5th GLOBAL REPORT ON ADULT LEARNING AND EDUCATION

**Citizenship education:
Empowering adults for change**

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Education 2030

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ON ADULT LEARNING
AND EDUCATION

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Empowering adults for change**

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FOREWORD

'Everyone has the right to education.' As Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights emphasizes, education is a right that is both fundamental and universal. Here, universal means in all countries, for all girls and all boys and – as we often forget – at all ages. Lifelong learning is not only a right; it is also a crucial asset in facing the social and economic uncertainty and environmental and digital disruption to which we must adapt on an ongoing basis. It is a culture that we must develop if we are to strengthen social cohesion, equal opportunities, gender equality and the economic vitality of our societies.

Our Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE), the first edition of which was published in 2009, contributes to this goal by providing international reference data to support and inform public policies. This report underlines that the Belém Framework for Action on adult learning and education, the coordination of which Member States entrusted to UNESCO, has generated real momentum over the past decade.

Indeed, *GRALE 5* reveals some very encouraging trends. For example, it highlights the fact that the number of adults – especially women – participating in education has grown in most Member States since 2018.

However, this report also identifies areas for improvement. Vulnerable populations and minorities, such as migrants, Indigenous peoples, older citizens and people with disabilities, are still, all too often, left behind, when they should be priority groups.
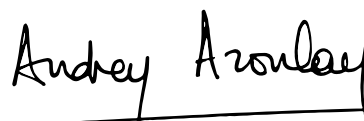
And while the importance of lifelong learning is increasingly being recognized, it suffers from harmful underinvestment. Nearly half of all countries invest only 2% or less of their overall education budgets in this field – even though, as UNESCO firmly believes, it is the best possible public investment for the future.

Our report also reiterates the need to place contemporary challenges at the heart of learning programmes. For instance, climate issues are not yet sufficiently taken into account.

Citizenship education for adults – an additional focus of the report – is another essential topic, for it is this type of education that teaches respect for differences, critical thinking skills and awareness of our shared humanity, while reinforcing civic engagement. In this field, the report shows that, while progress has been made, the potential of citizenship education is yet to be fully galvanized.

In line with UNESCO's recent report on the Futures of Education, *GRALE 5* calls for adult education to be fully included in a culture of lifelong learning – and for it to be recognized as one of the best tools to rise to the challenges of today and tomorrow.

As we prepare for the seventh International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VII), taking place in Marrakech, Morocco, in June, I have no doubt that UNESCO's Member States will commit to advancing the right to lifelong learning. Faced with the challenges of today's world, we must be able to count on education as a global common good – for everyone, everywhere.

Audrey Azoulay
Director-General, UNESCO

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At CONFINTEA VI, UNESCO was given the mandate to monitor the Belém Framework for Action, the outcome document of CONFINTEA VI. *GRALE 5* marks the end of this 12-year period. CONFINTEA VII will be held in June 2022 and *GRALE 5* will be launched during the conference.

I hope that this report, together with the new Framework for Action, will make stakeholders aware of the key role that ALE can play in creating humanistic responses to the challenges we face, based on human rights, ethical principles, the mobilization of collective intelligence and an open dialogue informed by interdisciplinary knowledge.

David Atchoarena
Director,
UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning

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INTRODUCTION TO THE REPORT

This, the fifth Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE), is also the final monitoring report on the Belém Framework for Action (BFA), the outcome document of the sixth International Conference on Adult Education (**CONF**érence **INT**ernationale sur l'**E**ducation des **A**dultes – CONFINTEA VI), held in 2009. The BFA was not a binding agreement, but rather a 'guide' for Member States 'harnessing the power and potential of adult learning and education'. That power and potential is encapsulated in the idea and practice of lifelong learning, which affirms that the learning trajectory and experience of human beings lasts literally 'from cradle to grave'. Understood within the BFA as 'an organising principle of all forms of education, based on inclusive, emancipatory, humanistic and democratic values', lifelong learning is about far more than the mere accumulation of knowledge and skills, however valuable those may be (UIL, 2010, p. 7). It is no less than the means by which we may achieve the founding goal of UNESCO: to 'build peace in the minds of men and women'.

Today, humanity is faced by threats and challenges no less urgent than those of 1945. Protecting the planet and ensuring peace constitute key priorities for the international community. After two years marked by the COVID-19 pandemic and the immense disruption it produced to social, economic and cultural life, humanity has proven yet again its resilience and ability to adapt and collaborate in response to a short-term threat. However, the pandemic has also exposed many of the fault lines in our societies, among them a deficit of trust in political processes, the fragmenting and polarizing potential of information technology, the persistence of 'us versus them' narratives, 'failures to pursue the ideals of solidarity and multilateralism, and growing inequality within and between countries' (UNESCO, 2021a, p. 318).

The previous GRALE report (*GRALE 4*) focused on the issue of participation in adult learning, recognizing that not all people have the same opportunities to learn throughout life, to enjoy meaningful and rewarding work, to develop their competences and potential, and contribute to their communities – in other words, to be active citizens. The survey of Member States conducted

for that report revealed that the contribution of adult learning and education (ALE) to active citizenship and community cohesion was overlooked in comparison to its role in building basic and vocational skills. A key recommendation of *GRALE 4* was that more attention must be paid to policy in the domain of active and global citizenship.

The link between active citizenship and the challenge of sustainability is reflected in Target 4.7 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which explicitly ties global citizenship education (GCED) to education for sustainable development (ESD). Both seek to motivate and equip learners to engage actively in developing more inclusive and secure societies.

Purpose of this report

This report serves a dual purpose. The first is to carry out the mandate conferred on UNESCO by the BFA, which documents CONFINTEA VI participants' commitment to 'regularly collecting and analysing data and information on … adult education programmes, disaggregated by gender and other factors, to evaluate change over time and to share good practice' (UIL, 2010, p. 9). Part 1 of this report thus tracks and analyses progress in ALE against the five key indicators identified in the BFA: policy, governance, financing, participation and quality. The second purpose of this report, addressed in Part 2, is to offer a detailed thematic discussion and analysis of global and active citizenship, and the role of ALE in pursuing them.

In addition to monitoring global progress in the field and exploring in depth the theme of citizenship education for adult learners, this report lays the groundwork for discussions in the lead-up to CONFINTEA VII, which will take place in Morocco in June 2022. The ultimate aim of *GRALE 5* is to increase awareness of ALE among key stakeholders, and secure greater attention from policy-makers. It provides examples of innovation and good practice, and serves as an evidence base for evaluating international progress. It also helps to understand the holistic

contribution of ALE towards achieving SDG 4, with the potential for amplifying benefits far beyond any one specific target.

Notwithstanding the achievements and progress outlined in this report, ALE is often treated as a 'poor relation' and under-funded within education policy. *GRALE 4* challenged policy-makers to place ALE at the centre of efforts to achieve sustainable economies and societies, and to recognize its key role in developing integrated, holistic solutions. This report goes one step further by showing how indispensable it is to build citizenship that situates people and planet at the heart of development.

Structure of this report

GRALE 5 begins with a review of the four previous GRALE reports, taking account of the changing social, political and educational contexts in which they were produced, and painting a 'bigger picture' of progress in ALE since CONFINTEA VI. This is followed by Part 1, which presents and analyses the findings of the *GRALE 5* survey. The survey design and data collection coincided with the start of the COVID-19 pandemic. Since this survey is by nature retrospective, focusing on developments in ALE since the publication of *GRALE 4* in 2018, it does not reflect the radical changes to education provision that occurred in response to the pandemic. However, the survey included a number of questions designed to gain an early understanding of the pandemic's impact on ALE in Member States. These findings, including examples of the strategies adopted to cushion the impact of COVID-19 on ALE through rapid transitions to more flexible approaches, are presented and discussed in Chapter 7.

Part 2 starts with a discussion of citizenship, its components, its relevance to ALE and intersection with global challenges, and how the concept evolved. The report identifies and discusses eight key themes in relation to GCED and ALE: literacy; migration; new technologies; gender; Indigenous rights and knowledge systems; the training and professionalization of adult educators; higher education; and employability. It concludes with a detailed discussion of the need to redesign ALE in order to produce global citizens capable of bringing about social and economic transformation in line with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Part 1 of the report, focusing on monitoring the BFA, was informed by the findings of the *GRALE 5* survey, which includes responses from 159 UNESCO Member States and Associate Members. The thematic discussion in Part 2 drew on a series of background papers commissioned by UNESCO from leading scholars and research organizations in the field, and on a broader review of the literature including, notably, UNESCO's Futures of Education and Global Education Monitoring reports.

Strengths and limitations

UNESCO's GRALE reports are the only available instruments for monitoring ALE policy and practice at a global level. Each GRALE report provides an overview of the latest data and evidence on ALE, highlights good practice, and focuses attention on Member States' commitments to improving ALE.

However, as with any survey of such ambitious scope, GRALE has several limitations. While the GRALE reports use structured questionnaires to gather data from Member States and thus ensure a degree of comparability, each country's responses are based on self-assessment and depend on the availability of reliable and current national data. As an integral part of the CONFINTEA process, GRALE is meant to foster reflection, dialogue and mutual learning on how to measure and improve ALE policies and practices. The publication of the GRALE reports has also provided an important basis for discussions with the education policy community on the continuing yet evolving relevance of ALE to both structural and emerging development challenges.

The continuing relevance of ALE

*Education builds the capacities of individuals to work together to transform themselves and the world …
This can be as true for adult education and learning as it is for early childhood education.*
(ICFE, 2021, p. 60)

Even today, adult education is sometimes still framed as an extension of school. For decades, UNESCO has promoted approaches that 'deschool' adult education, to respect the autonomy of adults, their lived experiences and the learning that occurs outside formal frameworks. Increasingly viewed within the perspective of lifelong learning, ALE today takes place in an environment in which adults enjoy countless educational opportunities through culture, work, social media and the internet, all of which need to be valued and better understood.

As economies and societies continue to evolve, ALE will need to respond to a new context in which the nature of employment will change dramatically over the span of a single lifetime. Opportunities for career change and reskilling need to be linked to broader

reforms of education systems in order to build multiple, flexible learning pathways. Rather than merely reacting or adapting to work-related, technological or environmental change, however, ALE must be reconceptualized to empower adults to be active citizens contributing towards shaping their own future and that of the planet.

Why citizenship education?

Citizenship constitutes a key component of the lifelong learning paradigm, from early childhood through school education and into adult and third-age learning. Indeed, the development and application of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values of citizenship are themselves lifelong and life-wide processes. This entails understanding civic principles and institutions, knowing how to engage in civil society, exercising critical thinking, and developing an appreciation of the rights and responsibilities of a citizen. As the twenty-first century progresses, the key characteristic of learners will not be their age but their willingness to bring about personal and social change.

ALE programmes that successfully integrate citizenship themes yield benefits that go beyond those made explicit in the SDGs, such as increased self-esteem, empowerment, and openness to change and the resumption of learning. Citizenship education also plays a vital role in promoting tolerance, respecting diversity and preventing conflicts.

The basis for global citizenship is the affirmation of our own identities. Knowing who we are is the starting point for respecting others. Education should not be used as a tool for the forced assimilation of cultural minorities, Indigenous peoples or other marginalized groups into the dominant society, but rather to promote more balanced and democratic power relations within our societies.

In an increasingly interconnected world, GCED enables individuals to care about each other, embrace alternative perspectives and experiences, and engage in responsible practices with regard to the environment and shared natural resources. It involves a radical shift in how we humans perceive each other and our place in nature. Thus, GCED 'must become keenly attuned to this consciousness of the planetary' (ICFE, 2021, p. 113). At its core, GCED is about changing how we think (to better understand the world), feel (to empathize with others) and act (to change our behaviour for the better). Education, including adult education, must at its core be a humanizing and a humanistic project.

'Humanization', the process whereby, according to Paulo Freire, we become more fully human, is not a given outcome of education; rather, it may be seen as an effort to counter dehumanization (Roberts, 2000). Dehumanization leads inexorably to alienation, despair, cynicism and, ultimately, to violence and injustice in various forms (Freire, 1970).

In 2019, the UIL-APCEIU publication *Addressing global citizenship education in adult learning and education* (UIL and APCEIU, 2019) recommended that GCED and ALE be promoted as a means of helping countries to achieve the SDGs in general and SDG 4 in particular. It emphasized that, without sustained investment in human resources to build professional capacities, neither GCED nor, by extension, the principles of SDG Target 4.7, can be integrated into ALE and adult literacy policies. The quality of GCED provision in ALE depends on having access to a range of professionals who can develop and implement policies and programmes; design curricula and learning materials; train and supervise educators; build and coordinate partnerships and collaborations; develop quality-assurance strategies and criteria; and conduct research on good practices and innovation.

The findings of the thematic part of the report, together with Members States' responses to the *GRALE 5* survey, reveal that, nurtured throughout schooling, active and global citizenship skills must be sustained and further developed in adulthood within a lifelong learning perspective.

KEY MESSAGES

FROM BELÉM TO MARRAKECH

The abiding challenge for adult learning and education is to reach those who need it most.

Participation in adult education remains highest among those who have benefited most from education in the past. And while there is welcome progress – notably in the participation of women – disadvantaged and vulnerable groups such as migrants, Indigenous learners, older citizens and people with disabilities continue to miss out.

Despite increasing recognition of the value of adult learning and education, investment remains insufficient.

Member States increasingly recognize the economic, social and civic value of adult learning and education. However, while investment in adult education has increased, progress appears to have stalled and it remains below the level judged necessary in the Belém Framework for Action. Much more needs to be done to achieve the level of investment required for adult learning and education to realise fully its contribution to the SDGs, and much more emphasis needs to be placed on the needs of the most marginalized and disadvantaged.

MESSAGES FROM THE *GRALE 5* SURVEY

POLICY

The expansion of mechanisms for the recognition, validation and accreditation of non-formal and informal learning and national qualifications frameworks suggests that education systems are transitioning to lifelong learning systems, while increasing policy focus on adult and non-formal education.

Sixty per cent of countries reported that they had improved policy for adult learning and education since 2018. While Member States reported progress in policy across all fields of learning – literacy, basic skills and citizenship – slightly less progress was reported in citizenship education.

GOVERNANCE

Governance of ALE is increasingly shared between different national ministries, local authorities and other stakeholders.

Almost three-quarters of countries reported progress in governance, a trend most pronounced in low-income and upper middle-income countries and in the sub-Saharan Africa and Asia and the Pacific regions.

Countries reported a strengthening of partnership and cooperation between several ministries, the private sector and civil society, and confirmed the well-established trend towards decentralization. Challenges remain, however, including weak monitoring and evaluation and persistent data gaps.

FINANCING

Most countries reported a diversity of funding models, including public funding, public-private partnerships and co-funding with international cooperation agencies, the private sector and learners themselves.

Almost half of countries reported plans to increase public spending on adult learning and education. However, past experience suggests that these good intentions do not always translate into actual increases in funding, especially given the constraints most countries now face as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. There is wide divergence in terms of public funding devoted to ALE, with 22 countries spending 4% or more of their public expenditure for education on adult learning and education, and 28 spending less than 0.4%. Illustrating the data gap, 40 countries reported that they did not know how much public support ALE receives.

PARTICIPATION, INCLUSION AND EQUITY

The expansion of online distance learning brought adult education to a broader range of learners.

Over half of countries reported an increase in participation in ALE since 2018. The reported participation rate was highest in sub-Saharan Africa.

While participation of women and youth has considerably improved, the picture for older adults is mixed, with 23% of countries reporting an increase in their participation and 24% reporting a decrease.

About 60% of countries reported that the participation of prisoners, people with disabilities and migrants had not changed since 2018.

QUALITY

Effective teacher training and the development of professional standards for adult educators are driving progress in quality.

Most countries reported progress in relation to quality of curricula, assessment and the professionalization of adult educators. Over two-thirds reported progress in pre-service and in-service training for ALE educators, as well as in employment conditions, though this progress varied considerably by region and income group.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION WITHIN ADULT LEARNING AND EDUCATION

***GRALE 5* indicates significant progress in citizenship education since 2018.**

Members States' responses reflect an increasing policy attention to citizenship education compared to the situation three years ago (*GRALE 4*). Close to three quarters (74%) of countries indicated that they are developing or implementing policies in relation to citizenship education.

Citizenship education is a key tool in the global response to contemporary challenges.

Responding to contemporary challenges, such as the mass movement of populations fleeing war or environmental disaster, climate change and digitalization, demands populations of engaged, active, critical citizens who recognize both their shared humanity and their obligations to other species and to the planet.

Adult learning and education can play a significant role in shaping the future in line with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

The *GRALE 5* survey documented the synergy, within ALE, between global citizenship and sustainable development. While ALE curricula tend to focus on specific issues of environmental protection, such as climate change and biodiversity, in some countries they do cover the overarching theme of sustainable development in its entirety.

THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON ADULT LEARNING AND EDUCATION

Most countries reported rapid transitions to online/digital and distance learning (including television, radio and telephone) or modification of in-person learning arrangements.

The widespread adoption of digital technology during the COVID-19 pandemic has supported educational continuity for millions during lockdown.

There are many examples of countries responding innovatively to the crisis to ensure the continuation of adult learning and education provision, such as through the adoption of new policies and regulations to support this process or adjustments to quality standards and curricula.

However, it has also left some regions and population groups even further behind, particularly in parts of the world where resources and infrastructure are scarce.

12-YEAR REVIEW OF GRALE

Introduction

The five GRALE reports compiled since 2009 largely tell a story of progress and development. Their aim is to provide baseline information on the state of adult learning and education globally, with a view to informing debate among policy-makers, professionals and the wider community.

The first report, published in 2009 and based on data from 154 national reports, was designed to inform discussion during CONFINTEA VI (UIL, 2009). Meeting in Belém, Brazil, in 2009, the conference concluded that *GRALE 1* had shown some progress in ALE, but also revealed new challenges and problems, as well as demonstrating huge unmet potential for positive impact. The conference called on Member States to step up the pace of change, and asked UNESCO to continue its stock-taking and to produce future GRALE reports at regular intervals. It also adopted the Belém Framework for Action, which, among other recommendations, set out an agenda for future monitoring of policy, governance, finance, participation and quality (UIL, 2010).

The BFA monitoring agenda, which has its roots in the issues addressed in *GRALE 1*, has provided a continuing structure for the GRALE reports. *GRALE 2* in 2013 analysed data from 141 countries following the clear structure recommended by the BFA, and also included a thematic focus on adult literacy, which the BFA had prioritized as a basic foundation for lifelong learning (UIL, 2013). As well as acknowledging the importance of literacy rates as proxy indicators of poverty and inequality, *GRALE 2* provided global evidence in connection with the United Nations Literacy Decade, informing the evaluation presented to the General Assembly in September 2013.

In 2015, the UNESCO General Conference adopted the Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (RALE) (UNESCO, 2016). The Recommendation influenced GRALE in classifying ALE in terms of three key domains of learning and skills: literacy and basic skills; continuing education and vocational skills; and liberal, popular and community education and citizenship skills. This connected with the five BFA areas (policy; governance; financing; participation, inclusion and equity; and quality), so that evidence could be analysed on policy or participation according to the three RALE domains.

In the following year, UNESCO published its Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action, highlighting the importance of lifelong learning for all, but without mentioning ALE explicitly in its goals and targets, an absence that many would say has been reproduced in international policy documents ever since (UNESCO, 2015a). The GRALE findings, as analysed using the BFA framework and the RALE domains, made visible the relevance of ALE across a number of the 2030 SDGs, as well as for SDG 4.

The broad relevance of ALE for the SDGs was confirmed in *GRALE 3*, which, alongside survey data from 139 countries, also reviewed evidence on the benefits of ALE in areas such as health and well-being, employment and the labour market, and social, civic and community life (UIL, 2016). It recommended increased levels of cross-sectoral coordination and collaboration in governance, along with increasing stakeholder engagement and the elimination of information barriers to gathering higher-quality data on ALE in countries, all concerns that are still valid today. Its findings on the contribution of ALE to civic participation and community cohesion helped to inform the decision to include a special focus on citizenship in *GRALE 5*.

GRALE 4 was launched in 2019 based on data from 159 countries (UIL, 2019). It looked closely at opportunities and barriers to ALE participation according to social justice concerns and, for the first time, allowed a systematic analysis of the three RALE domains of ALE. This produced a clear set of findings on who was participating in learning and in which forms of learning, and therefore who was yet to benefit fully from the outcomes of learning identified in *GRALE 3*. *GRALE 4* also showed that ALE for active citizenship and community cohesion attracted relatively little policy attention.

Based on the evidence, a key recommendation was that more financial investment was needed to ensure that ALE quality is spread evenly across all fields of learning; the domain of ALE for active and global citizenship particularly merited closer attention.

GRALE 5, with 159[1] national responses, presents a general international stocktaking of ALE progress and the financial mechanisms to reach learners in most need, and additionally provides the rigorous overview of citizenship learning that was called for in *GRALE 4*. In terms of the three RALE domains, it reports continued evidence of increased policy attention to literacy and basic skills, as well as to technical and vocational education and training (TVET), but confirms the ongoing neglect of ALE for active citizenship and offers case studies and examples of good practice, as well as recommendations for making the most of ALE's contribution to democracy, environmental understanding and the protection of human rights.

GRALE 5 therefore builds on the earlier reports, and benefits from the improved approach to data collection that has developed over time. Like the earlier reports, its purpose is three-fold. In addition to serving as a monitoring mechanism and a means of exploring citizenship education for adult learners in depth, it lays the groundwork for discussions in the lead-up to and during CONFINTEA VII, which will take place in June 2022. The ultimate aim of *GRALE 5* is to increase awareness of ALE across the globe, among many different stakeholders, and to stimulate more active interest from policy-makers. It provides examples of innovation and good practice, as well as giving an evidence base for evaluating international progress. It also provides evidence to support efforts to further realize the integrated and holistic contribution of ALE to achieving SDG 4, especially in light of the goal's central focus on lifelong learning and the wider sustainability agenda, with the potential for amplifying benefits far beyond any targets for adult learners.

In 2016, the international community committed to the Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action, the foundational document for laying out transformative priorities of SDG 4 (UNESCO, 2015a). SDG 4 calls on countries to 'ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all', and the Incheon Declaration expanded on what this implied for lifelong learning for all. While RALE and the BFA provide a framework for reviewing progress since *GRALE 1*, this assessment is also underpinned by the broad values of equity and inclusion as expressed in SDG 4 and the Incheon Declaration.

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1 One additional response of qualitative data only was used in this report.

ALE represents a major resource for achieving SDG 4 and for contributing to the success of the other 16 SDGs. Yet, in spite of improvements in some countries, ALE often remains marginal and under-funded and its contribution to the SDGs remains far from optimal. *GRALE 4* challenged policy-makers and other actors to put adult learning and education at the centre of their efforts to achieve sustainable economies and societies and recognize its key role in developing integrated, holistic solutions to the problems we face (UIL, 2019, p. 17).

We are still facing that challenge. Given the diverse and overlapping roles that adults occupy in society, ranging from leaders, researchers, managers and entrepreneurs to heads of households, breadwinners, parents, teachers and caregivers, community members, and arbiters of culture, it is essential to invest in them if the SDGs are to be achieved.

Policy

Over the last 12 years, increasing numbers of countries around the world have reported policies that have strengthened political commitment to ALE, yet implementation often remains a challenge. Twelve years ago, while most countries had national policies covering ALE, there were massive regional differences. With few exceptions, that position has improved steadily, and although the lower-income countries are still the least likely to report such policies, the coverage between world regions today is much more even. Having more of these policies and legal frameworks in place indicates overall progress, and provides a basis for learning from experience elsewhere. Policy development for recognition, validation and accreditation (RVA) of non-formal and informal learning and national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) is emerging strongly, and these can be important instruments for promoting and widening participation in lifelong learning. Today, there is a continued strong focus on policies for literacy and basic skills, along with policies for increasing investment and participation in vocational skills; yet these policies and the legal frameworks that underpin them, commendable though they are, do not cover the full vision for adult education called for in the BFA and RALE, involving a life-wide and lifelong learning perspective and tackling the complexities of social disadvantage. In particular, countries are failing to recognize ALE's contribution to active civic participation and community cohesion.

Improved vocational skills are a means to alleviate poverty, which is the first goal of Agenda 2030. Alleviating poverty must be part of a larger discussion that links a lack of educational opportunity to limited economic opportunity, uneven access to financial

resources and greater exposure to the risks of climate change. Efforts to alleviate poverty should be sensitive to differences in gender, ethnicity, location, legal status, disability and religion, which may be markers of social disadvantage. Not having adequate literacy, numeracy and basic skills is another marker of social disadvantage, one which limits individuals' ability to realize their full right to education, as well as other rights. The conceptual framework behind *GRALE 1* highlighted the significance of ALE to the achievement of the social impacts of development in all countries (UIL, 2009). RALE emphasizes that 'Member States … should develop comprehensive, inclusive and integrated policies for adult learning' (UNESCO, 2016, p. 8). Principles of equity, diversity, inclusion and dignity are threaded throughout the BFA, RALE and SDGs.

Distributing social opportunities more fairly is necessary for building social cohesion, which is a moral imperative of active/global citizenship education for adults (UNESCO, 2016). Discussed extensively in *GRALE 3*, work in the area of active citizenship education for adults must continue for ALE gender-responsive policy to successfully influence life outcomes of individuals, communities and societies around the world, which, in addition to economic development, means raising levels of health, well-being, social mobility and empowerment. It also means increasing adult learners' willingness to make informed decisions based on accurate information and to take civic action on the major challenges of today such as climate change, pandemics, migration and populism. Evidence of the social and environmental benefits of ALE, clearly demonstrated in *GRALE 3*, can and should make a solid argument for ALE policy and offer direction for reform (UIL, 2009).

The COVID-19 pandemic has made clear what education in emergencies had already taught us – that ALE policies must address the digital divide that prevented many people from continuing their learning as classrooms and many ALE programmes closed due to health restrictions. While the digital revolution has enabled billions of people to participate in adult education when, where and how they want to, not everyone has been able to participate. The issue goes beyond internet infrastructure, although that is still a major problem – and not only in low-income countries and remote communities. Other issues include the capacity of governments and institutions to set up and offer high-quality, gender-responsive digital learning opportunities for adults and whether open-access resources, content, assessments and textbooks are being adequately designed and utilized.

The Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action indicates that technologies 'must be harnessed to strengthen education systems, knowledge dissemination, [and] information access' (UNESCO, 2015a, p. 8). RALE prioritizes using information and communication technologies (ICTs) in adult education for their potential benefits and to promote equity and inclusion among disadvantaged groups (UNESCO, 2016). Yet *GRALE 4* pointed out that in developing countries many women and older adults are excluded from digital learning opportunities, and in developed countries women often have lower ICT skills compared to men (UIL, 2019). Policy changes in the past 12 years have benefited millions of adults world-wide, yet millions of adults worldwide still lack basic literacy and numeracy skills, two-thirds of them women (UIL, n.d. b). Much has been achieved, but there is much more to be done.

Governance

Governance allows for policies to be implemented and enacted by engaging a broad range of actors, non-governmental and private as well as governmental, in order to implement policy. In 2009, *GRALE 1* concluded that 'the "command and control" model of organisation and governance remains predominant, undermining local autonomy and flexibility and lowering civil society participation' (UIL, 2009, p. 30). In adopting RALE, UNESCO required Member States to 'consider enhancing the governance of adult learning and education, including through strengthening or creating cooperative structures and participatory processes, such as multi-stakeholder partnerships, at local, national, regional and international levels' (UNESCO, 2016). CONFINTEA VI called for governance to be included in the regular monitoring of ALE, and in the following years there was evidence of different countries' broad and varied mechanisms of coordination of diverse stakeholders.

It is encouraging to see that over the last 12 years of GRALE, three-quarters of participating countries reported overall progress on ALE governance. Reporting has mainly focused on the extent to which progress has been made in efforts to establish or improve cooperation and coordination among different government ministries and institutions and between sectors that deliver on ALE policy objectives. Measurement has also looked at ways to support and track processes for quality assurance and equity (e.g. through capacity building and monitoring approaches). Countries indicated progress on different aspects of ALE governance based on the BFA's underlying emphasis on involving all relevant stakeholders (UIL, 2010). The *GRALE 5* survey showed that progress in governance in recent years continues to be most pronounced in low-income and upper middle-income countries and in the sub-Saharan Africa and Asia and Pacific regions.

Regardless of the form of government, involving all relevant stakeholders in ALE governance (always assuring a gender-balanced representation) can achieve diverse benefits for the sector. It enables delivery efforts to be more relevant to local demand and contextualized according to local traditions, social practices and learners' personal interests and ambitions. It also supports a more transparent (UIL, 2019), inclusive and, therefore, wider and presumably diversified approach to ALE provision, in line with the SDGs (ALE governance does not directly show up in the SDGs, yet SDG 16, Target 16.7 calls on Member States to 'Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels' [UN, 2015, p. 30]). Involving stakeholders – including learners – may also help to avoid unnecessary overlaps in ALE provision. If coordinated well, using synergies through decentralized approaches and mechanisms, this approach helps to make ALE governance more efficient (which is important since budgets are notoriously low for this work and must be used effectively).

Most countries in *GRALE 5* reported increased engagement with civil society. Bringing civil society organizations into ALE governance structures and systems in countries is extremely important, especially for excluded or marginalized individuals. Civil society may be viewed as fundamental to filling the gap in provision – it can work alongside government and offer support through flexible initiatives, incentives and relevance of provision. Effective cooperation among stakeholders to complement and even amplify adult learning efforts can be a win-win for achieving policy goals and inclusive, equity-driven development that does not leave certain groups behind. More supportive instruments are increasingly available. An example is to mainstream educational opportunities and employment by developing an agreement of standards and mechanisms of recognition, validation and accreditation (RVA).

In 2009, governance frameworks were often seen as 'fuzzy' in their arrangements and processes (UIL, 2009) due to the diverse and cross-cutting nature of ALE provision, in contrast to educational services offered to children and youth in school environments; it also often involves the involvement of multiple ministries to reach different development objectives. While we have information about progress in areas of cooperation, collaboration and capacity building, we cannot be sure that the evidence collected represents all governance activities across ministries or with external and international stakeholders. Governance encompasses such aspects as transparency in finance, accountability relations between stakeholders, and monitoring and evaluation. Governance cannot be examined and understood in isolation from other areas of the BFA. The challenge is to identify data needs and analytical

methodologies that can capture the dynamics of governance both nationally and globally.

For instance, the current GRALE cycle shows that 83% of participating countries consider stakeholder participation to have increased, with the spread falling slightly in sub-areas including improved intersectoral coordination and inter-ministerial cooperation, and dropping further in relation to transnational cooperation (though still over half of countries reported this). Today, we can see marked differences between the nature of governance in vocational education and training, on the one hand, and literacy/basic skills, on the other. The different dynamics of stakeholder participation merit closer investigation. It would be useful to further study the role of actors, partnerships and processes and mechanisms for the governance of ALE in order to improve policy frameworks.

Capacity building is another important aspect of ALE governance mentioned in the BFA (UIL, 2010). It is particularly important in engaging the most marginalized. *GRALE 2* emphasized the need to develop capacities of those involved and responsible for ALE governance at all levels, which is more complex than other areas of social governance because of the 'wide distribution of responsibilities, and the involvement of a myriad of governmental, nongovernmental and private sector stakeholders', but found that capacity-building efforts were often 'short-term' or 'piecemeal … such as national conferences or workshops' (UIL, 2013, pp. 71f.), and insufficient to develop a critical mass of individual and organizational capabilities in ALE governance. Public funding also limited provision of streamlined capacity building and training support. *GRALE 4* showed evidence that capacity-building initiatives were being strengthened, a trend that continues today.

GRALE 5 also highlights the important place of monitoring and evaluation in the governance of ALE. The role of monitoring and evaluation (M&E) in decentralizing ALE governance had already been raised in 2013, and subsequent reports confirmed that effective M&E can support quality assurance, as well as equity in access, participation and learning to ensure that spending matches with established policy objectives, inefficiencies are reduced, and corruption prevented. In many countries, evidence is required by the media, politicians and taxpayers to support decisions about ALE. It is, of course, critical that 'monitoring activity should not divert scarce resources from delivery' but should be viewed as an integral part of good governance (UIL, 2009, p. 120). M&E as an aspect of ALE governance has significantly increased, from 30% of countries in 2019 to 64% today. This suggests that M&E is becoming a priority, and should be considered as itself a process that involves cooperation between different stakeholders.

Finally, it is important to put the adult learner at the centre of ALE governance intentions. Since 2015, countries have continued to report increasing decentralization of ALE governance so that there is now greater involvement by non-state stakeholders such as civil society and development partners. Both the BFA and RALE also emphasized the importance of involving adult learners, especially from vulnerable groups, in ALE decision-making and planning processes. The Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action states that 'democratization of decision-making processes is expected to increase, with the voices and priorities of citizens reflected in the development and implementation of education policies at all levels' (UNESCO, 2015a, pp. 57–58). This view of governance could serve as a foundation for future policy commitments.

Financing

Overall spending on ALE has increased since CONFINTEA VI, a trend particularly noticeable between 2015 and 2018. Pronounced progress was reported from 2009 to 2014, with almost half of participating countries mentioning increases to ALE financing (UIL, 2016). After *GRALE 3*, most countries reported that ALE financing had remained unchanged, though around half of respondents in *GRALE 5* say they have plans to increase it in the future. The overall message for the last 12 years, then, is that while there has been increased investment in ALE, progress appears now to have stalled and investment remains well below the level judged necessary in the BFA.

The picture, though, is not altogether clear. In spite of the undertaking in 2015 to 'mobilize and allocate sufficient financial resources to support enhanced and successful participation in adult learning and education' (UNESCO, 2016, p. 10), many countries simply do not know what they spend on ALE, let alone have robust information on sources of non-governmental funding. In *GRALE 3*, 24 countries reported not having figures available on education expenditure, while 19 did not respond to this question (together these represent 31% of the 139 countries participating) (UIL, 2016, p. 45). In *GRALE 4*, 14% of participating countries could not provide information on whether there were changes to ALE spending as a proportion of public education spending (UIL, 2019). In *GRALE 5*, over 25% of participating countries do not know the percentage of public education spending on ALE.

It is important to acknowledge and celebrate progress on ALE financing. However, we should remain aware of the four critical factors that influence both ALE financing and our understanding of it. First, ALE funding can often be embedded within budgets for general education. The budget for ALE tends to be comparatively small, as education ministries tend to focus on compulsory education for children and youth, as well as higher education. Second, when ALE is embedded within other non-education ministries its spending tends to be absorbed into other programmes such as social policy and protection, labour market support, or health. Third, most sources of funding for ALE reflect government spending and not that of other stakeholders (including self-financing by adult learners), which means that the level of investment tends to be understated (UIL, 2009). Fourth, even if ALE spending has increased overall, it has not increased in all countries, nor per capita, and not at the rate of international commitments made in the BFA. CONFINTEA V recommended that Member States should 'seek investment of at least 6% of GNP in education, and working towards increased investment in adult learning and education', a commitment that was confirmed at CONFINTEA VI (UNESCO and UIE, 1997; UIL, 2010, p. 7). Even allowing for the fact that many countries are unable to provide figures, only 22 (15%) in *GRALE 5* reported that at least 4% of public education spending was allocated to investment in ALE. There is considerable progress to make in achieving the level of investment required for ALE to realize fully its contribution to the SDGs.

GRALE 2 identified two other major factors explaining low investment in ALE. It cites the decision to include only two of the Education for All (EFA) Goals in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – those on universal primary schooling and gender parity at school – as reducing overall visibility, political will and mobilization for investment in ALE (UIL, 2013). Also, the global financial crisis in 2008 made it more difficult to invest in ALE policies, expand learning opportunities and widen participation to the most marginalized (UIL, 2013). While it is too early to know for certain how the pandemic has affected investment in ALE, both from governments and from other stakeholders, it is clear that a number of donor countries are not yet meeting their commitments to contribute at least 0.7% of GDP in aid to developing countries and that the immediate demands of the pandemic have affected spending priorities.

Looking ahead to CONFINTEA VII, then, there is a mixed picture on ALE finance. Overall investment levels have increased for at least part of the period. While 40–53% of countries participating in *GRALE 5* prioritize youth, the unemployed, women, former prisoners and other disadvantaged adults in ALE financing, it is questionable whether existing resources are enough to make a significant difference to persistent and entrenched inequalities. In some cases, such as that of Indigenous peoples, many countries still say that they do not know whether this group is prioritized in ALE financing. So,

while most countries appear to have made progress in ALE financing, with many impressive and innovative examples of best practice, there is huge variation between countries, and the fact is that many countries do not really know how much is spent, by whom and on whom. Overall, the basic message appears to be that ALE remains under-funded and needs a greater focus on the most marginalized.

Quality

GRALE has always sought information about quality of ALE, but the precise focus of attention has changed over time. The structured approach used in *GRALE 2* was further refined in *GRALE 3*, which included seeking information on such aspects as completion rates for adult learners and qualifications structures for ALE staff. For *GRALE 4*, results were analysed according to the three dimensions of provision identified in RALE. The findings suggest that the majority of countries have achieved major improvements in ALE quality over the 12-year period.

Since 2009, noteworthy improvements in ALE quality include more relevant and gender-sensitive curricula, better trained and paid educators, improved assessment and more flexible modes of access, all key markers of quality. A majority of countries reported progress in these areas in both *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5*. There has also, unsurprisingly, been evidence of increased use of information and communications technologies for ALE. About 75% of countries reported progress in capturing output from the learning process for adults, in other words learning outcomes evidenced through different forms of assessments. For example, over 60% of participating countries in *GRALE 5* reported analysing learning outcomes from ALE, an increase from *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 3*.

GRALE 2 highlighted how 'identification of learning outcomes is important to increase transparency, flexibility and accountability of systems and institutions; to facilitate learning and support the individual learner; and to clarify the objectives and aims for learners as well as for teachers and administrators' (UIL, 2013, p. 134). *GRALE 1* made similar arguments, suggesting that this required greater attention in terms of ALE financing (UIL, 2009). A connected development is the growing number of countries reporting improved mechanisms for recognizing and accrediting prior learning, including recognition and validation of learning in non-formal and informal settings. However, both *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5* suggest that innovation and attention to quality are highest in the domains of TVET and literacy/basic skills, with considerably less attention given to developing ALE for active citizenship.

