

Source: Interview with ERDA TEC, Manila, Philippines.

Private businesses have also been found to offer outdated, unused equipment to NGOs involved in training. This equipment, still in the factory, can then be used by trainees who are sent by the NGO, under the casual guidance of the supervisor of the factory (information from ERDA-TEC, Manila, Philippines) (see Example 37).

³ In Cambodia and Viet Nam, VTCs are training girls and women in industrial sewing for employment in the upcoming garments factories but without any recognition from the companies.

Example 37: Linking Up with the Private Sector (Philippines)

A potentially interesting way to link up with training capacity in the private business sector is through Chambers of Commerce and industry or sectoral trade organizations. The Cebu Furniture Industries Foundation (grouping some 150 small, medium and large firms) has in-house capacity for short and medium term training, using the dual system (skills training course linked to in-plant practical work). It charges USD 400 for a three-day training course for a group of 25 participants – usually for the workers of one of the affiliated firms, but possibly also for other organizations looking for specialized training facilities.

6.5 Associations of Training Providers

In some countries, according to the literature review, there are efforts to form associations of training providers to exchange knowledge and experiences to improve the quality of their training. A further reason for training providers to join forces is to become a more interesting partner for the new-style training authorities (such as TESDA in the Philippines), and benefit from their capacity in curriculum development, training of trainers, etc. Also, they believe that as a group they may be in a position to more easily attract investment capital required for training facilities and equipment, as well as receiving technical assistance from international donors.

Key Points

- With government agencies retreating from basic skills training and private-for-profit training providers not abounding, some NGOs have started to change the way in which they provide their training services. These organizations show signs of becoming professional organizations that apply modern management and organizational practices to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of their interventions. However, the majority of the existing training organizations are still rather conventional, their interventions predominantly based on social considerations and they lack clear planning practices, a modern management culture and up-to-date financial and administrative systems.
- With the increasing need to have flexible training and lower the barriers to skills courses, training programmes should consider networking with other organizations (government, NGO, and private sector) and creating arrangements in which partners are responsible for one of the required elements.

- Closer relations with the private business sector would help make training more responsive to the needs for particular skills and introduce a more business-like approach to the provision of training.
- Organizations involved in education and training for working children or those at risk of child labour and trafficking are in need for a drastic overhaul and capacity building to incorporate the successful practices that have emerged. They should furthermore take a serious look at possibilities for networking and consider out-sourcing of activities to specialized agencies or buying-in services from others.

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7 SUMMARY OF POINTERS TO GOOD PRACTICES IN NFE AND SKILLS TRAINING IN RURAL AREAS

This final chapter presents a summary and a series of conclusions in the boxes that list pointers towards emerging good practices in the fields of non-formal education and skills training for income generation, especially in the rural areas.

7.1 Design and Delivery of Non-Formal Education Programmes

With schools widely scattered and transport generally lacking and the cost of education, in terms of school supplies, uniforms, transportation and school fees going up, parents of poor families in the rural areas often see little choice but to send their children into work activities that supplement the household budget. At times, children, bored with village life when they do not go to school and spurred by examples of other child workers in their family or village, are willing if not glad to oblige, feeling important with their role of bringing in money and attracted by the excitement they see related to the work activities.

It is often difficult to convince the parents, who may likely have had little or no schooling in their youth, of the importance of education and to send their children back to school. Basic education does not bring immediate results but rather bears fruit in the longer term through a better job later in life. This reality has implications for NFE programmes directed at working or former working children (see the following Good Practices).

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: NFE Programmes for Working Children

- Awareness raising of the importance of education among parents, especially those that are poorly educated and those living far away from schools, is of prime importance.
- The focus of NFE should not only be on basic general education (literacy and numeracy), but extensive attention should be given to practical life and pre-vocational skills.
- Courses should not imitate basic education but rather be practical and stimulate critical thinking and independence among participants.
- Teaching should be student-centred (instead of top-down) and hands-on.
- A wide range of NFE curricula have already been developed, and organizations involved in NFE courses should adapt existing ones rather than developing their own.
- Para-teachers and facilitators are crucial for sound NFE courses; they should be carefully selected (important criterion: level of education, ideally college graduates) and trained in teaching methods relevant for the target group; some

feel that working with facilitators who belong to the target group has important advantages.

- Delivery should be flexible and tailored to the conditions of the participants.
- Parental involvement in the organization, monitoring and even delivery is clearly one of the success factors in NFE programmes.
- Governments should ensure official recognition (with certificates) for the NFE graduates to continue their education and training.
- NFE courses should be closely linked with rural skills training programmes.
- Some form of family support, through the promotion of income-generating activities, is critical for the success of NFE programmes for working children and their parents.

7.2 Design and Delivery of Rural Skills Training Programmes

One of the most critical problems of livelihood enterprises and micro enterprises is the high rate of imitation in the sector. Low levels of education and training make small producers copycat the business activities they see around them. This is further facilitated by the low barriers, in terms of skills and capital, to enter into such activities or products. As a result, competition among the small producers is fierce and the incomes generated remain low. Skills development, together with other support activities (improved technologies, product development, development of market linkages, etc.) is crucial to diversify production, enhance product quality and increase productivity. Interventions should especially assist the rural poor in diversifying their activities and gradually moving out of low-return activities and into economic activities that have a better potential for reasonable incomes and, in the medium term, expansion.

7.2.1 Design of rural skills training programmes

Many of the existing rural skills training programmes aiming at the alleviation of rural poverty are rather conventional in their design. They tend to be standard programmes that give little consideration to the context in which they take place and the specific conditions posed by the target group at which they are directed. As a result, they tend to have low efficiency and effectiveness. For rural areas, the objective should not so much be the skills training for wage employment but rather contributing to the creation of self-employment and the development of livelihood and small enterprises (see the following Good Practices).

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Design of Rural NFE and Skills Training Programmes

- Skills training must be flexible and responsive to the changing needs of the labour market while paying close attention to the interests and conditions of the target group.
- From the start it should be clear if the skills aim specifically at wage employment, self-employment, micro-enterprise development or the promotion of livelihood activities because each requires a different approach.
- While targeted to specific clients, the design should not be solely determined by social considerations but a more business-like approach should be adopted, as seen in clear objectives, effective management, solid financial administration, and monitoring and evaluation systems that provide relevant feedback on programme performance and impact.
- Sustainability of skills training interventions makes it imperative to adopt a low-cost approach (simple training facilities and equipment, part-time trainers, use of local volunteers and management) and some form of cost-sharing by the programme clients.
- In case of small or inexperienced organizations, difficult local conditions and limited available funding, the skills training courses can be best based on local materials and local markets. Interventions aiming for export are much more complex and expensive.
- Successful programmes actively involve the target clients and their communities during the various phases of the programme, including the design, implementation and follow-up.
- Education and training approaches, content and follow-up can benefit significantly from links with the local business sector. Local businesspeople can serve as members of the Board, as management or education-training advisers, or resource persons in the classroom.

While these good practices are also relevant for rural skills training programmes targeted at working children, there are some additional considerations to bear in mind:

- The education background of these children is often weaker than that of others and possibly simple trades should be purposely selected.
- Course duration should be short and the relation with employment as direct as possible, since their families (and even the children) cannot go without incomes for a long period.
- For those already working, training could focus on increasing their level of skill so they could do less hazardous tasks and increase their income, or specifically to improve their working conditions, such as training in occupational safety and health.

- In view of their young age, potential instability and lack of savings for those children not yet working, support to enter into apprenticeship training appears to be most suitable.