Teaching is considered the heart of the learning process, both for ALE and education generally. Progress on developing relevant teaching methodologies ranges between over 65% this cycle and above 70% in *GRALE 4* (UIL, 2019). Further, both the coverage and quality of pre-service and in-service training have been reported as increasing in *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5*. Progress on working conditions has, though, been patchy, with relatively low levels of progress reported in low-income and lower middle-income countries; these are, moreover, the regions where countries tend to start from a relatively weak baseline.

Making aggregated assessments of ALE quality is challenging because of the diversity and plurality, and sometimes decentralized and deregulated nature, of the field – not to mention the variety of learners' aims – across national and regional settings. GRALE data collection has established a baseline for monitoring and evaluating countries' approaches. Overall, the findings show growing attention to quality over the 12-year period, with significant investment in curriculum development, improving materials and assessment procedures and developing teaching/learning methodologies. There has also been some progress on improving teaching quality and in securing employment conditions of teachers/facilitators. These areas were the focus of deliberation at CONFINTEA VI, which recognized quality in ALE as 'a holistic, multidimensional concept and practice that demands constant attention and continuous development' (UIL, 2010, p. 8). Successive GRALE reports have demonstrated continuing improvement since then, but in a changing context in which more people are required to learn across their lives the world of ALE is unlikely to stand still.

Participation

Access and participation have long been among the central challenges facing ALE. Overall participation rates are too low if ALE is to fulfil its potential contribution, and participation is much lower among some groups than others. Unequal participation means unequal access to the benefits of ALE, whether these be the basic functional skills of literacy and numeracy investigated in *GRALE 2*, or the wider benefits of employment, prosperity, well-being, health and civic engagement that were explored in *GRALE 3*. Yet. as *GRALE 4* amply demonstrated, participation is stubbornly low among some parts of the population, including those (such as migrant workers and refugees) who may need ALE the most.

Overall, the GRALE reports suggest that participation in ALE has risen over the 12-year period. *GRALE 5* shows that increased participation has been particularly

marked in the literacy/basic skills domain and TVET, with a clear if less marked growth in ALE for active citizenship. There have also been improvements in the number of countries that collect information on participation levels, perhaps partly as a consequence of the special focus on participation in *GRALE 4*.

From an equity perspective, it is heartening to see that participation rates have risen significantly for some vulnerable groups. *GRALE 4* noted that while women's participation had increased in many countries, and in a number of countries women accounted for a majority of all adult learners, there were also some countries where women have little or no access to education. So far, there is nothing in the responses to GRALE to suggest that the distinction between biologically determined sex and socially determined gender identities has become an issue in monitoring and evaluating ALE participation, though, of course, it may acquire greater significance in the future.

GRALE 4 also reported that the general rise in ALE participation levels was principally fuelled by a growth of employer-led TVET. Those being left behind included migrants and refugees, older adults, adults with disabilities, those living in rural areas, and adults with low previous educational attainment. Today, there is evidence that the adoption of digital technologies for ALE is a further growth factor.

Equity and inclusion in adult education are partly about enabling a more diverse range of people to participate and thus take a full part in the society around them. It is also a question of what and how adults learn, and whether they complete their learning goals as a result of participation. Moving the focus to retention and completion reveals the interplay this area has with quality, in trying to understand whether adult learners believe their participation is worth staying the course or if adjustments are needed to provision. This also links to governance, in determining access to information, guidance, and such support structures as financial aid, childcare and transport, as well as to employment opportunities which allow learners to realize the benefits of participation.

The very first GRALE report stated that 'those who have least education continue to get least' (UIL, 2009, p. 77). Clear gains have been made over the subsequent 12 years, yet *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5* identify three groups that should cause concern. These groups are: people with disabilities; ethnic, linguistic and Indigenous minorities; and migrants, refugees and (internally and externally) displaced people. Global information on ALE participation for them is partial, indeed non-existent in many countries, and if tracked may not be well enough disaggregated to inform strategic policies and actions. Members of these groups are often affected by overlapping factors of disadvantage that can accumulate into a complex web of social issues that ALE does not fully engage with at scale.

CONFINTEA VI argued that in ALE, 'There can be no exclusion arising from age, gender, ethnicity, migrant status, language, religion, disability, rurality, sexual identity or orientation, poverty, displacement or imprisonment. Combating the cumulative effects of multiple disadvantage is of particular importance' (UIL, 2010, p. 8). Successive GRALE reports show that while there have been real and valuable gains over the 12-year period, the question of participation remains central to fulfilling ALE's role in an equitable and inclusive – and therefore effective – manner.

Conclusion

GRALE fosters self-reflection, dialogue and mutual learning on how to measure ALE and improve policies and practice, and provides a critical resource for advocacy and reform. This meets the specific mandate given to UNESCO by CONFINTEA VI to develop a monitoring and reporting mechanism that would provide a 'knowledge management system to compile data and case studies of good practice' and 'guidelines on all learning outcomes, including those acquired through non-formal and informal learning' (UIL, 2010). That mechanism has been realized in the form of the five GRALE reports, which have provided data on the five areas of action identified by the BFA and across the three domains of ALE recognized by RALE.

In terms of policy, the period has seen plenty of activity, though not all of it has been, in the spirit of Belém, 'integrated within a lifelong and life-wide learning perspective'. Rather, we have seen a deepening of the tendency among Member States to adopt a limited interpretation of ALE, one that focuses largely or exclusively on its instrumental value, particularly in terms of enhancing employability and promoting economic growth. This approach undervalues the wider and deeper benefits of ALE in terms of health, wellbeing, social cohesion and – as this report specifically emphasizes – civic participation. It also largely ignores the huge potential of ALE to help redress social inequity, gender inequality and exclusion.

Policy commitments are easily made, but the ultimate test of that commitment is how Member States govern those policies. Governance goes beyond implementation, to include transparency of financing, accountability between stakeholders and monitoring and evaluation. One of the main challenges to ALE governance identified in successive GRALE reports is the cross-cutting nature of ALE provision, compared to formal schooling of children and youth. ALE is typically

governed by multiple ministries and departments, each with differing objectives. It also relies a lot more on engagement with civil society and other stakeholders. This fragmented governance, while challenging, need not be an obstacle to quality provision. The key, as the GRALE reports have shown, is to involve a broad range of gender-balanced stakeholders – including learners – in ALE decision-making and planning.

While spending on ALE appears to have increased globally throughout the current CONFINTEA cycle, there is a worrying lack of transparency regarding allocation and budgeting, largely due to the fragmentation of ALE governance. Because ALE funding is so disparate – in addition to the state, sources include the private sector, civil society, international aid and self-financing by learners – the GRALE reports have struggled to accurately portray the funding landscape. To compensate for this gap in monitoring, the reports have advocated strongly for increased public funding of ALE, including through innovative mechanisms such as debt swaps and public-private partnerships (PPPs), emphasizing the added value of ALE in terms of helping Member States meet their commitments under, first, the MDGs and now the SDGs.

Roughly three-quarters of countries participating in *GRALE 5* reported progress on improving the quality of ALE, mainly through curricula and learning materials and the use of ICT. In the past 12 years we have entered what many now refer to as the fourth industrial revolution, driven by quantum leaps in IT and artificial intelligence (AI). This revolution is having a huge impact on all aspects of ALE – but particularly on quality and participation. Cognizant of the fact that it is extremely difficult to reach global evaluations of ALE quality because of the diversity and plurality of provision, one

clear trend has emerged from the GRALE reports – teaching is still the beating heart of the learning process and it is only by supporting and professionalizing ALE educators that a sustainable increase in quality (as measured, for example, by learning outcomes) is possible.

In looking ahead to CONFINTEA VII, one of the key messages from *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5* is that ALE has a strong and measurable impact on active citizenship, political voice, social cohesion, gender equality, and diversity and tolerance, and therefore benefits our social and community life. It also has a positive impact on learners' life chances in terms of health, well-being and employment. Making the most of that contribution means clear political commitment and adequate resourcing, as well as a focus on quality and equity. It also requires effective advocacy and support.

Perhaps the greatest challenge in ALE remains that of reaching those who need it most. In all countries, participation in ALE is highest among those who already have a solid educational base and income, while, conversely, 'those who have least education continue to get least' (UIL, 2009, p. 77). This has the effect of deepening inequality and stifling the potential of ALE to bring about social transformation. Yet, the GRALE reports have also offered considerable grounds for hope, with overall participation rising and a particular spike in women's participation. The reports have shown that it is not enough merely to make ALE offerings available; they must be accessible, gender-responsive and relevant to the broadest possible spectrum of the population. The success in reaching women is commendable; the lessons learned from this must be extended to migrants, people with disability, Indigenous learners, older people and other marginalized groups.

PART 1

MONITORING THE BELÉM FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION AND RALE
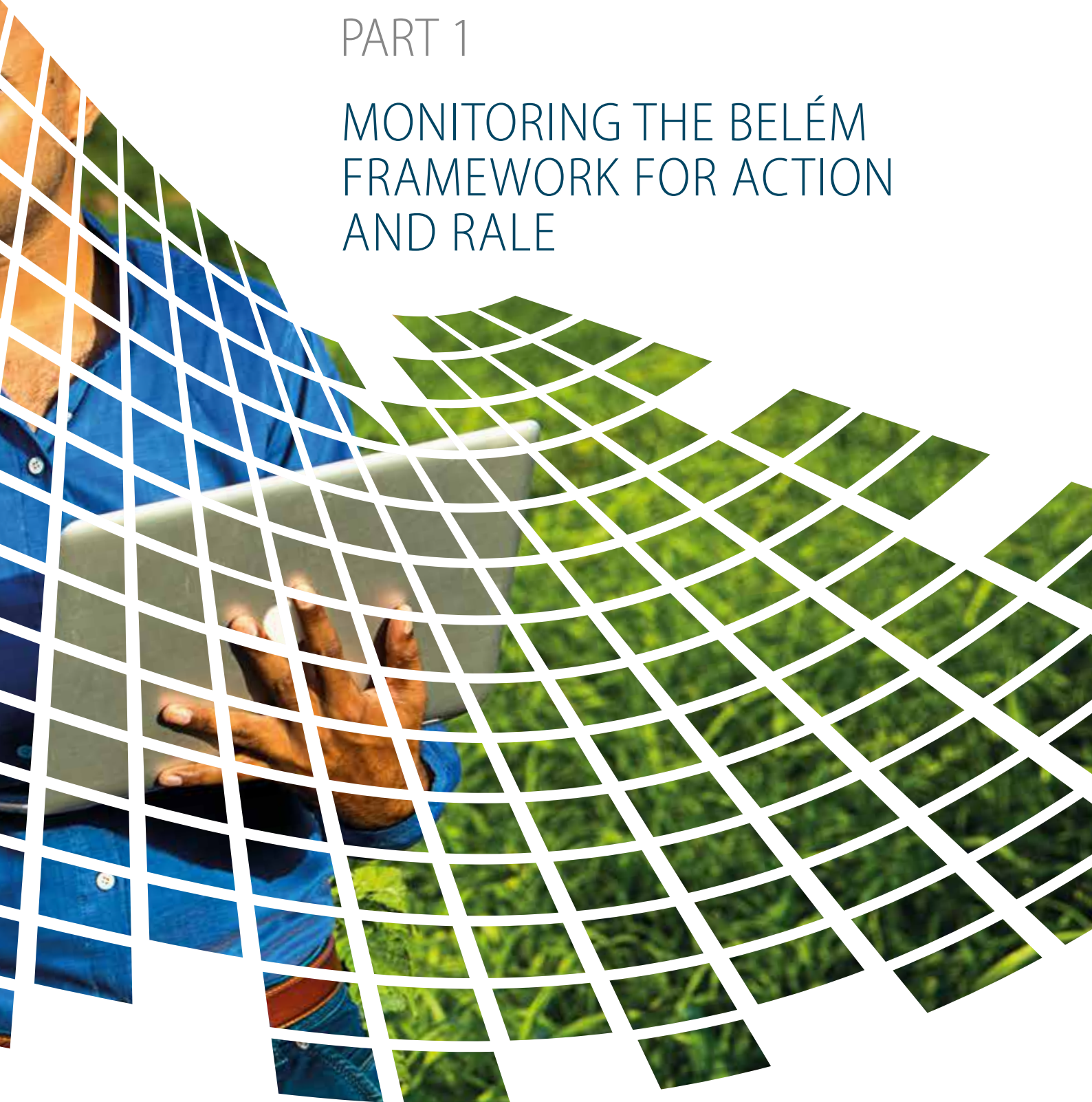
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) is a monitoring tool built to track the implementation of the Belém Framework for Action (BFA) (see **Box 1.1**), adopted by 144 UNESCO Member States at the sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) in 2009, and the Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (RALE), adopted by UNESCO Member States in 2015. The tool, based on a mixed quantitative and qualitative survey, has been developed over five cycles and is administered by UIL in consultation with the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), with input from experts and external partners in the field.

The first Global Report was published in 2009 and served as a central input to the Sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI). *GRALE 1* built on five regional synthesis reports to help delegates better understand the situation of adult learning and education in 154 participating countries. The second report, published in 2013, focused on literacy and was based on data submitted by 141 countries. The third report was published in 2016, based on a survey involving 139 countries. In addition to looking at the economic benefits of adult learning and education, it focused on the non-economic benefits, particularly around health and social and civic engagement.

BOX 1.1
The BFA commitment to following-up and monitoring adult learning and education (ALE) nationally and internationally

'…we commit ourselves to the following accountability and monitoring measures. We acknowledge the need for valid and reliable quantitative and qualitative data to inform our policy-making in adult learning and education. Working with our partners to design and implement regular recording and tracking mechanisms at national and international levels is paramount in realising the *Belém Framework for Action*' (UIL, 2010, p. 9).

This includes:

'(a) investing in a process to develop a set of comparable indicators for literacy as a continuum and for adult education;

(b) regularly collecting and analysing data and information on participation and progression in adult education programmes, disaggregated by gender and other factors, to evaluate change over time and to share good practice;

(c) establishing a regular monitoring mechanism to assess the implementation of the commitments to CONFINTEA VI;

… and to produce, on this basis, the *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (GRALE) at regular intervals…' (ibid.).

GRALE 4, which was published in 2019 on the basis of responses from 159 countries, focused on opportunities to participate fully in adult learning and on the role of ALE in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

GRALE 5 was designed to monitor and track progress among UNESCO Member States in the three fundamental domains of ALE: literacy and basic skills, continuing education and vocational skills, and liberal, popular and community education and citizenship skills (see **Box 1.2**). The monitoring tool for *GRALE 5* is a self-reporting survey adapted from *GRALE 3* and *GRALE 4*.

BOX 1.2
UNESCO Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education

'The aim of adult learning and education is to equip people with the necessary capabilities to exercise and realize their rights and take control of their destinies. It promotes personal and professional development, thereby supporting more active engagement by adults with their societies, communities and environments. It fosters sustainable and inclusive economic growth and decent work prospects for individuals. It is therefore a crucial tool in alleviating poverty, improving health and well-being and contributing to sustainable learning societies.'
(UNESCO, 2016, para. 8)

1.1
GRALE 5 SURVEY

The survey used a combination of closed and open-ended questions covering the five areas of action found in the BFA and RALE. Of particular relevance for *GRALE 5* was the introduction of a set of indicators on the financing of ALE, which enable understanding of which ministries control most of the budget for ALE, whether ALE is co-funded through international aid or by the private sector, and the relevance of these funding sources for ALE budgeting. Another refinement of the *GRALE 5* survey compared to previous iterations was the inclusion of more open-ended questions, allowing respondents to illustrate changes with specific examples.

Responses to closed questions were calculated as percentages for quantitative reporting of the main findings and trends in the form of tables, figures and charts. All results are disaggregated by UNESCO region and according to levels of economic development (based on the World Bank's income groups). Open-ended responses are used to provide more information on progress and to showcase practices that have proven effective. As with previous GRALE reports, practical examples are included where these are comprehensive and clearly demonstrate links to specific ALE activities. Finally, it is important to note that the survey for *GRALE 5* coincided with the start of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. In order to avoid conflating changes in ALE with measures adopted to contain the pandemic, all countries were requested to report only for the period from January 2018 to December 2019. This represented a slight change from previous reporting rounds where countries were permitted to include actions up until the completion date of the survey (this would have been August/September 2020 for *GRALE 5*). Respondents were also requested not to provide responses that considered the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on ALE. This information was captured in a special section. In addition, another special section was devoted to citizenship education.

1.2
PARTICIPATION IN THE SURVEY

The rate and quality of responses to current and past GRALE surveys have been key factors in understanding how the global and regional landscapes of adult learning and education change over time. A total of 159 UNESCO Member States and Associate Members participated in the *GRALE 5* survey, the same number as for *GRALE 4* (**Table 1.1**).

Among the five UNESCO global regions, participation was lowest in Asia and the Pacific at 68% (32 out of 47 countries, compared to 39 countries from this region that participated in *GRALE 4*). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the participation rate was 74% (26 out of 35 countries, similar to *GRALE 4* when 27 countries participated). The participation rate for sub-Saharan Africa was 80% (37 out of 46 countries, which exceeded the participation rate of 72% for *GRALE 4*). For the Arab States, the participation rate in both *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5* was very high, with 19 of the 20 countries in the region participating in both surveys. Finally, 92% of countries (44 of 48) in Europe and North America participated in *GRALE 5*, up from 87.5% for *GRALE 4*.

The participation rates in countries classified as 'low income' and 'lower middle income' both increased by five percentage points since *GRALE 4*, to 76% and 95%, respectively. **Table 1.1** shows that the participation rate for high-income countries has not changed since *GRALE 4*, with 51 out of 59 countries responding. For countries classified as 'upper middle income', the participation rate has fallen since *GRALE 4* by six percentage points, with 42 of 56 countries reporting in *GRALE 5*, compared to 46 countries that responded to the *GRALE 4* survey. Given the challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic, the participation of 159 countries represents a strong sample to monitor changes in the global situation of ALE since 2018. The number of countries that responded to the survey and the percentage of the total responses this number represents are presented in **Table 1.1**.

TABLE 1.1
Participation of countries in *GRALE 5*, by region and by country income groups

	All Member States*	Member States that submitted *GRALE 5* information	Participation rate %
WORLD	197	159	81%
REGIONAL GROUPS			
Sub-Saharan Africa	46	37	80%
Arab States	20	19	95%
Asia and the Pacific	47	32	68%
Europe and North America	48	44	92%
Latin America and the Caribbean	35	26	74%
INCOME GROUPS			
Low income	34	26	76%
Lower middle income	46	39	85%
Upper middle income	56	42	75%
High income	59	51	86%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey
* Member States that submitted GRALE 5 information

In considering the responses, it is important to note that countries were approached via their UNESCO National Commissions with the request to submit data from any government ministries involved in delivering ALE. **Table 1.2** shows which government ministries provided input to the *GRALE 5* survey. Overall, countries reported more participation by government ministries in *GRALE 5* compared to *GRALE 4*. For instance, there has been a five percentage point increase in the participation rate of ministries of education since *GRALE 4*, from 85% of countries reporting that the ministry of education provided input for *GRALE 4* to 90% for *GRALE 5*. Similarly, input from ministries of social affairs increased by two percentage points since *GRALE 4*, reaching 20% for *GRALE 5*. Additionally, 11% of countries reported inputs from their ministry of health and 19% reported input from their ministry of labour for *GRALE 5* (up by four and five points since *GRALE 4*, respectively).

Seventy-nine per cent of countries in the Arab States reported input from their ministries of education (see **Table 1.2**). Participation rates for ministries of education ranged between 89% and 94% in other regions. **Table 1.2** also shows that input from ministries of social affairs was low in Asia and the Pacific (7% of countries) and Europe and North America (12%) but relatively high in sub-Saharan Africa (37%) and the Arab States (29%).

Input from ministries of health varied substantially across regions, with low rates in the Arab States (6%), Europe and North America (5%) and Latin America and the Caribbean (4%), and higher rates in sub-Saharan Africa (20%) and Asia and the Pacific (17%). Input from ministries of labour was fairly uniform across the regions, in a range from 14% to 18%, with the exception of Europe and North America, where 28% of the countries received input.

The *GRALE 5* survey showed an increase in reported input from ministries of education compared to *GRALE 4*. This increase was most notable among low-income countries, where there was a 10 percentage point increase in the number of countries reporting input (from 75% for *GRALE 4* to 85% for *GRALE 5*). More low- and middle-income countries reported input from ministries of social affairs compared to *GRALE 4*, while the proportion of high-income countries reporting input decreased from 16% for *GRALE 4* to 10% for *GRALE 5*. Reported input from ministries of health also increased among low- and middle-income countries from *GRALE 4* to *GRALE 5*, while among high-income countries the rate remained stable at 6%. Finally, there had been a significant increase in input from ministries of labour since *GRALE 4*, particularly among low-income countries, rising from 8% to 17% of countries. The proportion of upper middle-income countries reporting input from ministries of labour also increased, from 7% to 17%.

TABLE 1.2
Government ministries' participation in the *GRALE 5* survey

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Education	Social affairs	Health	Labour
WORLD	158	90%	20%	20%	19%
REGIONAL GROUPS					
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	92%	37%	20%	18%
Arab States	19	79%	29%	6%	18%
Asia and the Pacific	31	94%	7%	17%	14%
Europe and North America	44	89%	12%	5%	28%
Latin America and the Caribbean	26	92%	20%	4%	16%
INCOME GROUPS					
Low income	26	85%	33%	17%	17%
Lower middle income	39	95%	19%	14%	17%
Upper middle income	41	88%	24%	10%	17%
High income	51	90%	10%	6%	25%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Table 1.3 shows the degree of participation by civil society and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the survey. Overall, about half of the participating countries (49%) reported that non-governmental ALE organizations or agencies participated in the survey. Also important was participation by ALE providers, which was reported by 43% of countries. This represents a significant increase in engagement by such organizations since the last report. Participation by NGOs also increased significantly, from 24% of countries for *GRALE 4* to 35% for *GRALE 5*.

Seventy per cent of Member States from sub-Saharan Africa reported input from ALE agencies; the proportion of countries in other regions was 55% or less. Participation by ALE providers was higher in sub-Saharan Africa (59% of countries reporting input from ALE providers) with countries in all other regions reporting 41% input or less from ALE providers. No Arab States reported input from research institutions, while 12% to 22% of countries in the other regions did report input. Reported input from universities was highest in sub-Saharan Africa at 31%, while the lowest percentage was for countries in Asia and the Pacific at 14%. Sub-Saharan Africa reported the largest percentage input from NGOs at 51% of countries, a substantially higher proportion than in other regions. Input from NGOs was lowest in Europe and North America and in Asia and the Pacific at 12% and 17%, respectively. The lowest

level of input from the private sector by region was in Asia and the Pacific at just 3% of countries, while 12% of countries in the Arab States and Europe and North America and 25% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa reported this type of input.

Table 1.3 also shows how the engagement of institutions and stakeholders varies by country income group. While there has generally been a large increase in participation by ALE agencies since *GRALE 4*, the greatest increase was among low-income countries, where participation was reported at 25% in *GRALE 4* and 77% for *GRALE 5*. Engagement by ALE agencies and ALE providers increased since *GRALE 4* in all countries when grouped by income. The participation of research institutions in low-income countries fell by nine percentage points since *GRALE 4*, from 25% to 16%. On the other hand, the participation of research institutions in upper middle-income countries increased by eight points, reaching 17%. The participation of universities only changed substantially among upper middle-income countries, from 17% to 29% of countries. NGO participation in *GRALE 5* increased in all country income groups since *GRALE 4*, which is important when taking into consideration the valuable input of these stakeholders in reporting changes in ALE. Finally, about 20% of low income, low middle-income and upper middle-income countries reported input from the private sector, compared to 4% of high-income countries.

TABLE 1.3
Stakeholders' participation in the *GRALE 5* survey

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	ALE agencies/ organizations	ALE providers	Research	Universities	NGOs	INGOs	Private sector
WORLD	154	49%	43%	17%	23%	35%	20%	15%
REGIONAL GROUPS								
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	70%	59%	22%	31%	51%	32%	25%
Arab States	19	32%	39%	0%	18%	39%	24%	12%
Asia and the Pacific	29	55%	41%	21%	14%	24%	17%	3%
Europe and North America	43	40%	33%	19%	23%	28%	12%	12%
Latin America and the Caribbean	25	36%	40%	12%	28%	32%	20%	20%
INCOME GROUPS								
Low income	26	77%	52%	16%	25%	52%	28%	20%
Lower middle income	38	47%	45%	19%	25%	47%	38%	19%
Upper middle income	41	51%	44%	17%	29%	32%	24%	20%
High income	48	31%	35%	15%	17%	19%	0%	4%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

CHAPTER 2
POLICY

Policies are high-level statements of intent to achieve a vision for national, regional and global development, ideally underwritten by evidence-based research, which guide actions to plan, engage and accredit adult learning within a specific context and according to national priorities. The BFA recommendation on ALE policy is the point of departure for tracking status based on countries' responses to the *GRALE 5* survey (see **Box 1.3**).

BOX 1.3
BFA guidelines for ALE policy

According to the BFA, 'policies and legislative measures for adult education need to be comprehensive, inclusive, integrated within a lifelong and life-wide learning perspective, based on sector-wide and inter-sectoral approaches, covering and linking all components of learning and education.'
(UIL, 2010, p. 7)

The five main principles on designing policy for ALE in relation to the BFA recommendation indicate that ALE is:

- part of the *human right* to education;
- a potential means for marginalized groups to *achieve equity*;
- an opportunity for *learning throughout life* regardless of learning objectives;
- *a comprehensive provision* involving various kinds of learning activities;
- *a long-term approach* to achieve intended outcomes. (UIL, 2010)

2.1
MONITORING ALE POLICY SINCE 2018

The BFA (UIL, 2010) contains the commitments of UNESCO Member States to develop and implement comprehensive policies, plans and legislation for ALE. It also includes a commitment to design specific action plans for ALE that integrate international development priorities to align, for example, with standard-setting instruments such as the SDGs, especially SDG 4. UNESCO Member States are also committed to establishing coordinating mechanisms involving all stakeholders in ALE and, particularly, to institute a system of RVA (recognition, validation and accreditation of non-formal and informal learning) through equivalency frameworks (UIL, 2010, p. 8).

Involving all stakeholders helps to mainstream ALE across different ministries and sectors, and encourages involvement by a diverse set of programme providers, teachers and facilitators, adult learners themselves, or representatives, in policy discussions. Regular engagement of this kind can enhance the visibility, efficiency and effectiveness of ALE policy through knowledge sharing and the co-design of activities that meet local demand and inspire participation. Involving a wide range of stakeholders can also generate a richer pool of ideas on policy reform.

RVA helps to make the knowledge and skills achieved through non-formal and informal learning more visible and socially accepted by establishing equivalencies of learning outcomes that are tied to national qualifications and awards, along with pathways for further learning progression, including options for (re-) entry into formal education. RVA makes an education and learning system more inclusive of learning achieved outside of school, opening up more opportunities to apply learning in ways that can benefit individuals, communities, regions and whole countries.

2.1.1
Overall progress and challenges

Sixty per cent of the 154 countries that responded to the questions on ALE policy reported that it had improved since 2018 (see **Figure 1.1**). Thirty-five per cent reported no changes in ALE policy since 2018, while 5% reported regression in ALE policy since that time. Countries provided specific information on new ALE policy brought forward since 2018. For example, Slovenia adopted a new Adult Education Act in 2018, in addition to strategies on 'development and active ageing' [2] that were agreed the same year. Bosnia and Herzegovina enacted laws on adult education to complete a legislative framework for adult learning and education. Paraguay passed a new law supporting education of women in rural areas, while Niger adopted national policy and several regulatory texts for the ALE sector.

Given the multifaceted nature of ALE (i.e. including formal, non-formal and informal elements) and the fact that a variety of government ministries and civil society agencies are responsible for different aspects of ALE provision, many countries have focused on developing comprehensive legislative frameworks. For example, Jordan developed frameworks for the inclusion of access and equality to non-formal education, lifelong learning and vocational education, while Peru focused on the improvement of alternative basic education, particularly through standards that support enrolment and transfer processes, learning evaluation and curriculum. Most of these policy actions aim to support complementarity, harmony and cohesion of the diverse provision of ALE within countries.

Another important change has been the development or revision of national qualification frameworks (in Azerbaijan, Fiji, Guyana, Honduras, Italy, Kyrgyzstan, Malaysia and Slovakia, among others). Some of the revisions include certification of competences acquired from ALE courses, the assessment of these competences, the available progression pathways for ALE learners achieving these qualifications and better collaboration between ALE providers. In Malaysia, for example, the revisions to the qualifications framework mainly focused on restructuring and strengthening learning outcomes, as well as integrating skills developed via technical and vocational education and training (TVET) rather than higher education. Other countries have aligned national qualification frameworks with regional frameworks, as for example in Honduras (see **Box 1.5**).

Policy development has also focused on equity. Many countries focused on policy improvements to accommodate previously under-represented groups in adult learning (see, for example **Box 1.4**). Iraq's five-year plan for 2018–2022 focused on providing literacy and further training for displaced individuals while the Maldives' non-formal education policy addressed the needs of young people not in education as well as vulnerable adults. France's law reforming apprenticeship and vocational training focused on equity and inclusion, promoting more equitable access by gender and for people with disabilities, while Guyana's draft Education Bill recognizes adult learners with special education needs as a group previously under-represented in ALE provision. The new Jobs and Livelihoods Integrated Response Plan in Uganda focuses on building the skills of refugees and people in host communities. One of the pillars of the plan is to increase access to technical and vocational education institutions to promote market-based training and skills development for refugees and host communities.

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2 Active ageing is defined by the European Commission (n.d.) as 'helping people stay in charge of their own lives for as long as possible as they age and, where possible, to contribute to the economy and society'.

Belgium targets vulnerable adults with cross-cutting reforms

A number of cross-cutting policy reforms support ALE in relation to social mobility and development in Belgium, especially for vulnerable groups. Changes range from adjusting the quality assurance system to funding and the redefining of qualifications. One particularly significant reform addressed equity in the funding of adult education. Thanks to this reform, which came into force on 1 September 2019, centres for adult education contributing to the linguistic integration of adult migrants and providing basic skills for adults receive more resources to support their activities.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Figure 1.1 shows that 47% of countries in the Arab States reported significant progress in ALE policy since 2018, while 56% of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean did so. Over 60% of countries in the other regions reported significant progress in ALE policy since 2018, while just 10% of countries in Asia and the Pacific reported significant regression in ALE policy. Sixty per cent of low-income countries reported significant progress in ALE policy while 16% reported regression. On the other hand, 58% of high-income countries reported significant progress in ALE policy and none reported regression in ALE policy. Many high-income and upper middle-income countries reported no change in ALE policies and only a very small percentage reported policy regression. A much higher percentage of low-income and lower middle-income countries reported significant progress in ALE policy, but, at the same time, a higher proportion reported policy regression since 2018 (see **Figure 1.1**).

Since *GRALE 4*, the percentage of countries reporting significant progress in ALE policy has decreased from 67% to 60%. The proportion of low-income countries reporting significant progress in ALE policy has fallen by 26 points, with a six-point increase in the number of countries reporting regression and a 19-point increase

Figure 1.1
Overall progress on ALE policy since 2018
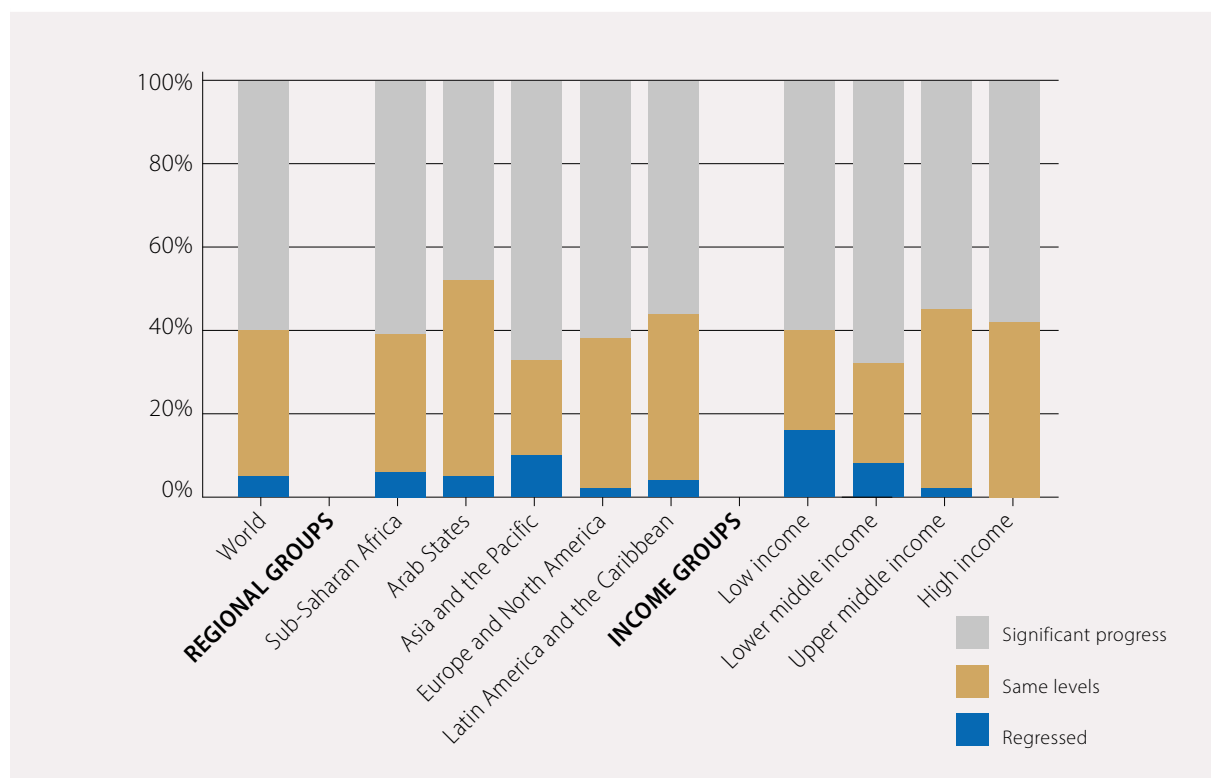
Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey
Responses to the question: 'Overall, would you say that since 2018 your country …is at the same level as in 2018 / …has made significant progress on ALE policy/ …has regressed on ALE policy?'

in the number of countries reporting no change. The proportion of lower middle-income countries reporting progress increased from 58% to 68%, while the number reporting regression increased from 3% to 8%. Forty-three per cent of upper middle-income countries reported no change compared to 34% in *GRALE 4*. No high-income countries reported regression, though the proportion reporting progress since *GRALE 4* fell from 72% to 58%.

Not all countries reported progress in ALE policy: some reported regression in several aspects since 2018. In some cases, lack of progress was due to decisions pending on policies, or decrees or laws that required approval (for example, in Bulgaria, Lebanon and Pakistan). Other issues affecting policy developments include political instability or conflict (Syria), political and social instability (Haiti) and lack of funding to cover implementation costs (Lebanon).

BOX 1.5
Honduras is developing a national qualifications framework

Honduras is developing a national qualifications framework (NQF), which is expected to be fully operational by 2030. This qualifications framework is intended to:

- improve the ability of the education system to respond to the labour market;
- improve the quality and effectiveness of technical and vocational education and training (TVET);
- improve coordination in the TVET sub-system.

Efforts are also being made to develop a regional qualifications framework for Central America and more widely for Latin America. In Honduras, various steps have been taken to harmonize education at ISCED[3] Level

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

2.1.2
Disaggregated progress

Countries were asked about progress in the following disaggregated categories of ALE policy, based on the commitments made in the BFA (UIL, 2010):

- Implementing legislation;
- Developing and implementing policies;
- Developing concrete and specific plans;
- Involving stakeholders;
- Improving RVA of non-formal and informal learning.

As mentioned above, of particular relevance for *GRALE 5* was the addition of national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) as an area of progress in ALE policy. This is an important mechanism to monitor because it can integrate various education and learning pathways, progression opportunities and rewards for adults in specific country settings, and because of its potential to link frameworks between countries, regions and continents.

Table 1.4 shows that most global progress was made in terms of involving stakeholders, with 84% of countries reporting progress in this area. A few countries shared more information about the process of, or the outcomes from, this progress. Cabo Verde, for example, increased stakeholder participation to improve the quality of provision and, therefore, outcomes for learners. Denmark's efforts to involve stakeholders led to a tripartite agreement between the government and social partners to create more flexible adult continuing and further education. The Maldives consulted various stakeholders, including government ministries and NGOs, before developing a draft policy to provide better non-formal learning and training opportunities for young people.

In terms of implementation, 76% of countries reported progress implementing policies and 72% reported progress implementing legislation. Overall, progress with implementation has focused on the improvement of procedures, rules, criteria, tools and verification to ensure that quality training and education is provided by registered and accredited institutions. Some of the progress in implementation involved the development of an NQF as well as qualifications and RVA of prior learning outcomes. Efforts in these areas have focused on understanding learning outcomes and enabling

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3 The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is the framework used to compare statistics on the education systems of countries worldwide. It is an important tool used to facilitate international comparisons and to benchmark and monitor progress on international education goals. It is used to produce comparable data and indicators that reflect today's education priorities and policies. ISCED covers all formal and non-formal education programmes offered at any stage of life. It was first developed by UNESCO in 1976. The classification was updated in 1997, 2011 and 2013 (see http://uis.unesco.org/en/topic/international-standard-classification-education-isced).

> BOX 1.6
> **Iceland's new legislation on folk high schools, recognition of prior learning and the national qualifications framework**
>
> In 2010, Iceland passed its Adult Education Act to support educational services at European Qualifications Framework (EQF) levels 1–3 (NQF 1–2) for improving basic skills, career development and preparation for further studies, training and work. The act was reviewed and revised between 2017 and 2019 in a nationwide process involving collaboration with all relevant stakeholders, social partners and adult learners, but consensus was not reached and discussion continues. However, some progress was made when the Icelandic parliament passed a new act on folk high schools in June 2019. This is considered important in the field of adult learning in Iceland because it creates bridges between informal and formal systems and supports creative approaches and innovative thinking.
>
> Recognition of prior learning (RPL)[4] has been strongly emphasized in Iceland as a part of the Adult Education Act. It specifically helps people who have little formal education but some years of work experience to get their skills validated and recognized as a part of formal qualification in certified trades. RPL is now being developed further in university settings, and new measures are being created to reach the growing number of immigrants to the country. Iceland has an NQF containing seven levels mapped to all school levels and including curriculum and study pathways in adult learning to facilitate RPL. That said, not all ALE courses are mapped onto the NQF.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

progression pathways between formal and non-formal provision (see **Box 1.6** for the example of Iceland). There are strong synergies between recognition of prior learning and the development of national qualifications frameworks, as RVA enables access and progress within the NQF (as reported by Mauritius).

Sixty-one per cent of countries reported progress in developing policy for NQFs. Fiji launched its qualifications framework in 2012 and reviewed it in 2017; to date, the Fiji higher education commission has accredited and registered a total of 478 qualifications. The national department of education of Micronesia made great strides in developing an NQF and is currently putting it through a vetting process. The Guyana national accreditation council finalized and implemented its NQF whereas Azerbaijan adopted one by decree, as did Kyrgyzstan (September 2020). In 2018, Belarus adopted a strategy to improve its qualifications system, and is now implementing a roadmap. So far, it

has established 13 sectoral qualifications boards and is developing professional and education standards in a competence-based format. Palestine drafted and submitted its NQF to the council of ministers for approval, and work will begin shortly (as of publication) on the various activities and details for each vocation and each level. South Africa's NQF has been established, and underwent an evaluation initiated by the department of higher education and training in conjunction with the presidency, with the report released in 2018.

Sixty-six per cent of countries reported progress in developing RVA mechanisms. Portugal introduced several changes within the scope of the *Qualifica* programme, including an increase in the number of its centres. North Macedonia has taken steps to set up a national system for RVA as part of its education strategy 2018–2025 and adult education strategy 2019–2023. Costa Rica is developing proposals for RVA that are to

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4 The terms 'recognition of prior learning (RPL)' and 'recognition, validation and accreditation of the outcomes of formal, non-formal and informal learning (RVA)' may be regarded as synonymous. Since RVA is the terminology preferred by UNESCO, it is principally used in this report. Where a particular Member State used RPL in its reporting, this is left unchanged.

be submitted to the higher council of education for review. Moldova reported piloting regulations and guidelines for RVA in four areas in 2019, with extension to a further five areas in 2020. There are currently 20 qualifications standards in Moldova, along with an agreed methodology on implementing them in vocational and higher education institutions. Benin's validation process of prior learning was reported to be in progress (at time of publication) and Chad has had one in place since 2018, though it reported technical and administrative delays. Jordan revised legislation for non-formal education programmes as a step towards improving RVA.

As shown in **Table 1.4**, there is limited regional variation across disaggregated categories of ALE policy. Fifty-four per cent of countries in the Arab States reported progress in implementing policies, while 84% of countries in this region reported progress in involving stakeholders. A high proportion of countries in the Asia and Pacific region reported progress in developing

plans for ALE and involving stakeholders (89% and 93% of countries, respectively). Nearly 60% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean reported progress in RVA policies (59% and 58 %, respectively). Also, half of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa reported progress in developing NQFs. Thirty-eight per cent of low-income countries reported progress on developing NQFs and 45% on implementing legislation, while 81% of low-income countries reported progress involving stakeholders. Seventy-seven per cent of lower middle-income countries reported progress in developing NQFs. Among high-income countries, over 80% reported progress in the involvement of stakeholders, developing plans and implementing policies.

Overall, there has been little change since *GRALE 4* across most policy fields, with slight increases in implementing legislation, implementing policies and improving RVA.

TABLE 1.4
Progress in the field of ALE with respect to different policy processes since 2018

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Implementing legislation	Implementing policies	Developing plans	Involving stakeholders	Improving RVA	Developing NQFs
WORLD	145	72%	76%	82%	84%	66%	61%
REGIONAL GROUPS							
Sub-Saharan Africa	32	63%	72%	81%	83%	59%	50%
Arab States	18	78%	53%	79%	84%	68%	65%
Asia and the Pacific	27	67%	82%	89%	93%	70%	73%
Europe and North America	43	79%	84%	80%	84%	72%	62%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	75%	80%	80%	72%	58%	60%
INCOME GROUPS							
Low income	25	45%	64%	76%	81%	61%	38%
Lower middle income	38	78%	71%	82%	87%	62%	77%
Upper middle income	42	76%	77%	82%	82%	71%	64%
High income	48	78%	85%	84%	84%	68%	60%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

2.1.3
Progress by fields of learning

Countries were asked about progress in specific fields of learning based on RALE and according to the same categories of ALE policy reviewed in the previous section. These subjects are also major priorities in the SDG 4 – Education 2030 Framework for Action within a larger ecosystem of quality education and lifelong learning for all. The three RALE fields of learning are:

*   literacy and basic skills;
*   continuing training and professional development;
*   citizenship education.[5]

Table 1.5 shows how countries have made progress in ALE policy in relation to these fields of learning. Due to changes in the way in which this question was phrased, it is not possible to draw direct comparison with *GRALE 4*. Only countries that reported 'somewhat' or a 'great deal' of progress in the different ALE policy areas were asked to indicate if these were in different fields of learning. Hence, reporting here is only from those countries where progress was recorded. The proportions in **Table 1.5** were calculated over the total number of responses to the question about different areas of policy.

Interestingly, countries reported similar measures to improve policy processes for all three fields of learning, which is important since *GRALE 4* reported surprisingly low progress for active citizenship compared to literacy and basic skills and continuing training and professional development – a finding that resulted in the thematic focus on citizenship education in this report. Around 60% of countries indicated that legislation was implemented on literacy and basic skills, continuing training and professional development, and citizenship education. A high proportion of countries (over 86%) indicated involving stakeholders in policies related to literacy and basic skills, continuing training and professional development, as well as citizenship education. Between 57% and 62% of countries reported improving RVA of non-formal and informal learning for the three fields of learning.

A number of countries provided details in open-ended responses regarding ALE policies on literacy and basic skills, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa:

*   Afghanistan developed a national mobilization strategy for literacy and adult education, and approved 50 memorandums of understanding with governmental and non-governmental

TABLE 1.5
Policy progress with respect to the three core fields of ALE identified by RALE

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Literacy and basic skills	Continuing training and professional development	Citizenship education
Implementing legislation	145	62%	62%	60%
Developing and implementing policies	145	77%	76%	74%
Developing concrete and specific plans	145	81%	79%	78%
Involving stakeholders	145	86%	85%	83%
Improving accreditation, validation and recognition of non-formal and informal learning	145	61%	62%	57%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Notes: Responses are only from countries that indicated 'Somewhat' or 'A great deal' to the relevant part of the question on progress in ALE policy

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5 This report deals with citizenship education in its broadest and multiple forms, including but not confined to active citizenship and global citizenship, as well as aspects of popular education, literacy and community education.

organizations to provide learning opportunities for employees with low literacy levels. This initiative served more than 47,000 people in 2019.

- Angola recently approved an action plan for the intensification of literacy education for young people and adults.

- Canada, through its Office of Literacy and Essential Skills, helps adults build and improve literacy and other basic skills to prepare for, get and keep a job, and perform well at work.

- El Salvador has developed literacy and continuing education plans and projects with support from international organizations, non-governmental organizations, churches and universities.

- Guinea drafted its national policy and a competency framework for literacy and non-formal education in 2019 and implemented a nationwide learning programme for 97,000 young people and adults.

- Malawi approved its first National Adult Literacy and Education Policy in February 2020, as part of its National Education Sector Plan (2020–2025).

- Oman developed a strategic approach to support literacy (see **Box 1.7**)

- Syria's Adult Education and Cultural Development Directorate at the Ministry of Culture launched a distance learning campaign that supports adults who have recently acquired literacy skills.

- Togo has implemented literacy actions through the *faire-faire* strategy; NGOs and associations were engaged in developing the policy.

- Uganda has put in place policy frameworks that support ALE in relation to income generation, training and apprenticeships, and community development. Special attention is given to linking numeracy and literacy to increased access to credit and other financial services for youth and women to enable them to start income-generating activities and to create jobs.

Many examples of TVET were collected through the survey. These help to provide insights into how policies were developed in this field of learning:

- Strategic reforms of the TVET system took place in Albania, Hungary, Morocco, Nigeria and Uzbekistan.

- An important component of the vocational education system in Georgia introduced in 2019 was the upgrade of skills of the adult population to meet the demands of the labour market.

BOX 1.7
Oman's strategic work for the Arab Literacy Decade, 2015–2024

Oman's Ministry of Education has drawn up strategic plans, guidelines and regulations to carry out programmes and projects aimed at accelerating literacy learning nationally, particularly through adult education centres, having achieved significant progress in this realm (according to national statistics, the literacy rate was 94% for ages 15 and above in 2018/2019). It also reported drafting a national framework of action for qualifications, including a certificate for learners after three years of study. The ministry has focused on increasing literacy levels among people aged 15–44 through the Arab Literacy Decade 2015–2024, for which partnerships have been strengthened between relevant official institutions, the private sector and civil society. The country is committed to acting on the Decade's recommendations, including targeting programmes and projects for adults in the islands and ocean villages, for people with disabilities, and those working in the private sector. Oman also plans to establish digital applications for literacy, an electronic student database and enrolment portal, and an electronic system for teacher applications to adult education centres.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

- Uganda developed a TVET policy in 2019 which focused on skills development for national independence, development, enhanced productivity and economic growth. The policy supports the development of skills and competencies relevant for national transformation. It focuses on engaging private-sector enterprises and private training providers in TVET, expanding the scope of the TVET qualifications framework, ensuring that training content corresponds to work needs, building a strong unified organization for managing skills development and reforming the way in which TVET is funded.

- Spain published its first strategic plan for vocational training in November 2019, which contributed to expanding the training offer (formal and non-formal), improving accessibility, more flexible teaching and accreditation procedures, and public-private collaboration, which led to 5% growth in TVET participation in 2020/2021.

- Norway undertook a skills reform between 2019 and 2020 called Learning Throughout Life, to provide more flexible further education for learners and to promote broader involvement of social partners and providers to diversify the supply of TVET.

- Botswana began to fully fund learning materials for adult learners to incentivise class attendance – an outcome also supported by the teaching of vocational skills in literacy classes, as these help participants improve their livelihoods.

- Switzerland introduced a new programme on basic skills in the workplace (the Continuing Education Act) and established a steering body called Vocational Education and Training 2030 to improve various aspects of ALE.

- In 2018, Ireland launched Skills to Advance, a policy framework offering employees flexible opportunities to advance in their working lives, sustain employment, avoid displacement and take advantage of emerging job opportunities. In particular, the framework targets vulnerable employees who need upskilling and reskilling at Level 5 and Level 6 on Ireland's NQF – levels 4 and 5 on the European Qualifications Framework. A total of 5,664 individuals participated in Skills to Advance programmes in 2019.

- Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology established brush-up programmes for professionals: practical and specialist programmes offered by universities, graduate schools, junior colleges and colleges of technology to promote adult learning and expand educational opportunities responsive to adult learners' and labour market needs.

- Digitalization of TVET was an important area of policy improvement in Germany (see **Box 1.8**).

BOX 1.8
Germany's Campaign for Education, Research and Digitization

Germany reported making significant progress on ALE policy in 2018–2019 through an overarching framework contained in a government programme agreed in March 2018, which prioritized the education sector. As part of a comprehensive campaign for education, research and digitization, the agreement includes the development of a national continuing education strategy in cooperation with social partners and in close coordination with the Länder (federal states) and other stakeholders. It calls for the establishment of a commission of inquiry into vocational education and training and the digital world of work.

Improving the Upgrading Training Assistance Act is also a policy priority, aimed at reducing financial obstacles to continuing training and career advancement for adult learners. The agreement also commits the country to expanding the National Literacy Decade (2016–2026) with special attention to job- and family-oriented basic education. With an emphasis on involving more people in digital change, it also focuses on promoting attractive, low-threshold learning opportunities that are easy for all age groups to access.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

While many countries offered examples of progress in developing ALE policy in relation to literacy and basic skills and continuing training and professional development, only three countries provided specific examples of citizenship education initiatives:

- In Costa Rica, youth and adult education is incorporated both in education policy and curriculum policy, with the latter including outlines of new citizenship for adults, education as a lifelong process and the implementation of action plans endorsed by the Higher Council of Education (*Consejo Superior de Educación*) to strengthen youth and adult education. As a result, a facilitation guide for young people and adults is being produced, communicated and implemented as part of the curricular reform Educate for New Citizenship.

- Italy reported new general rules and provisions for teaching civic education in formal institutions.

- Belarus indicated that community organizations offer programmes to strengthen community leadership and local participation.

2.2
KEY FINDINGS ON ALE POLICY

A number of countries provided examples of ALE policy changes that support lifelong learning:

- Kenya developed a sessional paper in 2019 which presents a policy framework for reforming education and training for sustainable development in the country. It provides a framework for delivery of inclusive, equitable, high-quality and relevant education, training and research that promotes lifelong learning.

- In Cambodia, the government has developed a national policy on lifelong learning; the next step is to develop an action plan for implementation.

- Malta launched two specific community learning programmes, one promoting sustainable development and the other to reach the parents of students from marginalized backgrounds. Progress continues to be made on the implementation of the National Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020, and a new strategy covering 2020–2030 has been drafted. However, there is still no legislation in place that recognizes the significant role of adult education.

- Honduras implemented various measures to strengthen lifelong learning and enable people to develop skills that ensure employability (either within a company or institution, or independently). Within non-formal education, these measures take the form of in-person and online training courses offered through partnerships with foundations, international organizations, institutions, companies and municipal governments.

Other points:

- There is continuing policy commitment and engagement of stakeholders. Yet, implementation and enhancement of policy remain a challenge.

- There is evidence of a high level of policy commitment for literacy and basic skills and professional training and continuing education, with a slightly lower but nonetheless increased commitment to citizenship education.

- Countries are making strong progress in terms of many policy processes (e.g. enacting and implementing legislation, involving stakeholders and developing NQFs). Yet, it is important to find synergies so that the full benefits of these reforms reach their intended targets.

- There is a lot of evidence of policy development for RVA and NQFs, important instruments for promoting lifelong learning.

CHAPTER 3

GOVERNANCE

Good governance facilitates the implementation of adult learning and education policy in ways which, according to the BFA (UIL, 2010), are 'effective, transparent, accountable and equitable for all'. An important aspect of good governance is to have representation by, and participation of, all stakeholders, including those who are the intended beneficiaries of provision – adult learners. Meaningful representation means that adult learners can be effectively supported, particularly those who have difficulty accessing learning opportunities. In the BFA, UNESCO Member States committed themselves to four main goals:

1. Involving 'all public authorities at all administrative levels, civil society organizations, social partners, the private sector, community and adult learners' and educators' organizations' in governance efforts;

2. Offering capacity building to support the meaningful and regular involvement of these different stakeholders;

3. Mainstreaming coordination of strategies across sectors and throughout government ministries;

4. Nurturing transnational cooperation through peer platforms for knowledge sharing and common projects. (UIL, 2010)

This section explores the monitoring of ALE governance since 2018. Monitoring focuses on the ways by which processes of ALE governance have led to the kind of implementation and educational provision agreed on in the BFA (2010) and promoted by RALE and the Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action for the implementation of SDG 4.

3.1
MONITORING THE GOVERNANCE OF ALE SINCE 2018

In line with previous surveys, *GRALE 5* gathered information on whether the governance of ALE in different countries has enabled greater participation by stakeholders, as well as cooperation and coordination among them and across borders, and whether decentralization, capacity building and monitoring and evaluation systems for adult education have improved. It also gathered information on whether the governance of ALE has improved for the three fields of learning defined in RALE (UNESCO, 2016a).

BOX 1.9
Cuba's approach to ALE governance

Cuba's ALE governance has been characterized by continuous improvement based on educational and social policies that respond to change, and modifications derived from this process, including economic, scientific and technological advances, such as educational research that contributes to improving quality of provision. The country has consolidated education for youth and adults by reinforcing relationships between different social sectors, institutions and ministries, in accordance with national socioeconomic and cultural projections. Cuba's government aims to respond to the needs and interests of youth and adult learners. To do this, more autonomy has been given to educational institutions, the Ministry of Education has performed more systematic supervision and more attention has been paid to feedback from learners.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

3.1.1
Overall progress and challenges

Table 1.6 shows responses to the survey question on whether there has been an overall improvement in ALE governance since 2018. The proportion of countries reporting improvement remained almost the same at 74% compared to *GRALE 4*, while the total number of countries reporting improvement increased from 103 to 111. Some countries provided detail in open-ended responses. Albania modernized its legal framework for ALE and developed better institutional arrangements and stronger participation from the private sector in policy-making and implementation through the National VET Council and by establishing sectorial committees. Lithuania created a Council of Adult Education in 2020, while Malawi put in place a National ALE Task Team along with an ALE Thematic Group on behalf of civil society to set the policy agenda for the Basic Education Technical Working Group.

The proportion of countries in sub-Saharan Africa reporting progress on ALE governance was 86% in *GRALE 4* and 89% in *GRALE 5*. The proportion of countries in the Arab States that reported overall improvement in the governance of ALE declined by 26 percentage points, from 89% between 2015 and 2018 to 63% between 2018 and 2020. Seventy-nine per cent of countries in Asia and the Pacific reported overall improvement in ALE governance since 2018, which represents an increase from *GRALE 4* when 69% of countries in this region reported improvements. Finally, progress in ALE governance since 2018 was reported by 63% of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and by 71% of countries in Europe and North America.

With respect to income level, 85% of countries categorized as low-income reported overall improvement in ALE governance since 2018. Among the other participating countries, over 70% reported similar progress during that time. Compared with *GRALE 4*, countries categorized as lower middle-income and high-income reported slight reductions in the level of improvement in the governance of ALE. But the relative difference is small.

Countries also provided detail on how changes in their national settings have contributed to ALE governance. Angola reported that government transparency and the fight against corruption had made a difference, resulting in improved implementation of adult learning projects and programmes. The Seychelles noted that increased freedom of the press, along with gender equality and a reduction in discrimination, had created a more ALE-friendly national setting.

BOX 1.10
Slovakia restructures ALE into three existing institutions

Since 2018, Slovakia's Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport has changed the structure of ALE governance to increase its efficiency. The National Lifelong Learning Institute was closed, and its responsibilities transferred to three existing institutions:

- Management of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) was transferred to the National Institute for Certified Measurement.

- The Secretariat of the Committee for Research, Education and Training on Human Rights and Development Education was merged with the National Institute for Education.

- The State Vocational Education Institute was given responsibility for contributing to the Electronic Platform for Adult Education in Europe and the national coordination of the European Agenda for Adult Education. This was integrated with other EU initiatives in VET.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.6
Overall improvement in the governance of ALE since 2018 reported by countries

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Improvement	Proportion
WORLD	149	111	74%
REGIONAL GROUPS			
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	32	89%
Arab States	19	12	63%
Asia and the Pacific	28	22	79%
Europe and North America	41	29	71%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	15	63%
INCOME GROUPS			
Low income	26	22	85%
Lower middle income	37	26	70%
Upper middle income	37	28	76%
High income	48	34	71%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.11
Jordan's participatory approach enables better ALE governance

By its own reporting, Jordan has achieved remarkable improvement in its governance of ALE since 2018, whether in terms of policy-making, preparing strategies, planning, implementation or monitoring and evaluation. One of the most prominent examples of this improvement can be seen in its participatory approach to preparing the Jordanian response plan for the Syrian crisis for the years 2018–2020, which was strengthened through coordination and cooperation between representatives of ministries, relevant official government institutions, United Nations organizations and other countries, donors and non-governmental organizations that came together to form a policy body.

The process of governance for this plan included:

• coordination between different ministries, led by the Ministry of Education;
• engagement of various institutions, organizations (national and international) and donors;
• The formation of cross-sectoral committees, for example for education, health and social protection;
• implementation of monitoring and evaluation;
• decentralized implementation through the devolution of planning and decision-making powers to local councils.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

3.1.2.
Disaggregated progress

Table 1.7 shows the responses of countries to the question of whether progress had been made in disaggregated categories of ALE governance since 2018.[6]

Overall, 83% of 154 Member States reported that the governance of ALE had increased stakeholder participation, and some provided more detail as to how. For example, Bulgaria reported that it had set up a national platform to underpin the national ALE system. The first layer of governance of this platform is a coordination board presided over by the national coordinator for adult education, and including the following stakeholders:

• One representative of a government institution;
• One representative of a national employers' organization;
• One representative of a trade union;
• Twenty-eight field coordinators responsible for adult education in Bulgaria.

This platform also includes national coordination of lifelong learning, and 28 regional coordination groups. A network of over 400 institutions is responsible for ALE in Bulgaria.

Cameroon reported that the state, municipalities, civil society, private partners and development organizations work together to implement ALE governance. Similarly, in El Salvador, participation in ALE governance by various national, governmental and non-governmental stakeholders has reportedly increased: departmental and municipal literacy commissions were created and coordinate closely with local authorities. Costa Rica established support networks for ALE with other ministries, such as the Ministry of Human Development and Social Inclusion, the Ministry of Justice and Peace, the Ministry of Youth, the Ministry of Transport and Public Works, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Labour, and with institutions such as public and private universities, development agencies, private banks (for financial education) and open education projects in the business and institutional sectors. Nicaragua established mechanisms for different education sub-systems of the country, including for ALE, as well as private educational

TABLE 1.7
Global disaggregated reporting on ALE governance by countries

	Total responses GRALE 5	Yes
WORLD		
Increased stakeholder participation	154	83%
Strengthened capacity-builiding initiatives	150	73%
Strengthened cooperation with civil society	149	75%
Improved intersectoral coordination	150	74%
Improved inter-ministerial cooperation	148	74%
Improved transnational cooperation	135	61%
Become more decentralized	148	57%
Developed more effective monitoring and evaluation systems	152	64%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

6 In *GRALE 4*, this response was separated into the degrees to which countries thought they had made progress in the different categories, communicated through response options of 'Not much', 'Somewhat', 'Much' and 'Do not know'. For *GRALE 5*, 'Yes' refers to a country responding with 'Somewhat' or 'A great deal", thus enabling comparison to *GRALE 4* in this thematic area.

opportunities with other state institutions with whom joint actions are coordinated and defined. To involve stakeholders in the governance of ALE, the United Arab Emirates launched a joint digital platform.

In terms of disaggregated categories of ALE governance, about three-quarters of Member States that responded to the *GRALE 5* questionnaire reported that they had strengthened capacity-building initiatives, cooperation with civil society, and intersectoral and inter-ministerial cooperation and coordination. Only 57% of Member States indicated that ALE governance remained decentralized, and about two-thirds indicated that there had been improvements in transnational cooperation and in monitoring and evaluation systems.

Since *GRALE 4*, the proportion of countries reporting increased stakeholder participation, more effective monitoring and evaluation systems, strengthened cooperation with civil society and improved intersectoral coordination all increased slightly (by four percentage points to 83%, one percentage point to 64%, three percentage points to 75%, and two percentage points to 74%, respectively). The proportion of countries reporting improved inter-ministerial cooperation remained broadly the same between *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5*. Lastly, the proportion of countries reporting improved transnational cooperation increased from 55% to 61% between the two cycles, those that strengthened capacity-building initiatives increased from 70% to 73% and those that became more decentralized rose from 53% to 57%.

Montenegro reported that since 2018 there had been progress in ALE governance in terms of stronger cross-sectoral cooperation in the development of the National Plan of Adult Education (2019–2022). This kind of collaboration helped in implementing the legal provision on the extension of the existing Montenegrin Education Information System, a database for all stakeholders in the field of adult education. North Macedonia reported that it had set up a working group with members drawn from among all relevant stakeholders to develop a new law on adult education, demonstrating the importance of cross-sectoral cooperation.

A few countries offered examples of involving the community in ALE development. In Colombia, education ministries have developed their own initiatives and included programmes, actions and projects in their sectoral plans to improve provision and access to ALE, and, therefore, the outcome of education, by involving communities themselves through flexible models and other measures developed by the territories concerned. Guinea reported increasing community participation through more funding and

BOX 1.12
Kenya's inclusive consultation process leads to sector-wide reform

Kenya reported that its National Education Sector Strategic Plan (NESSP) 2018–2022, developed through an all-inclusive stakeholder consultative process, will give effect to legislative frameworks designed to actualize Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2019. Through this plan, Kenya strives to provide high-quality and inclusive education and training for adults, along with activities and research for sustainable development. This will be realized through providing, promoting and coordinating competency-based, equitable, learner-centred education and training that is relevant to the labour market. Stakeholder consultation and coordination are considered important for the development of an implementation plan that details activities, outputs and financial implications. In addition, a monitoring and evaluation framework has been developed to enable tracking and reporting on implementation of the plan.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

mentoring initiatives, and by drafting several policy documents, such as a national policy for literacy and non-formal education, a competency framework for ALE and a consultation framework for the different ALE stakeholders. Member States provided examples of progress on decentralization, which GRALE reports have considered an important goal for governance, making ALE more responsive to local demand, more reflective of the local community and diverse cultural traditions and, hence, more relevant. Algeria reported that it continues to decentralize management. For example, 48 state attachés are affiliated with the country's National Office for Literacy and Adult Education. Togo reported progress in decentralization, for instance by requiring communities to be more involved in literacy and non-formal education. Nepal also reported that local government has ownership of ALE, and Malta described how more direct involvement with local government had brought adult learning to communities.

Uganda explained that, as part of its decentralization policy, local governments take responsibility for the implementation of literacy programmes. The structures of these programmes replicate those at the national level that bring together different sectoral offices. At the sub-national and district level in Uganda, 12 sector experts work together, while at the lower local government and sub-county levels, 12 extension staff support the livelihood, business and village savings and loans association components of the Integrated Community Learning for Wealth Creation (ICOLEW) programme. The transdisciplinary nature of ICOLEW now includes agriculture, technology and production, business skills development, education and environmental education, and health. In this programme, community empowerment groups and adult learners partner and collaborate with civil society organizations. This is more pronounced at the sub-county level, which is the implementation level of the programme.

There were also some responses on ALE governance that indicated a more centralized approach while involving stakeholders. For example:

- In Micronesia, the development and management of educational policies, curriculum and standards became more centralized.

- in Estonia, strategic priorities and indicators for ALE and lifelong learning for the period 2021–2035 were formulated centrally with partners and stakeholders.

- The National Agency for Education in Sweden strengthened efforts by municipalities to provide quality education to newly arrived adult migrants.

- Ukraine established a directorate for higher and adult education operating within the Ministry of Education and Science, which oversees qualifications and education quality for adults.

- in Spain, a centralized network of adult education communities identified good practice with an impact on sector management.

Some countries described their monitoring and evaluation systems for ALE. Egypt has developed an organizational structure for its designated authority, linking its database with those of different entities to pool data from various sources. It has also linked sustainable development programmes with the authority's performance indicators through the Egyptian government's electronic system, which has also been expanded to support inquiries about certificates, statistics and projects. Ireland's planning process with SOLAS, its further education and training authority, has

been informed by high-quality labour market data that captures regional and local skills needs. The aim is to ensure that skills needed by enterprises are provided for at national and regional levels in Ireland, while at the same time aiding learners and supporting their learning ambitions.

Countries also reported some of the main issues related to challenges in governing ALE. Among these were: conflict and lack of security (e.g. in Yemen), socio-political instabilities (Haiti), weak alignment between planning and strategic direction (Argentina), stagnation of ALE as a sector (Chile), low levels of transnational cooperation (Jamaica and Guyana), absence of learners' voices in the governance process (Costa Rica), lack of sectoral cooperation and coordination (Slovakia), and the geographical landscape preventing further decentralization (Grenada).

BOX 1.13
Serbia outlines management and coordination of the Ministry of Education for governing ALE

Serbia reported different activities undertaken by the Ministry of Education for managing and coordinating its ALE Strategy for Development of Education 2020. The Ministry of Education:

- plans and monitors the development of ALE;

- supervises the work of institutions;

- maintains databases and information;

- makes adjustments to fit to European standards;

- plans, coordinates and organizes permanent professional programmes;

- provides training of employees;

- monitors goal achievement and task performance;

- maintains a register of educators;

- issues work permits for teachers, educators and professional associates.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

3.1.3
Progress by fields of learning

Table 1.8 shows the response to the question whether there was progress in different fields of learning within disaggregated categories of ALE governance. This question was only asked of countries that responded 'Somewhat' or 'A great deal' to the categories of governance change shown in **Table 1.8** but accounts for all responses to estimate the proportion of reported progress in the fields of learning.

Overall, about 70% of countries reported increasing stakeholder participation as part of governance for literacy and basic skills (**Table 1.8**), around 69% for continuing training and professional development, and 60% for active citizenship education. For all categories, we can estimate that most countries see ALE governance as primarily about improving literacy and basic skills. Lowest improvements were reported in terms of ALE governance of citizenship education.

A few descriptions were provided as to how ALE governance has improved for literacy and basic skills. These included:

- An agreement signed in Mozambique on advocacy, awareness and resource mobilization for literacy.

- Cote d'Ivoire adopted a strategic plan to develop literacy, and set up a platform to coordinate different actors and to discuss a common monitoring and evaluation policy.

- in Honduras, the Permanent Contingency Commission provides support through an adult literacy campaign and the Ministry for Development and Social Inclusion for literacy activities through its Open Classrooms and Life Skills projects.

- In Uganda the governance of ALE related to literacy skills falls to the Ministry of Education and Sports, responsible for coordinating formal adult education activities, and the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, responsible for coordinating non-formal adult learning and literacy programmes. Its policy establishes coordination and linkage mechanisms at all levels (national and local), strengthening public-private partnerships and networks related to provision.

There are also examples of progress in ALE governance related to continuing training and professional development:

- In Norway, the Strategy for Skills Policy (2017–2021) involves the government, the private sector and social partners, all of whom take an active part in the development of skills policy in the country.

- Switzerland has strengthened collaboration with stakeholders in the field of continuing education and vocational training.

- Hungary reported the renewal of the adult learning system as part of the VET 4.0 Strategy adopted in March 2019.

TABLE 1.8
Progress in categories of governance of ALE with respect to RALE

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Literacy and basic skills	Continuing training and professional development	Citizenship education
WORLD				
Increased stakeholder participation	154	70%	69%	61%
Strengthened capacity-builiding initiatives	150	64%	63%	57%
Strengthened cooperation with civil society	149	65%	58%	59%
Improved intersectoral coordination	150	61%	59%	53%
Improved inter-ministerial cooperation	148	63%	62%	51%
Improved transnational cooperation	135	53%	50%	46%
Become more decentralized	148	50%	45%	44%
Developed more effective monitoring and evaluation systems	152	57%	53%	47%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Notes: Responses are only from countries that indicated 'Somewhat' or 'A great deal' to the relevant part of the question on progress in ALE policy

- Malaysia reported the merger of the Department of Polytechnics with community colleges in February 2018 to empower and mainstream TVET in the country and redesign TVET provision to make it more responsive to learners' needs.

- In Cyprus, the Human Resource Development Authority is a semi-governmental organization responsible for professional and vocational training and development. It has encouraged and strengthened training provision through subsidization.

- Germany adopted a new National Skills Strategy in 2019. This was made possible through an interdepartmental alliance of federal and state governments, with the participation of social partners. The strategy combines federal and state-run continuing TVET programmes to better align provision with learners' needs and to establish a new culture of continuing training. This is an example of how cooperation among a wide range of actors in a complex and multifaceted area such as ALE can be coordinated to achieve forward-looking policy goals.

BOX 1.14
Finland's 2018 VET reform and more flexible literacy training

Due to reforms starting in 2018, part of Finland's TVET is organized as labour-market training. This is a change from how it was previously organized under the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment. The justification for this change is that labour market training improves the skills of adults, their chances of finding or keeping a job and their capacity to become entrepreneurs. It also promotes the availability of skilled labour and the creation of new businesses. The VET providers, who are given the task of labour market training in their licence to provide education and training for adults, cooperate with the regional Employment and Economic Development Office and the ELY centre (the regional centre for economic development, transport and the environment). Applications for labour market training are always made through this office.

Additionally, Finland reported a change in the government's Integration Programme (2016–2019), as responsibility for the literacy training of adult immigrants transferred to the administrative branch of the Ministry of Education and Culture in 2018. Since then, it has been possible to study literacy either in basic education for adults or in non-formal provision, for which the Finnish National Agency for Education has issued a curriculum recommendation.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.15
Cyprus establishes a Unit for Lifelong Learning and Adult Education

Cyprus reported that, as of September 2019, it had established a Unit for Lifelong Learning and Adult Education (LLLAE) within the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth (MoECSY), following recommendations by the World Bank and implementing the Council of Ministers' decision on the new structure of MoECSY. The main mission of the new unit is to coordinate policies, programmes and actions on lifelong learning and adult education at the ministry, and to develop and monitor the National Lifelong Learning Strategy of the Republic of Cyprus for the period 2021–2027. It will also attempt to enhance the participation of the adult population in lifelong learning through a variety of learning opportunities that enhance knowledge, skills and competences for personal development and economic well-being. In particular, the LLLAE Unit is expected to improve planning, monitoring and management of lifelong learning opportunities for adults, and to support organization and implementation by state agents and major social partners at the national policy level. In addition to its main responsibilities, the LLLAE Unit monitors European and international policies, uses European resources for policy implementation and develops partnerships and networks with national, European and international organizations.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

3.2
KEY FINDINGS ON ALE GOVERNANCE

- Governance of ALE is complex. Most improvements involve the participation of various stakeholders.

- The highest reported progress in terms of governance was in sub-Saharan Africa and low-income countries.

- Countries are using a variety of centralized and decentralized activities to provide ALE, with planning and provision moving towards a more decentralized model. However, M&E, networking and sharing of experiences are still highly centralized.

- There are differences in the governance of literacy and TVET; the former tends to focus on social justice and reaching the most disadvantaged population groups, the latter on labour market outcomes.

- There is limited improvement in the governance of ALE for citizenship education, despite its importance to the promotion of tolerance, inclusion and cohesion. It is also the basis for community thinking, rather than individualistic approaches to learning – a key factor in facing current and future global challenges.

- In addition, progress on M&E systems has been slow. Yet, evidence-based research on ALE is badly needed to inform governance policy and to track provision and participation, particularly in relation to vulnerable groups.

4

CHAPTER 4

FINANCING

It is not possible for UNESCO Member States to offer a diverse range of high-quality, inclusive adult educational opportunities without strong financial underpinning. As part of the BFA (UIL, 2010), Member States made a commitment to finance learning opportunities in a systematic way, with particular attention paid to disadvantaged groups such as adults with disabilities, ethnic and linguistic minorities, refugees and migrants, Indigenous populations and those living in remote and rural areas. Member States are committed to providing these groups with opportunities that are contextually relevant, subsidized or free of charge and designed to help them acquire the skills to participate fully in society.

The reasons for investing in ALE are clear. First, adult learning provides economic value for both the individual and society by increasing the productivity of adults in the labour market and thus contributing to economic progress and sustainable development. Additionally, there are personal and social non-economic benefits of adult learning that can promote better health and wellbeing, cultural heritage and intergenerational transmission of support and solidarity, and increased participation in community life, as well as reducing crime and increasing social cohesion. As per the BFA, significant financial investment in adult learning is needed to promote more democratic, peaceful, inclusive, productive, prosperous, healthy and environmentally sustainable societies.

In the BFA, UNESCO Member States committed to five points of action on financing:

1. Seek investment of at least 6% of Gross National Product (GNP) in education, and work towards increasing investment in ALE.

2. Expand resourcing across government departments as part of an integrated ALE strategy.

3. Work to open up transnational funding for adult literacy and education programmes.

4. Incentivize new funding sources, for example from the private sector, NGOs, communities and individuals.

5. prioritize investment in lifelong learning for women, rural populations and people with disabilities.

This section analyses the main points of progress in the financing of ALE since 2018, providing new information about budgeting for public expenditure on ALE, which ministry holds the largest share of the ALE budget, and the funding role played by the private sector and international cooperation agencies. Its analysis of survey data addresses the financing since 2018 of the three fields of learning, as defined by the RALE.

4.1
MONITORING ALE FINANCING SINCE 2018

The *GRALE 5* survey followed the same format as the previous two GRALE surveys in terms of requesting information about overall public spending on ALE, based on target groups laid out in policy documents and prioritized by governments. The budgeting of ALE expenditure was added as a new topic, as was asking which government ministry holds the largest share of the overall ALE budget. Other new questions concerned whether the financing of ALE was supported by the private sector and international agencies, and whether the financing of ALE changed for different fields of learning. To better understand the dynamics of financing ALE, countries were given the opportunity to provide specific information and examples of good practice, and to explain why data on ALE financing is difficult to report.

4.1.1
Overall progress and challenges

Table 1.9 shows reported changes in ALE spending as a proportion of public education spending since 2018. Of those countries that responded to the survey, 14% reported reduced investment in ALE as a proportion of overall public spending on education, 53% said there was no change and 32% reported that ALE spending had increased.

By region, 43% of countries in Asia and the Pacific reported increased ALE spending, the highest of all regions. The region with the lowest proportion of countries reporting an increase was the Arab States (25%), followed by sub-Saharan Africa (28%). Of respondent countries in Europe and North America, 68% reported that ALE spending remained unchanged since 2018. In all other regions there was a similar

percentage of countries (43–52%) reporting unchanged ALE spending since 2018. The region with the lowest proportion of countries reporting decreased ALE spending was Europe and North America, where there were no reports of decreased spending.

When countries were grouped by income level, 38% of lower middle-income countries reported increased public spending on ALE, whereas only 27% of countries classified as low-income reported an increase. Of those countries that reported unchanged ALE spending, 43% are lower middle-income and 46% low-income. The income group with the highest proportion of no change was high-income countries (65%). Only 5% of high-income countries reported a decrease in public spending on ALE, whereas 27% of low-income countries reported the same, followed by lower middle-income countries at 19% and upper middle-income countries at 13%.