7.2.2 Organization and delivery of training programmes

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Organization and Delivery of Skills Training

- Training programmes should pay attention to the characteristics of the target clients and the conditions under which they are implemented.
- Provision of training for marketable skills requires some form of explicit analysis of the local economy and available early-return employment opportunities through some kind of simple RRA-type of labour market research.
- Accessibility of education and training programmes for the poor can be significantly increased by taking into account the time and work constraints of the trainees and adopt a client-friendly delivery in terms of course duration (short), location (close to the trainees) and time schedule (part-time, during afternoons/evenings and weekends); therefore preference might be given to out-reach training courses over centre-based skills development programmes, to the extent feasible.
- The most effective education and training programmes are practical, hands-on, based on demonstrations, repetition and trial-and-error, and with periods of practical training in enterprises (often resulting in the first job for the training graduates).
- Selection of trainees should take into consideration their interest for skills training and the desired future use of the skills. Encouraging experiences have been gained in using training contracts to record the intention to use the skills and define consequences of dropping out of the course; they could also include clauses on sharing of training costs.
- Basic skills training should foremost be conducted through short (maximum one to three months) courses based on a modular, or series, approach.
- Training curricula should be practical, ideally in local languages and, to the extent possible, suitable for illiterate trainees.
- Most training aides and materials can also be made locally and importation should be avoided.
- Local instructors, such as local mastercraftspeople, present advantages in terms of acceptance by the trainees, local language and customs, business experience and post-training counselling. They may need some help with instructional methods at first.
- To enhance the relevancy of education and skills training programmes for self-employment, they should also pay attention to entrepreneurship and business management aspects and should be linked to credit, technology, marketing and other relevant support services.

Gender aspects

It has become clear that in south-east Asia there is a need to make a conscious effort to include girls and young women in education and training programmes, as they are found to have the least access to them. Moreover, in the case of skills training, it should be attempted to open up non-traditional skills training courses for girls and women. It's time for alternatives from those in which they almost always end up, such as tailoring, food-processing and office skills. Because of obligations usually in the home, it is of prime importance that programmes have a short duration, are in a local venue, and have a suitable time schedule – all to ensure the involvement of girls and women.

Working children

The delivery of training programmes for working children, in addition to the good practices in the previous box, should:

- include literacy and numeracy as well as life skills in the training curriculum;
- possibly be kept part-time to allow the children to continue working in acceptable conditions; and
- consider that working children, in view of their experiences and situations, may need much more intensive guidance and counselling than other training graduates.

7.2.3 Post-training support services

Training by itself does not create employment or incomes (except for the trainers). The provision of post-training support is often crucial for the actual use of the skills that were transferred during the training courses (see the following Good Practices).

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Post-Training Assistance

- Effective education and training programmes include training counselling that seek to match the interests of the students/trainees with the available opportunities on the labour market and to determine the type of training that is required to make use of them.
- Training programmes that aim for wage employment should include career counselling and job placement services.
- Training programmes that seek to promote self-employment and micro-enterprises should be closely linked to, in the first place, credit schemes that can make available adequate amounts of investment and working capital at relevant conditions and, furthermore, support programmes/ providers of assistance in the areas of technology, marketing, business counselling and information.
- Complementary services should not be provided by the training organizations themselves but rather ensured through institutional networking or reference services.

7.2.4 Working children

There are a few additional good practices that apply to rural skills training programmes targeted especially at working children:

- Since working children tend to be younger than other trainees, they often have less well defined plans and require more job placement or self-employment support services.
- In view of their and their family's poverty, working children are even more in need of financial assistance when they want to start their own business after the training.
- Rural skills training could best be followed by entry into apprenticeship training.

7.3 Non-Formal Education and Rural Skills Training Providers

The institutional contexts of the countries in south-east Asia differ considerably. The relations between the government and the NGO community allow for substantially larger collaboration in some countries than in others, whereas the role of the private business sector with regard to the provision of NFE and rural skills training is still at a beginning stage in most countries.

7.3.1 Training providers

The wide variety of training contexts make it difficult to come up with good practices with regard to education and training providers, but an attempt is made to formulate some general lessons learned (see the following Good Practices).

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Technical Skills Training Providers

- In most countries public sector and also church-based vocational training centres have advantages when it comes to more technology-intensive training for wage-employment in the modern sector; however, such employment might be difficult to find, particularly in the rural areas, and may not always be the preferred type of employment for the target group.
- NGOs play an important role in the provision of NFE and rural skills training for the poor in the rural areas and have gained valuable experience in the promotion of simple IGAs and especially agriculture-related activities through a combination of services. Most of them are in fact not really providers but rather organizers of short skills training, technology demonstration or product development interventions as part of their package (usually consisting of community-organizing and micro-credit or finance) to promote rural or community development.
- Incentives for investments in facilities and equipment may stimulate the establishment of private-for-profit vocational training providers, which could be

more responsive to changes in the demand for skills and arguably provide relatively higher quality training.

- There is a large potential as yet untapped to involve the private business sector in the provision of skills training, not only through sponsorship but also in more direct forms. (for instance as trainers or advisors).

7.3.2 Apprenticeship training

Traditional apprenticeship training (TAT) is by far the most widespread form of rural skills training in south-east Asia (as well as elsewhere). TAT is arguably also the most appropriate type of training for rural employment and income creation as it provides skills training at an appropriate level and the apprentices are also in a position to acquire basic management practices and have a chance to build up their business network. At the same time, it should be emphasized that there is often a need to improve the quality of apprenticeship training and a necessity to prevent the use of apprentices as a source of cheap labour.

A number of organizations, especially in Cambodia, have started to link up with the traditional apprenticeship training. They are trying different manners to ensure the optimal training results for their clients. Some of the emerging good practices are included in the following suggestions.

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Improving Upon Traditional Apprenticeship Training

- Apprenticeship contracts made with mastercraftspeople give a minimum base for effective apprenticeship training. The contract should stipulate training purpose, period, content, apprenticeship fee and gradual remuneration of apprentices that is commensurate with their progress.
- Apprenticeship fees should be paid to the mastercraftspeople in instalments: a down payment at the start of the training and a final severance payment at the end of the training period.
- Conditions of the apprenticeship training, as well as the progress and results, should be closely monitored through visits to the workshops of the mastercraftspeople.
- Sometimes an incentive is needed for the mastercraftspeople to participate in the scheme; this can consist of specialized product-based skills-upgrading for the master, some form of business counselling or marketing assistance.

7.3.3 Non-formal education and skills training providers for working children

The organizations involved in the provision of skills training for working children are often small and engaged in a range of activities, often related to rural development, and the skills training is just one of these activities. As a result, they often do not have special training methodologies for this group, although some of them have modified their training delivery somewhat in the face of the conditions presented by the target group.

In general terms, most of these organizations are weak and in dire need of institution building. They have few contacts with others on their special training programmes and are seemingly unaware of the emerging good practices in the provision of skills training. It is suggested that they set up platforms to exchange information and experiences.

A further strategy might be to mainstream the concerns on the worst forms of child labour and trafficking into the activities of regular training organizations, both in the public and private sectors. In this way the total capacity to address these problems will be enormously increased, while the impact of the professional training providers may be higher (although not necessarily so). This would require intensive consultations with these organizations, together with the transfer of available methodologies and experiences.

7.4 Costs and Funding of NFE and Skills Training

A major constraint for setting up non-formal education and rural skills training programmes is a scarcity of funding. While NFE and training programmes in some countries have benefited from large projects of international organizations, such as ADB and World Bank, government funding has been declining in most countries. NGO budgets generally cannot allocate large sums for these activities. Contributions from the private business sector are still very limited.