TABLE 1.9
Changes in ALE spending as a proportion of public education spending

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased
WORLD	146	14%	53%	32%
REGIONAL GROUPS				
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	22%	50%	28%
Arab States	16	31%	44%	25%
Asia and the Pacific	30	13%	43%	43%
Europe and North America	40	0%	68%	32%
Latin America and the Caribbean	23	17%	52%	30%
INCOME GROUPS				
Low income	26	27%	46%	27%
Lower middle income	37	19%	43%	38%
Upper middle income	39	13%	54%	33%
High income	43	5%	65%	30%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

The primary reason given for not providing data on ALE spending was the decentralized nature of education funding, which can involve multiple ministries, as well as different agencies, institutions, levels of government and programming (as reported by Argentina, Barbados, Bulgaria, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Switzerland). Some countries reported that there was no dedicated budget for ALE (e.g. Azerbaijan, Haiti, Lithuania, Maldives, Moldova, Montenegro, Uruguay and Uzbekistan), others reported that budgeting practices did not consider all of the costs associated with ALE (e.g. Cabo Verde and Iceland), or that not all of the relevant ministries provided separate budgets for adult education and training programmes (e.g. Algeria, Japan, Mauritius and Seychelles). Still others pointed to the lack of a national framework to coordinate budgets (e.g. Jordan), or referenced the difficulty of coordinating budgets across regions (e.g. in Saudi Arabia).

BOX 1.16
The challenge of consolidating data on public spending on ALE in Germany

Germany reported that public funding for ALE is spread across many funding bodies and departments, and usually comes from temporary funding programmes. Full and regular collection of funding data is therefore not possible.

Relevant financial data for ALE is certainly available, but it does not match, in terms of accuracy and completeness, the understanding of the ALE concept in GRALE. Rather, different education reports use different categorizations, and either do not cover all conceptual areas of ALE, or else ALE-relevant expenditures are spread over different reports and are mixed with expenditures that do not belong to ALE. An example of the former concern is the annual data report of the Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training, which does not consider expenditures for general, cultural or political adult education. An example of the latter concern is the category 'public expenditures for other education' in the Federal Statistical Office's Education Finance Report, which covers funding for adult education centres and other institutions of non-formal ALE, but also for institutions of initial and continuing teacher training.

According to Germany's report, various attempts have been made in the specialist literature to calculate or estimate the total public expenditure on continuing education and training as a separate category. The last ambitious calculations and/or estimates of this kind date from the year 2015, and therefore were already reported in *GRALE 4*. At that time, the share of public education funding devoted to ALE was estimated at 6.1%.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Figure 1.2
Public spending on ALE by percentage of overall education budget
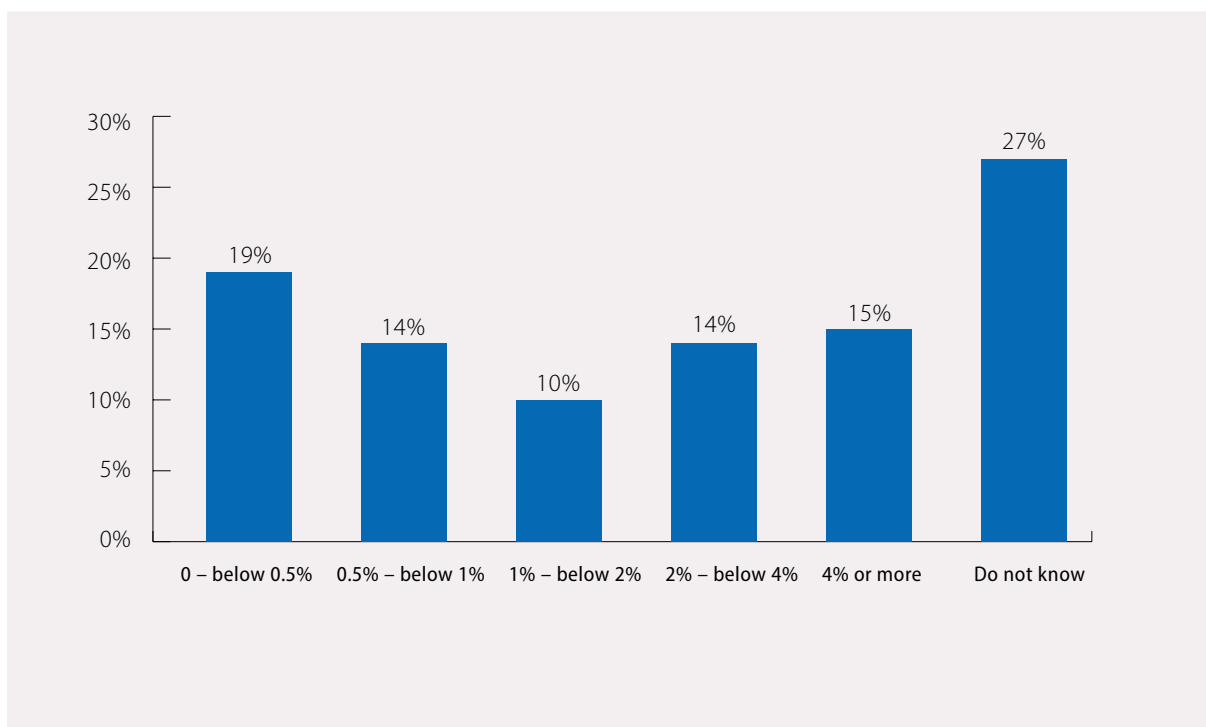
Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Figure 1.2 shows the current range of spending on ALE as a percentage of public education expenditure. Forty countries (27% of the total) reported that they did not know what percentage of public education spending is devoted to ALE. Nineteen per cent reported that the proportion spent on ALE is in the range of 0–0.4% (28 countries), 14% in the range of 0.5–0.9% (21 countries), 10% in the range of 1.0–1.9% (15 countries) and 14% in the range 2.0–3.9% (20 countries) of public education spending. Finally, nearly 15% of participating countries (22 countries) reported that spending on ALE comprises 4% or more of public spending on education. This represents a slight increase in the number of countries reporting ALE spending of 4% or more since *GRALE 4*, where 20 countries reported the same level of spending.

Table 1.10 shows the proportion of countries that provided data on public spending allocated to ALE. Of the 102 countries that responded, 62% said they have this information.

Of the countries that were able to provide figures for ALE public spending, more than two-thirds (69%) did so for 2019 (**Table 1.11**). When disaggregated regionally, the proportion of countries that provided figures from 2019 ranged from 63–75% (**Table 1.11**). The proportion of lower middle-income countries that provided figures from 2019 was particularly high at 88%, while the proportion of upper middle-income countries that provided figures from 2019 was only 53%. In other cases, the figures on ALE spending were provided for years prior to 2019, as indicated in **Table 1.11**, which makes the monitoring of public spending on ALE between 2018 and 2020 difficult.

TABLE 1.10
Proportion of countries that provided data on public spending allocated to ALE

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Yes
WORLD	102	62%
REGIONAL GROUPS		
Sub-Saharan Africa	27	81%
Arab States	11	27%
Asia and the Pacific	23	57%
Europe and North America	26	62%
Latin America and the Caribbean	14	57%
INCOME GROUPS		
Low income	19	74%
Lower middle income	29	59%
Upper middle income	26	62%
High income	27	56%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.11
Years for which data on public spending allocated to ALE was available

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	2019	2018	2017	Before 2017
WORLD	61	69%	18%	8%	5%
REGIONAL GROUPS					
Sub-Saharan Africa	22	73%	14%	5%	9%
Arab States	3	67%	0%	0%	33%
Asia and the Pacific	11	73%	27%	0%	0%
Europe and North America	16	63%	25%	13%	0%
Latin America and the Caribbean	8	75%	13%	13%	0%
INCOME GROUPS					
Low income	14	71%	7%	7%	14%
Lower middle income	16	88%	6%	0%	6%
Upper middle income	15	53%	40%	7%	0%
High income	15	67%	20%	13%	0%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Countries were also prompted to provide the current percentage of public education spending on ALE, along with the year and information source from which the figure was generated. The examples given confirm the previous challenges expressed by countries in terms of providing information on ALE spending. Current figures on ALE spending may be reported by different ministries, may include only certain ALE expenses, may come from budgets, estimates or actual expenses, or may come from internal calculations. Data may be from 2019 or previous years; in one instance, the data reported was from 2012. Figures may be specific to ALE as a sector or they may be bundled with higher education and technical and vocational education. Some countries cited percentage figures from statistical bodies, while others did so without citing sources. Several countries provided figures without percentages and a few provided both monetary figures and percentages.

Table 1.12 shows responses to the question of whether governments plan to decrease or increase their spending on ALE. Only 8% of the countries that participated in the *GRALE 5* survey reported that their government was planning to reduce ALE spending, while 23% reported plans to retain spending at the current level and 49% reported plans to increase spending. Twenty-one per cent of countries reported that they did not know their plans for ALE spending. No countries in the Arab States (16 countries) or Europe and North America (41 countries) reported plans to reduce ALE spending, while 20% of surveyed sub-Saharan African countries did, followed by 10% in Asia and the Pacific and 9% in Latin America and the Caribbean. Twenty-one per cent of low-income countries reported plans to reduce ALE spending, while 11% of lower middle-income countries reported the same.

The region with by far the highest proportion of countries reporting a planned increase in ALE spending was Asia and the Pacific, at 70%, while the lowest proportion of countries planning the same was in the Arab States at 31%, followed by Latin America and the Caribbean at 35%. All income groups except for upper middle-income countries reported that the government had plans to increase ALE spending.

TABLE 1.12
Government plans to increase, maintain or decrease spending on ALE

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Decrease	Stay the same	Increase	Do not know
WORLD	146	8%	23%	49%	21%
REGIONAL GROUPS					
Sub-Saharan Africa	35	20%	14%	43%	23%
Arab States	16	0%	31%	31%	38%
Asia and the Pacific	30	10%	13%	70%	7%
Europe and North America	41	0%	29%	54%	17%
Latin America and the Caribbean	23	9%	30%	35%	26%
INCOME GROUPS					
Low income	24	21%	8%	50%	21%
Lower middle income	37	11%	19%	51%	19%
Upper middle income	39	5%	31%	41%	23%
High income	45	2%	27%	53%	18%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Figure 1.3 shows the responses of participating countries when asked if they prioritize ALE financing for different groups. There have been four new groups added since *GRALE 4*: youth, men, prisoners and Indigenous people. There is notably high priority given to youth, with 53% of countries indicating 'A great deal'. Besides the 'prisoner group', a very specific population, the group that seems to have a lower level of priority is older adults, with 20% of countries reporting low priority despite the fact that a large proportion and increasing number of countries are becoming aging societies. Thirty-seven per cent of countries reported that they did not know about the priority level of ALE financing for Indigenous people, but this is most likely because the category of Indigenous people does not apply to all countries.

Since *GRALE 4*, there has been an overall improvement in the prioritization of ALE financing for women, with the number of countries reporting a high priority having increased by five percentage points. Similarly, the number of countries reporting some priority given to women in terms of financing has increased by seven percentage points. Furthermore, there has been a sharp decrease in the number of countries reporting that little priority is given to women in terms of financing, falling from 24% to 7%. This arguably represents progress since *GRALE 4*, even if the number of countries reporting they do not know about priority for women has increased slightly (by four percentage points).

There are changing priorities for other groups since *GRALE 4*. There has been less progress for people living in rural areas, with the number of countries reporting a great deal of priority for rural people having decreased by 13 percentage points. However, other groups have seen overall improvements in the level of priority given to them.

Figure 1.3
Priority of ALE financing for different target groups
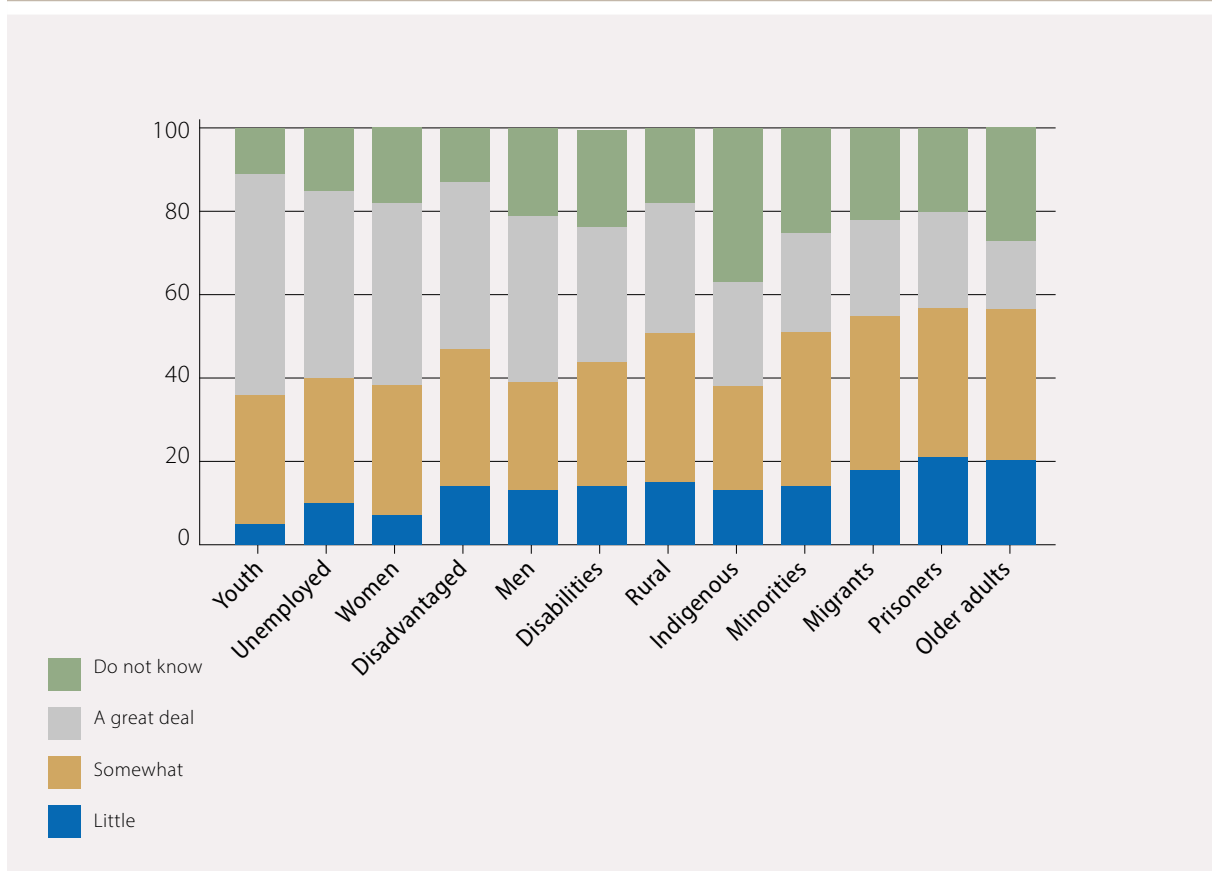
Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Many countries identified several priority groups, such as youth, the elderly, women and girls, men and boys, the unemployed and people with disabilities (e.g. in Bahrain, Greece, Morocco, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Oman and Venezuela). An example worth highlighting is Jordan, which described the different ministries holding budgets for different groups, whether for the elderly, those living in remote areas, the unemployed or refugees (see **Box 1.17**). Another important example is Malaysia, which described how budgets are allocated to support specific groups, such as adults in general,

by improving ICT provision, or Indigenous groups and young people, in particular, through programmes to improve literacy, technical and entrepreneurial skills, as well as cross-cutting measures (see **Box 1.18**). The case of Latvia exemplifies funding allocated to support young adults, particularly those not in education, employment or training (see **Box 1.19**), while the case of Uganda provides insights into how funding is structured for non-formal education, as well as the challenges in accounting for a total budget directed to ALE activities (see **Box 1.20**).

BOX 1.17
The funding of different groups tied to adult learning and education in Jordan

The Government of Jordan allocates direct funding to different groups in its budgets for adult learning and education. For example, funding to provide appropriate services to elderly men and women focuses on those with disabilities and special needs. The budget is prepared by the Ministry of Social Development in cooperation with the National Council for Family Affairs and the Ministry of Social Development. For residents of remote areas, the budget is prepared by the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, the Ministry of Local Administration and the Ministry of Social Development, and focuses on funding for education and training relevant to people living in these areas. There is also a particular focus on supporting people with disabilities, women and those who lack literacy skills and live in remote areas.

Jordan's Ministry of Education allocates a budget for non-formal education programmes, including adult education and literacy programming, for an evening studies programme, and for a culture promotion programme for school dropouts. For the unemployed, the Ministry of Labour holds a budget for the provision of training opportunities for reintegration into the labour market. Finally, the government also supports education and training programmes for Syrian refugees. These programmes are funded primarily by external sources.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.18
Malaysia's budget allocations, scholarships and incentives

The Government of Malaysia increased scholarships, incentives and budget allocations for ALE and lifelong learning programmes offered to specific target groups. In particular, spending was aimed at improving ICT for provision for adults in general; vouchers to young adults to support TVET and reskilling; funding for Indigenous peoples to enhance literacy and entrepreneurial skills; and cross-departmental budgets to support adult learning in fields related to health and social protection.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.19
Latvia's funding to keep youth in school and support vocational education

Latvia identified investment in low-skilled youth and adults as a priority in a number of policy documents and support programmes, including the Education Development Guidelines 2014–2020 and the National Development Plan.

- There is an emphasis on helping young people aged 15 to 24 to remain in education. The total indicated funding for this work is EUR 37.5 million.

- A programme called 'Implementation of initial vocational education programmes as a part of the Youth Guarantee' aims to help young people aged 17 to 29 obtain professional qualifications.

- A project called 'Know and Do' aims to improve the motivation of young people aged 15 to 29 who are not in education, employment or training (NEET). Between January 2018 and December 2019, the programme served 2,017 such young people, applying a budget of EUR 7.6 million.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.20
Uganda's ALE spending structure in relation to social development

Non-formal ALE receives 0.6% of the national budget allocated to the social development sector in Uganda. In absolute numbers, the government has been allocating 2 billion Ugandan shillings (approx. USD 500,000) annually to this sector to implement adult literacy activities. Funds for central government activities are disbursed to the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, while funds for field activities are transferred to local governments under a single consolidated social development sector grant or fund.

Yet, according to Uganda's reporting, information regarding the overall funding of adult literacy and education is problematic, scattered between several ministries, such as education, health, social development and agriculture. In addition, development partners can contribute to funding of government activities on literacy and basic skills, particularly for disadvantaged populations. Some funding from development partners is accounted for in direct budget support, while other funding is directed to the programmes. Therefore, it is difficult to compile reliable figures on adult literacy funding.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.21
Mauritius's approach to spending for unemployed graduates

Mauritius reported that its Human Resource Development Council (HRDC) is responsible for 'look[ing] after and promot[ing] the development of the labour force in Mauritius in line with the requirements of a fast-growing economy' and offers various schemes and projects that prioritize training for unemployed graduates. For example, the Graduate Training for Employment Scheme (GTES) aims to enhance the employability of unemployed graduates by providing them with skills as per the requirements of an evolving job market. This scheme ensures the training and placement of unemployed graduates for a period not exceeding one year, with the possibility of employment. The HRDC invested the equivalent of approximately USD 130,000 for the training and placement of these graduates in 2017–2018. As of June 2018, 58 companies had participated in the GTES scheme, 310 unemployed graduates were selected to participate, and 232 were employed after the training. The cost of training is borne by HRDC up to a maximum of USD 1,850 per person. Each trainee is paid a monthly stipend of approximately USD 140.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.13
Existence of a budget line for ALE expenditure

	Frequency	Yes
WORLD	148	72%
REGIONAL GROUPS		
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	89%
Arab States	17	71%
Asia and the Pacific	30	73%
Europe and North America	41	61%
Latin America and the Caribbean	23	61%
INCOME GROUPS		
Low income	26	92%
Lower middle income	38	71%
Upper middle income	38	63%
High income	45	67%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

4.1.2
Progress with budgeting for ALE expenditure

Table 1.13 shows countries' responses to whether they have a budget line for ALE expenditure in public accounts and, if so, which national-level ministry holds the largest share of the budget. Seventy-two per cent of countries reported they have a budget line for ALE expenditure. These included 89% of sub-Saharan African countries at the upper range and 61% of both countries in Europe and North America and Latin America and the Caribbean at the lower range. Furthermore, 92% of low-income countries reported having this budget line, compared to just 63% of upper middle-income countries, followed by 67% of high-income countries.

The countries that responded 'Yes' to having a budget line were also asked which national-level ministry holds the largest share of the budget for ALE (**Table 1.14**).

Most of the countries (86%) nominated their education ministry. This includes all of the Arab States at the upper range and three-quarters of those in Europe and North America at the lower range, as well as 95% of lower middle-income countries and 75% of high-income countries. No country reported that its health ministry was responsible for the largest share of the ALE budget, and only 8% of countries reported that labour and employment ministries held the highest proportion of this budget. By region, 20% of countries in Europe and North America reported that the largest share of the ALE budget was held by ministries of labour and employment, which closely aligns with the proportion of high-income countries. Finally, only 7% of countries reported that their ministry of social affairs dispenses the largest share of ALE budget expenditure. Finally, by income group, 5–9% of countries reported that their ALE budget is held by their ministry of social affairs.

TABLE 1.14
Which national-level ministry holds the largest share of the budget for expenditure in ALE?

	Number of countries that responded 'Yes' to having a budget line for ALE	Education*	Health*	Labour/ employment*	Social affairs*
WORLD	92	86%	0%	8%	7%
REGIONAL GROUPS					
Sub-Saharan Africa	31	90%	0%	3%	6%
Arab States	8	100%	0%	0%	0%
Asia and the Pacific	19	84%	0%	11%	5%
Europe and North America	20	75%	0%	20%	5%
Latin America and the Caribbean	13	85%	0%	0%	15%
INCOME GROUPS					
Low income	22	86%	0%	5%	9%
Lower middle income	20	95%	0%	0%	5%
Upper middle income	21	90%	0%	5%	5%
High income	28	75%	0%	18%	7%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

* All percentages given are based on the frequency of 'Yes' responses, not the total frequency.

Some countries also provided open-ended responses on which government ministries carry the largest budgets for ALE, as shown in **Table 1.15**. These range from the Public Authority for Adult Education in Egypt and the Ministry of Islamic Affairs and Original Education in Mauritania to the Ministry of Development and Social Inclusion in Honduras and the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy in Bulgaria. In a few countries budgets were spread between different ministries and agencies (e.g. Ukraine and Hungary).

Table 1.16 shows countries' responses to the 'Yes' or 'No' question of whether ALE is co-funded by international cooperation agencies and the private sector. Overall, about half of the countries reported that ALE is co-funded through international cooperation agencies (e.g. bilateral or multilateral aid) while 32% reported that it is co-funded through the private sector.

Sub-Saharan Africa was the region where the greatest proportion of countries (81%) reported that ALE is co-funded by international cooperation, while Latin America and the Caribbean had the lowest proportion of countries (27%) agreeing with this statement. The region with the lowest reported co-funding through the private sector was the Arab States with a proportion of just 6%, while half of countries in Europe and North

America reported the same (which probably results from the EU's engagement in ALE, which should not be equated with bilateral or multilateral aid). By income group, the proportion of countries that reported co-funding of ALE by international cooperation falls in percentage terms as income rises, with 85% reporting this kind of support in low-income countries and 22% in high-income countries. Lower middle and upper middle-income countries reported roughly the same rate of (61% and 59%, respectively) for this indicator. Only 23% of low-income countries reported co-funding through the private sector while, for other income groups, the proportion is above 30%.

Table 1.17 shows country responses to a follow-on question concerning the extent of ALE expenditure co-funded by international cooperation, the private sector, or another source. This question had an exceptionally low response rate, with less than one-fifth of countries responding in total for different sources. The average of those that reported co-funding was highest through international cooperation was 35% (of 33 responses), while the average of those that reported higher co-funding through the private sector was much lower, at 17% (of 32 responses). Other sources of funding had the lowest responses out of the options presented as sources (26 responses) but made up the highest percentage of those that responded, with 42%.

TABLE 1.15
Countries that reported other government ministries and agencies as having the largest share of the ALE budget

Country	Government ministry
Bulgaria	Ministry of Labour and Social Policy
Egypt	Public Authority for Adult Education
Honduras	Ministry of Development and Social Inclusion
Hungary	TVET centres funded by the Ministry for Innovation and Technology
Morocco	National Agency for the Fight against Illiteracy
Mauritania	Ministry of Islamic Affairs and Original Education (for ALE)
Ukraine	State Employment Centres of the Ministry of Social Policy

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.16
Co-funding of ALE through international cooperation and the private sector

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	International cooperation	Private sector
WORLD	156	51%	32%
REGIONAL GROUPS			
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	81%	27%
Arab States	19	42%	6%
Asia and the Pacific	29	52%	38%
Europe and North America	44	45%	50%
Latin America and the Caribbean	26	27%	19%
INCOME GROUPS			
Low income	26	85%	23%
Lower middle income	38	61%	35%
Upper middle income	41	59%	32%
High income	50	22%	34%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.17
Extent of ALE co-funding from non-governmental sources

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Percentage
International cooperation	33	35%
Private sector	32	17%
Other	26	42%

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey

Table 1.18 shows the variety of countries' responses when asked to write in the co-funding source for ALE. These range from learner fees (e.g. in Azerbaijan, Germany, Hungary, New Zealand, South Africa, Sudan, Sweden and Switzerland), to employers and the private sector (e.g. Belgium, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Switzerland and Ukraine), and to regional and international funding. For example, some countries gain ALE funding through the European Union (including the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia and Romania) or the Caribbean Development Bank (e.g. Saint Kitts and Nevis). Georgia reported receiving international aid from GIZ (the German Corporation for International Cooperation) and UNDP (the United Nations Development Programme), and Mauritius from the Commonwealth of Learning, AFD (Agence Française de Développement), the EU and MEXA (Mauritius Export Association). A few countries also co-fund ALE through associations (Eritrea, Togo), civil society organizations (in Egypt, Jamaica, Malawi, Sudan and Uruguay) and local communities (Slovenia).

4.1.3
Progress by fields of learning

Many countries shared examples of ALE spending in relation to two fields of learning highlighted in RALE (UNESCO, 2016a), specifically literacy and basic skills, and vocational training. Mozambique reported that funding supports the availability of literacy and numeracy books for adults, and Seychelles reported that it supports free literacy classes offered through the community for prisoners, older adults and adults disadvantaged due to lack of education and skills. Guinea reported offering literacy training for two million young people and adults, with women and girls as priority groups, and Afghanistan reported providing literacy education for people aged 15 to 34, with a 60% consideration for young women. New Zealand targeted funding for English language acquisition for those with language needs, while Germany invested EUR 180 million to implement the National Decade of Literacy and Basic Education for adults.

TVET continues to be a globally important field of learning. Many countries reported funding particular programmes aimed at enhancing technical and vocational skills and enabling the integration of young people into the labour market. This was the case for Greece and Jamaica, which reported a focus on vocational training schools, and Montenegro and Sweden, which reported that TVET centres provide support for immigrants. Estonia, New Zealand and Saint Kitts and Nevis are targeting people with lower levels of education or outdated qualifications through TVET programmes, while Ireland reported that it is funding

TABLE 1.18
Some examples for co-funding sources for ALE reported by countries

Country	Sources of co-funding for ALE
Azerbaijan	Participants in adult training and education
Belgium	Apart from the public provision funded by the Ministry of Education and Training, the Public Employment Service and SYNTRA (training by employer organizations), there is also some provision by private companies.
Czech Republic	European Social Fund
Egypt	Civil society and universities
Eritrea	National associations (such as of women, workers, community, etc.)
Estonia	European Union
Georgia	Development of ALE in the country is supported on multiple levels by international donor organizations (e.g. GIZ, UNDP). Short-term training and retraining courses for adults are designed and implemented by the private sector, TVET institutions or jointly.
Germany	Individuals investing their own resources into ALE/continuing education
Switzerland	Individual and employer

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey.

TABLE 1.19
Changes in funding to ALE for different fields of learning

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased
Literacy and basic skills	146	8%	53%	39%
Continuing training and professional development	143	8%	50%	42%
Citizenship education	136	6%	66%	28%

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey

a revised competence based TVET provision for adults. Norway is funding skills development in rural areas as part of ongoing skills reform, while Fiji reported the funding of 15 technical colleges around the country to cater for youth and adults.

Table 1.19 shows countries' responses when asked how ALE funding has changed for the three RALE fields of learning since 2018. For literacy and basic skills, 8% of countries reported that ALE funding has decreased, which is the same percentage as those that reported a decrease in funding for vocational training. For active and global citizenship education, the number of countries reporting a decrease in ALE funding was slightly lower at 6%. The proportions reporting that ALE funding had remained the same were 53% and 50% for literacy and basic skills and vocational skills, respectively, whereas 66% of countries reported that ALE funding had stayed the same for citizenship education and only 28% reported that it had increased. This contrasts starkly with the responses in relation to literacy and basic skills and vocational skills, where countries reported increases in funding of 39% and 42%, respectively, clearly showing that of the three fields of learning identified in RALE, citizenship education tends to be neglected.

4.2
KEY FINDINGS ON ALE FINANCING

- Nearly half of reporting countries plan to increase ALE financing, especially in Asia and the Pacific, 21% do not know and 8% plan to decrease spending, in part, no doubt, because of the disruption already experienced by adult learners due to restrictions and changes of focus caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.

- A large number of countries finance target groups for specific types of ALE, especially youth, the unemployed and women. This is positive, but other key groups often still remain excluded, such as

adults living in rural settings. This group is often at the centre of discussions about the right to education, inclusion and equity, and being left behind.

- Almost three-quarters of reporting countries said they have a budget line for ALE expenditure, including 89% of sub-Saharan African countries and over 90% of low-income countries. This indicates progress, especially in relation to planning transparency and accountability.

- Responses show that education ministries dispense the largest share of public expenditure on ALE in most countries, as well as providing insights on decentralized approaches and composing collaborations on financing between ministries and institutions. While the health ministry does not administer the largest share in any country, there is frequent co-funding with social affairs and labour ministries.

- These different sources point to the complexity of reporting on ALE financing, which implies that coordinating this data for analysis may be strenuous and entail gaps in terms of the completeness and timeliness of the data. Different sources of fundraising involve different stakeholders taking part in decisions about ALE financing. This points to the link between financing and governance, which requires deeper investigation.

- Many countries, and especially low-income economies, co-fund ALE through international development cooperation. Arguments can be made for less reliance on this form of support and more from other sources, for example by expanding the domestic tax base. International experience shows that different approaches to co-funding are fundamental to ALE.

- The examples provided by the participant countries suggest that funding of literacy, numeracy and basic skills and TVET is accorded higher priority than citizenship education, also when compared to 2018.

PARTICIPATION, INCLUSION AND EQUITY

Participation in education is fundamental to the achievement of all aspects of development, and particularly to environmental sustainability, economic equality, social inclusion and wellbeing, as outlined in the SDGs. It is therefore essential that everyone has the opportunity to participate in learning, including adults who lacked the opportunities to form desired or necessary skills in childhood and youth. As indicated in the BFA, 'There can be *no exclusion* arising from age, gender, ethnicity, migrant status, language, religion, disability, rurality, sexual identity or orientation, poverty, displacement or imprisonment. Combating the cumulative effects of multiple disadvantage is of particular importance' (UIL, 2010, p. 8, italics added).

In monitoring ALE, participation is an important proxy indicator[7] for accessibility. To track implementation of the BFA, UNESCO Member States agreed to regularly collect and analyse information on adult education, focusing on who is participating, whether effective and progressive learning is taking place, and if there are markers of disadvantage that prevent certain groups from participating. Furthermore, UNESCO Member States committed themselves to collecting and analysing data disaggregated by age, gender, disability, location, income level and other potential markers of disadvantage.

5.1
MONITORING ALE PARTICIPATION SINCE 2018

The *GRALE 5* survey captures overall changes in ALE participation rates since 2018 in those countries that responded. Countries reported national participation rates, based either on current figures or estimates. Building on their commitment in the BFA, they also provided information on whether the participation of certain groups had decreased, remained the same or increased since 2018. Information was also provided on whether participation in different fields of learning according to RALE (UNESCO, 2016) had changed since 2018. As with other thematic areas, countries were also given a chance to provide concrete examples of how participation in ALE has changed since the last GRALE cycle, which is important for sharing good practice for improving ALE access. Some also provided examples of regression in ALE participation and suggested reasons why.

5.1.1
Overall progress and challenges

Table 1.20 shows responses to questions about changes in ALE participation since 2018. Overall, 52% of countries reported that participation had increased, 28% reported that participation had remained static and 13% said it had decreased. Seven per cent of countries reported that they did not know the rate of participation in adult education.

Some countries provided additional information through open-ended responses to illustrate growth in ALE participation through specific figures. Cameroon reported that ALE participation increased from around 23,000 in 2018 to 29,478 learners at the end of 2019. Portugal reported that the proportion of its adults enrolled in courses leading to qualifications reached 75% at the end of 2019. Sixty per cent of these adults had less than secondary-level education. Venezuela reported that its enrolment rate of learners between the ages of 15 and 35 years old reached 65%, while Guyana reported that the participation rate of young people

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7 Proxy indicators provide a means to measure something that is not directly measurable. In this case, accessibility is not directly measurable since it is determined by a range of barriers, some of which are measurable but others not.

and adults increased by 20 percentage points between 2017 and 2019. Nicaragua reported an ALE participation rate of over 60% in rural areas, with participation among women nationally at 58%.

There are important reasons why participation in ALE has increased since 2018. The expansion of online distance learning has allowed a greater range of adult learners to participate, particularly those who are unable to physically attend adult learning centres (as reported, for example, in Peru and Malaysia). In Belgium, digital public employment training services reached almost 50,000 learners with 110,000 courses in 2019, resulting in an increase of 7,000 learners compared to 2018 and of 20,000 compared to 2016. The expansion of internet services has allowed residents in remote rural areas to participate in online ALE and lifelong learning programmes (which took place in Malaysia through community centres and community colleges). Provision via television is still important for adults in countries with low internet availability (for example, Cuba). Although the *GRALE 5* survey covered the period before the COVID-19 pandemic, it is clear, at the time of writing, that the trends towards digitization of education have accelerated at a previously unimagined pace since 2019.

In addition to the boost provided by IT, ALE participation has also increased because provision has been made more relevant to learner needs. For example, Cuba mentioned topics such as health, sex education, the fight against alcoholism and smoking, foreign languages, cultural and artistic education, environmental education, scientific and technological development and early childhood care as responding to specific interests of different groups of the population sectors. Educational materials available in different local languages are also raising interest in learning from traditionally under-represented groups (for example, the availability of educational materials in the Miskito and Mayangna languages in Nicaragua). Targeted funding has also contributed to increased participation by certain groups, for example young people in South Africa, adults with disabilities in Malaysia, and ethnic-linguistic minorities in Nicaragua and Peru.

In terms of the overall participation rate by region, 63% of countries from Asia and the Pacific saw participation rates increase since 2018 (see **Table 1.20**). Around 42% of countries in the Arab States and in Latin America and the Caribbean reported that participation rates for ALE had increased since 2018. Twenty-one per cent of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean reported

TABLE 1.20
Overall participation rates in ALE since 2018

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased	Do not know
WORLD	155	13%	28%	52%	7%
REGIONAL GROUPS					
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	17%	25%	56%	3%
Arab States	19	16%	42%	42%	0%
Asia and the Pacific	32	3%	16%	63%	19%
Europe and North America	43	12%	37%	49%	2%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	21%	25%	42%	13%
INCOME GROUPS					
Low income	26	19%	27%	50%	4%
Lower middle income	39	5%	21%	67%	8%
Upper middle income	39	18%	31%	41%	10%
High income	50	12%	34%	48%	6%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

that ALE participation rates had fallen since 2018, while just 3% of countries in Asia and the Pacific reported a fall in participation rates during the same period. Notably, 19% of countries from Asia and the Pacific reported that they did not know their ALE participation rates, while the corresponding percentage was 13% in Latin America and the Caribbean. All of the 19 countries in the Arab States reported that they were able to provide figures on participation in ALE since 2018. In terms of income groups, 67% of lower middle-income countries reported increased ALE participation since 2018, while only 41% of upper middle-income countries reported such an increase. Thirty-four per cent of high-income countries reported no change in ALE participation, as did 21% of lower middle-income countries. The highest proportion of countries reporting a drop in ALE participation was found among the low and upper middle-income groups, at 19% and 18%, respectively. A significant proportion of countries is still unable to track participation rates in ALE (for instance, 10% of countries classified as upper middle income are unable to provide information on ALE participation over time).

Limited changes in ALE participation have been reported in *GRALE 5* compared to *GRALE 4*. The proportion of countries reporting that ALE participation has stayed the same or that are unable to provide information about ALE participation is unchanged.

A slight change is represented by the decline of five percentage points in the proportion of countries reporting that participation has increased. In addition, the proportion of countries reporting that participation rates have fallen is four percentage points higher compared to *GRALE 4*.

Table 1.21 shows participation rates in ALE by region. In Latin America and the Caribbean, 42% of countries reported participation rates below 1%, 17% had participation rates of up to 10%, and 20% of countries reported participation rates above 10%. Within this region, 21% of countries did not have data on participation rates. In sub-Saharan Africa, 19% of countries reported participation rates below 1%, 3% had participation rates of up to 10%, and 67% of countries had participation rates above 10%. Eleven per cent of sub-Saharan African countries did not have data on participation rates. Another interesting figure shown in **Table 1.21** is the low proportion of countries in Europe and North America (2%) that did not have data about participation rates in ALE.

More countries provided data on ALE participation rates: compared to *GRALE 4*, the *GRALE 5* survey reported an increase of 17 in sub-Saharan Africa, five in the Arab States, 12 in Asia and the Pacific, 15 in Europe and North America and eight in Latin American and the Caribbean. This means that the proportion of countries unable to report on ALE participation rates has declined since 2018.