7.4.1 Lowering training costs

A low cost approach to training is crucial. Training organizations should consider lowering (i) investment costs by manufacturing their own training equipment and aides, (ii) Fixed costs by replacing permanent trainers with contracted instructors, and (iii) variable costs by adopting shorter courses and out-reach training in communities.

7.4.2 Funding

Some of the good practices found in relation to the funding of NFE and vocational training programmes for the rural poor are listed in the following suggestions.

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Funding for Training

- The most important contribution to cost recovery is a low-cost approach toward NFE and rural skills training.
- The best strategy for non-profit training providers to finance their training offerings is to maximize funding from (i) existing government and donor programmes, (ii) revenue-generating activities linked to the training provision, such as training-cum-production, additional commercial courses and exploitation of training facilities and staff, (iii) contributions from the rural communities in cash through funding drives, raffles, etc. or in kind, such as providing the training venue, training materials, volunteers for programme implementation, (iv) contributions from the private business sector and (v) training fees charged to the training participants.
- Training fees are not only important from a sustainability point of view, as they help to cover part of the training costs, but they are also an effective mechanism to improve the quality of education and training.
- As a general rule, training fees should be charged to all training participants, which is almost always feasible in case of committed trainees. Special arrangements could be set up to assist those from the poorest households who could not afford to take advantage of the training offerings through training loans, bursary schemes or through income or food support.
- In general it has been shown that it pays to be creative in searching for ways to finance education and training schemes. There appear to be many unexplored opportunities to obtain contributions from the private sector. There are examples of sponsorships of courses, making staff available as instructors, contributing toward printing of training materials and donations of second-hand equipment for training purposes.

7.4.3 Working children

Organizations providing NFE and skills training to working children argue against the notion of cost-sharing by the beneficiaries because of their economic situation. A few of them have started to toy with the idea to introduce, in a creative way, training fees, but there are no clear good practices as yet. One suggestion is that these beneficiaries would contribute their newly-acquired literacy/numeracy or vocational skills by helping other children one morning or afternoon per week as a volunteer peer-instructor or peer-counselor (ILO/IPEC 1998). This is seen as giving a boost to the children's self-esteem, dignity and confidence (ibid).

7.5 Enabling Environment

While most of the analysis so far – as well as the large majority of the activities of organizations aiming to alleviate rural poverty – has focused on direct interventions,

it should be realized that the success of such efforts depends to a large extent on the overall political and economic situation. In other words, organizations active in the area of preventing and mitigating child labour should not only be aware of the macro-economic conditions and attune their support interventions to them, but may also consider to participate in advocacy activities that aim for a better policy environment.

7.5.1 Political climate

A political climate in which the government is genuinely interested in rural development is an essential condition for a successful performance of programmes aiming at income generation, provided that this interest is reflected in the allocation of resources. Even when the government is politically willing and budgetarily able to stimulate agricultural and non-farming activities for the rural poor, the results of programmes to generate additional employment and incomes are still to a large extent dependent on the overall economic situation. The negative effects on the micro & small enterprise (MSE)-sector of an economic recession invariably outweighs the efforts of MSE support interventions (and, conversely, a stimulating economic environment is a much more powerful stimulus for MSE development than any MSE promotion programme).

7.5.2 Lobbying

The following suggestions present some good practices to foster a favourable situation for income generation centred on building up an effective advocacy capacity down to provincial and lower level networks and committees and to challenge and encourage the government to adopt appropriate policies and measures.

Concluding Good Practice Suggestions: Policy Consultation

- Maximizing the enabling environment for the development of micro and small enterprises (MSEs) in both urban and rural areas, while minimizing the negative political, legal and administrative elements, is conditional for the success of specific programmes and interventions promoting MSE development.
- Broad-based macro-economic policy reforms that aim at creating a more dynamic and diversified economy can be an effective way to foster the creation of productive employment in MSEs.
- Paying special attention to rural development through agricultural policies that favour small farmers, investment in rural infrastructure, and social services for the rural population is needed to increase demand for goods and services produced in the rural informal sector.
- Advertising through subsidized radio and TV time can help stimulate local demand for MSE goods and services and enhance market opportunities for these products.

- Decentralization of government administration and service provision so that the population will have a more direct say in the type and delivery mode of essential services is a further condition for poverty alleviation in the rural areas.
- Research and development institutions should be stimulated to focus on technology needs of rural areas and emphasize their out-reach to include rural producers.
- Adoption of appropriate policies for the provision of non-formal education and rural skills training with special reference to rural areas are necessary to stimulate the provision of these services by public sector providers as well as NGOs and private-for-profit providers.

7.6 Role of External Assistance

The review of the experiences in the design and implementation of NFE and rural skills training programmes for the rural areas in south-east Asia has made it clear that there is an important although facilitating role for external assistance. It has been shown that such assistance achieves the most positive results when it supports existing, locally initiated programmes, while respecting local decisions with regard to their operation.

7.6.1 Capacity building

A prime area for useful technical and donor support concerns capacity building of local organizations by international organizations, such as the ILO. This can, for instance, be done through financing of training programmes, seminars, study tours, exchange visits and specific bursaries. External assistance has been found to be valuable in the area of strategic planning, which is surprisingly often necessary to help local organizations to determine their vision, mission and actual support services. It is also sometimes easier for outsiders to initiate collaboration between organizations and to organize lobby groups and other fora for advocacy.

7.6.2 Introduction of new training methodologies

Another major area for technical and donor assistance concerns the development and/or introduction of new training methodologies and delivery modalities, together with providing seed capital for the financing of pilot activities to test new approaches on an experimental basis.

7.6.3 Information sharing

Most local organizations would also greatly benefit from improved access to existing information on good practices and lessons learned, the sharing of experiences from other countries and access to international good practices.

International organizations can play a catalytic role in the sharing of information on skills training experiences, for instance by acting as a clearinghouse for relevant studies, data bases – especially – evaluation reports.

Web sites with international and updated literature and links can be important sources of information for training organizations.

7.6.4 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation are both financially and methodologically usually beyond the immediate capability of smaller local organizations. As a result, this usually ends up at the bottom of the priorities list, seriously hampering the process to improve the quality and effectiveness of the programmes. Donors can help in setting up relevant monitoring and evaluation systems, including the provision of computers.

7.6.5 Specific technical assistance

Some other areas where external financial and technical contributions would be helpful are:

- investments in simple training facilities and equipment,
- provision of information on developments in education and training and
- tailor-made, short term or intermittent technical assistance to select training equipment, to improve programme management, financial and administrative systems, etc.

Key Points

Three important overall conclusions can be drawn with regard to the provision of non-formal education and rural skills training for working children and those at risk of labour exploitation.

- First, organizations in these areas should not go at it alone and work in isolation. It is often more efficient and effective for a training provider to link up with others for the provision of complementary services rather than to try to expand activities to ensure a full package of services for its clients.
- Second, training organizations should be far more creative. There is an enormous need for innovation and for pilot activities to test new ways to organize and deliver NFE and rural skills training for this particular target group. It is important to document the results of these experiments – what works and why – and describe them in such a way that others can learn from the results.

- Third, there is an enormous need for capacity building to implement NFE and rural skills training programmes to combat the worst forms of child labour as many of the organizations that are presently active in these areas are highly committed and dedicated but in many respects rather weak.

Key Reference

Committee of Donor Agencies for Small Enterprise Development,
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Washington).