TABLE 1.21
Participation rates by region

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Below 1%	1% – below 3%	3% – below 5%	5% – below 10%	10% – below 20%	20% – below 50%	More than 50%	Do not know
WORLD	154	23%	0%	0%	12%	16%	19%	16%	14%
REGIONAL GROUPS									
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	19%	0%	0%	3%	8%	31%	28%	11%
Arab States	19	16%	0%	0%	11%	16%	21%	16%	21%
Asia and the Pacific	31	16%	0%	0%	6%	19%	19%	16%	23%
Europe and North America	43	26%	0%	0%	23%	23%	16%	9%	2%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	42%	0%	0%	17%	4%	8%	8%	21%
INCOME GROUPS									
Low income	26	31%	0%	0%	4%	8%	35%	12%	12%
Lower middle income	39	18%	0%	0%	3%	23%	18%	23%	15%
Upper middle income	40	38%	0%	0%	17%	8%	8%	13%	17%
High income	48	13%	0%	0%	21%	19%	23%	15%	10%

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey

The *GRALE 5* survey allowed countries to report the participation rate in adult education, and to provide the information source for their figure. Reporting of ALE participation is sometimes obtained from official government monitoring and evaluation systems (e.g. in Cambodia, Cote d'Ivoire, Georgia, Germany, Iceland, Jordan, Moldova, Spain and Tanzania), which could be provided by national statistics (e.g. statistical yearbooks in Argentina and Chad, a similar report in Cuba or Education at a Glance in Chile) or specific ministries (e.g. the statistics department of the Ministry of Education for Literacy in Afghanistan or the Office of Planning and Statistics at the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Angola). National agencies or institutes also provide such data, as in the case of India's National Institute of Open Schooling. Participation rates may also be obtained from labour force surveys (e.g. in Belgium, Hungary, Luxembourg, Portugal, Slovakia and Switzerland), adult education surveys (e.g. in Austria and Botswana), or other nationally representative surveys which contain information about participation (e.g. in Albania, Bhutan, Bulgaria and Peru). Some other countries calculate participation rates based on data from enrolment of learners in various programmes and centres (e.g. in Cameroon, Uganda and Venezuela) or

from graduates of formal adult learning courses (in Uzbekistan). Many countries require the collection of this information from many ministries and diverse sources, as they consider not just participation in formal learning but also in non-formal and informal adult courses (e.g. in Chile, Latvia, Mexico, Palestine, the Philippines and Sweden). By region, countries have specific frameworks for the provision of information on the participation of adults in education and training programmes, for instance EUROSTAT for countries in Europe (e.g. in Czechia, Estonia, Finland, Greece and Ireland).

Figure 1.4 shows changes in ALE participation for different target groups. The highest increase is for women at 56%, the next highest for youth at 49% of countries. Only 23% of countries reported an increase in the participation of older adults in ALE, while 24% reported an increase in participation by Indigenous people. About 60% of countries reported that the participation of prisoners, people with disabilities and migrants had not changed since 2018. Finally, 24% of countries reported that the participation of older adults in ALE had declined since 2018.

Figure 1.4
Changes in ALE participation for different groups since 2018

Legend:
- Increased
- Stayed the same
- Decreased
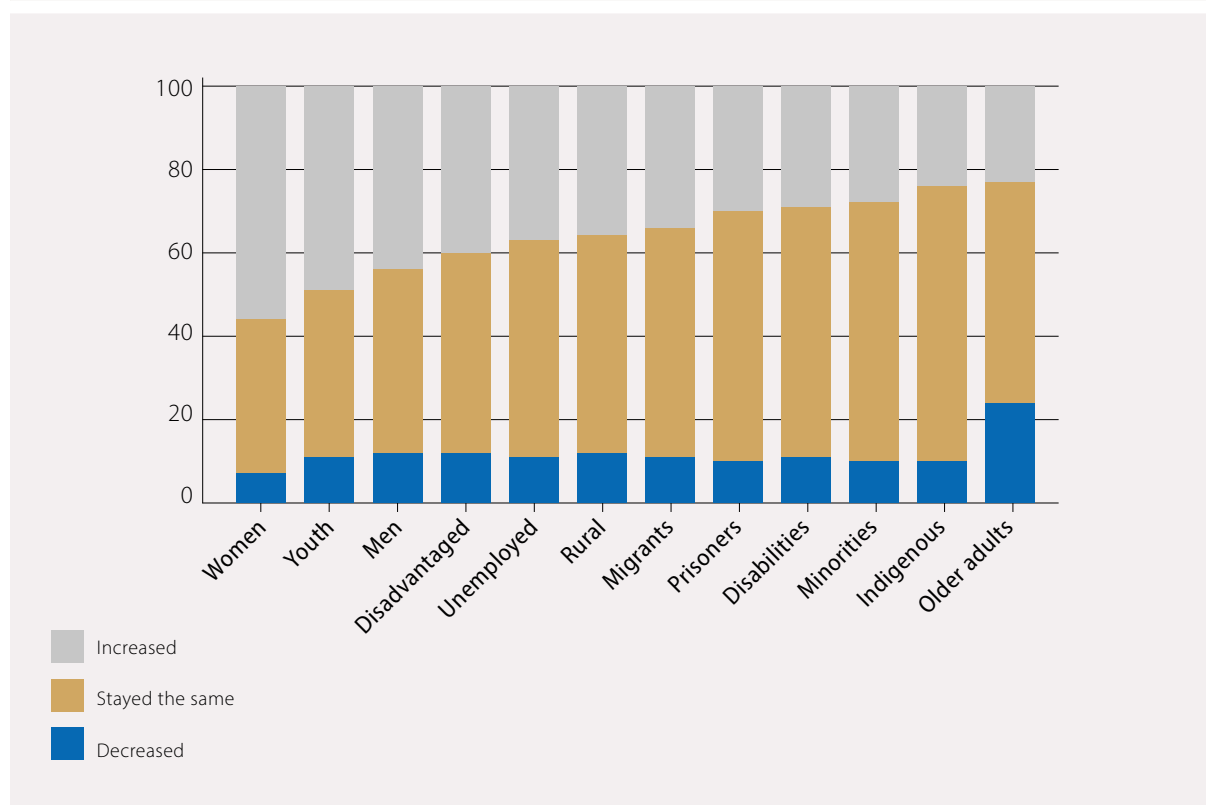
Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Many countries provided examples of changes in ALE participation for different groups since 2018.

Young people:

- Participation by people aged 15–24 has increased in Honduras and Costa Rica as this group is economically active and certifications are required for employment.

- Continuing training of unemployed young people is the focus of ALE provision in Nepal.

- Kuwait reported participation in ALE by young people for reasons beyond employability.

People with disabilities:

- In Botswana, books have been translated into Braille and adult educators have been trained to use Braille with visually impaired adults.

- Ireland reported policies to support more active inclusion of adults with disabilities in further education and training programmes (see **Box 1.22**).

- In Egypt, the number of literacy programmes for people with special needs increased from 16 in 2018 to 53 in 2019.

- In Yemen, the participation of adults with special needs has improved, as it previously depended entirely on personal initiative. In 2018, the country's Literacy and Adult Education Authority set up systems for special-needs education.

- In Greece, training programmes for people with disabilities are provided under the auspices of the Ministry of Work, which collaborates with employers.

- In many countries, limited access to assistive devices, negative societal perceptions, a lack of visibility of adults with disabilities and retrogressive cultural attitudes and practices continue to constrain participation in ALE.

Women:

- Participation policy has focused on intersecting disadvantages experienced by women, which vary according to context. In El Salvador, it has focused on women in rural areas, whereas in Serbia the focus has been on women with disabilities, older women, Roma women and those living in rural areas (see **Box 1.23**).

BOX 1.22
Ireland's efforts to ensure more active inclusion of adults with disabilities

Ireland is supporting the active inclusion of adult learners with disabilities in the following ways:

- Further education and training programmes are available to all learners, including those with a disability who meet the eligibility criteria.

- Specific programmes are provided for people with a disability who require more intensive support; this is achieved through specialist training providers.

- Adaptation of course content, provision of resources and teaching methodologies designed to suit learners with disabilities are provided by community education programmes.

- All further education and training providers offer reasonable accommodation to learners with disabilities. The nature of those accommodations varies depending on the identified needs of individual learners.

  Reasonable accommodations include:

  - project support,
  - one-to-one tutoring,
  - personal assistants,
  - assistive technologies,
  - readers and/or note-takers,
  - sign language interpretation.

Funding for specific supports can be obtained via Ireland's Fund for Students with Disabilities, which allocates funding to approved further and higher education colleges for the provision of services and support to full-time students with disabilities.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

- The use of technology to provide learning opportunities for women has increased their participation. This was the case for women's groups that have benefited from a digital literacy programme by using smartphones in Cote d'Ivoire.

- In Togo, functional literacy programmes for women increased participation, while a health and sanitation intervention was offered in Kiribati, also to increase participation.

- Provision of non-formal education and training (as well as formal education) has been important in increasing women's participation in ALE in Spain.

Minority groups:

- Botswana reported that enrolment had increased among a religious group for whom the ALE curriculum was made more flexible. A customized programme of classes running for two hours per session, enabled this group of learners, known as the Bazezuru, to attend for short periods while continuing to engage in other work-related activities.

- Malaysia reported that religious learning programmes are available, though usually attended by older adults, and may include talks, forums, conventions and speeches.

- Kenya improved participation through the mobilization of adult educators within minority communities (see **Box 1.24**).

- Challenges remain, including a lack of funding for learning services targeting Indigenous populations, closure of learning centres and a lack of materials relevant to the needs of these groups and provided in languages they understand, all of which have continued to affect the participation of ethnolinguistic minorities in many countries.

Migrants:

- Uganda reported that an open-door policy for refugees has increased inflows, which in turn has increased participation in ALE. Uganda currently hosts 1.43 million refugees, many of whom do not speak English and have had limited access to formal education.

- In Cabo Verde, immigrants from the African mainland, especially Guinea, Senegal and the Gambia, increased participation in ALE.

- In Mexico, an increase in migration from the neighbouring countries of Central America has necessitated the recognition of qualifications,

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BOX 1.23
Serbia's ALE for gender equality, including intersections of disadvantage

According to the 2018 survey conducted by the Serbian Bureau of Statistics, women's participation in ALE (21.4%) was slightly higher than men's (18%). The illiteracy rate was also higher among women than men. The latest revision of the Gender Equality Index (2018/19) gives Serbia a score of 55.8 points, lower than the European Union average of 66.2. Therefore, women have been defined as a priority target group for education and training programmes, particularly those:

- with disabilities,
- who are older,
- are of Roma ethnicity,
- are living in rural areas.

Overall, Serbia's Gender Equality Strategy (2016–2020) aims to promote gender awareness and combat bias and stereotypes that affect women's performance in the labour market.

BOX 1.24
Kenya improves ALE participation among minorities

In Kenya, enrolment among minority groups improved as a result of an enhanced partnership with the West Pokot county government that mobilized 420 community adult educators. The intensive mobilization of learners by the Kenya Adult Learners Association (KALA) has also contributed to improving ALE participation. Statistics for 2019 indicated an illiteracy rate of 68.2% in the West Pokot region, with women representing the majority of those lacking literacy skills. The county government aims to halve this number by 2022, eventually bringing it to zero. Community mobilizers use primary schools and church facilities as venues for adult learning. Every sub-location has at least one centre; learners who cannot access such facilities learn under trees for two hours every day.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey (boxes 1.23 & 1.24)

so that ALE opportunities can be provided to immigrant groups.

- First-generation immigrants in Iceland now make up just over 14% of the total population. ALE programmes are used to improve the skills of adult migrants while research is conducted to enable the setting up of education programmes that prevent young people from dropping out early.

- Sweden reported that participation by migrants in ALE increased from 131,000 to 145,000.

Finally, countries reported examples involving older adults, residents of rural areas, the unemployed and prisoners. Spain reported that the participation of senior citizens aged 65 and over in ALE had increased from 1.6% in 2018 to 1.8% in 2019. Yet, many countries reported that the participation of older adults in ALE has declined over time (e.g. in Cabo Verde, Colombia, Estonia, Palestine and Yemen).

- The University of the Third Age (U3A) was set up in Mauritius in 2012 with the aim of helping older adults to contribute positively to society. Approximately 1,000 people have been trained to date, and there is an increase in the number of candidates joining the university each year.

- Belgium reported that courses organized by the Public Employment Service had increased from 43,236 courses reaching 31,340 individual learners in 2018 to 47,603 courses reaching 34,334 individual learners in 2019. Estonia reported that the participation rate of unemployed adults had increased from 20.1% in 2018 to 22.3% in 2019 and, for the first time, exceeded participation by employed adults.

- Cambodia reported participation had increased due to the provision of literacy programming in prisons, as was the case in Greece through the provision of multiple learning programmes for young inmates (see **Box 1.25**). The Philippines reported that inmate enrolment for skills training offered by TESDA (Technical Education and Skills Development Authority) had risen by 40% between 2018 and 2019. Belarus reported that educational programmes for convicts had expanded (likewise in Armenia, Colombia, Honduras, Malawi and Palestine).

- Literacy and vocational training was offered for learners in prisons in Eritrea and Malawi.

BOX 1.25
Greece increases ALE participation in prisons

Greece's Summer Schools programme is offered in prisons to provide younger inmates, under the age of 35, with opportunities for education in democratic citizenship and human rights, skills development and competences for intercultural dialogue and social inclusion, in addition to support with language and communication skills. This programme has offered opportunities for sports, culture, art, drama and recreational activities in various prisons in Greece since 2015. In 2019, the 15 Summer Schools benefited about 600 young inmates.

Thanks to this programme and others that include vocational training, literacy and basic skills, as well as the Greek language, Greece reported an increased number of prisoners participating in ALE at the beginning of the school year 2018/19 (3,151 prisoners) compared to 2016/17 (2,703 prisoners), representing an increase in participation of approximately 17%.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.22
Proportion of countries reporting progress in improving access to and participation in ALE since 2018

	Total responses GRALE 5	Yes
WORLD	153	76%
REGIONAL GROUPS		
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	84%
Arab States	19	63%
Asia and the Pacific	29	93%
Europe and North America	43	65%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	75%
INCOME GROUPS		
Low income	26	69%
Lower middle income	39	90%
Upper middle income	39	79%
High income	48	67%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Table 1.22 shows that, overall, 76% of reporting countries noted progress in improving access to and participation in ALE since 2018. Ninety-three per cent of countries in Asia and the Pacific reported notable progress, closely followed by sub-Saharan Africa with 84%. The lowest reported improvements by region were from the Arab States at 63%, and Europe and North America at 65%. When considering income groups, the highest proportion of countries reporting improvement in ALE participation was in lower middle-income countries (90%).

Table 1.23 on changes in participation by fields of learning since 2018 shows that for the first two fields of learning – adult literacy and basic skills and continuing training and professional development (also known as vocational skills, or technical vocational education and training, or TVET) – between 45% and 50% of countries reported an increase in participation. A similar proportion of countries reported no change in ALE participation for these fields of learning. Only 7% of countries reported a decrease in participation for both adult literacy and basic skills and vocational skills. With respect to citizenship education, 40% of countries reported an increase in participation in this field of learning whereas 56% reported no change and 4% reported a decrease in participation.

Many countries reported changes in ALE participation in literacy and basic skills, mostly illustrating progress (see Cuba's example in **Box 1.26**). Afghanistan reported a focus on ethnic groups and minority groups, and therefore the use of many languages, with particular attention to literacy for adults in rural areas. The country particularly focused on supporting literacy for nomads, or Kochi people, through educators from within that community. Kuwait reported improvement in the literacy rate of older adults, while in Morocco the focus has been on improving literacy for young adults aged 15 to 24 with an increase of 6% between 2018/19 and 2019/20. A focus on improving literacy and foundational skills for young adults can also be seen in Angola, Eritrea and Guinea, countries which aim to increase young adult participation. The focus in Mozambique and Cambodia has been on supporting young women's literacy development with specialized programmes. Yet, some countries also reported challenges in supporting the participation of adults in literacy programmes due to budget cuts, a lack of resources, including materials, and low prioritization of specific groups that are most likely to lack literacy skills, such as older adults, women and those living in remote areas.

TABLE 1.23
Changes in participation according to fields of learning since 2018

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased
Literacy and basic skills	134	7%	45%	49%
Continuing training and professional development	135	7%	48%	45%
Citizenship education	128	4%	56%	40%

Source: GRALE Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.26
Cuba has addressed literacy but still aims to improve through research

Cuba declared itself a Territory Free of Illiteracy in 1961 through the Great Literacy Campaign, and promoted continuity of studies for all literate people through the Battle for the Sixth and the Battle for the Ninth grade of compulsory schooling for all young people and adults – resulting in a national illiteracy rate of just 0.2%. Reportedly, the Youth and Adult Education sub-system enables access to higher educational levels and postgraduate education. Experiences from this work are currently being systematized in a research project aimed at improving the education sub-system and literacy programmes, as well as the study continuity programmes that Cuba develops abroad. This work focuses on improving plans and programmes of the three levels of adult education, reaching postgraduate studies, and training managers, officials and teachers who work in youth and adult education nationally and internationally through activities of international cooperation.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Some countries also provided examples of progress in terms of participation in TVET as a field of adult learning. The United Arab Emirates reported on programmes to develop youth employability skills and establish youth councils and government accelerators. In Armenia, training for the unemployed was implemented through TVET programmes. Greece reported more organized practical training for young adults in cooperation with universities and other institutions to promote voluntary work and enhance professional development and work skills. Similar programmes for on-the-job training were developed in Jamaica. Guyana reported that the percentage of women, men and youth aged 15 and over participating in technical institutes increased between 2017 and 2019 by 33%, while in the Philippines, enrolment of women in TVET programmes increased by 4% between 2018 and 2019.

5.2
KEY FINDINGS ON PARTICIPATION IN ALE

- There have been important gains in relation to participation, with 52% of the countries surveyed reporting an increase in overall participation in ALE. The increase in participation was highest in lower middle-income countries (67%).

- The participation rate in ALE was higher in sub-Saharan Africa than in any other region. There, 59% of countries reported a participation rate exceeding 20%. By contrast, 16% of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and 25% in Europe and North America reported participation rates above 20%. The high participation rate in Africa may be explained in part by a strong demand for adult literacy and second-chance education, but it is very encouraging to note that there is provision as well as demand.

- No examples were provided of improved participation for citizenship education as a field of learning, suggesting that progress in this area is still lacking. On a positive note, 40% of countries reported an increase in participation in liberal, popular and community education (i.e. citizenship education) while 56% reported no change and 4% reported a decrease in participation.

- Likely drivers of increased participation in ALE include more digital, flexible and distance learning provision, as well as more relevant curricula with materials tailored to learners' interests and needs and produced in local languages.

- Thirteen per cent of countries reported an overall decrease in participation. The trend was highest in Latin America and the Caribbean, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States.

- The absence of recent data on participation in many countries (and especially in the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean) continues to be a major obstacle to effective policy-making and evaluation.

- Sixty per cent or more of countries reported no change in participation by prisoners, people with disabilities, minorities and Indigenous populations. This finding is of some concern given that their specific vulnerability calls for increased and better-targeted educational interventions. Under the BFA, Member States are committed to preventing 'exclusion arising from age, gender, ethnicity, migrant status, language, religion, disability, rurality, sexual identity or orientation, poverty, displacement or imprisonment.' Since participation is understood as a proxy indicator for accessibility, low participation by the above-mentioned groups indicates the existence of relevant barriers to access. Policy-makers must actively work to identify and remove these.

- Twenty-four per cent of countries reported a decrease in participation in ALE for older adults, compared to 10% reporting the same decline in *GRALE 4*. This finding suggests a growing gap in relation to educational opportunity in times of demographic change. This issue needs to be addressed urgently, for example with policies designed to support the use of internet-based approaches, as well as other specific programmes for older people.

- The many examples provided by countries on ALE for prisoners suggest an expansion of policy initiatives for this category of learners.

CHAPTER 6

QUALITY

As stated in the BFA, 'Quality … demands constant attention and *continuous development*' (UIL, 2010, p. 8). This global commitment emphasizes that quality ALE provision is a 'holistic, multidimensional concept and practice', which should be regularly tracked and evaluated. To achieve quality provision of ALE for diverse groups of people with different interests, needs and demands, the BFA 'requires relevant content and modes of delivery, learner-centred needs assessment, curricula that allow acquisition of multiple competences and areas of knowledge, the professionalization of educators, the enrichment of the learning environment, and the empowerment of individuals and communities' (UIL, 2010, pp. 8–9).

This section looks at the progress achieved in terms of quality of ALE provision since 2018. GRALE reports place particular importance on the development of quality criteria for curricula design, learning materials and teaching methodologies, but also support for teachers and facilitators to improve practice: an important aspect of quality is improving employment conditions for adult educators. These aspects are considered in terms of the fields of learning defined in the RALE.

6.1
MONITORING ALE QUALITY SINCE 2018

GRALE 5 collected information on improvements in ALE curricula, assessment of learning outcomes and whether the resulting data is actually used to inform policy and planning processes. In addition, information was collected on whether there has been progress on developing learning materials, teaching methods and using ICT in teaching and learning processes. Finally, information was requested on progress in the provision of pre-service and in-service training for ALE educators, mainly trainers and facilitators, and on changes to their employment conditions since 2018. These indicators of quality were disaggregated according to the fields of learning defined in RALE (literacy and basic skills, continuing training and professional development, and citizenship education). Qualitative data was also requested from participating countries on good practices for improving ALE quality generally, and specifically in relation to input and elements that support effective learning.

6.1.1
Overall progress and challenges

Many elements of ALE quality were reported as instrumental to improving provision since 2018. For instance, ALE quality depends heavily on effective teacher training (as cited by Micronesia and Nicaragua) and the development of professional standards for ALE educators (as cited by Ukraine). In Kenya, the focus was on developing ALE curricula, provision and assessment. Other countries focused on the regulatory aspect of ALE, with improvements to the regulatory framework and quality assurance (e.g. in Egypt, Malta and Malaysia – see **Box 1.27** on the latter country's evaluation efforts and new accreditation guidelines).

BOX 1.27
Malaysia's efforts to assure high-quality ALE programming

Different ALE providers in Malaysia – from public and private universities and colleges to polytechnics and community colleges and training centres – conduct evaluations and pursue continuous quality improvement to promote learning outcomes from programming every semester, as required by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA). The MQA developed several guidelines for ALE quality, including:

- The Code of Practice for Programme Accreditation (COPPA) Edition 2 (2018)

- The Code of Practice for Programme Accreditation: Open and Distance Learning (COPPA:ODL) Second Edition (November 2019)

- The Code of Practice for TVET Programme Accreditation (COPTPA) (October 2019)

Reportedly, each guideline sets out the required assessment, along with an analysis of learning outcomes by ALE providers.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

The development of learning materials for adults is also central to enhancing quality. In many countries (e.g. in Belgium, Germany, Mauritius and Morocco), these materials were made available digitally. In terms of content, the materials focused on using entrepreneurship skills (e.g. in Nicaragua and Peru) or foundational skills such as literacy and numeracy (e.g. in Germany, Kenya, Morocco, Romania, Serbia, Togo and Uganda), citizenship education (e.g. in Peru and Uganda) and TVET skills (e.g. in Serbia). Another important aspect of quality is research-informed provision, as reported by Cuba. Research is also conducted on assessment of learning outcomes (e.g. in Kiribati, Malaysia and Portugal), particularly with respect to the social outcomes (e.g. in Cuba), personal development (e.g. in Nicaragua), professional development (e.g. in Estonia, Hungary and Ireland) and the formation of basic skills (e.g. in Serbia, Togo and

BOX 1.28
Romania's innovative approach to improving ALE: The Second Chance programme

Romania's Second Chance programme supports adolescents, young people and adults from diverse backgrounds who have not attended or completed primary or secondary education. In order to ensure quality provision of the programme, the following elements were included:

- a modular curriculum;

- a credit system for basic education;

- evaluation;

- certification and recognition of skills previously acquired by learners to ensure an individualized training programme;

- training programmes for teaching staff;

- provision of learning materials that meet learners' needs.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Uganda). Many countries reported having improved multiple elements of ALE provision, as in the case of Romania (see **Box 1.28**).

Yet, many countries reported challenges in developing principles and practices to promote quality ALE. At the top of the list were a lack of security and political, social and economic instability resulting from conflict (in Sudan and Yemen, for example). Financial limitations were also cited by a few countries as a barrier to further progress on ALE quality (reported by Honduras, Lebanon and Malawi). Additionally, a lack of progress in developing quality assurance mechanisms (in Botswana and Bulgaria) and retention schemes (in Mozambique) prevented further progress in ensuring ALE quality, as did a lack of training for ALE educators (in Cameroon and Palestine). Limited use of ICT was also an issue (e.g. in Palestine). Other countries reported that the complexity of ALE, with its diversity of modalities, from formal to non-formal and informal learning formats, as well as diversity of providers (private sector, NGOs,

government), made significant, scaled-up progress in quality difficult to achieve during the reporting period (e.g. in Chile and New Zealand).

6.1.2
Progress in developing curricula, assessment and analysis of learning outcomes

Table 1.24 shows reported developments in quality for ALE curricula, assessment and analysis of learning outcomes. Improvements to curricula and assessment since 2018 were reported by 77% and 75% of countries, respectively, while slightly fewer (68%) reported improvements in analysing learning outcomes. There were many examples of countries improving quality for ALE curricula, and several different processes for achieving this work. For instance, Fiji and Slovenia indicated that improvements in curricula included the development of guidelines for curriculum developers, and Hungary also developed criteria to this end. In Jamaica, structural changes were required by merging the quality assurance institute with the national training

agency to centralize the development of the curriculum for ALE. Other countries reported updating syllabi (e.g. Cambodia and Moldova), bringing the curricula into better alignment with the needs of the economy (e.g. in Albania and Estonia – see **Box 1.29**), and integrating local learning materials into the curriculum, particularly for improving foundational literacy, numeracy, language and religious education for adults (e.g. in Tanzania).

Another important improvement in the quality of ALE curricula came from the inclusion of disadvantaged groups (see **Box 1.30** on Kenya's competence-based curricula). Romania reported that the aim of the project 'Relevant Curriculum, Open Education for All' was to facilitate student-centred teaching and learning processes that support progress regardless of possible challenges, including learning difficulties and disability, or factors related to learners' backgrounds. The design of the relevant curriculum centred on skills training which was integrated with the learner's social context to ensure real-life application. Another example of involving learners in curriculum design was shared by Peru (see **Box 1.31**).

BOX 1.29
Estonia's report on quality controls for ALE curricula

Estonia reported that quality control measures are an important factor in developing and maintaining quality ALE curricula. The appropriateness and correspondence of the learning outcomes are assessed prior to registering them in the Estonian education information system by commissions and experts nominated by the Minister of Education and Research. Since 2015, the labour force and skills intelligence system has been used to analyse the needs of the labour market and the skills required for future economic development. Results of these analyses provide information on skill gaps, which then are incorporated into the curricula to keep it up to date. The effectiveness of the provision of these skills is overseen by the Estonian Quality Agency for Higher and Vocational Education.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.30
Kenya launched its Competency-Based Curriculum in 2019

Kenya reported launching its new Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) in 2019. This aims to ensure that every learner is competent in seven core areas at the end of each learning cycle:

- communication and collaboration;
- critical thinking and problem-solving;
- imagination and creativity;
- citizenship;
- learning to learn;
- self-efficacy;
- digital literacy.

The country's National Education Sector Strategic Plan (NESSP) (2018–2022) provides equivalences and linkages between these competences and the formal curriculum for accreditation purposes. This means that informal learners have the opportunity to re-integrate into the formal system.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.31
Peru's initiatives to assure ALE quality focus on learner needs

Peru reported approving curricular programmes for ALE as a result of work sessions with teachers and students. In particular, these programmes have been adapted to the characteristics, needs and expectations of adult learners. The changes included:

- provision of materials;
- validation of content;
- development of competences which were identified by young adults and adult learners;
- scaffolding approaches to learning at beginner, intermediate and advanced levels;
- provision of training and guides for adult educators.

The main thematic areas covered by the curriculum are rights and citizenship, environment and health, territory and culture, and work and entrepreneurship.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.24
Progress in developing quality curricula, assessment and analysing outcomes in ALE since 2018

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Curricula	Assessing outcomes	Analysing outcomes
WORLD	150	77%	75%	68%
REGIONAL GROUPS				
Sub-Saharan Africa	35	74%	76%	71%
Arab States	19	84%	68%	74%
Asia and the Pacific	31	84%	81%	76%
Europe and North America	43	70%	73%	61%
Latin America and the Caribbean	21	81%	71%	62%
INCOME GROUPS				
Low income	24	71%	76%	79%
Lower middle income	38	84%	68%	62%
Upper middle income	40	80%	76%	68%
High income	47	72%	77%	67%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Improvement in curriculum quality was reported by 77% of countries worldwide. Regionally, this broke down as 84% of countries in both the Arab States and Asia and the Pacific, and 70% in Europe and North America. The proportion of countries reporting improvement in the quality of assessment was lowest in the Arab States (68%) and highest in Asia and the Pacific (81%). Of the 68% of countries reporting improvement in analysing learning outcomes, progress was much lower in Europe and North America and Latin America and the Caribbean, at 61% and 62%, respectively.

Considering different income groups, 84% of lower middle-income countries reported progress in terms of curriculum quality, while 68% of lower-middle income countries reported progress in quality of assessment. Significantly, 79% of low-income countries reported progress in analysing outcomes (see **Table 1.24**).

Analysing learning outcomes is a new area that was not included in previous GRALE surveys. Taking all participating countries, there was a slight improvement in the proportion of countries reporting improvements in curricula and assessment since *GRALE 4*. By region, however, the proportion of countries in the Arab States and Asia and the Pacific that reported progress in terms of curriculum quality had significantly increased since *GRALE 4*, by 19 percentage points and 10 percentage

points, respectively. By income group, low-income countries reported less progress in raising the quality of curricula, falling by 17 percentage points compared with *GRALE 4*. With respect to improvements in ALE assessment, there were few reported changes by region or income groups since *GRALE 4*.

Figure 1.5 shows the proportion of countries in which competencies and skills are assessed for learning outcomes according to the response options in the *GRALE 5* survey. Literacy and numeracy are the most assessed competencies, with 81% and 78% of countries reporting assessment of these competencies, respectively. Equally unsurprising was the high proportion of countries (78%) that assessed technical and vocational skills. A slightly lower proportion of countries reported assessing computer, ICT and media skills, which has been a focus of UNESCO's work in recent years and an important modality to offset the possibility of learning disruption, such as that caused by COVID-19 and other emergencies and disasters. The skill reportedly least assessed is intercultural dialogue (by just 37% of countries), which also makes sense given that this area of learning is difficult to assess due to its complex dimensionality and is commonly associated with active and global citizenship education, a field that saw low rates of progress in *GRALE 4* despite being prioritized in SDG 4, Target 4.7.

Figure 1.5
Percentage of countries reporting assessment of learning outcomes for technical and vocational skills
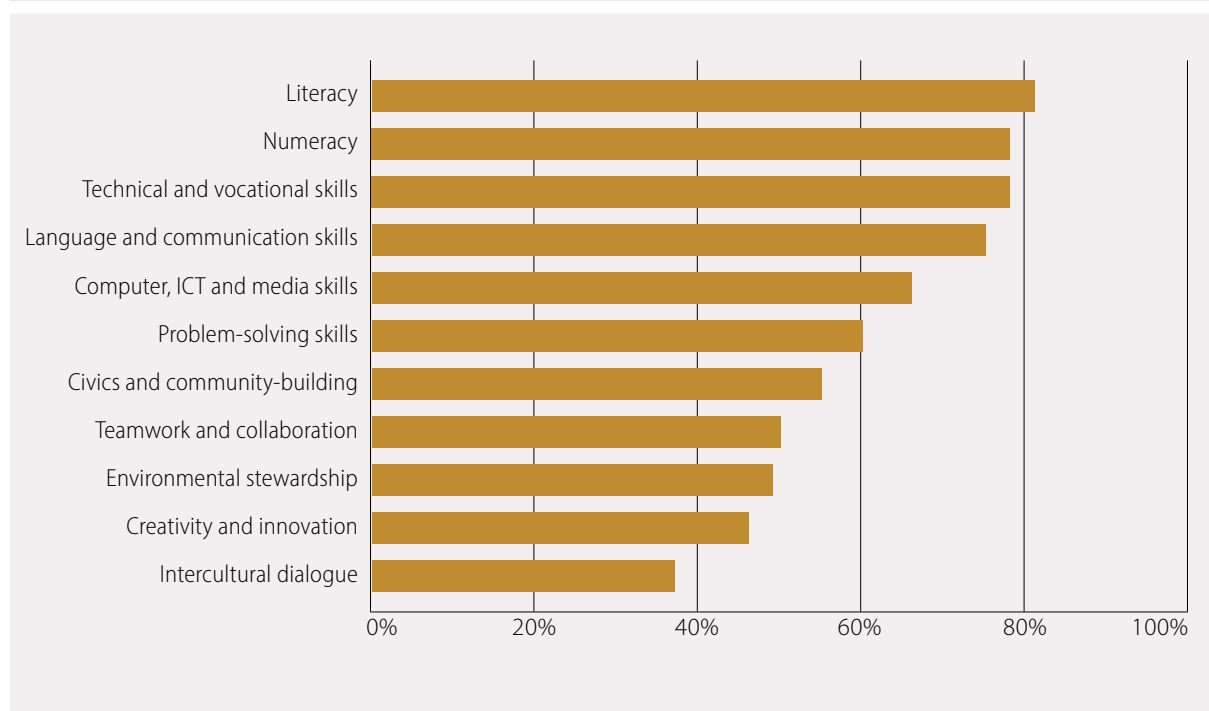
Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey. Based on responses from 152 countries.

A number of countries provided examples of progress made in relation to measuring learning outcomes from ALE. Cambodia updated tools for assessing learning outcomes to understand the knowledge and literacy skills acquired by adults from interventions, particularly non-formal education programmes. Kiribati included analyses of learning outcomes from ALE in its Education Sector Support Programme (ESSP) as one of its objectives. Portugal created a new methodology for the design of qualifications based on learning outcomes, and this has been used to design new qualifications and revise existing ones. Togo joined research action on the measurement of learning for beneficiaries of literacy programmes, which supports using learning outcomes from ALE to inform advocacy efforts and policy-making and reform.

6.1.3
Progress in developing learning materials, ICT education and teaching methodologies

Table 1.25 shows progress in disaggregated areas of ALE quality in developing learning materials, ICT education, and teaching methodologies. Overall, the proportion of countries that reported progress on developing learning materials was 71%, for ICT education 73%, and for teaching methodologies 75%.

When considering different regions, the proportion of countries from Asia and the Pacific reporting progress across these three categories was significant, most notably in ICT education, for which 83% of countries reported improvements. Seventy-nine per cent of countries in the Arab States reported progress in improving the quality of ALE learning materials. Forty-six per cent of countries in sub-Saharan Africa reported progress in developing the quality of ICT education, and 78% reported progress developing teaching methodologies for ALE. By income group, respectively 65% and 74% of low-income and lower middle-income countries reported progress developing learning materials. Seventy-nine per cent of low-income and 74% of lower middle-income countries reported progress developing teaching methodologies. With respect to high-income countries, 70% reported developments in learning materials and 91% reported improvements in ICT education for adults.

Compared with *GRALE 4*, the proportion of countries reporting improvements in the quality of ALE learning materials and teaching methodologies increased by 6 percentage points and 5 percentage points, respectively. Progress in these two areas appears to have stagnated in sub-Saharan Africa but improved for the Asia and the Pacific region. By income group, there was a significant decrease in progress in developing quality in learning materials and teaching

methodologies in low-income countries, falling by 21 percentage points and 26 percentage points, respectively, since *GRALE 4*. By contrast, upper middle-income and high-income countries showed significant increases of over 15 percentage points in developing the quality of learning materials. It is not possible to compare quality of ICT education with *GRALE 4* data as this was a new area added to *GRALE 5*.

A number of countries provided examples of progress in these areas since 2018. In terms of learning materials, Belgium reported developing resources with and for adult education teachers via KlasCement.net, the OER (open educational resource) portal of the Flemish Ministry of Education and Training. Cambodia reported the supply of textbooks and teaching manuals to ALE educators, and Nigeria and Hungary also reported providing textbooks to adult learners. Progress in ICT education was central, not just to reaching more adults but also to equipping them for the requirements of future digital participation in the social and economic spheres. In ICT education, countries reported improvements in digital infrastructure and equipment, such as internet connection and the use of mobile devices for learning (e.g. in Iceland), the development of learning programmes via radio and television (e.g. in Morocco), the digitalization of teaching for non-formal education programmes (e.g. in Cambodia) and the provision of devices to help adults bridge the digital divide between generations (e.g. in Hungary).

Other countries reported improvements in access to online programmes, particularly during the COVID-19 crisis (e.g. in Belgium, Kuwait, Mauritius, Romania and Seychelles). This could be achieved via remote virtual learning environments, such as massive open online courses (MOOCs) or courses offered by open universities (e.g. the Open University of Mauritius's degree programmes for adults or Germany's platform for literacy and basic skills and language development – see **Box 1.32**). It is also important to consider the training that is required for adult educators teaching in new modalities, whether online or blended learning. Barbados reported that ALE teachers have been trained in the use of G-Suite for Education (Google Classroom) and other platforms, while in Hungary training was offered to ALE educators in how to promote online individual and group activities.

6.1.4
Progress in training and employment conditions for ALE educators

Table 1.26 shows reported progress in developing the quality of pre-service training, in-service training and employment conditions for ALE educators, other important areas of ALE quality. Overall, the proportion of countries that reported progress in pre-service

TABLE 1.25
Progress in developing learning materials, ICT education and teaching methodologies

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Learning materials	ICT	Teaching approaches
WORLD	141	71%	73%	75%
REGIONAL GROUPS				
Sub-Saharan Africa	34	62%	46%	78%
Arab States	19	79%	67%	68%
Asia and the Pacific	31	81%	83%	77%
Europe and North America	36	64%	85%	71%
Latin America and the Caribbean	20	75%	83%	76%
INCOME GROUPS				
Low income	23	65%	39%	79%
Lower middle income	38	74%	63%	74%
Upper middle income	39	72%	80%	77%
High income	40	70%	91%	71%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.32
Germany's use of ICT for literacy and skills training, and for better teaching

Germany reported the launch of an online portal that uses ICT to promote literacy, second language learning and basic skills training. More than 6 million adults in Germany have a low level of literacy; for about half of these, German is not their mother tongue but their second language. Around 40% of migrants in Germany have difficulties reading and writing in the German language. The VHS learning portal (www. vhs-lernportal.de) provides a free online learning programme for German as a second language, literacy education and basic skills training. By 2020, the learning portal had 425,000 users (around 400,000 learners and 25,000 tutor-teachers). Importantly, this platform is free.