ANNEX 1

Terms of Reference

Study on education and (pre)vocational training in south-east Asia as alternatives to the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking in children and women

1 Background

ILO runs a number of projects to combat child labour in south-east Asia – including the overall IPEC south-east Asia (SEA) programme; the Footwear and Fishing project (F&F) in Indonesia, Thailand, and the Philippines; and, the Greater Mekong Sub-regional project to combat trafficking in children and women (TICW project). The latter project is managed by a sub-regional project team in Bangkok, and national staff in five country offices in Cambodia, Lao Peoples Democratic Republic, Yunnan Province of China, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The TICW project works at different levels (from sub-regional to local level) on capacity building¹ and awareness raising, and offers focused direct assistance services in selected geographical areas that are source areas of out-migration. As interventions are similar to those under the SEA programme and the F&F project, this particular assignment has been initiated in collaboration with these other programmes.

Direct assistance services (by partner agencies) to families whose children are at risk of worst forms of child labour (including trafficking) include education and (pre) vocational training and income generating alternatives including business development, group formation, micro credits and sustainable livelihoods. These services are offered through partner agencies. Some have extensive experiences in offering these services to the particular target group, others not.

2 Proposal

The TICW project proposes therefore to recruit a series of consultants to document lessons learnt in the aforesaid fields, based on case studies and review of literature, and come with a set of recommendations for future use by project partners. This particular consultancy will target non-formal and formal education, and (pre) vocational training alternatives – and is done in collaboration with the IPEC footwear and fishing project (technical and financial support) and the overall IPEC/SEA programme (technical support).

¹ Capacity building services include (1) development of knowledge and materials + training on: education and (skills) training, alternative livelihoods, business development, gender issues, and legal literacy; (2) Legislation and policy making; (3) localized cross-border arrangements; (4) (Improved) coordination mechanisms; (5) Project management training; and (6) improved research methods and participatory approaches.

3 Assignment for consultant/expected output

3.1 Conduct a desk review of interesting lessons learnt in offering education and (pre)vocational training to rural poor (based on project documents, manuals, evaluation reports, web sites, consultations with ILO colleagues (in particular ILO multi-disciplinary team specialists, IPEC and GENPROM staff, and staff of the Social Finance Unit, FIT, and SIYB and those of other agencies such as GTZ, ADB, and UNDP) – resulting in a draft paper that gives an overview of the state-of-the-art in education and (pre)vocational training services including prevailing approaches, useful lessons learnt, illustrations of success stories in boxes, possible checklists and references to useful recent resource materials. The document should among others tap into knowledge built up by Aga Khan Education services, BRAC (poverty alleviation and education, and community management and development (as per the attached home pages).

3.2 Conduct field research in Cambodia, Philippines and Viet Nam (approx. 10 days per country) to analyze ongoing or completed projects² offering education and (pre)vocational training, and identify and describe good practices and lessons learnt-resulting in a draft paper. These projects are not necessarily IPEC sponsored and do not necessarily aim to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking. They should be significant projects in terms of serving as ‘models’ on education in the sub-region.

Critical questions³ to be examined during the field work (during visits to project sites and interviews with beneficiaries (trainees), project staff, and others):

- Was a needs assessment conducted before education/training was offered;
- Does education/training offered meet local needs?
- Who developed the curricula, how, and what does it cover (topics, type, length, incl. TOT)?
- Was training and/or guidance provided properly (qualified trainers, materials and equipment, proper methods (self-study and practice, and participation);
- Is education/training gender sensitive?
- Is education/training in line with current market needs and/or do they create new potential (diversification of the local economy)?
- Does the training include apprenticeship, and if so is this effective?
- Is education/training flexible to changing students needs and market demands?
- To what extent are evaluated projects linked and integrated into bigger frameworks (formal education system, private sector, other projects)?

² National project staff of the ILO-TICW project, F&F project, and the IPEC/SEA programme will put forward suggested projects (three to five per country) to be evaluated in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

³ The consultant should employ a standard set of questions during the field work in the various countries, while at the same time leaving scope for flexibility depending upon specific field situations and conditions.

- What impact did education/training have on beneficiaries/are they better off as a result?
- Are the former trainees working in the field of training?
- Is the education/training cost-effective?
- Was an assessment of the training carried out afterward, including a tracer study on the well-being of trainees?
- To what extent have “models” been adapted and modified to reach out to marginalized target groups?
- To what extent have pilot models been replicated and mainstreamed into national policies?
- Have teachers been mobilized, and have they created a network?;
- Are other services needed to make the education/training successful and if so, what are they?
- What are lessons learnt (good and bad) for future use to combat worst forms of child labour?
- What recommendations for improvement can be made?
- To what extent are services provided linked to other relevant initiatives in the field of business development, initiatives of existing private sector enterprises, authorities and the like?

3.3 The desk review and field findings should result in a synthesis paper that includes an introduction, an overview of lessons learnt with illustrations of the various case studies (in boxes), a list of practical suggestions to consider for future educational and (pre)vocational training interventions to combat worst forms of child labour including trafficking, and other tools that help to develop meaningful and effective educational and (pre)vocational projects to combat worst forms of child labour. The suggestions should to the extent possible be specific to the Mekong sub-region (and Indonesia and the Philippines where the F&F project is operational), and they should be applicable in particular in rural areas.⁴

The consultant should liaise with another project consultant on “income generating alternatives” to avoid unnecessary overlap and ensure complementarity. The other consultant will visit the same countries in the same time frame on a similar assignment.

The synthesis paper in English should be between 35 and 45 pages (single-spaced), excluding annexes.

⁴ Rural areas are considered source areas of trafficking.

The synthesis paper will form a background paper for the Asia preparatory meeting (scheduled for Mid October 2001) of the Yokohama Congress on sexual exploitation of children and an ILO meeting on trafficking in the same month.

4 Time frame (1 June - 20 September 2001)

1 June	Starting date of contract
20 June	Draft results of desk review submitted to ILO TICW project office for review in collaboration with IPEC F&F and IPEC SEA
21 June till end July	Field work
15 August	Draft results of field work submitted to ILO TICW project office for review in collaboration with IPEC F&F and IPEC SEA
10 September	Draft synthesis paper submitted to ILO TICW project office for review in collaboration with IPEC F&F and IPEC SEA
20 September	Final paper submitted to ILO TICW project office

HvdG/AE, 31/5/01

ANNEX 2

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ANNEX 3

RURAL INFORMAL SECTOR

Most of the people in the rural areas are still working in agriculture, either on their own land or on that of others. The continuous process of dividing the land among the children and selling it to others means that less and less rural people can live from their farming incomes. A few lucky ones find a job as a teacher or public sector official or work in a rural bank or other modern sector establishment. Many rural workers migrate seasonally to work elsewhere or have moved permanently to urban areas. And a growing number have come to rely for a substantial part of their household income on non-agricultural activities in their own village. Taken together these non-agricultural activities can be called the *rural informal sector* (RIS).

1. Concept of the informal sector

Informal sector activities are characterized by (i) small scale, ie. tiny number of workers (almost no wage workers and few casual workers, unpaid family workers and apprentices), low amount of capital investment and modest total sales, (ii) use of “non-modern” production technologies (a mixture of traditional, often manual techniques and some more advanced ones) and traditional forms of enterprise organization (family enterprises) and (iii) weak positions in the markets where they procure inputs and sell their outputs, as well as toward the government and service institutions. Conversely, governments for a long time were not in favour of informal sector activities, which they felt, did not fit well with the desired modernization of the economy. As a result, for a long time informal producers and traders did not receive any government support and often were even openly harassed by local officials and police.

Most of the surveys of informal sector micro and small enterprises (MSEs) are confined to the major urban areas of a country. While there are some sporadic surveys of the rural informal sector, knowledge about it is rather scarce and incomplete. In general the picture of the rural informal sector can be painted as follows (based on Mead and Liedholm 1998):

- the majority of all MSEs (50 to 70 percent) are found in the rural areas;
- trade is the main activity, but in rural areas manufacturing is also important;
- rural MSEs are smaller than urban MSEs (with on average 1.5 to 2.5 “operators”;¹
- the majority of rural MSEs are owned by women;
- the vast majority of new firms are being created as one-person enterprises;
- most MSE closures occur in the early (first to third) years of the firm’s existence; and,
- rural MSEs have less chance of survival than their urban counterparts.