German as a second language is offered up to level B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Menu navigation and user interface have been translated into 18 languages. The portal provides literacy and numeracy courses as well as exercises for those studying for school-leaving certificates. It can be used as a complementary tool in classroom training, in blended learning formats or as a completely digital solution. All learners are accompanied by tutors, who provide regular feedback, advice and motivation. The learning portal is designed for use on smartphones and small screens. The corresponding app can be used without an internet connection.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.26
Progress in pre-service training, in-service training and employment conditions

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Pre-service training	In-service training	Employment
WORLD	143	71%	73%	67%
REGIONAL GROUPS				
Sub-Saharan Africa	33	67%	63%	59%
Arab States	18	61%	74%	74%
Asia and the Pacific	30	87%	90%	81%
Europe and North America	40	68%	69%	66%
Latin America and the Caribbean	22	73%	74%	55%
INCOME GROUPS				
Low income	24	67%	67%	61%
Lower middle income	38	63%	67%	60%
Upper middle income	39	77%	77%	74%
High income	42	76%	78%	69%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

training was 71%, while progress on in-service training was reported by 73% of countries and progress on employment conditions by 67% of countries.

Table 1.26 shows that 61% of countries from the Arab States reported progress in pre-service training, compared to 67% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa, 68% of countries in Europe and North America, 73% of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and 87% of countries from Asia and the Pacific. The most progress in in-service training was reported by countries in Asia and the Pacific (at 90%) and the least by countries in sub-Saharan Africa (63%). Asia and the Pacific also scored highest for progress in employment conditions (81%), compared to 59% in sub-Saharan Africa and 55% in Latin America and the Caribbean, the two lowest. There was modest variation between income groups in the progress reported by countries for these areas of ALE quality, with upper middle-income and high-income countries more likely to report progress in the three areas.

Compared to the progress achieved in these areas in *GRALE 4*, there has been significant improvement reported on pre-service training and employment conditions. Overall, the proportion of countries reporting progress in pre-service training increased by 19 percentage points between *GRALE 4* and *GRALE 5*. Similarly, the proportion of countries reporting progress in employment conditions increased by 9 percentage points between the two monitoring rounds. A significant improvement in pre-service training was reported by countries in the Arab States as well as those in Latin America and the Caribbean. With respect to progress in employment conditions, a significant improvement was also reported by countries in the Arab States and those in Asia and the Pacific in *GRALE 5* relative to *GRALE 4*.

The Department of Education issued a memorandum in 2017 for the National Adoption and Implementation of the Philippine Professional Standards for Teachers (PPST). This action recognized the importance of professional standards in the continuing professional development and advancement of teachers, based on the principle of lifelong learning. Following release of the memorandum, the new orientations and trainings were rolled out in 2018 and 2019. A results-based performance management system for teaching personnel of the department was also updated and harmonized with the PPST.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Many examples of improvements in the areas of pre-service and in-service training were provided by countries. Among the key processes for these improvements, countries reported focusing on training for ALE educators who are from traditionally under-represented groups (e.g. in Belgium and Paraguay). Part of the training provided to ALE educators concerns the enhancement of skills required by national standards (for instance, in Egypt, Guyana, Hungary and the Philippines, as described in **Box 1.33**), and andragogical methodologies (e.g. in Montenegro). Training also focuses on strategic skills such as literacy, language and communication (e.g. in Palestine), technical or vocational skills (e.g. in Paraguay), ICT skills (e.g. in Hungary), education for adults with disabilities (e.g. in Kenya) and civic education for adults (e.g. in Greece).

Some countries reported that progress in training was made possible by making in-service training compulsory (e.g. in Hungary and Iceland) and by allowing the achievement of qualifications at graduate and post-graduate level from the training received by ALE educators. For example, training of ALE educators was made possible not just at certificate level, but bachelor's and master's degree levels in Niue, while a partnership with the University of the West Indies in Saint Kitts and Nevis enables ALE educators to join a master's degree programme. Other improvements in pre-service and in-service training were made possible through frameworks for the recognition of adult educators in non-formal provision (e.g. in Cambodia and Fiji) and the creation of networks of ALE educators, usually online (e.g. in Serbia – see **Box 1.34**). Finally, the improvement of ALE educators has to be accompanied by supporting more teacher trainers; such improvement was reported in Kenya with the introduction of master trainers who were specifically trained to support ALE facilitators.

In terms of improving the employment conditions of ALE educators, Belgium reported that the Flemish government has concluded three collective agreements with social partners for teaching staff in basic adult education and higher education. In addition to salary increases, many substantive measures have also been taken to enable a more stable career and improved job security. Better compensation packages were also reported in Nigeria and Romania. In the latter, the salary increases in 2018 for ALE were 25% for all staff, 20% for teaching staff and a 10% overload bonus for teaching staff.

6.1.5
Disaggregated progress for RALE fields of learning

Table 1.27 shows reported progress in developing the quality of ALE with respect to three fields of learning defined in RALE. Overall, the lowest reported progress was in developing quality for literacy skills, reported by 37% of countries, followed by vocational skills with 44% and citizenship education with 51%. The latter is a significant upturn since 2018.

Broken down by region, 45% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa reported progress in developing quality in relation to literacy skills while 39% of countries in that region reported progress in developing ALE quality to promote citizenship competencies. Fifty-eight per cent of countries in the Arab States reported progress in developing quality for vocational skills. In Asia and the Pacific, a high proportion of countries reported progress in developing quality to promote vocational skills and citizenship competencies (both above 60%). In Europe and North America, 21% and 26% of countries reported progress in literacy and vocational skills respectively, compared to 55% for citizenship education.

By income group, 45% of low-income countries reported progress in developing quality for literacy skills. Only about one-third of countries in the other income groups reported progress in this field of learning. With respect to vocational skills, about 40% of countries reported progress, with small variations between income groups. Finally, in terms of building quality in citizenship education, 32% of low-income countries reported progress whereas 57% of high-income countries reported progress in this field of learning.

BOX 1.34
Serbia's continuous efforts to develop skills for ALE educators

In terms of developing ALE educators, Serbia reported on efforts to network and develop competences through training. For example, the eTwinning network is an electronic portal that currently has about 750,000 registered teachers, about 200,000 schools and about 100,000 projects. Through the eTwinning portal, teachers can collaborate in a virtual environment, implement virtual projects and improve their teaching through the many ICT tools that are available. Activities are provided that relate to the training of teachers participating in the implementation of functional primary education programmes for adults (for example, Module 1 is on basic andragogical skills). During the 2018/19 school year, 510 teachers improved their competencies relevant to implementing this type of programme.

Training for teachers that implement programming on functional primary education for adults was developed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development in cooperation with the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade – Institute of Pedagogy and Andragogy. In addition, the Tempus Foundation runs a platform that enables individuals and institutions to be informed about events and exchange best practices and resources through participation in discussion groups, publishing resources or writing blogs. Institutions can present their work and become part of the base of institutions, which gives them the opportunity to be recognized by other institutions and, potentially, be invited to cooperate on projects. Reportedly, the Tempus Foundation has made a great contribution to further continuous professional development of employees.

The country also reported on the establishment of an NQF which provides support for the development of a modern, relevant and flexible education system to:

- ensure the relevance of qualifications (strengthening links between the world of work and education);
- improve access and flexibility in the system of formal and non-formal education;
- ensure the recognition of non-formal and informal learning;
- support orientation towards learning outcomes and the application of the concept of lifelong learning;
- provide reference points for quality assurance;
- ensure the comparability of Serbian qualifications with the European Qualifications Framework in order to facilitate international recognition.

Serbia's NQF includes the number and description of qualification levels, relationships between qualifications, pathways and progress in relation to the labour market and civil society. It covers the national qualifications system, mapping qualifications of all levels and types regardless of method of acquisition or age of learner.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

TABLE 1.27
Progress in the quality of ALE with respect to fields of learning since 2018

	Total responses *GRALE 5*	Literacy and basic skills	Continuing training and professional development	Citizenship education
WORLD	154	37%	44%	51%
REGIONAL GROUPS				
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	45%	43%	39%
Arab States	19	47%	58%	44%
Asia and the Pacific	31	34%	61%	65%
Europe and North America	42	21%	26%	55%
Latin America and the Caribbean	24	45%	38%	46%
INCOME GROUPS				
Low income	26	45%	46%	32%
Lower middle income	39	36%	46%	50%
Upper middle income	41	32%	39%	54%
High income	47	37%	43%	57%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

A few countries provided specific examples of how ALE quality has improved to better promote literacy and basic skills. Among those:

- Afghanistan developed and implemented in-service training guidelines for all literacy facilitators.

- Provision of literacy linked to the realities and needs of learners was used to improve the quality of this area of ALE in Uganda and Serbia.

- Literacy teachers in Algeria and Oman benefitted from initial training for entrants to the ALE teaching profession and opportunities for participation in in-service training.

- Guinea drafted a national policy and competency framework for literacy and non-formal education.

- Mali introduced ICT into literacy and non-formal education programmes.

- Ireland developed research reports, guidelines and toolkits on screening and assessment of literacy and numeracy at levels 4–6 of its national qualifications framework.

- Oman introduced monitoring systems to have records of training received by adult educators in the field of literacy. Such records include transcripts of qualifications, training attendance and data protection statements.

- A comprehensive approach to literacy acquisition linked to community development was provided by Uganda (see **Box 1.35**).

With respect to the development of ALE quality for continuing training and professional development (including technical vocational education and training), the following improvements were reported:

- Georgia and Serbia reviewed teacher standards to improve pre-service and in-service training for educators that promote VET in the country.

- Guyana, Lithuania and Serbia reported alignment of qualifications of VET educators to national qualifications frameworks.

- Hungary reported a compulsory 60 hours of further teacher training every four years, as well as improvements in the employment conditions of educators working in vocational education and training, with increases in salaries and more flexible working arrangements.

- Georgia reported engagement with the private sector to develop skills needs assessments.

Uganda reported progress in improving quality in ALE by relating literacy and numeracy knowledge and skills to the specific context, needs and interests of communities. This programme promotes integration as key to developing and implementing a multi-pronged, multidisciplinary approach to adult education and system enhancement. Through this mix, there are deliberate efforts by partners to mobilize various kinds of participation in ALE at all levels of implementation that involve different government departments. This approach promotes local community resource contribution in addition to financial support from different government departments.

Adult educators are selected for this programme based on a set of standards. They must possess the Ugandan Certificate of Education, be willing to serve the community, and have effective communication skills, among other competencies. Educators undergo a mandatory 15 days of pre-service training to build their skills and capacity to teach adults in the classroom. They must also undergo five days of in-service training every six months to address any skills gaps that may arise during teaching. Educators are formally engaged by the responsible officer of lower local government, which is confirmed by a letter of engagement on completion of pre-service training. This letter details the terms of reference and responsibilities of their role, as well as the monthly stipend. It further explains the professional support and the management structure within which adult educators operate.

Efforts are made to ensure that content, learning materials development and teaching-learning methodology reflect the reality of the local community. This approach requires the involvement of managers, supervisors, facilitators and adult learners in developing learning materials. Also, the facilitator's guide is the main teaching-learning material available to orient instruction for the programme. It is composed of several units based on issues identified from the situational analysis carried out in each of the communities where the programme takes place. These learning materials also align with the national development agenda laid out in the National Development Plan and Vision 2040, all focusing on the transformation of Uganda from low-income to middle-income status. In literacy classes, facilitators also use a variety of supplementary materials, including posters and leaflets, mainly on topical issues concerning health, agriculture and the environment. Facilitators use locally available materials in the learning process to engage learners. Finally, the programme uses continuous formative and summative assessments to measure programme effectiveness.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Finally, with respect to improvements in the quality of ALE for active and global citizenship education, the following examples were reported:

- Honduras reported that citizenship education is intended to be a process of continuing and inclusive training that contributes to the transfer of practical theoretical knowledge as well as the development of civic skills and citizenship values, the promotion of active participation and encouraging people to be mindful of their rights and duties.

- In El Salvador, training in citizenship skills provides the tools to support adult learners in developing their identities, exercising fundamental rights and participating peacefully in public life.

- According to Venezuela, citizenship education is based on respect for all schools of thought and aims to develop the creative potential of each citizen and the full expression of their personality in a democratic society. Furthermore, it promotes ethical values of work and the active, conscious and joint participation of different people in processes of social transformation, which are part of the country's national identity.

- Costa Rica provided a narrative on how citizenship education for adults must be viewed holistically throughout ALE provision (see **Box 1.36**).

BOX 1.36
Costa Rica's philosophy on the holistic nature of civic education

Costa Rica reported on its holistic approach to promoting active and global citizenship through ALE. Where citizenship is concerned, diverse experiences demonstrate that making it part of a dedicated subject is not enough. Nor is it enough for citizenship to run through the curriculum. Citizenship education must guide the entire process of teaching and learning; therefore, it involves the whole community of educators and learners. For instance, there has to be consistency between theory and practice. Lectures cannot focus on ethics and civic values but be coupled with authoritarian teaching practices. Responsibility and rights are only learned if their conceptualization goes hand-in-hand with practice, and the practice itself is conceptualized. Hence, Costa Rica is redefining key relationships: adult-adolescent, teacher-student and school-community.

In citizenship education, skills and abilities that people can develop in order to live together take on a particular significance under a democratic framework of the rule of law and respect for rights in their fullest sense. There are practices that must be learned and rehearsed until they are not only understood but have become intuitive. Fundamental values that underpin this field of learning, such as justice, equity, autonomy, tolerance, respect and appreciation of diversity, respect for dignity and the expansion of freedom, must be internalized. Solidarity and empathy are also part of the process of learning to identify with others. According to Costa Rica, this kind of education promotes a stronger sense of democracy, a responsibility to the individual, to others in society and to the environment.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

6.2
KEY FINDINGS ON ALE QUALITY

- Approximately three-quarters of participating countries reported progress in assuring quality in ALE curricula and assessment. Countries in Asia and the Pacific exceeded this level. Less progress was reported on analysing the outcomes of ALE, though still over 60% in all countries (up to almost 80% in low-income countries) reported such improvement.

- Over three-quarters of participating countries reported progress in developing quality assessments for literacy, numeracy and vocational skills, with less improvement in relation to citizenship education and intercultural dialogue, creativity, innovation and environmental stewardship.

- Over 70% of participating countries reported progress in developing learning materials and ICT (over 80% in Asia and the Pacific), with plenty of examples illustrating this. Fewer countries made progress on teaching methodologies, especially in the Arab States.

- Over two-thirds of participating countries reported progress on pre-service and in-service training for ALE educators, as well as on employment conditions, though this progress varied considerably by region. Stronger focus is needed on improving employment conditions in low-income and lower middle-income countries. Better employment conditions help to ensure adoption, retention and 'ownership' of ALE practice.

- The number of countries that reported an overall improvement in quality for the three fields of learning in RALE was relatively low, at 50% or less. Nonetheless, Member States reported significant quality improvements in citizenship education. It would be interesting to find out more about whether and how citizenship education is embedded in literacy and vocational skills and how the different fields of learning interact to strengthen quality.

- Many countries cited challenges in promoting ALE quality, from a lack of security and stability to budget limitations and a need for more mechanisms and tools. The complexity of ALE (in terms of the diversity of modalities and providers) was also reported as a challenge.

THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON ALE IN PARTICIPATING COUNTRIES

The design of the *GRALE 5* survey coincided with the emergence of COVID-19, and so a few questions, both closed- and open-ended, were included to gain an early understanding of the pandemic's impact on ALE in UNESCO Member States. It is important to note, however, that this snapshot, taken just a few months into the pandemic, is not intended to represent the range of challenges and changes that resulted from this unprecedented global crisis.

Table 1.28 shows that almost all of the 112 responding countries reported that COVID-19 had had an impact on ALE. When countries are aggregated by income group, only slight variation can be seen (i.e. 100% of low-income countries reported 'Yes' compared to 92%

of high-income countries). There was a wider spread between regions than income groups, mainly due to fewer countries in the Arab States reporting a heavy impact of the pandemic, though a large majority (80%) still agreed with this statement.

Member States offered many examples of ways in which COVID-19 had an impact on ALE, the most common being the disruption of in-person learning, the closure of education providers, reduced participation and funding, compromised quality and increased inequality. Different reasons were provided for these impacts. For example, Armenia, Ecuador, Hungary, Latvia and Romania reported that their governments declared a state of emergency, while Argentina, Bhutan, Cuba,

TABLE 1.28
Has the current SARS CoV 2 (COVID-19) pandemic had an impact on ALE in your country?

	Total responses GRALE 5	Yes
WORLD	112	95%
REGIONAL GROUPS		
Sub-Saharan Africa	21	100%
Arab States	15	80%
Asia and the Pacific	17	94%
Europe and North America	38	95%
Latin America and the Caribbean	21	100%
INCOME GROUPS		
Low income	13	100%
Lower middle income	27	96%
Upper middle income	34	94%
High income	38	92%

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Nigeria, Norway and Trinidad and Tobago reported that lockdowns prevented in-person learning. The Czech Republic reported that hygiene measures became a barrier to in-person learning.

Both ALE educators and learners felt these impacts. For example, the Gambia, Kenya, Yemen and Zambia indicated that ALE educators were made redundant, were not paid or were unable to work. Sometimes, a lack of ALE activity and therefore tuition fees made it difficult to continue compensating educators. Adult learners were also impacted and had less time for ALE, for example because they contracted the virus (e.g. as reported by South Sudan and Zimbabwe) or were affected by related stress, fatigue and mental health issues (e.g. as reported by Guyana, Mexico and Malta). Communication was also negatively affected. For example, Estonia reported that information on ALE became fragmented and did not always match reality. In Kenya, the disruption of in-person learning limited information-sharing about the pandemic, and Sierra Leone reported a loss of contact with adult learners. Research, experimentation and development of ALE activities were also interrupted (e.g. as reported by Italy and the United States).

As **Table 1.29** shows, most of the 114 participating countries (86%) indicated that they developed strategies to address the impact of COVID-19 on ALE. While some variation can be seen by income group – with high-income countries reporting the highest share of strategies (92%) and upper-middle income countries reporting the lowest (79%) – still over three-quarters of all groups reported that they had put strategies in place to continue ALE activities. A similar pattern is discernible by region, with Asia and the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean reporting the largest share of countries with relevant strategies (94% and 91%, respectively) and the Arab States and Africa reporting the smallest share (80% and 81%, respectively).

Many Member States offered examples of the strategies they adopted to cushion the impact of COVID-19 on ALE through rapid transitions to more flexible approaches such as online/digital learning, distance learning (including television, radio and telephone) or modifying in-person learning arrangements. Several countries reported new legislation, policies, plans, strategies, guidelines and regulatory measures to support this process. Some also noted adjustments to quality standards (e.g. Greece and Malaysia),

TABLE 1.29
Has your country developed an approach or strategy to address the impact of the SARS CoV 2 (COVID-19) pandemic on ALE?

	Total responses GRALE 5	Yes
WORLD	114	86 %
REGIONAL GROUPS		
Sub-Saharan Africa	21	81 %
Arab States	15	80 %
Asia and the Pacific	18	94 %
Europe and North America	38	84 %
Latin America and the Caribbean	22	91 %
INCOME GROUPS		
Low income	13	85 %
Lower middle income	28	86 %
Upper middle income	34	79 %
High income	39	92 %

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

curriculum (e.g. Bhutan, Chile, Kuwait and Nicaragua) and assessment practices (e.g. Chile, China, Malaysia and Venezuela). To enable ALE educators and learners to make these transitions, new models, platforms, tools, resources and credentials were developed, and access to online opportunities and connectivity increased. Some countries reported an increase in ALE funding in response to the pandemic (e.g. Colombia, Eritrea, Estonia, Germany, Latvia, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Singapore). Remuneration for ALE educators was maintained at the same level in France and Cyprus. Following health procedures and social distancing rules, some countries reported a continuation, though constrained, of in-person learning, whether through smaller groups or in modified phases (e.g. in Albania, Iceland, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Seychelles and Syria). Some countries reported that participation in and demand for ALE increased during this period (e.g. Canada, Ireland, Kyrgyzstan, Spain and Ukraine). Self-directed and intergenerational learning also became more important (e.g. in Ecuador, Ghana, Guinea, Honduras, Kenya and Poland), along with community education (e.g. in Iran, Japan and Uganda). To address learning gaps caused by the disruption, Belgium, Grenada and Rwanda reported that remedial courses were offered.

Some Member States also reported challenges in making these transitions, particularly to online/digital learning and distance-learning approaches, which resulted in unequal access to ALE. Over 20 countries provided reasons why it was not possible to transition to online/digital learning, ranging from technological gaps and connectivity issues to a lack of ICT tools for some learners and educators or a lack of system and institutional infrastructure. Serbia, for example, reported that difficulties arose in delivering learning materials to students at a distance due to problems associated with transportation and the postal service. Belarus, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Fiji and Germany cited a lack of teacher preparation to shift online, though other countries reported successfully addressing this issue (e.g. Armenia, Luxembourg and Trinidad and Tobago). Several countries reported that adult learners lacked the preparation to shift to online/digital learning. Other challenges reported included having a quiet place at home to participate in this form of learning (e.g. as reported by Canada), competition at home over the use of ICT tools and Internet access (e.g. in Chile and the United States), and not having Internet access (e.g. in Jordan). Denmark and Greece also reported that it was difficult to support adult learners with special needs without the physical presence of teachers.

BOX 1.37
Mexico uses radio strategies for increasing equal access to ALE

Mexico reported implementing its Learn at Home programme to promote continuity during the pandemic for Indigenous families, people with disabilities and young people and adults aged 15 and over learning to read and write or in primary and secondary education. To target Indigenous people, for example, a radio strategy was carried out with contents and methodology corresponding to an initial level of bilingualism on topics of health care, food, the environment, civic culture and the application of certain concepts in practical activities. A total of 518 programmes were broadcast from 22 April to 17 July 2020 on 17 stations of the National Institute of Indigenous Peoples' Cultural Radio Broadcasting System. Radio was also part of a strategy to reach people with disabilities, to enable them to learn collaboratively and improve their life experience during the period of social distancing. At the time of reporting, this series comprised 20 radio programmes with themes related to the management of emotions, the importance of play and affection in the family, civic culture and the improvement of the environment. These programmes were planned for dissemination through the Mexican Radio Broadcasting System, and to be translated into Mexican Sign Language to share through social networks for deaf people.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

BOX 1.38
Australia creates a new higher education qualification from a short course

A new higher education qualification type, the Undergraduate Certificate (UC), was added to the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) to support a short-course measure in the Australian Government's COVID-19 higher education relief package. The UC was introduced to support workers affected by the pandemic through providing opportunities to reskill, upskill and improve employability. It qualifies individuals with knowledge and skills for further study, professional upskilling, employment and participation in lifelong learning. The UC is the first undergraduate shorter-form credential to be formally recognized under the AQF. It certifies completion of six months of full-time study towards an existing AQF qualification from Level 5 (higher education diploma) to Level 7 (bachelor's degree).

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

A few countries also mentioned the difficulty of offering applied vocational programmes online. At times, there was a lack of financing to support this transition (e.g. in Fiji). Even when online/digital or distance learning were available, some countries (e.g. Fiji, Malta and Serbia) indicated that many adult learners chose not to participate.

GRALE 5 provides a snapshot of the initial impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on education systems. At the time of publication, we are aware that this impact has been far heavier than anticipated. The most apparent effect at this juncture is the accelerated progression to remote and technology-assisted modes of learning (UNESCO, 2021a). Since access to ICT was already highly inequitable at the outset of the pandemic, its widespread adoption in education is likely to have left certain regions and population groups even further behind. It will require many years of further research and enquiry before the full extent of that impact is known and understood. We hope that the reporting process following CONFINTEA VII will contribute to this enquiry.

BOX 1.39
Ireland widens access to e-learning opportunities

In March 2020, SOLAS, Ireland's state agency for further education and training, opened up eCollege, its online training facility, to support all those adversely affected by COVID-19. During the period of March to July 2020, eCollege had approximately 22,000 enrolments, in excess of a seven-fold increase over the same period in 2019. Approximately 20% of the enrolments were in project management courses. To respond to COVID-19, plans to expand access to eCollege have been accelerated, with considerable success in attracting a new range of learners to online learning. The potential to further develop eCollege as a national online learning service is a key element of the digital transformation agenda in Ireland's new FET Strategy 2020–2024. Working in tandem with Education and Training Boards, the goal is to ensure that there is an expanded portfolio of online and blended learning opportunities available to adult learners. eCollege provision is aligned to industry-recognized certifications, coupled with online tutor support.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

8

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

As successive GRALE reports have shown, achievements in the field of ALE are invariably affected by current and emerging challenges. Many of these challenges underscore the need for high-quality adult education. The COVID-19 pandemic, for example, has brought home to many the need for general health literacy, critical thinking and civic engagement.

In order to develop ALE systems that will foster global citizens capable of tackling the challenges of the twenty-first century we must first know where we stand. Where are ALE systems stressed or failing and where and how are they thriving? It is a daunting task to survey the state of adult education and learning globally. Many countries lack the means to consistently monitor and evaluate the wide spectrum of adult learning services, covering everything from professional education through literacy and basic education to third-age learning. As a field, ALE receives often inadequate support, or even remains neglected in terms of budget and planning. Because its provision is fragmented and its financing often not recorded, it is hard to keep track of who spends how much, on what and where.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the GRALE survey yielded some very important and highly encouraging findings. Globally, participation in ALE continues to expand (52% of countries reported that participation had increased since 2018) as the digital revolution brings distance learning and open educational resources out of the shadows and into the mainstream of educational policy and practice. ALE is no longer seen as a stopgap solution for those who, in some cases, could not gain sufficient education in childhood or youth. It is for everyone, not least because rapid technological and social change mean that reskilling and upskilling are now becoming routine, and the ultimate twenty-first century skill could be the ability to learn.

Though there is still much ground to cover, education systems are finally starting to transition to lifelong learning systems, evidenced by the global embrace of mechanisms such as NQFs and RVA, as illustrated

by this and previous GRALE reports. A large majority of countries reported progress in developing RVA, including 61% of low-income countries and 68% of high-income countries. Some policy areas remain neglected, particularly the provision of dedicated ALE opportunities to vulnerable, marginalized and previously under-represented groups. Citizenship education, which was chosen as the theme of this report precisely because *GRALE 4* revealed its neglect in policy terms, appears no longer to be so marginal. Seventy-four per cent of countries reported that they were developing and implementing policies in relation to citizenship education. The second part of this report explores this issue in greater depth, drawing not only on data from the *GRALE 5* survey but also from recent studies.

In terms of governance, the survey findings show that the previously identified trend towards decentralization has accelerated and that there is now greater involvement by non-state stakeholders such as civil society and development partners. Challenges include the fact that monitoring and evaluation remain weak in many places, and that there are sharp differences in provision and governance models, making it difficult to monitor different forms of ALE provision. The fragmentation of ALE public policies may suggest that governments tend to prioritize ALE as a targeted instrument serving specific policy goals (social inclusion, youth employment) rather than providing a holistic approach making ALE available for all.

There is wide divergence between countries in how much public funding is devoted to ALE. Twenty-two countries reported that their spending on ALE comprises 4% or more of public spending on education. At the other end of the spectrum, 19 countries reported public spending on ALE equivalent to less than 0.4% of all education spending. Forty countries (27% of the total surveyed) reported that they did not know what percentage of public education spending is devoted to ALE. Most countries also reported a diversity of funding sources and models – including, in addition to public funding, public-private partnerships and co-funding

with international cooperation, the private sector or learners themselves. The different sources of funding point to the challenge of reporting on ALE financing, with major gaps in terms of completeness and timeliness of data.

Encouragingly, almost half of all countries that participated in the *GRALE 5* survey reported plans to increase spending on ALE, with this rising to 70% in Asia and the Pacific, perhaps the world's most rapidly developing region. Funding is a key driver of quality. More relevant curricula, better trained and paid educators, improved assessment and more flexible modes of access are key markers of quality, and a majority of countries reported progress in these areas. Unfortunately, many groups still remain under-served: over 60% of countries reported no improvement in participation by prisoners, people with disabilities, minorities and Indigenous populations, and 24% of countries reported that the participation of older adults in ALE had declined since 2018.

The findings of this report make clear that, even though most countries are a long way from realizing the vision set out in Belém, most appear to be following the right trajectory. Countries report considerable progress on all five of the key indicators set out in the BFA. And even in those areas where progress has been slower, data provided in GRALE reports give us a better grasp of the roadblocks. The combination of quantitative data and good-practice examples provided by *GRALE 5* can constitute a resource to get a clearer picture of the current ALE landscape and also to map out new horizons and imagine how adult learning can promote more democratic, peaceful, inclusive, prosperous, healthy and sustainable societies.

PART 2

FOCUS ON CITIZENSHIP
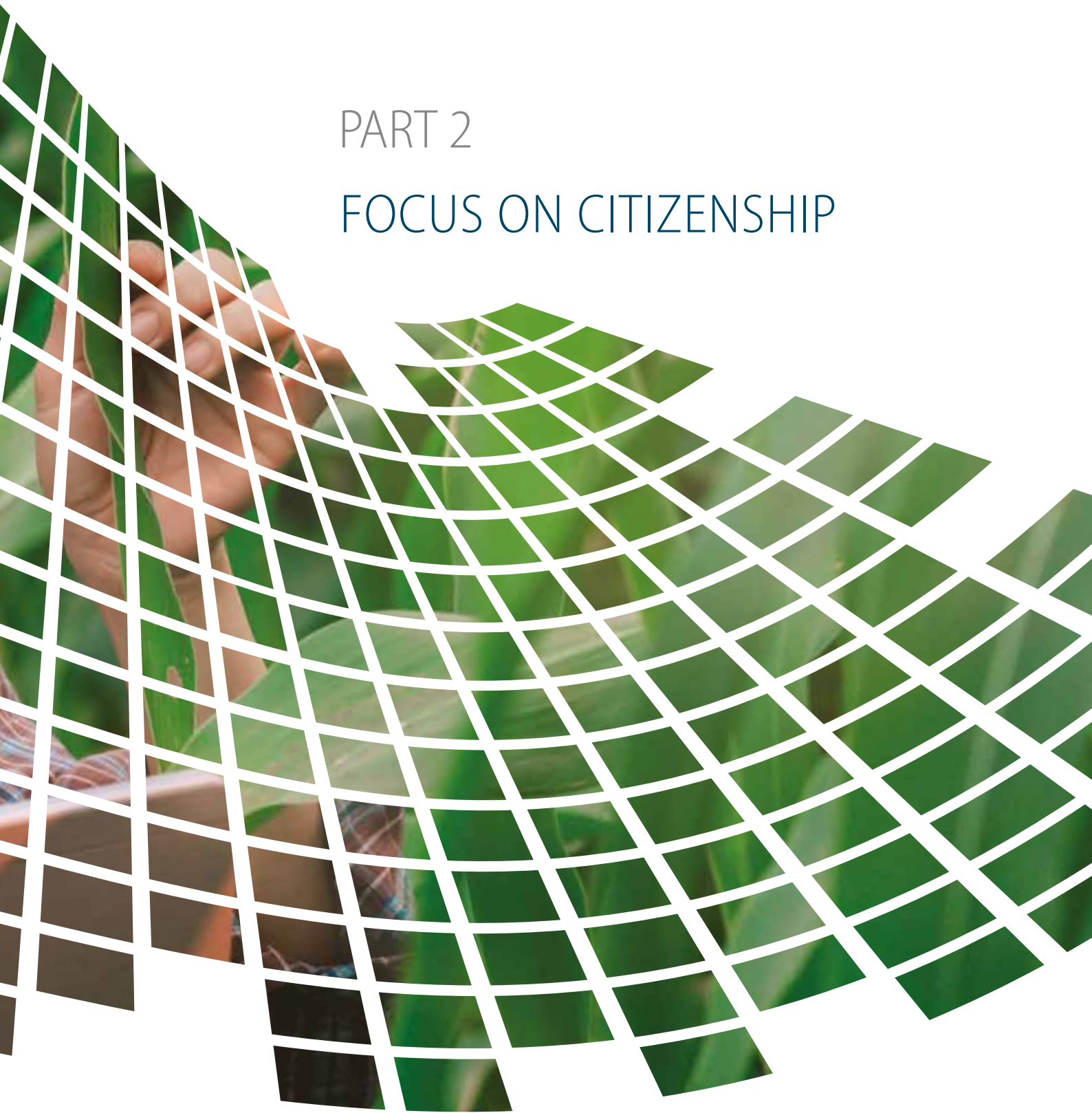
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CHAPTER 9

INTRODUCTION

A major finding of the *Fourth Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (*GRALE 4*) was that active and global citizenship education were largely absent from national and international reporting compared to literacy and basic skills and vocational education. This suggested a neglect of this issue in ALE policy. The explicit mention of active citizenship in UNESCO's Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (UNESCO, 2016) and of global citizenship in SDG 4.7 have helped to draw far greater attention to the field over the past decade. It is in that context that the *Fifth Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* makes this its thematic focus.

The *GRALE 4* survey revealed that citizenship education was seen as marginal to ALE policy development in most countries. Fewer than 4% of the countries surveyed for *GRALE 4* reported policy progress with respect to active citizenship across a range of five indicators. By contrast, more than 50% reported progress in developing policies on literacy and basic skills and 45% reported policy progress on TVET. This GRALE survey, the fifth, explicitly included a special section on citizenship education. It is very encouraging to note a significant increase in responses related to policy progress on citizenship education, measured against the same five indicators included in the *GRALE 4* survey. There appears to be a growing recognition among Member States that active and global citizenship are vital factors in leveraging ALE to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

As defined in RALE, active citizenship means engaging 'with social issues such as poverty, gender, intergenerational solidarity, social mobility, justice, equity, exclusion, violence, unemployment, environmental protection and climate change. It also helps people to lead a decent life, in terms of health and well-being, culture, spirituality and in all other ways that contribute to personal development and dignity.' (UNESCO, 2016, p. 7)

In this sense, the concept of active citizenship extends far beyond the rights and obligations derived from the formal status of national citizenship. Hence, regardless of political regions and modes of government, or environment, adults can act as active citizens.

We live in an age of immense change, challenge and opportunity. Much as people are forming global communities based on shared interests and identities, many of our political systems are becoming fragmented and polarized. There is a danger that, as inequality and marginalization grow, many will come to doubt the institutions and practice of democracy. Lifelong learning and adult learning and education offer a fundamental and constructive response to the dilemmas of democracy and development in the twenty-first century, including many of the challenges our civilization faces, including demographic shifts (e.g. ageing societies and mass migration), political populism and disinformation, gender inequality and social inequalities, as well as the existential threat posed by armed conflict and climate change. The following chapters will address these issues and the opportunities ALE presents to address them.

All of humanity is subject to major forces of social change which are causing structural shifts, including to the conditions, circumstances and purposes of education at all levels. Development models are changing too. Education needs to transform to respond to a greater demand for equity, inclusion, social justice and environmental sustainability. The way in which decision-makers and stakeholders in education respond to these forces, challenges and opportunities will have profound consequences for the future.

The aim of this part of the report is to discuss the value and implications of citizenship education within ALE, to consider the sustainable development challenges that call for strong civil engagement, and the strategies, frameworks and approaches that appear most effective for building active and global citizenship. It is both a summative and formative assessment of the many factors affecting citizenship education, including a persuasive analysis of relevant data.

It will stress the potential of citizenship education in ALE for the realization of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, referring to evidence, including that gathered from the *GRALE 5* survey, of the progress being made across countries and regions. It will provide support for the development of citizenship education, including improvement of curricula and instruction and a diversity of learning materials.

This report aims to promote, improve and offer a better understanding of the role of active citizenship for youth and adult learners, so as to develop and improve policies and programmes for adult learners to engage as active citizens. It seeks to foreground the relevance of education for citizenship, particularly for global citizenship, in order to build more compassionate and sustainable societies. Doing so requires that we interrogate the conditioning structures that affect the right to education and call attention to the possibilities and power that education may provide to individuals, families, institutions and societies.

While *GRALE 5* was being drafted, people across the world became more aware than ever of living in a time of great uncertainty, exemplified by but not limited to the COVID-19 pandemic. It is clear that the pandemic will have a major impact on globalization and education for years to come. Its impact on education is likely to manifest itself in many ways, revealing the glaring inequities in access to quality schooling and non-formal education and the role that education plays in different communities. The pandemic also reveals an increasingly interconnected but also interdependent world that, nonetheless, is failing to address issues of inequality and social justice adequately.

This has proven to be the fastest and most extensive, though thankfully not the deadliest, pandemic for a century. It has heightened an already existing sense of uncertainty among citizens whose faith in government had been heavily shaken by the financial and monetary crises of the previous decade. Governments have scrambled to ensure effective public health responses, but the gaps – both in terms of efficiency and equity – have been clear to see. As we look to the post-COVID-19 age, humanity stands at a crossroads. The pandemic has exposed many of the fault lines of inequality within and between societies. It has also, notwithstanding some nascent conflict around public health measures, proven yet again that, at our core, we humans are profoundly cooperative. The question then is whether national and international communities emerge from this crisis embracing deeper commitments to human rights, central among them the right to education, or retreating into fearful authoritarianisms and nationalisms that undermine democracy, ratchet up economic and social competition and exacerbate social atomazition and conflicts (Mooers, 2014).

There is a fundamental belief that 'Education plays an essential role in the promotion of the core values of ... democracy, human rights and the rule of law, as well as in the prevention of human rights violations. More generally, education is increasingly seen as a defence against the rise of violence, racism, extremism, xenophobia, discrimination and intolerance' (CoE, 2010). It is clear where UNESCO stands on this question. We must build on the achievements of the 75 years since the signing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. We must continue to do the slow and steady work of building peace in the minds of men and women.

We hope that *GRALE 5* will help to make the main global challenges related to citizenship and ALE more visible and understandable, thereby helping to enhance the role of ALE in achieving the SDGs. Focus is placed on SDG Target 4.7, which explicitly links global citizenship education to sustainability.