¹ *Informal sector operators* refer to both owners and workers of MSEs.

2. Informal sector segmentation

When reviewed more closely, the informal sector is not homogeneous but rather consists of different segments, which, in addition to sharing the general features of the informal sector, possess a number of special characteristics (see also diagram 1 (in chapter 1) and table A-1 on the next page).

(i) *Livelihood activities*

These activities can be seen as the lower echelon of the “informal sector” where in many cases the only barrier to entry is the marginality of the economic return for the effort. The resulting income is not enough to allow for any re-investment and serves only as a contribution to the household income. Livelihood activities often concern self-employment, at most with the assistance of one or more (unpaid) family workers. They might be called pre-entrepreneurial as they involve only minor forms of organization, management and administration. The activities are usually operated from the home or in the open air. Livelihood activities often function as a kind of safety net for the rural poor and are an important source of income for women.

Examples of rural livelihood activities include: seasonal grain and vegetable trading, hawking, pig and poultry raising and traditional craft activities.

(ii) *Micro enterprises*

These activities employ roughly 10 or fewer full-time workers and include many (family) firms with a single worker. The technology used is often traditional, based on widely existing technical knowledge and skills. Micro enterprises (MEs) tend to rely on locally available raw materials and typically serve local markets. MEs are extensively found in rural settings (such as accounting for over half of rural manufacturing); in urban areas they frequently account for the majority of employment in retailing and services sectors.

Some examples of rural MEs are: village boutiques, blacksmithing, carpentry, tailoring, repair services and various forms of simple agro-processing.

(iii) *Small-scale enterprises*

Small-scale enterprises (SEs) can be defined as firms with roughly 10 to 50 workers. They use non-traditional or “modern” technologies in at least some of the productive aspects of the transformation process. Their products and services range from simple to complex and similarly span a range of consumer types. The marketing pattern may be somewhat complex, reflecting innovation in raw material procurement and in output sales. SEs often are (on the margin of) formal: they are usually registered with the local government and tend to be paying some taxes. SEs are more urban- than rural-based.

Some examples of rural small enterprises are: saw mills, garment assembly, motorised transport, construction and medium-scale industrial agro-processing.

In practice, the cut-off points for these segments are not always clear and there is quite some overlap between them. In actual fact the informal sector rather encompasses a continuum of employment and income opportunities (see Diagram 1 in chapter 1), which differ with regard to the nature of the economic activities, the kind of employment, the characteristics of the firms (number of workers, value of assets, production and sales, technology and organization of the production, share of the production destined for home consumption, etc.). The main importance of the recognition of the internal segmentation of the sector lies in the consequences it has for the design of support interventions, following from the fact that the different segments have different potentials and support needs (see Table A-2).

Table A-1: Summary of Main Differences of MSE Segments

LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES	MICRO ENTERPRISES	SMALL ENTERPRISES
Key distinctions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profits for household consumption <p>Diversification to increase household income and/or to minimize risk</p>	Key distinctions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profits used for household consumption and reinvestment in firm • Strategy: specialization to increase household income 	Key distinctions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profits used for re-investment in the firm • Strategy: specialization to increase profits
Little re-investment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mixed with household economy 2. Number of workers: 0 3. Family workers 4. Little or no investment in infrastructure/worksite 5. Traditional technology 6. Little or no fixed assets (less than USD 500) 7. Part-time and seasonal occupation for the owner, multiple activities 8. Traditional skills 9. Illiterate or semi-literate 10. Little or no written records 11. Not legally registered and not paying business-related taxes 	Some re-investment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mixed with household economy but shifting to ward separation 2. Number of workers: 1-10 3. Family labour, apprentices, paid labour 4. Usually little investment in infrastructure/ worksite 5. Out-dated technology 6. Usually moderate fixed assets (less than USD 10,000) 7. Full-time occupation for the owner 8. Moderate-to-high skill level 9. Low to medium levels of literacy 10. Few written records Often not registered and not paying business-related taxes 	High re-investment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Separate from household economy 2. Number of workers: 11-50 3. Paid labour 4. Extensive investment in infrastructure/ workshop 5. Modern technology 6. Extensive fixed assets (up to USD 100,000) 7. Full-time occupation for the owner 8. Higher skill level 9. Literate 10. At least basic administrative records and system 11. Legally registered and paying business-related taxes

Source: Waterfield and Duval, 1996, CARE savings and credit book (CARE).

Table A-2: Need for Support Service by Different Informal Sector Segments

Appropriateness and need for services in area of:	Livelihood Activities	Micro-enterprises	Small enterprises
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – capital <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • working capital • capital for equipment • capital for infrastructure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> high low low 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> high medium medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> low high high
– savings	high	high	low
– group formation	high (esp. for women)	low-medium (for supply and marketing)	low (only advocacy)
– management	low	medium	high
– marketing	high	medium	high
– technology	medium	high	high

Source: Based on Waterfield and Duval, 1996, CARE savings and credit book (CARE).

Tables A-1 and A-2 clearly indicate some of the main differences in the features of the identified MSE segments together with the differences in their support needs. For instance, while livelihood activities need small credits essentially for working capital purposes, MEs and SEs need larger sized, medium term loans, which would mean that the interest rate should be lower (the higher-than-commercial interest rates of micro-credit can be best sustained by trade and other economic activities with a short “gestation” period). Similar differences apply to the training and marketing needs of the different MSE segments.

The different support needs of the informal sector segments evidently have to be reflected in the type of interventions undertaken to promote informal sector firms, incomes and employment – but at an individual level as well as at strategic level (see Box A-1).

An important finding from MSE support projects is the limited “graduation” from one level to the one above it: the boundaries/ thresholds between these categories are generally only semi-permeable; it is much easier to fall back to a previous category than to grow out of any particular one. There are apparently important barriers, inertia and lumpy factors that limit a gradual process of growth. Some of the main barriers to entry for upward mobility include difficulties in amassing the required additional capital resources, higher level of management and technical skills, market access, improved technology and equipment, and overall business experience. De-graduation is more common, especially temporarily, during an economic recession, drought, etc.

Box A-1: Segmented MSE Support Approaches

(i) **Community development approach** aims for poverty alleviation and community growth, aiming to increase household incomes and make them more secure through integrated programmes of social infrastructure development, credit, low-level technical assistance and educational inputs. Costs are high and sustainability difficult to achieve.

(ii) **Marginalist/ incrementalist approach** aims to keep intervention costs and risks down by focusing support on one service (such as micro-credit) and working with existing businesses.

(iii) **Business development approach** explicitly aims to increase employment generation and income growth through promoting businesses into a sustainable growth dynamic and on an individual basis. The services provided include a concentrated, individualized package of technical assistance, training and small and medium term loans (around USD 5,000). These programmes have greater costs per participant, which is often justified by the potential of greater benefits, but due to the high costs per beneficiary, ultimately fewer enterprises can be assisted in a given period.

Source: Lessik and Farbman 1989.

3. Some features of rural informal sector activities

RIS activities are intimately interwoven with other rural activities and rural life in general. They are mostly a seasonal activity as many of the entrepreneurs also engage in agriculture – in the rainy season they give priority to farming. Many of them have forward or backward linkages with agriculture: village blacksmiths and more modern metal workshops supply essential manufacturing and repair services to (small) farmers, and many of the small-scale activities concern simple forms of agro-processing. RIS firms contribute to the marketing of rural products, supply the rural population with many of their consumption goods, build and repair houses and schools, repair trucks and buses, etc. RIS activities are considered to be especially important for the rural poor as in many developing countries they contribute 40 to 60 percent of rural household income.