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CHAPTER 10

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

10.1
WHAT IS A CITIZEN?

The concept of citizenship was born of the term *citoyen*, literally meaning a city dweller, which came to more broadly denote a group of individuals with certain rights and duties in the context of a given city. Different ideologies and legal, cultural and historical traditions have, over the years, created a profusion of sometimes conflicting, sometimes complementary, meanings connected to the idea of citizenship. Hence the definitions of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship vary depending on legal traditions (e.g. in Europe between Napoleonic codes and British common law) or political systems. Many people see citizenship as a status role, a synthesis incorporating a combination of rights and duties that all legally defined members of a nation-state hold. T.H. Marshall, in his influential 1950 essay, 'Citizenship and social class', condensed the rights of a citizen down to three core categories: civil, political and social. The civil element entails the rights necessary for individual freedom: freedom of speech, thought and faith, the right to own property and conclude contracts, and the right to justice. The political element entails the right to participate in the exercise of political power, as a member of a political body or as an elector of such a body. The social element entails a right to fundamental economic welfare and security, the right to share in social heritage and to live the life of a civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society (Marshall, 1950).

For a long time, property ownership was considered a precondition of citizenship. Although this is no longer the case in most societies, it is clear that political and social influence are still largely predicated on wealth. Thus, we must ask 'What role can education play in transforming social structures that privilege ownership into sustainable post-growth societies animated by a vigorous global citizenship?'

The growth of civic culture in democratic environments cannot rely exclusively on either formal schooling or ALE, nor can it be taken for granted as a feature of the normal functioning of democracy. It is connected to the role of the public media in framing crucial political, social and economic issues, even as the media landscape has been transformed by the proliferation of new technologies and media forms, an epidemic of mistrust and misinformation, and the blurring of the distinction between media consumers and producers.

As so much civic participation moves online, one can argue that access to the internet and knowledge of how to use smartphones and computers become necessities in the modern world. Thus, ALE that addresses these areas not only assists learners in terms of employability but also provides vital skills for citizenship in the modern age – the knowledge and capability to use new media and digital tools and also the critical thinking skills that can sensitize people to the risks associated with internet use. For all these reasons, digital citizenship is attracting attention in current debates, raising important questions about the responsibilities of the state (Milana and Tarrozzi, 2020).

The concept of the state is associated with different concepts of governance and political systems. For some, the state is a self-regulating administrative system that reflects the institutional rules, regulations, laws and conventions that have been developed over centuries (Milana and Tarrozzi, 2020). Others understand the state as comprising institutional apparatuses, bureaucratic organizations and the formal and informal norms and codes that constitute and represent the public and private spheres of social life (Offe, 2019). Thus, the sovereignty of the state influences the formation and socialization of the individual citizen.

The state institutions that arguably do most to socialize individuals and create the political culture of a nation are those of education. In their classic book, Gabriel Almond and Sidney Verba (1963) argue that political culture is a set of 'attitudes towards the political system and its various parts, and attitudes toward the role of the self in the system. It is a set of orientation towards a special set of social object and processes.' Thus, an educated and active citizen is a prize asset in most political scenarios.

It would be naïve to assume that the question of what comprises citizenship is settled. Rather, it is still evolving, both in theory and practice, and is subject to multiple social, political and economic influences.

James Banks (2017) proposed a typology of *failed citizenship, recognized citizenship, participatory citizenship* and *transformative citizenship* to better understand this phenomenon. He argues that schools have a key role to play in promoting positive citizenship, through what he terms transformative civic education:

> Global migration, the quest by diverse groups for equality, and the rise of populist nationalism have complicated the development of citizenship and citizenship education in nations around the world. Many racial, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious groups are denied structural inclusion into their nation-state. Consequently, they do not fully internalize the values and symbols of the nation-state, develop a strong identity with it, or acquire political efficacy. They focus primarily on particularistic group needs and goals rather than the overarching goals of the nation-state.

Moreover, the 2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) found that citizenship education at school during pre-adolescence may play a fundamental role in fostering active and responsible citizenship during adulthood (Damiani et al., 2020).

There is no question that the construction of national citizenship should be considered unfinished business, and that both compulsory childhood education and adult learning and education have major roles to play in completing this project. An added value of global citizenship is that it creates another layer of support for a model of citizenship based on principles of liberty and equality for all, thereby helping to shore up the model of citizenship-building based on the nation-state.

The state plays a major role providing for the socialization of citizenship and creating the appropriate symbolic conditions for nurturing the political culture of the people (Torres, 1998). Therefore, any discussion of educational policies, programmes and practices entails an inquiry into the reasons for the growth of a given educational level – how programmes have been devised, by whom, for what purposes and for which clientele – to explore the determinants of educational policy formation and the nature of the state. In the coming sections we will discuss why the promotion of a lifelong learning culture and global citizenship education can help reinforce democratic political culture through a community-centred, ecologically balanced and culturally sensitive policy, and ultimately contribute to a more just, equitable, sustainable and peaceful world.

10.2
CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND ALE

Democracy and human rights are the bedrock of citizenship education and, even more so, of global citizenship education. In order for this model of citizenship to take root in societies, it must be implanted via schooling, non-formal education, adult and lifelong learning, as well as informally within families and communities.

The seeds for active and global citizenship must be planted very early. In 2009, the IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) conducted the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS), the first of its kind to investigate how young people see their roles as citizens in the world (Schulz et al., 2010). Follow-up studies were conducted in 2016 (Schulz et al., 2018) and a third iteration is planned for 2022. The findings of the first two studies are very encouraging. Across 38 participating countries, most respondents (students aged 13–14) rated as important 'taking part in activities to protect the environment' (86%), 'taking part in activities promoting human rights' (84%), 'participating in activities to benefit people in the local community' (82%) and 'participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust' (62%). Most also strongly agreed with the statements 'men and women should have equal opportunities to take part in government' (75%), 'men and women should have the same rights in every way' (72%) and 'men and women should get equal pay when they are doing the same jobs' (71%).

The significance of education in promoting and providing guidance for social justice is expressed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 26, para 2, which states:

> Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all…, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
> (UN, 1948)

UNESCO's Constitution, signed just three years earlier in November 1945, already mentions that 'the wide diffusion of culture, and the education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace are indispensable to the dignity of the individual and constitute a sacred duty which all the nations must fulfil in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern' (UN, 1945). Adult education was seen as a solution to the challenge of democratization.[8] It was also regarded as a bulwark

against the abandonment of civility and slide into barbarism that marked the first half of the twentieth century. One of the central preoccupations of the post-war period was how to advance the cause of democracy through pedagogical means to prevent the emergence of further fascist or authoritarian regimes. One of the premises was to educate the population at large in the civic culture of democracy (Almond and Verba, 1963).

The animating principle of those pedagogues was that citizens who not only knew of but actively experienced their rights would be more likely to defend those rights and those of others (Chong, 1993). As Felisa Tibbits (2020) mentions in her background paper to this report, adult education makes possible the experience of the right to education, in particular lifelong learning, for citizens. The results of adult learning – along the dimensions of knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviours – enhance the capacities of adults to know, claim and enjoy other civil rights, such as the right to work and to participate in community life. ALE is intrinsically rights-oriented and thus ALE programming content should be explicitly linked to human rights education.

Though practices and institutions of adult learning and education first emerged in the nineteenth century, pioneered by educators such as N.F.S. Grundtvig in Denmark and Jean François Macé in France, it was only formulated as a systematic international policy and praxis following the Second World War under the auspices of the United Nations system, particularly UNESCO. Since its creation, UNESCO has focused on the right to education for all throughout life. It was the first international organization to develop the concept of continuing education, present already in the idea of 'fundamental education' defined as 'a campaign to raise educational standards both at level of children and adults' (UNESCO, 1947, p. 159).

Citizenship education may be seen as a natural extension of 'civic education'; namely, knowledge of constitutional democracy and loyalty to the nation-state. Civic education is typically divided into a typology of four: civic knowledge (of basic concepts on practice of democracy such as public elections, citizenship rights and obligations); civic skills (the intellectual and participatory skills that facilitate a citizen's judgment and actions); civic virtues (usually based on liberal principles such as self-discipline, compassion, civility, tolerance and respect); and

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8 This had been the rationale for the UN/UNESCO development as a mindset from the Global North with its strong focus on democracy. In particular in the 1950s and 1960s, with the decolonization in large parts of the world, the agenda of bringing democracy to all parts of the world had quite ambivalent qualities. Liberal democracy may not encompass all the progressive models of democracy, for instance participatory democracy.

citizenship education (to make citizens aware of the consequences of governments' actions and policies) (Milana and Tarrozzi, 2020). A typically conservative view of citizenship education is that it should focus on building character, on responsibilities as much as rights and on civic virtues (courage, law-abidingness, loyalty), social virtues (autonomy, open-mindedness), economic virtues (work ethic, capacity to delay self-gratification) and political virtues (capacity to analyse, capacity to criticize) (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004; Rhoads and Szelényi, 2011). More open and democratic cultures and political systems tend towards a more emancipatory view of citizenship that is more 'fluid' and an outcome of dialogue, negotiations, interactions and power dynamics (Wals, 2020).

Citizenship education also intersects with key aspects of lifelong learning, encouraging personal experiences in learning, promoting active learning, creating problem-solving orientation and self-directed learning. These aspects are reflected in characteristics of citizenship education that are commonly associated with lifelong learning, such as the centrality of the learner, the emphasis on process learning and the increasingly networked nature of contemporary learning processes (Rhoads and Szelényi, 2011). The relationship between citizenship education and lifelong learning is elegantly framed by Marcella Milana and Massimiliano Tarozzi (2020): 'Lifelong learning implies the development of reflexive and community-oriented attitudes, such as a concern for others and for a sustainable economy.' An important concern is how citizenship education can contribute to the development in each person of cognitive, socioemotional and behavioural abilities and competences facilitating greater social integration and cohesion, as a basis for collective actions that are democratic and transformative.

As Hanemann (2019) explains, citizenship education has been expressed in terms of democratic, active or global citizenship, each emphasizing specific intentions and approaches. While democratic citizenship education stresses the need to equip learners with democratic attitudes and values to enable them to exercise and defend their democratic rights and responsibilities, active citizenship education posits a view of citizens as social actors and seeks to foster civic participation at local, national and global level by building learners' capacity to think critically and creatively. The term 'critical' in critical citizenship education differentiates the notion of transformational learning from more conservative approaches. It gives emphasis to the need to challenge prevailing paradigms (Andreotti, 2006; Pashby, 2009; Shultz, 2007).

UNESCO's Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (RALE) was one of the first international policy recommendations to explicitly position citizenship education within ALE. RALE defines three

key domains of learning and skills: literacy and basic skills, continuing education and vocational skills, and citizenship-related skills. RALE speaks of *active citizens*:

> Adult learning and education also includes education and learning opportunities for active citizenship, variously known as community, popular or liberal education. It empowers people to actively engage with social issues such as poverty, gender, intergenerational solidarity, social mobility, justice, equity, exclusion, violence, unemployment, environmental protection and climate change. It also helps people to lead a decent life, in terms of health and well-being, culture, spirituality and in all other ways that contribute to personal development and dignity. (UNESCO, 2016)

10.3
ACTIVE AND DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

The philosopher Immanuel Kant drew a clear distinction between 'passive' citizens, who are merely protected by the law, and 'active' citizens, who may also contribute to it (Weinrib, 2008). He attributed to active citizens the characteristics of freedom, equality and independence. In the scholarly literature, active citizenship is treated almost as a synonym for voluntary work. However, voluntary work, and the contributions of associations, NGOs, social movements and individuals making contributions to communities, while highly valuable and built on a concept of philanthropy for the common good, cannot and should not supplant the administrative role and educational responsibilities of government institutions. Ideally, the philanthropic activities of civil society should occur in partnership with state institutions and should not relieve these institutions of their responsibilities.

The 'good' active citizen may be defined as someone who shoulders personal responsibility, participates in social and civic activities and actively defends justice in theory and practice. These characteristics imply a set of capacities and commitments needed for democracy to flourish and similarly have implications for pedagogy, curriculum, evaluation and educational policy (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004). However, active citizenship is not inherently good; it may also involve participation in actions that remove rather than protect the guardrails of democratic institutions – laws, policies and practices. Thus, the term 'active citizen' does not *per se* entail a democratic citizen respectful of civil rights.

10.4
GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Active citizenship education seeks to foster civic participation at local, national and global levels through methodologies that involve learners actively in their own learning and build the capacity to think critically and creatively. A more recent coinage is the term 'digital citizen', which responds to the modes of civic participation enabled by digital devices that link users to platforms with massive amounts of data and enable online forms of civic participation such as petitions and campaigns (Herrera and Sakr, 2014). Cross-border networks facilitated by online communication have also created new forms of community, sometimes labelled 'post-national' (e.g. Sassen, 2002), since the state is typically not a central actor or reference point.

The conceptual antecedents of global citizenship can be traced to the Stoic philosophers of ancient Greece and Rome, who considered themselves first and foremost citizens of the world, rather than of a particular nation or polity.[9] But, until recently, global citizenship, even conceptually, was available only to a highly educated cosmopolitan elite. In our digital age, as Wals (2020) observes, global citizenship has become more inevitability than aspiration, as the relations and interactions of most citizens now span the globe, at least to some extent. If we think of global citizenship as a property of those interactions and relations then we need to examine the process of citizenship itself. Wals (ibid.) quotes the conclusion of Mannion et al. (2011, p. 453): 'In the outcome perspective, global education becomes the producer of global citizens; in the process perspective the first question to ask is what citizenship practices are possible within schools and society more generally, and only then to ask what and how [people] might learn from such practices.'

The idea of democratic global citizenship, enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, has been a key element of UNESCO's vision for education, right from the organization's inception. It has been conceptualized in four flagship reports: *Learning to be* (the Faure report) published in 1972; *Learning: The treasure within* (the Delors Report) in 1996; the 1974 *Recommendation concerning education for international understanding, co-operation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms*; and, most recently, in 2021, the report of the International

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9 Seneca says to his disciples: 'Let us take hold of the fact that there are two communities – the one, which is great and truly common, embracing gods and humans, in which we look neither to this corner nor to that, but measure the boundaries of our citizenship by the sun; the other, the one to which we have been assigned by the accident of our birth.' https://immoderatestoic.com/blog/2013/7/21/citizen-of-the-world.

TABLE 2.1
Landmark declarations conceptualizing global citizenship education

EVENT	OUTCOME DOCUMENT	CORE MESSAGE
World Conference on Education for All Jomtien, Thailand 5–9 March 1990	World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs	Universalize access to education for all children, youth and adults, and promote equity
Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) Hamburg, Germany, 14–18 July 1997	Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning	The ultimate goal (of learning) should be the creation of a learning society committed to social justice and general well-being
The World Conference on Higher Education Paris, France, 5–9 October 1998	World Declaration on Higher Education for the 21st Century: Vision and Action	Help protect and enhance societal values by training young people in the values of democratic citizenship, and provide critical perspectives to reinforce humanistic perspectives
World Education Forum Dakar, Senegal, 26–28 April 2000	Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments	All children, youth and adults should have the opportunity to learn, and UNESCO should act as the lead agency to coordinate international efforts to reach EFA
48th International Conference on Education, Geneva, Switzerland 25–28 November 2008	Inclusive Education: The Way of the Future	Inclusive education is an ongoing process aimed at offering quality education for all while respecting diversity and different needs and abilities
World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development Bonn, Germany, 31 March–2 April 2009	Bonn Declaration	Education and lifelong learning offer a means to achieve economic and social justice, food security, ecological integrity, sustainable livelihoods, respect for all life forms and strong values that foster social cohesion, democracy and collective action
First International Conference on Learning Cities, Lifelong Learning for All: Inclusion, Prosperity and Sustainability in Cities Beijing, China, 21–23 October 2013	Beijing Declaration on Building Learning Cities	Learning cities can facilitate individual empowerment, build social cohesion, nurture active citizenship, promote economic and cultural prosperity and lay the foundation for sustainable development
UNESCO World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development Aichi-Nagoya, Japan, 10–12 November 2014	Final Report on the UN Decade for Sustainable Development	Nations need to align education with sustainable development to ensure that education supports sustainable development objectives
World Education Forum Incheon, Republic of Korea, 19–22 May 2015	Education 2030: Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action	Post-secondary and tertiary education play a major role in lifelong learning
UN Sustainable Development Summit New York, USA, 25–27 September 2015	2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UN Resolution A/RES/70/1)	Sustainable Development Goal 4.7 which calls on countries to 'ensure that all learners are provided with the knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development'.

Commission on the Futures of Education, *Reimagining our futures together: A new social contract for education*. The concept of global citizenship has been further developed and promoted through a series of conferences and declarations (see **Table 2.1**).

Global citizenship has found increasing expression in education policy, notably at international level in the Global Education First Initiative (GEFI), launched in 2012 by UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon. The three principles of the GEFI are to ensure that every child attends school, to improve the quality of learning, and to foster global citizenship. These three principles also form the fundament of the 2030 Agenda. The vision of global citizenship education set out by the GEFI is ambitious:

> Global Citizenship Education aims to equip learners of all ages with those values, knowledge and skills that are based on and instil respect for human rights, social justice, diversity, gender equality and environmental sustainability and that empower learners to be responsible global citizens. (UN, 2022)

It remained a challenge to define the scope and role of global citizenship. Shortly after the GEFI initiative was launched in 2012, UNESCO was designated the agency responsible for building this project, and since the core mandate of UNESCO is education, the focus became global citizenship education. UNESCO (2015b, p. 14) provides the following broad definition of global citizenship:

> Global citizenship refers to a sense of belonging to a broader community and common humanity. It emphasizes political, economic, social and cultural interdependency and interconnectedness between the local, the national and the global.

Global citizenship is not an alternative to national citizenship. Rather, it reinforces the democratic social pact of representative and participatory democracies worldwide. In other words, global citizenship adds value to national citizenship.

While global citizenship, as described above, is not a novel concept, its presence in the international development system is relatively recent. Global citizenship education was officially launched as a UN initiative in 2012, though UNESCO had been working for several decades seeking to expand access and quality of education, notably with the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 (see **Table 2.1**).

The process of constituting the field of global citizenship education has been marked by conflicts, disagreements, multiple interpretations and confrontations. The struggle of UNESCO, with the responsibility to establish this new field, has been to reach for some sort of collective agreement that can guarantee a certain homogenous understanding and comparable practices.

Any theory of global citizenship as a model of intervention to promote global peace and sustainable development should address what has become the trademark of globalization: cultural diversity. Many scholars regard multiculturalism and interculturalism as paradigms that support social cohesion, means to facilitate new pedagogical models that are culturally sensitive and respectful of the diversity of identities we confront in our schools and societies.

Global citizenship education promotes a sense of belonging to a common humanity and a global community, which are intimately interconnected through the dialectics of globalization-localization. UNESCO calls for an active citizenship related to four areas: human rights, environmental issues, social and economic justice and cultural diversity. According to Hanemann (2019), it proposes that global citizenship education should be transformative, building the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that learners need to be able to contribute to a more inclusive, just and peaceful world. Global citizenship education should take 'a multifaceted approach, employing concepts and methodologies already applied in other areas, including human rights education, peace education, education for sustainable development and education for international understanding' and advance their common objectives. Global citizenship education should apply a lifelong learning perspective, beginning from early childhood and continuing through all levels of education and into adulthood, requiring both 'formal and informal approaches, curricular and extracurricular interventions, and conventional and unconventional pathways to participation' (UNESCO, 2015b, p. 15; UNESCO, 2014).

The goal of global citizenship education, Hanemann (2019) explains, is to empower learners to engage and assume active roles, both locally and globally, to face and resolve challenges, and ultimately to 'become proactive contributors to a more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure and sustainable world' (UNESCO, 2014, p. 15). Globalization can be understood within a complex and dynamic set of relationships – international, national and local – which creates new patterns of inclusion and exclusion (Shultz, 2007). However, the critical and transformative view of globalization is not automatically reflected in global citizenship education.

We can observe a continuum of possible approaches to citizenship in education from more conservative to more progressive approaches. This draws attention to the political dimension of citizenship education as it is 'very much determined by the nature of national political systems, power constellations, and public policy decision-making processes' (Tawil, 2013, p. 3).

SDG Target 4.7 highlights the importance of global citizenship education (GCED), that, together with education for sustainable development (ESD), should promote lasting, informed and value-based changes in the knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviour of children, young people and adults: 'By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development' (UN, 2015, p. 17). The global indicator (4.7.1) established for Target 4.7 measures the extent to which GCED and ESD, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed in national education policies, curricula, teacher education and, student assessments (UN, 2021, p. 5). More than any other education target, SDG 4.7 links to the humanistic purposes of education, and their reflection in policies, programmes, curricular contents and teacher preparation. The target also emphasizes the important role of culture and the (inter-)cultural dimensions of education for peace, social cohesion and sustainable development. Lifelong learning, as a global educational paradigm and the overall guiding principle of SDG 4, also stands for this humanistic purpose of SDG Target 4.7, which is embraced by GCED (Hanemann, 2019).

There are a number of alternative rationales for the universality of global citizenship education. Since the installation of this concept in international organizations, as well as among the global public, the tension between global and local has been brought to the fore, with some scholars seeing this debate as a push back of a concept that has emerged from Western sources. In 2018, UNESCO published an advocacy report entitled *Global citizenship education: Taking it local*, which contained four recommendations:

1. Focus on the common values found in many local concepts as core entry points for GCED, including solidarity, respect for diversity and a sense of shared humanity.

2. Widen the angle of GCED to explicitly include local concepts that emphasize peaceful social relations and communities, as well as the environment.

3. Focus on the notion of 'interconnectedness between the local and the global' when possible, rather than on the idea of the 'global', which is often viewed as irrelevant at the local level.

4. Encourage implementation of the common values within the community, as well beyond the local and national context in order to demonstrate a shared sense of humanity. (UNESCO, 2018)

These four recommendations to locally embed the concept of GCED convey a general conviction that global citizenship education is a long-term aspiration of all societies, and not a particular concept external to the realities of countries.

10.5
TYPOLOGIES OF GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

How do people assess the diversity of experiences surrounding global citizenship education? Sung-Sang Yoo and Inyoung Lee (2018) present a straightforward typology of the field. In their analysis there are three main approaches to GCED: a competency-based approach; a moral approach; and a critical approach. Each is characterized on the basis of how a global citizen is described, the main global problems and conflicts it is addressing, and how it sees the purpose of education.

A *competency-based approach* is close to human capital theory. In this approach, 'GCED is mainly based on individuals' development and human capital, not on global conflicts or structural injustice. The possible educational topics of competency-based approach are global economy, international politics, international organizations and foreign languages.' In other words, a global competency approach appreciates international awareness, competitive job-related skills, a favourable but critical understanding of cultural diversity, and linguistic proficiency.

A *moral approach* is based on moral cosmopolitanism, endorsing a model of universalism, multiculturalism and humanitarianism. It emphasizes human rights, cultural diversity and moral responsibility. In this approach, global citizenship is premised on our common humanity; core concerns include world peace, poverty, war, gender equality and climate change.

A *critical approach* explains global citizenship on the basis of critical theory and post-colonialism. From this perspective, knowledge is insufficient to resolve current global problems. Rather, it is crucial to critically reflect on global structure and embedded power relations in

order to identify the root causes of those problems. A global citizen is, thus, an agent of social change, both locally and globally (Yoo and Lee, 2018).

UNESCO (2015b) defines global citizenship education in terms of three domains of learning, cognitive, socioemotional and behavioural:

- Cognitive: the knowledge and skills needed to understand the world and its complexities.

- Socioemotional: the values, attitudes and social skills that enable learners to develop affectively, psychosocially and physically, preparing them to co-exist respectfully and peacefully with others.

- Behavioural: practical application and engagement at local and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world.

While the first two domains of learning typically fall within institutional educational practices, and are easier to define and measure, the third, behavioural, domain falls both inside and outside educational institutions and programmes and is more difficult to assess and measure (UNESCO, 2015b). More recently, UNESCO, through its Futures of Education initiative, has promoted the concept of the knowledge commons (in contrast to the marketplace of knowledge and ideas much vaunted by neoliberals), a vast storehouse of epistemological possibilities, like a giant global library. As a repository of collective intelligence and culture, this commons is continuously transforming, all the while preserving cultural heritage and allowing many forms of knowledge to coexist. Commoning, or sharing and co-producing knowledge, is a defining characteristic of the knowledge commons. It recasts the process of knowledge acquisition from one that enables individuals to one that connects individuals to one another and inter-generationally to the common knowledge resources of humanity. The notion of commoning knowledge extends the vision outlined in the Faure and Delors reports and intersects with many non-Western philosophies of learning and being, such as *ubuntu* and *sumak kawsay*, which are discussed in Chapter 11 (Tawil, 2021).

Hanemann (2019) notes that UNESCO proposes nine topic areas for GCED (see **Table 2.2**), which are clustered into the three domains of learning and strive for the following key learning outcomes: to be informed and critically literate, socially connected, respectful of diversity and ethically responsible and engaged (UNESCO 2015b, p. 25).

While these foundational principles of global citizenship are well-meaning, a dilemma arises when the actions and responsibilities demanded by a state of its citizens, or the services and protection demanded by citizens of the state, come into conflict with the ethical responsibilities of individuals as global citizens (Singh and Duraiappah, 2020). For example, the pursuit of economic growth conflicts, in many if not most cases, with the global responsibility to prevent climate change. Yet, rather than undermine GCED, this very dissonance created by conflicting goals may add impetus and urgency to the notion of global citizenship. Emotional regulation, empathy and compassion, leavened with a good dose of critical inquiry, are in fact the set of traits most needed by a global citizen (Goleman and Davidson, 2017). For citizenship education to be truly transformative, rather than merely performative, it must be capable of inspiring changes not only in behaviour but also in mindset. It must instil in learners an understanding of the inherent interconnectedness and dignity of all life and create values of acceptance, equality, respect for diversity, empathy and compassion in us. Such sentiments are easily expressed, but a glance at the current state of the world is enough to reveal how difficult is its implementation.

As the UNESCO Mahatma Gandhi Institute argues, the concept of global citizenship education is nebulous in legal terms and should be defined around specific capabilities and a broader process of redefining the purpose of learning and education (Singh and Duraiappah, 2020). As Singh and Duraiappah (ibid) note:

> We describe global citizens as lifelong learners who possess the critical consciousness to drive 'active citizenship', to recognize the inherent interconnectedness and dignity of all life, and instil the values of acceptance, equality, respect for diversity, empathy and compassion. To build global citizenship, it is necessary that both learning and education be repurposed and redesigned.

A more holistic GCED that combines the approaches and dimensions discussed above offers the potential to 'rewire' the human brain – not just in the present but also for future generations. As radical as this may sound, it is hard to imagine realizing the peaceable and sustainable societies envisaged by SDG 4 without a radical shift in how we perceive each other and our place in the world.

TABLE 2.2
Comparative analysis of learning domains and topics in the Delors Report, Incheon Declaration and SDG 4.7

Delors Report	Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action		SDG 4.7
'Pillars of Learning'	Aims	Topics	Topics
Cognitive domain			
Learning to know Learning to learn	To acquire knowledge, understanding and critical thinking about global, regional, national and local issues and the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations.	1. Local, national and global systems and structures 2. Issues affecting interaction and connectedness of communities at local, national and global levels 3. Underlying assumptions and power dynamics	Human rights Gender equality Global citizenship
Socioemotional domain			
Learning to live together	To have a sense of belonging to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, empathy, solidarity and respect for differences and diversity.	4. Different levels of identity 5. Different communities people belong to and how these are connected 6. Difference and respect for diversity	Culture of peace and non-violence Appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development
Behavioural domain			
Learning to do	To act effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world.	7. Actions that can be taken individually and collectively 8. Ethically responsible behaviour 9. Getting engaged and taking action	Education for sustainable development and lifestyles

Source: UIL and APCEIU, 2019, taken from Delors et al., 1998; UNESCO, 2015a, p. 48; UNESCO, 2015b, p. 15

11

KEY THEMES AND PRACTICES IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

11.1
GRALE 5 **AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION**

Current policy tools used by the international community to guide and follow country progress on adult learning and education generally make two types of reference to 'citizen' and 'citizenship'. The first refers to the citizen as an actor, wherein ALE helps a person who has inherent value, enshrined by human rights, to become something more, or act as fully as possible on these rights to promote peace, prosperity and planetary health (UNESCO, 2015b). This is achieved by *doing* something more, by *having* more influence, by *learning* new ways of thinking and behaving that promote distinct aspects of personal, community and societal development, and by *protecting* the environment.

The Belém Framework for Action states that ALE should provide 'learning contexts and processes that are … responsive to the needs of adults as active citizens' (UIL, 2010, p. 11), positioning it as a dynamic enabler of active citizenship. The idea of citizenship found in current ALE policy tools cuts across private and public domains, social, familial and work contexts, and natural and urban environments. It also moves from a focus on micro-level rights, responsibilities and actions, to meso-level discussions about community engagement and societal cohesion, to the macro level of addressing global challenges. The last point necessarily goes beyond national borders, uniting people behind shared concerns, for instance migration and environmental degradation, through like-minded thinking and practices, and circles of identity.

UNESCO's Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education visualizes the active citizen becoming more confident, independent and resilient, engaging with issues such as 'poverty, gender, intergenerational solidarity, social mobility, justice, equity, exclusion, violence, unemployment, environmental protection and climate change' (UNESCO, 2016, p. 7). RALE also focuses on 'empower[ing] people to engage with social issues' and 'help[ing] people to lead a decent life' (ibid.), which is defined as the enjoyment of 'health and well-being, culture, spirituality and … all other ways that contribute to personal development and dignity' (ibid.). It also links 'citizenship' to realizing the right to education (ibid., p. 5) – both as an entitlement and a way of unlocking potential for greater civil engagement.

The other reference in ALE policy tools to 'citizenship' is as a subject taught alongside, and sometimes through, other subjects. For example, the BFA lists 'citizenship' as a separate subject alongside 'human rights … democracy, women's empowerment, HIV prevention, health, environmental protection and sustainable development' (UIL, 2010, p. 11). Similarly, SDG 4, Target 4.7 positions 'education … for global citizenship' as a means of promoting sustainable development, alongside 'education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence … appreciation of cultural diversity' (UN, 2015, p.17). In RALE, 'citizenship' is intrinsically linked to realizing human rights, promoting democracy and helping people engage with social issues and lead a decent life.

The inclusion of these different subjects and forms of education under the umbrella of citizenship education indicates its fundamental importance in driving the kind of sustainable development envisaged in the Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action, which offers a roadmap for the implementation of SDG 4 (UNESCO, 2015a).

The data collected by the *GRALE 5* survey confirmed that citizenship education is understood in very broad terms. About 100 countries reported on activities aligned with citizenship education that were included in their ALE curricula. **Figure 2.1** shows the most reported activities.

Figure 2.1
Word cloud showing most reported activities aligned with citizenship education in the ALE curricula

Environmental protection

Civic education

Sustainability

Human rights

Financial knowledge

Gender equality

Democracy

Inclusion

Politics

Digital skills and digitalization

Moral education

Conflict and disaster management

Citizenship education

Climate change

Critical thinking

Global learning

Countries reported that these topics are embedded in provision in different ways, such as in literacy and numeracy interventions (e.g. in Egypt), in education for immigrants (e.g. in Belgium, Germany Luxembourg, Norway and Slovenia), in vocational education and training for entrepreneurs (e.g. in Greece, Namibia and Oman), in efforts to integrate NEETs (people who are 'not in education, employment or training') into the labour market (e.g. in Slovenia), in education for older adults (e.g. in Mexico and Slovenia) and in the arts (e.g. in Gabon).

According to the data, programmes are sometimes delivered through community centres and study circles, reading groups and public libraries, as well as other settings. Delivery through ICT was also confirmed by almost three-quarters of country respondents. For some of them, the COVID-19 pandemic accelerated and advanced the use of ICT and digital technologies to ensure continued learning during periods of lockdown and social distancing (e.g. in France and Kyrgyzstan). It was also reported that the switch to digital modes of learning contributed to widening inequalities in terms

of access, engagement and production of learning content, also limiting opportunities to act on rights and responsibilities that have effectively been transferred online in many places (Smythe, 2020).

The frequency and spread of the above responses suggest that a lot of participating countries are covering many of the subjects and forms of education highlighted in RALE under the umbrella of citizenship education. But it remains unclear how citizenship education is described in policy tools.

The *GRALE 5* data revealed numerous points of commonality in official definitions of citizenship education, yet not enough for it to be regarded as a discrete field of learning. Of the 111 countries that responded to the questions, fewer than half (48%) stated that it is a single field of learning. This echoes the main finding in the previous chapter. While only 52 countries responded to the question of whether they had an official definition, and only 67% of these answered affirmatively, common themes matched many of the topics discussed in Chapter 10. What was

new about these definitions was the identification of a key aim in many of them that points to a common feature of citizenship education. Many definitions indicate that it enables people to learn to live together harmoniously and in peace, while at the same time ensuring the freedom to participate fully in all aspects of life. This core aim is not very different from RALE's conceptualization of engaging with social issues and leading a decent life, except that environmental protection does not feature so much in definitions.

Some official definitions of citizenship education directly refer to addressing global challenges (e.g. in Belgium, Kenya, Mexico, Norway and Spain) and, beyond definitions, the vast majority of the 111 countries confirmed this to be the case, making it a common feature. A few definitions also tie citizenship education to sustainable development, explicitly citing UNESCO sources as inspiration. For example, Belgium cites the organization's 2015 document on topics and learning objectives of global citizenship education as a basis for its definition, even if that document is specifically designed for use in primary and secondary schools rather than in ALE (UNESCO, 2015b). Trinidad and Tobago refers to a definition of citizenship education used in a document produced by the UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (Morawietz, 2014). It states that citizenship education has existed as long as mass education but has acquired new relevance through the globalization of education. According to the document, the added value of global citizenship education hinges on it being transformative and 'bring[ing] shared values to life. It must cultivate an active care for the world and for those with whom we share it' (ibid.). Further, the document refers to the Global Education First Initiative (GEFI), which emphasizes the need to educate 'world citizens' who require twenty-first century skills to live and work in a globally connected and interdependent world (Morawietz, 2014, p. 2). These skills include creativity, divergent thinking, entrepreneurship, intra- and interpersonal skills, digital competencies, personal development and awareness (ibid.). A number of these skills were mentioned in the *GRALE 5* country reports.

in educational reform. Basic literacy was defined as a practical skill set needed to read, write and do maths for real-life purposes, so people can function effectively in their communities. RALE defines literacy as a

> key component of adult learning and education … It includes the ability to read and write to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials, as well as the ability to solve problems in an increasingly technological and information-rich environment. Literacy is an essential means of building people's knowledge, skills and competencies to cope with the evolving challenges and complexities of life, culture, economy and society. (UNESCO, 2016, p. 7)

The overall goal of the SDGs, 'to transform our world', has also to be applied to the field of adult literacy, Hanemann (2019) argues. This involves understanding literacy as a social practice[10] ('literacy is an action taken by actors'[11]) and activating its transformative potential ('literacy is a capability for change'[12]). While the social practice approach of literacy defines reading and writing as situated social practices that are relevant at the local level, it is equally important to use literacy to connect people in local contexts with a much wider world. In this regard, Brandt and Clinton (2002) argue that 'understanding what literacy is doing with people in a setting is as important as understanding what people are doing with literacy' (ibid., p. 337). In other words, as people become 'more literate', they become able to engage in different ways with the world beyond their own village and community. Such a process reflects the goal of global citizenship education, namely, 'to empower learners to engage and assume active roles both locally and globally to face and resolve global challenges […]' (UNESCO, 2014, p. 15).

11.2
KEY THEMES IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

11.2.1
Citizenship and literacy

In the history of adult education and lifelong learning, literacy occupies a venerable position as a fundamental means to empower citizens and as a precondition for democratic citizenship. The work of UNESCO predicating the need for functional literacy played a major role

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10 The social practice approach views literacy in terms of situated social practices and events embedded in collective action and specific contexts. See, for example, Barton, 2007; Barton et al., 2000, Hamilton and Hillier, 2006; and Street, 1995.

11 Lesley Bartlett stresses that literacy is more like a verb than a noun (Post, 2016, p. 755).

12 Ralf St. Clair highlights the broader possible impacts of literacy to affect also social, political, psychological, health and family outcomes, in addition to economic ones (Post, 2016, p. 758).

Few studies have been conducted on the causal effects of adult literacy programmes on citizenship-related factors such as political engagement, social cohesion, diversity tolerance, conflict prevention and resolution, and peace-building. Most literacy impact studies focus on the individual: few have examined the impact at the family/household, community, national or even international level. Some effects of literacy, for example those on culture, identity and social cohesion, are intrinsically difficult to define and measure. Usually, there are no attempts to assess how long effects last after programmes end (Hanemann, 2019).

BOX 2.1
The Global Citizenship Education and Learning Programme for Adults in the Islamic Republic of Mauritania

The Global Citizenship Education and Learning Programme for Adults in the Islamic Republic of Mauritania was founded with the support of UNESCO, and as part of the National Capacity Development for Education Programme (CapED) to pilot programmes integrating GCED into literacy and non-formal education programmes. Literacy programmes are of particular relevance in Mauritania, where universal education has not yet been achieved and ALE is under-funded. The responsible Ministry of Islamic Affairs and Original Education, under the guidance of UNESCO, developed a plan for GCED and the prevention of extremism through education.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Nevertheless, as Hanemann (2019) notes, there is some evidence to indicate that there is a positive correlation between literacy learning and (global) citizenship outcomes. For example, the UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006 on literacy provides some evidence on personal ('human') benefits such as the improved self-esteem, empowerment, creativity and critical reflection that participation in adult literacy programmes and the practice of literacy may produce (UNESCO, 2005, pp. 138–139). The same report provides examples of political, cultural, social and economic benefits, 'especially when empowerment is at the core of programme design' (ibid., pp. 139–145). Previous GRALE reports have also offered evidence of the personal, community and societal outcomes of adult literacy programmes (UIL, 2013, 2016). Among countries responding to the *GRALE 3* survey, which focused specifically on literacy, about two-thirds responded that literacy programmes help develop democratic values, peaceful coexistence and community solidarity (UIL, 2016, p. 110). Almost three-quarters of the countries that responded said that literacy programmes make a large contribution to active citizenship and community participation (ibid., p. 111). In the current *GRALE 5* survey, 40% of countries reported an increase in participation in citizenship education as part of ALE, though there is no way to know how much of this related to adult literacy. As noted above, a majority of respondent countries reported that topics that aligned with or substituted for citizenship education, such as human rights or gender equality, were included in their ALE curricula.