Some recent surveys that allow for a more dynamic understanding of the IS show that the development of the sector is not a simple linear one, but rather depends on different expansion/contraction paths of its constituting segments. For the rural IS, one can draw the following picture: In areas with a high potential for agricultural development, the MSE sector will also flourish as demand for its products will be relatively high. Most of the enterprises will be of micro-enterprise type, engaged in supplying goods and services to the agricultural sector and to the rural population. When agricultural production and productivity increase

further, this will lead to expansion of existing and creation of new MEs, as (rural) entrepreneurs will be attracted by new upstream and downstream opportunities in the farming sector and the increased purchasing power of rural consumers.

Conversely, in areas with little or no potential for farming, the MSE sector will mostly consist of self-employment livelihood activities through which rural families are trying to supplement their farm incomes. When the harvests are bad, more people will engage in such survival type of activities, while micro enterprises will fare badly and may reduce in size or even fold. In such a context, assistance to livelihood activities can have a direct impact on rural poverty. In rural areas with a higher potential for agricultural production, rural micro enterprises will also have more potential to grow and contribute to sustained rural development and create jobs for the poor.

4. Support needs and opportunities for rural MSEs

MSEs are known to face a wide array of constraints to their daily operation and especially their development. It can be expected that the problems of rural MSEs do not differ fundamentally from those of their urban counterparts (see Box A-2).

Box A-2: General MSE Constraints

In the past, a lack of capital (formulated in whatever way) was invariably found in MSE surveys to be the most serious constraints facing MSEs. Since informal sector operators do not always realize what is in their best interests nor necessarily have a complete knowledge of all factors relevant to their business, a different list of key MSE constraints has been suggested. Using a continuum from internal constraints, via access problems, to external constraints, they can be categorized as follows:

- Poor management and technical skills: small producers in general are reluctant to prioritize poor skills as a major problem for their business;
- Inadequate technology: which is usually stated as an access issue, but it is also an “internal” problem in that some firms could have access to improved technology available in the market if they had higher literacy and technical skills and stronger business planning and investment skills;
- Government policies, regulation or harassment: governments are one of the most significant external forces that affect the performance of business;
- Disadvantageous market structures: MSEs experience this problem as too much competition in low-income markets, low demand for their products and

services, lack of access to physical markets where more, higher income groups shop, difficulty in procuring inputs, low prices provided by traders, etc. MSEs have diseconomies of scale. Market structures (which are complex) are primarily an access issue, but forces external to the firm often play a key role in limiting market access for MSEs;

- Inadequate infrastructure: Although “access” to services is the constraint with infrastructure, governments and advocates often consider infrastructure the responsibility of government in its role of providing a positive operating environment for business.

Source: Mary McVay 1996.

Rural MSEs experience a number of constraints, which, while not all of them are fundamentally different from those of their urban counterparts, are often more difficult to overcome as the result of the more profound deficiencies of the enterprises as well as the entrepreneurs themselves, and the general lack of support services as public, NGO and private sector service providers are few and far between in the rural areas.

At the same time, there are trends that will provide rural MSEs with some interesting opportunities for expansion and development. In more and more developing countries, the rural market is expanding. In India, for example, rural demand for simple consumer goods as well as some more luxurious industrial goods is expanding significantly (at the expense of more traditional items), and already urban producers have started to explore the rural market. Slowly but steadily, increasing levels of literacy and spreading modern means of communication (radio, TV and video) lead to enhanced awareness of the rural consumers of non-traditional products. Without appropriate actions, the larger, urban industrial firms will no doubt take them up.

5. Rural Informal Sector and Macro-Economic Policies

Recent studies have thrown, for the first time, light on the processes of the creation, expansion and disappearance of informal sector firms.² They show that there is a close relation between the economic situation and the growth of the informal sector: If the economic situation in rural areas is unfavourable because of inadequate policies or because of bad weather or natural disasters, acquiring skills may not be of much help in finding a job, as both formal and informal

² See Donal Mead and Carl Liedholm, The dynamics of micro and small enterprises in developing countries (*World Development*, 1998).

enterprises are laying off workers. In such a situation, even most of the self-employment that is being created in the informal sector will be at the lower end, such as in activities that require only relatively minor skills. Elaborate (and expensive) efforts to stimulate the creation of micro and small enterprises are probably doomed to have a high failure rate.

The focus in dealings with national governments has, over the past 20 years, shifted from simply getting them to recognize the MSE sector to encouraging them to provide it with relevant services and even purchase part of their goods and services from MSEs. The pendulum appears to be swinging back as, nowadays, the role of government is seen as limited to levelling the playing field, in part through de-regulation. More and more attention is being paid to the role of local governments, which are usually responsible for the registration and licensing process.

ANNEX 4

CASE STUDY OF A RURAL TRAINING CENTRE

The *Training Centre of the Skills Training and Job Creation Project* in Xuan Truong district (Viet Nam) is an interesting example of vocational skills training to rural beneficiaries: It is small (training capacity some 150 students) and located in a rural town.

The project is being implemented by an international NGO (Maryknoll of USA) with the District's People Committee and assistance from other training centres. Its targeted beneficiaries are low income youth and youth with disabilities. The project started in June 1997 and the information below is based on an evaluation at the end of 1999. The total project budget was some USD 180,000.

Support package

The training offered by the Centre forms part of package of support services provided by the Maryknoll project. Project activities in full are:

- skills training at the *Vocational Training Centre*,
- *Community Assistance Programme*, which refers to community-based training activities for handicapped youth who cannot or are ashamed to come to the VTC,
- *Production Workshop* in tailoring and carpentry, established in December 1998 and
- *Credit and Savings*, which was started mid 1999 to support the project beneficiaries – for the handicapped and their families a number of cow banks was set up.

In the first two years of the project, almost 450 people benefited directly from the project.

Learning from others

When the VTC was started, its management felt it could learn from others as it has less experience in electrical, electronics, mechanics and woodcarving. Before actually starting to conduct these courses, the Centre staff visited other state training centres to learn how to conduct courses suitable for the beneficiaries, looking at course length, facilities needed for trainers and trainees and teacher qualifications. During the visits, the possibilities for cooperation between the Xuan Truong Centre and other training centres were also explored.

Facilities and staff

The project was started after two surveys in the district to (i) assess the socio-economic situation at household level and the need for skills training to generate additional employment and incomes and (ii) identify the labour needs and opportunities of the local labour market.

The building was made available by the District Peoples Committee: total area is 1,800 m², with classrooms and places for practical work (572 m²) and administrative office (153 m²).

The Centre employs 14 staff members: director, assistant director, one management trainee (also cashier and responsible for supplies and training materials), five field workers (responsible for community support and staff of Credit and Savings Programme), one maintenance staff, one clerical staff (who also cooks) and three security guards.

Beneficiaries

The Centre aims to provide centre-based training to poor youth and has initiated out-reach training for disabled youth in surrounding rural villages. The beneficiaries should be between 15 and 35 years, and the families of the non-handicapped should have an income of no more than 15 kilos of rice per month and assets with a value of less than VND 30 million (USD 2,000).

The selection procedure is as follows: beneficiaries can indicate their interest with community leaders by registering at the Centre or by contacting the field workers whom the project employ in the communities (which is the most common). The selection is done on the basis of application forms. If necessary the field workers assist in filling out the forms-and they also visit the applicants in their communities to check on the socio-economic situation and living standard of the applicants family to see that he/she fulfils the selection criteria.

Training offerings

The training courses offered by the VTC are chosen to meet the needs of the local labour market, although the methodology used is not immediately clear. A second condition is that the training offerings are consistent with the abilities and interests of the trainees.

The VTC offers the following courses:

Training course	Course length	Time for practice
Tailoring (industrial and manual sewing)	6 months	91%
Carpentry	9 or 18 months	92%
Wood carving	18 months	92%
Electrical/ house wiring	6 months	84%
Electronics repair and instalment	6 months	59%
Mechanics	6 months	80%
(welding, engine repair and car repair)		
Agricultural economics and rural development*	6 months	na.

* For community workers. Together with Hanoi University of Agriculture

The tailoring and carpentry courses are the VTC's "own" courses, while the others are organized in cooperation with other training centres with whom the VTC has concluded an agreement for a cooperation.

The duration of the courses is flexible with options for relatively short and long course in carpentry. Most of the training is spent on practical work, with mostly more than 10 percent for theory (except in the case of electronics – see following table). At the end of the course, the trainees have to take an exam covering both theory and practice, conducted to state regulations.

Training equipment

Most of the equipment for tailoring and carpentry were bought new while that for mechanics, electrical and electronics are rented from other training centres. The investment in equipment is highest for carpentry (although the base of the calculation "per trainee" is not immediately clear):

Training course	Investment cost per trainee
Tailoring	\$ 85
Carpentry and woodcarving	\$167
Electrical	\$ 41
Electronics	\$ 56
Mechanics	\$ 34

The Centre manufactured some of the training equipment itself, as well as training aids used in carpentry and electrical – showing cost-awareness and creativity.

Trainers

The Centre uses two types of trainers: (i) some of the instructors come from other training centres in the province as part of a cooperation agreement and (ii) others are local mastercraftspeople who were trained in teaching methodologies. Teaching experience is an important criterion for the recruitment. All are contracted for the duration of a course.

Training-cum-production

The VTC operates production units for carpentry and tailoring. They were started to provide employment for some of the training graduates. Interestingly, only at this point does the Centre conduct small business management for these graduates. They get hands-on management experience as they participate in the Workshop Management Group that runs the units while they are also expected to carry out market research, formulate production plans, consider expansion of the workshop, visit the annual International Handicrafts Bazaar in Hanoi, etc.

Both workshops appear to manage only a small profit, although the carpentry workshop is doing better than the tailoring workshop.

Training impact

A first evaluation of the results of the training collected information on 144 (65 percent) out of a total of 223 course graduates (from the first two years). Two thirds of them found employment.

Training course	Employment rate after training
Tailoring	56%
Carpentry	94%
Electrical	73%
Electronics	53%
Mechanics	64%

Most of the trainees were found to earn between USD 5-20 per month (and only 3 percent more than USD 40 per month). This income-level, though not very high, is acceptable for new trainee graduates who need time to improve their skills; moreover, the lowest income level of the trainees is higher than that of a local peasant doing traditional farming.

Training costs

As one of the few documented cases, the evaluation report also gives a breakdown of the costs that the VTC incurs in the provision of training – by training area.

Training Course	Course duration	Training cost per course (percentages)				Average trainee cost/course
		trg. equipment	trg. materials	instr. salaries	admini-stration	
Tailoring	6 m	34 %	42 %	20 %	4 %	USD 203
Carpentry	9m/18m	8 %	64 %	26 %	3 %	USD 262
Electrical	6 m	19 %	45 %	25 %	11 %	USD 89
Electronics/TV repair	6m	33 %	4 %	48 %	15 %	USD 172
Mechanics	6m	41 %	29 %	20 %	10 %	USD 121
Total		24 %	45 %	25 %	6 %	USD 175

From this table it would appear that the training materials are on average the largest up to half of the training costs, with training equipment and instructor salaries each a quarter of the total; the costs of the administration are quite small.

Some problems found

The evaluation study also flags a number of existing problems:

- the district economy requires other skills (metal cutting and farming technology, for example) for which no training offerings are available;
- the training is only given at a basic level, and the training graduates (such as in tailoring and carpentry) are keen to further upgrade their present skills and continue training;
- with regard to the equipment of the VTC, on the one hand, equipment for carpentry, mechanics and electrical is rather basic and should be upgraded; while, on the other, some equipment lies idle as for budgetary reasons no courses are being given in electrical, electronics and mechanics;
- training materials need to be upgraded (in mechanics and carpentry there were no printed materials at all – only note books for the trainees to record the words of the trainers; and
- the teaching methodologies used are still rather conventional (teaching-listening).

Final observations

This case study shows some of the ways in which a rural training centre that is deemed to be rather successful has been set up and is operating. This is not to mean that this would be the best example. In fact, the Evaluation, which is even seen by those closely involved as “maybe too positive”, found a number of small and more important problems. But at least it gives some notion of the concept, activities and magnitude of efforts and finances to provide skills training in the rural areas-achieving very acceptable employment results.

Some questions that should be answered in the future concern:

- Is the provision of skills training at the basic level good enough for the training graduates to have a decent income?;
- To what extent are the elements of the support package dependent upon each other? Are they all sustainable? And what are the consequences if one or more are left out (such as for the employment of the field workers in the communities)?;
- The provision of employment in the Centre production unit appears somewhat artificial. What happens in the long term when more suitable candidates than can be absorbed in the unit? And how/what will be the relations between the production unit and the small workshops that will be created by some of the training graduates?;

- Is the Centre sustainable? No training fees appear to be charged and already some of the equipment is not being used for budgetary reasons.

Source: Based on *Project evaluation report: Skills training and jobs creation for low income youth and youth with disabilities, Xuan Truong district, Nam Dinh Province* (Maryknoll, Hanoi – 1999).

ANNEX 5

RELEVANT MANUALS AND REFERENCE DOCUMENTS

Non-Formal Education

Baguioro, Ed. M. (Bing)

Alternative learning: A liberating experience – a Care Teachers Manual
(ILO/IPEC, Manila 2001). Contact: ILO/IPEC Manila

Haspels, N., de los Angeles-Bautista, Boonpala and Bose

Action against child labour: Strategies in education – country experiences in the mobilization of teachers, educators and their organizations in combating child labour (ILO/IPEC, Geneva, May 1999).

World Vision Cambodia,

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(Child Labour Project, World Vision Cambodia, Phnom Penh).

Note: Special NFE curriculum for Child Workers is available at:

CAMBODIA: Ministry of Education, Bureau of Non-Formal Education

Vocational Training

Haan, Hans Christiaan

Community-based training: Guidelines for decision-makers (ILO Geneva 1994).

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Alternatives to child labour: A review of action programmes with a skills training component in Asia (IPEC Asia Papers no. 4, Bangkok, 1998).

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Manual for training & employment needs assessment for rural areas (Training and Employment Needs Assessment Unit, Dept. of Technical, Vocational Education and Training, Phnom Penh, Sept. 1998).

Entrepreneurship development

The ILO programme on *Start and Improve Your Business* (SIYB) has training materials on business management practices at different level (Business Starters, Existing Enterprises and Illiterate Entrepreneurs), both learners and facilitators. Contact: I SIYB programmes in the Philippines and Viet Nam.

GTZ has developed an entrepreneurship development methodology called “CEFE”

Micro and Small Enterprise Development

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FAO,
SEAGA: Socioeconomic and Gender Analysis (Women in Development Service, Sustainable Development Department, FAO, Rome, 1997).
Available from: FAO Rome (SEAGA@fao.org)

Manual on community-based tree and forest product enterprises (6 volumes, Integrated Food Security Project, FAO, Viet Nam, 2000).

GEMINI/ Michael A. McPherson and Joan C. Parker,
A manual for conducting baseline surveys of micro and small enterprises: Tools for micro-enterprise Programs – Field Research Section (USAID/GEMINI Feb. 1993).

Haan, Hans Christiaan; Coad, Adrian and Lardinois, Inge
Involving micro and small enterprises: Guidelines for municipal managers (SDC/WASTE/GTZ/ILO-ITC/SKAT, St. Gallen 1998).

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The resource pack: Enabling extension workers to assist small scale enterprise (VSO Kenya/British Aid to Small Enterprise, Kenya, May 1995).

Technonet Asia,
Industrial extension manual for small and medium industries in developing countries (Technonet Asia/IDRC, Singapore, April 1985).

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Women's World Banking,
Resource guide to business development service providers (WWB, New York, 1996).

CAMBODIA

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Government of Cambodia,
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ILO/UNDP/*Vocational Training for the Alleviation of Poverty Project* (CMB/96/002), Sept. 1998, *Manual for training and employment needs assessment for rural areas* (Training and Employment Needs Assessment Unit, Dept. of Technical, Vocational Education and Training, Phnom Penh).

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Promotion of non-formal training in the informal sector: Mid-term self-evaluation-January 2000 through June 2001 (internal document, Promotion of Non-Formal Training in the Informal Sector project, MoEYS/DTVET/GTZ, Phnom Penh, July 2001).

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Curriculum and demanded skills survey: An exploratory survey into the future prospects of the PRASAC micro-enterprise centres in Svay Rieng and Prey Veng-November 2000-April 2001 (report prepared for EU/PRASAC, Phnom Penh, May 2001).

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Grierson, John and McKenzie, Iain (eds.)

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ANNEX 6

ORGANIZATIONS IN THE FIELD OF SKILLS AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Below is a summary listing of the major organizations involved in skills training. It was prepared from June-September 2001. Many of the Web sites are continuously being improved and the addresses keep on changing.

Some Web sites are especially recommended:

- * because of the type and number of documents that they make available
- ** because of the links to other interesting websites.

*/**	Name Organization	Web Site
	Asian Development Bank	www.adb.org/Work/Projects/Profiles
	Bellanet International initiative focused on fostering interagency collaboration:	www.bellanet.org
	* Development Alternatives Inc (DAI):	www.dai.com (also for publications)
	Development Alternatives/Sustainable livelihoods and microenterprise	www.oneworld.org/ecdpm/anniv/findij.htm
	DfID (UK):	www.dfid.gov.uk
	* Committee of Donor Agencies for Small Enterprise Development William F. Steel, co-chair Ira Lieberman, co-chair	
	ILO/ hosting Donor Committee on Small Enterprise Development BDS guidelines:	www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/ent/sed/bds/donor
	** Enterweb: many linkages to sites concerning inter alia entrepreneurship and enterprise development, small business, finance, international trade:	www.enterweb.org/edutrain.htm
	Food and Agriculture Organization:	www.fao.org
	Grameen Bank:	www.grameen-info.org
	GTZ (Germany):	www.gtz.de/home/english/index.html
	Entrepreneurship development programme, CEFE:	www.gtz.de/cefe
	Interamerican Development Bank:	www.iadb.org

*/**	Name Organization	Web Site
	Sustainable development department (SME, micro enterprise, micro finance):	www.iadb.org/sds/mic
*	ILO:	www.ilo.org
**	Internationalizing Entrepreneurship Education and Training Conference (INTENT):	www.intent-conference.de
*	PACT:	www.pact.com – for publications: www.pact.pub.com
	Swiss Contact:	www.swisscontact.ch
**	Swiss Development Corporation:	www.vetnet.ch
*	UNDP:	www.undp.org
**	University of Leeds:	www.leeds.ac.uk/bei/vetbib.htm
*	UNIDO:	www.unido.org and UNIDO/online resources: www.unido.org/doc/online
	USAID:	www.info.usaid.gov
	USAID's Micro-enterprise program: Micro-enterprise Best Practice project-via: DAI	www.mip.org
*	World Bank:	www.worldbank.org/html/fpd/ privatesector/sme.htm

**Non-formal education and rural skills training:
Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour including trafficking**

ILO-IPEC estimates that approximately 245 million children are engaged in child labour in the world. A majority of these children are found in Asia. To enter the labour market at a premature age will have negative consequences for a young person, his or her family, and the society as a whole. Child labour is contrary to human rights, human development, and provision of decent work.

Recent years have brought unprecedented public awareness of the problem of child labour and a broad consensus to solve it. There is, however, no simple solution to child labour - the problem is complex and so are effective responses.

Further compounding the problem is that, gives high fertility rates in recent years in most south-east Asian nations, millions of children will join the labour force in the next few years. Many of those youngsters will end up in exploitative situations if decent work options are insufficient.

ILO-IPEC addresses child labour and trafficking through multi-dimensional approaches which include assistance in policy design, institution building, awareness raising, development and application of protective legislation, and direct assistance including education, skills training, and micro-finance services to families whose children are at risk of worst forms of child labour.

As part of this more comprehensive package of interventions, non-formal education and skills training programmes are designed to prevent children from entering employment prematurely and provide them and/or their parents with important knowledge and skills in order to have access to better and less exploitative jobs. Designing and implementing sustainable non-formal education and skills training programmes can, however, be a challenge in itself.

The paper highlights and discusses a number of critical concerns for non-formal education and skills training programmes with a particular focus on rural areas. These include the design, duration, location, and time schedule of training programmes, selection of trainees and trainers, post-training services, gender issues, and how to ensure sustainability. The paper also presents a series of case studies, lessons learned, and good practices from education and skills training programmes mainly targeting rural poor in Cambodia, the Philippines and Viet Nam. The suggestions in the publication may be used broadly, beyond the three countries covered. They are no 'blueprints' however and should be interpreted in specific local contexts.

The target audience for the paper include project designers and implementers working to combat worst forms of child labour, including trafficking, through non-formal education and skills training interventions.

The paper is a result of a joint initiative by the ILO Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW-project), and the ILO-IPEC projects to combat child labour in the deep-sea fishing and footwear sectors in South-east Asia.

This publication is part of a series covering various Technical Intervention Areas (TIAs) that ILOs TICW-project focuses on. Along with 'non-formal education and skills training' the series includes 'micro-finance interventions', 'legal labour migration', 'gender equality promotion', 'networking & co-ordination', 'participation', 'project management', 'psycho-social counseling' and 'working with workers & employers organizations'. Summary notes of all these TIAs are available from the TICW-project office in Bangkok.

ILO Mekong Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women
2nd Floor, United Nations Service Building
Rajdamnern Nok Avenue,
Bangkok 10200, Thailand

Tel: 66 2 288 2218
Fax: 66 2 288 3063



INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION

INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME ON THE ELIMINATION OF CHILD LABOUR

Mekong Sub-Regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women

United Nations Service Building, 2nd Floor, Rajdamnern Nok Avenue, P.O. Box 2-349,
Bangkok, 10200, Thailand, Telephone: (+66-2) 288-2218, Fax: (+66 2) 288-3063

www.ilo.org/asia/child/trafficking

Readership Feedback Form

'Non-formal education and rural skills training: Tools to combat worst forms of child labour including trafficking'

It would be appreciated if you could complete this questionnaire and return it to us, by air mail or fax, at the following address:

ILO Mekong sub-regional project to combat trafficking in children and women

IPEC, 2nd floor, United Nations Service Building

Rajdamnern Nok Avenue, Bangkok 10200, Thailand, Fax 66 - 2 - 288 3063

1 Please indicate (by ticking ✓) your assessment of the quality of the publication on:

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