There are many ways in which global citizenship and adult literacy, in its myriad and ever-shifting forms, are related. One of the most powerful explanations of this relationship was provided by Paulo Freire (1987, p. 35):

> If before adult education literacy was treated and carried out in an authoritarian manner, centralized in the magical comprehension of the word, a word donated by the educator to the illiterates; if before the texts generally offered for reading to students covered up much more that they revealed about reality; now, on the contrary, literacy learning as an act of knowing, as a creative act and as a political act, is an effort to read the world and the word.

The social revolutionaries gave literacy a central role in the construction of new political identities and citizenships. In countries such as Russia, Cuba, Grenada, Nicaragua and Mexico, massive experiments of social transformation through national literacy campaigns took place, with varied results. The concept of multiple literacies makes sense as a theoretical framework.

Literacies depend a great deal on the context and history of communities and technological changes in the work process and communication tools. Each literacy model reflects a type of knowledge and a range of competences. That is the reason that basic distinctions among literacies refer to the domain of epistemic literacy[13] associated with the written text and formal knowledge.

Emancipatory and transformative approaches to adult literacy call for a particular emphasis on global citizenship and SDG 4.7 themes in their curricula and learning materials. Raising awareness ('conscientization') and encouraging learners to critically analyse, understand and transform their realities through 'generative' words and themes is the purpose of the popular education ('*educación popular*') movement in Latin America, which has its counterparts in other world regions. Advocates of the 'critical pedagogy' movement (e.g. Paulo Freire, Henry Giroux, Peter McLaren, etc.) stress the political dimension of education and aim at critical consciousness, emancipation, liberation, social justice and political action (Hanemann, 2019). Themes such as human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, active citizenship and cultural diversity have long been at the centre of such emancipatory adult literacy programmes (ibid.).

The policies and programmes collated in UNESCO's Effective Literacy and Numeracy Practices Database show that the global dimensions of citizenship and SDG 4.7 have been largely absent in adult literacy so far; the local and the (national) country context continue to be the main reference for citizenship and SDG 4.7 themes. This main focus of adult literacy and learning programmes on local and national citizenship issues is in line with the rationale that adults first need to be motivated with themes that seem (directly and immediately) relevant to them in order to engage in learning. It is further supported by UNESCO's recent call for 'greater national and local ownership' of global citizenship education, 'regardless of what name it is given'. Ensuring 'deeper local and national relevance' of global citizenship notions requires ALE practitioners to better contextualize global citizenship education, starting from the local situation while also including the notion of 'interconnectedness between the local and the global' (UNESCO, 2018, pp.10–11).

There are many entry points to promote the full range of values, attitudes and behaviours that are at the core of global citizenship education. Globalization itself, along with rapid changes, and, above all, the advancement of the use of digital technologies, will increasingly push adult literacy and learning beyond the local and national contexts to develop a shared sense of humanity (Hanemann, 2019).

The economic empowerment dimension seems to enjoy continued popularity among both governments and adult learners from marginalized backgrounds. Programmes that combine literacy with income-generating, practical and vocational skills seem to be in high demand. In the context of international development, the integration of literacy teaching into vocational and workplace learning programmes, or the inclusion of other development goals and life skills into literacy programmes, is not new. However, in terms of national development policies and strategies, it remains a challenging aspiration. In some countries, particularly in the Global North, workplace-based and employment-oriented skills training programmes are promoted by governments. There may be an emerging trend of 'vocationalization' of adult literacy/basic skills programmes to the detriment of social and political aspects of citizenship education. However, civil society providers of adult literacy programmes, often depending on government or international aid funding, seem to pay close attention to the broader spectrum of development-relevant dimensions of individual's and communities' empowerment (Hanemann, 2019).

The linkage of global citizenship and adult literacy can be established in a variety of ways, and to different degrees. Non-formal education is a favourable context for a range of implementation modalities which can be situated along a continuum of 'minimalist' to 'maximalist' models of interventions. This can be, for example, the inclusion of a citizenship topic in the curriculum, at the one end, and the organization of the whole curriculum around global citizenship education (e.g. human rights), at the other. For disadvantaged, vulnerable and marginalized young people and adults, the main target group of literacy programmes, citizenship themes need to be contextualized and to start from the local and country context before moving to the global dimensions by localizing global issues. Local values, worldviews, traditions and cultures should be incorporated and valued, too. The use of local languages should be prioritized to help adult learners to express their feelings and opinions and facilitate the inclusion of local/Indigenous knowledge. Participatory and activity-based teaching and learning approaches will contribute to fostering a range of social and emotional skills, including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision-making (Hanemann, 2019).

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13 Epistemic literacy describes the active capacity to create knowledge and make sense of the world. It is the natural extension of the first 'pillar of education' as defined by the Delors report (Tuomi, 2015)

11.2.2
Citizenship education and migration

It is estimated that, currently, roughly one in ten people worldwide is an internal or international migrant, and one in eighty has fled conflict or natural disaster (UN, 2019). Most of these migrants live in low- or medium-income countries and their inclusion in educational systems is conditioned by social, political and historical contexts. Yet, the link between migration and education is not just one of poverty and deprivation. Those with the highest levels of education are also likely to be the most internationally mobile, though the opportunity this mobility offers to individuals is balanced by the social cost to low-income countries of a 'brain drain' (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005). According to the World Bank, 'In 2000, global emigration rates were 5.4% among those with tertiary education, 1.8% for secondary and 1.1% for primary' (cited in UNESCO, 2021a, p. 309).[14]

The rise of migration has been accompanied by a growth in anti-immigrant sentiment that frequently places immigrants, especially refugees, in a no-win position: they are criticized for failing to integrate yet are typically excluded from naturalization as citizens. While, in most countries, virulent and violent anti-immigrant opinion is still on the fringes, public opinion about immigrants is often in general negative. In a 2016 survey conducted by IPSOS across 22 countries, a majority agreed with the statement that 'There are too many immigrants in our country', and a large plurality believed that immigration had a negative effect on their country (IPSOS, 2016).

The UNESCO Director General Audrey Azoulay, in her foreword to the 2019 Global Education Monitoring Report, stated that:

Migrants, refugees and internally displaced people are some of the most vulnerable people in the world […]. Ignoring the education of migrants squanders a great deal of human potential. Sometimes simple paperwork, lack of data or bureaucratic and uncoordinated systems mean many people fall through administrative cracks. Yet investing in the education of the highly talented and driven migrants and refugees can boost development and economic growth not only in host countries but also countries of origin. […] A well-designed curriculum that promotes diversity, that provides critical skills and that challenges prejudice is also vital, and can have a positive ripple effect beyond the classroom walls. (UNESCO, 2019, p. iii)

Global citizenship education has a pivotal role to play in this regard. Three areas of intervention are particularly vital: civic education to prepare host populations to receive immigrants in a spirit of tolerance and compassion, directly undermining the negative stereotypes promoted by anti-immigrant groups; civic education for migrants that helps them adapt to cultural, social and political norms in their new countries, and to become active in shaping their new home societies; and interventions to prevent vulnerable and marginalized groups (among them youth, women and others) in immigrant communities from falling prey to violent extremism.

But the issue of citizenship education in the context of migration extends far beyond the protection and support of vulnerable groups. Nation-states – regardless of their political systems – grapple with several challenges as their populations become more diverse: principally, the extent to which they facilitate or permit multicultural citizenship, the achievement gap between minoritized and majority groups, and the language rights of immigrant and minoritized groups (Banks, 2017).

Globalization weakens the tight association between territorial nation-states, rights and citizenship but also creates the possibility of establishing a notion of citizenship that allows regional integration and normalization. Many migrants have ambiguous citizenship status and are exposed to structural exclusion, racist aggression, cultural erasure, deculturalization and even physical violence (ibid.). As Radhouane and Maleq note, in a political climate marked by growing divides on questions relating to immigration and multiculturalism, 'there are severe tensions between those who believe the primary purpose of citizenship education is to build national

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14   Let us consider the situation of Latin America, one of the regions most favoured by large family remittances. According to *The Dialogue*: In 2018 Latin American and the Caribbean experienced 10% growth in family remittances. This was in sharp contrast to the rate of economic growth in the region, which at that time stood at 1.9%. Excluding Brazil, remittance flow into 15 other countries in the region represented close to 4% of GDP. The range varies from 39% in the case of Haiti to 1% for Costa Rica and Venezuela (www.thedialogue.org/analysis/ficha-informativa-remesas-familiares-hacia-america-latina-y-el-caribe-en-2018/?lang=es).

identity and those who wish to promote cosmopolitan citizenship and global solidarity'. The concept of 'global citizenship' is contentious precisely because it challenges the idea that national identity is the basis of citizenship (Radhouane and Maleq, 2020, p. 169).

Citizenship education in multicultural societies must strike a balance between local, national and global belonging that ensures both national unity and a sense of global responsibility. In this respect, global citizenship provides an opportunity to value multiple identities and cultural diversity and build competences to navigate cultural differences (Banks et al., 2005):

> Multicultural societies are faced with the challenge of creating nation-states that recognize and incorporate the diversity of their citizens and embrace an overarching set of shared values, ideals, and goals to which all citizens are committed. Only when a nation-state is unified around a set of democratic values such as human rights, justice, and equality can it secure the liberties of cultural, ethnic, language, and religious groups and enable them to experience freedom, justice, and peace. Citizens who understand this unity-diversity tension and act accordingly do not materialize from thin air; they are educated for it. (Banks et al., 2005, p. 7)

Integration policies in many countries tend to construct migrants as inherently deficient, requiring the addition of citizenship knowledge and language skills. In most cases, migrants have few opportunities and mechanisms to demonstrate or build on existing cultural capital. Thus, ALE designed to help migrants adapt or assimilate to the new country may not always be positive, as it may reinforce a message that they must abandon the status, identity and cultural capital they enjoyed in their country of origin.

The extent to which nation states make multicultural citizenship possible, the achievement gap between minority and majority groups, and the language rights of immigrant and minority groups, are among the unresolved and contentious issues to be dealt with by ALE for migrants. Nations throughout the world are trying to determine whether they will allow immigrants to experience multicultural citizenship or continue to embrace an assimilationist ideology. In nation-states that embrace multicultural citizenship, immigrant and minority groups can retain important aspects of their languages and cultures while enjoying full citizenship rights (Guimaraes, 2020).

Qasir Shah, in a recent study of approaches to citizenship education for migrants in the United Kingdom, pointed out the irony of expecting only migrants to take courses in citizenship education since the need for a nuanced and balanced understanding of modern citizenship is at least as acute among the native population. He warns that language fluency and

BOX 2.2
Citizenship education to support the social integration of migrants

Examples from Europe of using citizenship education to support the social integration of migrants:

- Belgium's Centres for Adult Basic Skills Education offer citizenship education to migrants through content embedded in courses promoting social and linguistic integration.

- In Germany, new or recent migrants and refugees participate in orientation courses that address topics of politics and civic engagement (including basic rights and responsibilities), tolerance and acceptance of diversity, culture and religion and human rights and gender equality.

- Luxembourg also provides citizenship education for immigrants as a precondition for gaining citizenship. Norway provides similar courses, in addition to training for asylum seekers in national culture and values.

- Slovenia offers a free initial integration programme to immigrants for language learning, which also covers topics related to society, intercultural dialogue and communication.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

citizenship education are insufficient in themselves to foster integration and civic participation and to prevent social exclusion. It is not a panacea for existing problems such as the democratic deficit and social inequalities (Shah, 2020). If nations are serious about promoting an active democratic citizenry, with its concomitants of social inclusion and equity, then they must also look to close the gap between those citizens at the top and those at the bottom of the social and economic systems. They must ask hard questions about the relationship between the social, political and cultural axes of citizenship in order to prevent citizenship becoming a mechanism of exclusion. Without this, citizenship education will perpetually reflect and reinforce the major social divisions of power on the bases of class, gender and 'race', and systematically exclude many 'others' (ibid.).

11.2.3
Findings from the *GRALE 5* survey

When we consider the responses provided by over 100 countries on target groups for citizenship education, migrants – including refugees and displaced people – had the third-lowest prioritization of the 12 optional groups, with just 65% of countries answering affirmatively to the question, 'Does your country provide [citizenship education] programmes that target [migrants]?'. Over 15% of countries reported that migrants were not prioritized for citizenship education, and 18% reported not knowing if they were prioritized or not. The following countries reported that they prioritize migrants in ALE provision: Afghanistan, Colombia, Germany, Pakistan, South Sudan, Syria, Turkey, Uganda and Venezuela.

This finding matches broader patterns of ALE participation and provision opportunities for migrants reported throughout GRALE cycles over the last 12 years, despite the firm commitments contained in the BFA and RALE not to exclude any group from ALE on any basis (UIL, 2010; UNESCO, 2016). The Education 2030 Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action also calls for the inclusion of migrants in educational opportunities and gives special attention to ensuring the continuation of learning for internally displaced people and refugees affected by disaster and emergencies (UNESCO, 2015a).

An important point about migration raised in *GRALE 3* is how education systems, structures and recognition of prior learning approaches in host countries can be used to fully capitalize on the considerable knowledge and skills that migrants carry with them (UIL, 2016). This is a major challenge that requires more engagement with data on flexible learning pathways in country systems tied to national qualifications frameworks. It also means zooming out to look at how these national frameworks connect to each other through regional or interregional agreements and institutional arrangements. It would be important to examine how standards and approaches to accreditation may be streamlined to enable portability and deployment of migrants' knowledge and skills internationally.

BOX 2.3
S.U.C.C.E.S.S (United Chinese Community Enrichment Services Society), Vancouver, Canada

Founded in 1973, S.U.C.C.E.S.S is a community-initiated voluntary organization aimed at providing accessible social services and adult education programmes for Chinese immigrants. At first (1973–1979), it provided basic settlement services and language assistance to newly arrived Chinese immigrants, such as English as a second language classes and information on the country's education and health care systems, through the establishment of the Chinese Connection Project, funded by Health and Welfare Canada. But with an increase of Chinese immigrants, and their settling beyond the Chinatown area in downtown Vancouver, SUCCESS grew in budget, the volume of services it provided and in its advocacy role (1979–1989). Following this expansion, SUCCESS became a well-established organization serving Chinese and non-Chinese immigrants, which adjusted its services, for instance by offering programmes for professional and business immigrants (1989–1998).

Source: https://successbc.ca/

11.2.4
Citizenship education and new technologies

Suzanne Smythe, in her background paper for this report (Smythe, 2020), argues that the conditions for enacting active and global citizenship have been transformed in the digital era: 'The concept of *digital citizenship* has emerged in tandem with this concern for citizens' capacities to participate in society as the information, resources and services that underpin citizen rights and responsibilities move online. Mossberger et al. (2007) have provided an influential definition of digital citizenship as simply "the ability to participate in society online" (p. 1). This view of digital citizenship emphasizes digital participation as a right and confers upon nation-states the responsibility to support citizens to adapt to a new digital society through access to the internet, to appropriate devices and to skills' (Smythe, 2020).

The digital inclusion movement comes at a time when internet and digital technologies are placing new demands on the citizen. Governments at all levels are rushing to digitize traditional citizenship rights and responsibilities such as voting and access to social services and information, and employers require potential employees to apply online. Such activities require or assume of citizens ubiquitous access to digital technologies and critical digital skills in order to exercise their digital rights effectively. There is a sense that citizens and states alike must hurry if they are to take advantage of the new digital economy and society.

Smythe notes that, in contrast to the 'techno-utopian' view that a digital society will lead to benefits such as better policy, services, economic growth and so on, those who take a critical view of digital citizenship

ask, 'What is the nature of this digital society in which people are being included?' There is increasing evidence, she argues, that internet and digital technologies 'might actually obstruct human rights, intensify social inequalities between groups and create new forms of inequality' (Smythe, 2020).

Just as the SDGs 'envision a more just and sustainable world as a set of choices we make locally and globally, individually and collectively, so too is the digital ecosystem a set of choices: we are creating the internet just as it is creating us. This relational view of citizenship in the digital era moves toward collective responsibilities, ethical design and justice that are at the heart of democratic citizenship, just as they are at the heart of the SDGs' (ibid.).

As Smythe (2020) observes, calls for the internet to be considered a basic right have intensified since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, with Tim Berners-Lee, one of the pioneers of the internet, lamenting that families without broadband at home were missing out on education during the lockdown and calling for worldwide universal digital access as crucial to the achievement of an equitable pandemic recovery (Berners-Lee, 2020, para. 21).

Digital data has become a commodified resource drawn from everyday activities online and mobilized through AI to power decision-making algorithms (Oyedemi, 2019; Anderson et al, 2018). Smythe writes that AI has more severe implications for citizenship and civil rights than previous technologies 'because machine learning constantly recalibrates itself, making its decisions near-impossible to trace'. Evidence is growing, she writes, that the most marginalized people, including women, Indigenous peoples, people with disabilities, LGBTI communities, migrants and refugees are 'more

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BOX 2.4
Global Declaration on Connectivity for Education

Launched in December 2021 at the RewirEd Summit, the Rewired Global Declaration on Connectivity for Education puts forward principles and commitments to ensure that connected technologies advance aspirations for inclusive education based on the principles of justice, equity and respect for human dignity. It mentions that digital spaces can foster new and effective pedagogies that expand student knowledge, trigger new thinking, nurture creativity and foster responsible digital citizenship. At the same time, digital spaces can place rigid limitations on students and teachers that constrain learning and intellectual freedom. Efforts should be made to ensure that the digital transformation of education opens rather than closes learning possibilities and that it both models and teaches the healthy use of connected technologies.

Source: UNESCO and Dubai Cares, 2021

vulnerable to biases in decision-making algorithms because they are subject to these biases in "offline worlds". These vulnerabilities to "black box" and obscure decision-making algorithms occur at the very junctures where citizens are most vulnerable, for example, in entitlements to social services and equitable access to employment, health care and criminal justice' (Smythe, 2020).

Another growing concern, also noted by Smythe (2020), is how citizens can remain informed when the digital ecosystem is subject, as recent years have amply shown, to manipulation, disinformation and surveillance. More citizens around the world rely on 'free' algorithmically driven social media networks such as Facebook, Twitter and WhatsApp for their information, yet these platforms incentivize extreme or polarizing content to keep readers engaged (ibid.).

Smythe notes that as new technologies and AI open new risks for democratic citizenship, some argue that they can also help to solve intransigent global problems, and even spur and promote democratic movements. A techno-social movement of 'ethical AI' is converging around four key principles: 'transparency; justice and fairness; a duty not to commit harm; responsibility: privacy and human well-being' (Mozilla, 2020, p. 26). Citizen journalism, especially in the

sharing of videos on social media, can show up modes of oppression that are often hidden or suppressed in traditional media environments, for instance the widespread social media publication of police violence in many countries (Smythe, 2020).

If new technologies are to become accessible to all, and if access to technologies are to enhance rather than endanger citizenship rights and civil participation, then digital inclusion efforts must go beyond participation in an internet ecosystem as it currently is, and instead strive toward one of digital justice. This does not mean the delivery of justice via digital technologies, but rather that we build a fair, gender-responsive and ethical digital ecosystem. Adult learning and education are powerful yet neglected forces for digital justice and citizenship.

11.2.5
Findings from the *GRALE 5* Survey

The vast majority of countries reported using ICT for teaching and learning processes that promote citizenship education through ALE. This is confirmed in almost three-quarters of the 108 responses to this survey question and is a proportion that holds to a good approximation across all regions except sub-

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BOX 2.5
UNESCO's Recommendation on the Ethics of Artificial Intelligence

UNESCO's Recommendation on the Ethics of Artificial Intelligence, the first ever global standard on the ethics of artificial intelligence, was adopted by Member States at the 41st General Conference in November 2021. It follows a global approach, based on international law, focusing on human dignity and human rights, as well as gender equality, social and economic justice and development, physical and mental well-being, diversity, interconnectedness, inclusiveness, and environmental and ecosystem protection to guide AI technologies in a responsible direction. It recommends that 'Member States should work to tackle digital divides and ensure inclusive access to and participation in the development of AI. At the national level, Member States should promote equity between rural and urban areas, and among all persons regardless of race, colour, descent, gender, age, language, religion, political opinion, national origin, ethnic origin, social origin, economic or social condition of birth, or disability and any other grounds, in terms of access to and participation in the AI system life cycle. At the international level, the most technologically advanced countries have a responsibility of solidarity with the least advanced to ensure that the benefits of AI technologies are shared such that access to and participation in the AI system life cycle for the latter contributes to a fairer world order with regard to information, communication, culture, education, research and socioeconomic and political stability.'

Source: UNESCO, 2021b

BOX 2.6
Examples of policy frameworks, strategies and regulations for the use of ICT in teaching–learning processes (e.g. teaching, curriculum, resources)

- Costa Rica described its Tecno@prender, a strategy for incorporating digital technologies into curricula to facilitate more productive use of technology by teachers, to stimulate critical and divergent thinking and to promote more innovative practice in learning environments.

- Cuba reported a development strategy that systematizes using ICT throughout a network of adult learning centres, including a virtual library for teachers, educational software and virtual visits to cultural sites and activities.

- Greece described a web-based platform that provides teachers with information to collectively develop strategies and skills on how to approach citizenship education as a lived experience.

- Guyana reported that courses for training adult educators in citizenship education are delivered through dual modality, and include an ICT tool that is preloaded with digital learning materials (compact disc, flash drive, printouts).

- Ireland shared how a number of its education training boards have received training in #BeyondTheClick, a teaching toolkit exploring global digital citizenship. The aims of this toolkit include 'explor[ing] how 20% of the world (or less) shapes our understanding of the other 80% … [and] understand[ing] that the deliberate spreading of fake news is nothing new – learning to read, decipher and defeat it is a key 21st century skill' (80:20, 2021). It also looks at examples of digital activism in many countries of the world (ibid.).

- Latvia has an online training storage space for teachers.

- Niger reported that curriculum designers at the national level now use ICTs to prepare content.

- Romania described an online training programme for adult educators covering social responsibility and developing civics skills to stimulate concrete actions using digital tools.

- Serbia reported on a strategy (2020–2024) for developing digital knowledge and skills using ICT, and also emphasized opening up access to the internet and providing more content in the Serbian language. To promote these objectives, this strategy prioritizes competencies and knowledge of critical thinking and human rights, and highlights the need for awareness of cyber security and data protection, privacy threats and technological dependence (i.e. internet addiction).

- Sudan reported that ICTs are being used to train literacy teachers and design electronic and paper training kits.

- Sweden shared information on how its folk high schools (state institutes of adult education) promote active citizenship through distance-learning courses, and how several have dedicated IT coordinators, educators and resources for technical and teaching support.

- Uruguay described a semi-online course for training trainers on human rights and Afro-descendance developed by different ministries.

- Uzbekistani teachers now have a professional obligation to give ICT-based lessons and use electronic textbooks in all subjects.

- Viet Nam now has regulations on the management of online teaching for continuing education institutions.

Source: GRALE Monitoring Report

Saharan Africa, where, nonetheless, it was above 50%. Many countries provided examples of how ICT and digital technologies are being used to promote citizenship education, whether mainstreamed throughout or in parts of education and training systems that involve adult learners (e.g. in Albania, Argentina, Barbados, France, Georgia, Ireland, Kuwait, Malta, Mexico, Mozambique, Oman, Panama, the Philippines, Portugal and Tanzania), or through specific programmes and different education levels (e.g. in Barbados, Bulgaria, the Philippines, Poland, Romania, Syria and Uganda).

To enable direct access to learning materials for adults that promote citizenship education through ICT and digital technologies, many countries shared information on open educational resources available through online platforms and portals (e.g. in Belgium, Estonia, Switzerland and the United States). These range from reading materials and videos to presentations, exercises and applications (in Canada, Indonesia, Hungary, Latvia, Morocco, Nepal, the Netherlands, Nicaragua, Norway, North Macedonia and Poland).

A number of countries provided illustrations of online courses for adult learners that promote citizenship education. For example, Armenia, Austria, Germany, the Republic of Korea and Ukraine said they have MOOCs on topics ranging from social science and life skills – including problem-solving, financial literacy and communications – to democracy, lifelong learning and the digital world. Other examples are Belarus's public

journalism school that offers online courses for adults, Egypt's public authority for adult education, which embeds a discussion of citizenship values in literacy learning through its website and YouTube channel, and Honduras's online courses on various topics of leadership, technology and entrepreneurship. Italy reported that its provincial centres of adult education and training offer 20% of course hours through distance learning modality. Malaysia reported that it had online platforms that can be used for training, and, in some instances, are combined with blended learning approaches that include offline, face-to-face learning and social interactions. Sweden shared an updated approach to the traditional study circle that uses digital tools and targets the elderly to address the digital divide – a common problem for retirees who may also be socially isolated – through very specific activities that promote various kinds of fundamental social participation in the digital era, such as learning to log-in to a health care website and conducting banking transactions online.

A few countries also shared information on higher education initiatives that promote citizenship education through online activities, such as Ukraine's publicly available Open University of Maidan and a lifelong learning centre. In Saint Kitts and Nevis, the University of the West Indies has an open campus that offers citizenship education entirely through ICT. South Africa reported that the University of Cape Town and University of the Western Cape offer outreach programmes through ICT teaching-learning units for local communities.

BOX 2.7
Kenya: Using ICT in adult education

Activities reported by Kenya to implement its strategic plan (2018–2020) to integrate ICT in teaching, learning and assessment of adult and continuing education (ACE) include:

- conducting a baseline survey of infrastructure across all levels of learning in ACE;

- conducting a needs assessment to identify gaps in integrating ICT in ACE curricula, and subsequently addressing these gaps in design and delivery;

- continually training ACE instructors and trainers on integrating ICT into teaching practice;

- developing and/or acquiring more ICT resources across all levels of ACE;

- using e-learning as a mode of delivery for ACE programmes;

- developing a monitoring and evaluation framework for assessing the impact of ICT integration on teaching-learning processes of ACE.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

The digital era is upon us, yet plenty of countries also reported instances of using more traditional technologies to support distance learning, sometimes also tied to online information sources (YouTube, social media) and shared through mobile phones (e.g. in Jordan). Television and radio are used as media of citizenship education for adult learners in Angola, Burkina Faso, Canada, Chad, Cuba, Fiji, Namibia, Nicaragua, Pakistan, Paraguay, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Sudan and Uganda. The Congo also reported that it uses posters and billboards for this purpose. These alternative approaches are important for supporting adult learners with limited or no access to digital devices. In fact, a few countries reported on ways of addressing this problem, mainly by providing people access to computer centres (e.g. Cameroon, Sri Lanka and Trinidad and Tobago).

Access to digital devices and, further, to internet infrastructure and digitized learning materials that are relevant and contextualized (i.e. in commonly used languages, about pressing issues or co-created by users) are essential enabling factors for adult participation, whether in citizenship education or other subjects and topics. For this participation to be democratic and socially just (Smythe, 2020), it relies heavily on adults possessing the basic knowledge and skills to use digital devices and process information when learning opportunities are available, which is not assured. Failure to address this concern could exacerbate a digital divide in which those who have access to education and learning opportunities through ICT benefit much more, especially post-COVID-19, than those who have less access, compounding existing factors of disadvantage.

A Latin American non-profit organization, *Fundación Ciudadanía Inteligente* (Intelligent Citizenship Foundation) or FCI, aims to strengthen democracies and empower citizens through the innovative use of technologies and the promotion of transparency. With headquarters in Santiago de Chile and Rio de Janeiro, its main areas of activity are developing technological tools that promote citizen participation, training activists for social change and creating public communication campaigns. It seeks to improve the rules by which power is distributed and encourages citizens and organized civil society to influence political decision-making through the innovative use of technology. FCI develops social technology both in the creation and facilitation of working methodologies and in open-source web applications for transparency, oversight and the promotion of civic participation in Latin America. It is composed of a multidisciplinary team of collaborators from different countries, and has worked in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela (https://ciudadaniai.org/).

11.2.6
Citizenship and gender

One of the most important elements of the human rights discourse within citizenship education is the inclusion of women and girls (ICAE, 2020). For centuries, women have struggled for recognition of their rights, and many past policy documents about human rights have not included women. Patriarchal structures and restrictive or oppressive gender roles persist in most of the world, in spite of raising educational levels of women. It was only in 1993 that the UN World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna affirmed that women's rights were human rights, followed by the adoption of the Platform for Action at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995 (ibid.). The UN, and UNESCO in particular, address gender equality through numerous initiatives, paying special attention to the rights of women and girls to education and learning (ibid.). The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide a broad framework for government action toward sustainability. SDG 5, achieving gender equality, is one that mandates all governments to act on citizenship rights as legal and human rights for all (Hanson, 2020). SDG 4, on quality education, works in tandem with SDG 5 to provide education for sustainable development. As SDG 5 confirms (ICAE, 2020), gender equality is not only a human right, but a necessary foundation for a peaceful, prosperous and sustainable world (UN, 2015).

Despite such efforts, citizenship continues to be moulded in a masculine image, and thus frequently fails to empower women. Women, by and large, continue to be under-represented in the discourse and identities of citizenship and in political and other decision-making situations. Among the earliest promises of ALE, Hanson (2020) observes, was that it could include 'emerging, feminist and situational approaches that incorporate experience and view women as agents of change, understanding the ramifications or benefits of intergenerational learning; critically engaging in dialogue about the complexities of what we commonly consider citizenship or citizenship values' (Ghosh, 2008, p. 93).

A gender perspective on citizenship begins by asserting equal legal and human rights for all, but acknowledges that these rights are not experienced equally, and for many – for example, poor women, migrants, LGBTI or gender non-conforming individuals – they are elusive (Hanson, 2020). Gender identity, Hanson (ibid.) argues, is always related to or mediated by power relations. Women, by and large, continue to be under-represented in the definition and constitutions of citizen's discourse and identities (Ghosh, 2008).

> BOX 2.8
> **The Association of Women and Society**
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> The Association of Women and Society was founded in 1994 in Egypt to work in slum areas to support deprived people in exercising their basic rights and enable them to have effective, productive and influential mechanisms and tools in realizing their social, political and economic rights based on the standards of social justice. The association identified its mission as to mobilize a community to enable deprived citizens to participate in political activities and decision-making processes at the level of their community and at national level. The association seeks to build effective models of partnership between public, private and non-government actors, to build coalitions and alliances at the national, regional and international level, to develop the values of active participation in the formulation and follow-up of policies, and to implement programmes and projects in the areas of education, training and lifelong learning as a key pillar in the process of advancement and sustainable community development.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

Hanson (2020) identifies three principal approaches in the scholarly literature to citizenship education for women: liberal, radical-critical, and democratic. Liberal approaches tend to emphasize individual rights, rationality, balance and neutrality (Tobias, 2000). This, Hanson (2020) argues, includes bringing marginalized women into the mainstream, in the belief that this will ensure inclusion for all. Literacy education is frequently cited as an example of how to do this because literacy rates are measurable and, therefore, considered one of the key factors in measuring gender equity (Rogers, 2007). A second strand of research critiques narrow conceptions of citizenship for how they discriminate against women, LGBTI, migrants and specific groups of people marginalized by society (Chingombe and Divala, 2018; Kabeer, 2012; Mayo, 2016; Rogers, 2007; Grace, 2013; Waghid, 2018). This approach argues for more robust discussions where democracy is active, participatory and representational, and where participation of women, men and diverse groups can create opportunities for critical discourse and diverse perspectives; including Indigenous and other non-Western viewpoints (Hanson, 2020). A third approach in citizenship education scholarship, Hanson (2020) notes, promotes the idea of an engaged, active (global) citizen and a global citizenship education that fosters democratic values (Bamber, Lewin and White, 2018). Such approaches, says Hanson (2020), may borrow from liberal or radical types of citizenship education, but they may also be infused with knowledge and practices arising from Indigenous, African American, Asian, feminist, and other decolonizing spaces (Gregorčič, 2009; Hall and Tandon, 2017; hooks, 1994).

Since the mid-1990s, Hanson (2020) argues, policymakers have used gender mainstreaming or gender-based analysis to explore how the gendered relations between men and women can be improved. The move, for example, to recognize household or unpaid work as valuable came out of the Third World Forum on Women and Gender Equality and the Beijing Platform for Action. This, Hanson continues, significantly increased the awareness of researchers and policy-makers that citizenship rights had to move beyond the public sphere if women were to be fully recognized and counted; in other words, the role of carer needed to be recognized in citizenship. The movement to force the recognition of care as essential economic work suffered a setback during the COVID-19 pandemic, as the unpaid caregiving workload of women increased substantially, with little opportunity for negotiation or pushback (World Bank, 2020). According to Caren Grown, Global Director of the World Bank's Gender Group, 'gains in women's and girls' accumulation of human capital, economic empowerment and voice and agency, built over the past decades, could be reversed' due to the pandemic as women's work in the home has been largely taken for granted (ibid.).

Lesbian and other 'queer' women are particularly vulnerable to symbolic and actual violence in a world where heterosexuality predominates and in many places is enforced through cultural practices of arranged marriage and taboos or prohibitions against homosexuality. Given unequal relationships of power, many queer women experience violence, denigration and disrespect from men or even other women. Governmental and non-governmental

BOX 2.9
Civic Education Information Service for Female Iraqi Leaders

The Civic Education Information Service for Female Iraqi Leaders programme was initiated in 2010 by Souktel (an Iraqi technology company) and Mercy Corps, an international development agency, as part of the agency's Empowering Women Peace Builders project in Iraq. The aim of mobile services in the context of this programme is to connect female community members in leadership positions in rural regions of Iraq with peers or mentors in other parts of the country. Mercy Corps's activities within the programme are intended to support women.

Mobile phones enable marginalized or rural users to communicate in real time, without the need for travel or in-person meetings, which saves time and resources and allows more people to be reached. These advantages constituted key benefits for the Mercy Corps programme. The mobile phone information service also contributes to a larger objective of Mercy Corps in northern Iraq – to equip more than 26,000 Iraqi women and girls with information about democracy and women's rights.

By means of a mobile phone, female leaders can easily access resources and information from other service users. For example, if a local school director wants to set up a programme such as peace-building for girls from different ethnic or religious backgrounds, she can contact her peers to ask them for help and suggestions. Consequently, she can take advantage of her colleagues' knowledge and experiences regarding, for example, resources, potential participants and safe places to hold the meetings. This procedure has turned out to be an extremely effective way for women to exchange ideas and stay connected. Before the programme started, many women in leadership positions in northern Iraq worked without the help of a cell phone, which limited their options for social networking and community participation.

The programme increases women's awareness of how the government and other communities work, giving women in rural areas an equal opportunity to engage in political and social spheres. Souktel reports that participants are less isolated and that there has been a notable increase in the frequency of communication between female service-users and their peers.

Source: UIL, 2014

networks exist worldwide to respond to the persecution of LGBTI people, including UNHCR's focus on sexual orientation and gender identity. Repression, exclusion, militarization and criminalization are all on the rise in countries prone to authoritarianism and regressive gender ideologies, putting marginalized populations at greater risk (Hanson, 2020). Even in countries that have made progress in recognizing the human rights of LGBTI people, community members are experiencing a higher level of vulnerability, barriers to accessing healthcare, and threats to the survival of community and advocacy organizations. A recent report by Global Citizen, 'a movement of engaged citizens who are using their collective voice to end extreme poverty by 2030', exposes the problems facing queer citizens (McCarthy, 2020). We must ask ourselves what is the role of GCED where global frameworks do not easily apply, where contexts have been defined by multiple outside and

internal actors, and where spaces are heavily surveilled and regulated, because of political in/stability or for other reasons (Misiaszek, 2020).

Women and LGBTI individuals in many locations rely on the state to protect and advance their rights, but the state does not always fulfil this role (Hanson, 2020). For example, African women are expected to protect culture and traditional values yet are often reminded by the legacy of colonial legal systems that they remain dependent on men (Nkiwane, 2000). Citizenship laws in most African countries have changed, allowing children to take on the citizenship of the mother if the father is a non-citizen of the country of birth. However, passing on citizenship rights to non-citizen spouses is far more complicated and many countries do not allow non-citizen males to take on the citizenship of their female partners (Manby, 2010).

BOX 2.10
Shodhini: Girls' education in rural India

In **India**, in many rural villages, girls' movements are restricted and forced marriage still exists. As part of a project supported by ASPBAE (the Asia South Pacific Association For Basic And Education) and UIL, a group of young, marginalized girls in villages have come to realize that they have the agency to learn, question and change their worlds. They have become *Shodhini*.

Shodhini is a Sanskrit word meaning female researcher and also the title of an action research project on rural girls education by the Youth-led Action Research (YAR) on girls' education. In this research process, the young women learned to do many things they had never done before. They conducted a census of the girls in their respective villages and analysed the results, calculating the percentages of out-of-school girls and child marriages. The Shodhini not only learn about their own communities; they also reach out to girls in other villages so that they too can feel empowered to take life into their own hands. This process of reflection, analysis and action that the Shodhini go through is the very heart of education for sustainable development and global citizenship education. Many young women are now participating in village council meetings and organize women's meetings, advocating and providing support for other young, marginalized women. The YAR project illustrates that community is where transformative action for sustainability takes place. In this framework, community is seen as a platform for all sustainability actions and the nodal priority area of action for ESD. In this regard, ESD can be utilized to identify shared values and issues that collectively concern the community.

Source: APCEIU, 2018

A central goal of global citizenship, Hanson (2020) argues, must be to recognize and support women as citizens, independent of their husband or father, and support them 'to set their own political priorities, identify the institutions which they need to engage with as active citizens, and take actions' (Sweetman et al., 2011 p. 354) with resources secured through local and international agencies. A key path for reaching the goal is through citizenship education that includes emerging, feminist and situational approaches that incorporate experience and view all genders as agents of change, understanding the ramifications or benefits of intergenerational learning, and critically engaging in dialogue about the complexities of citizenship values.

The social exclusion of minority groups demonstrates how issues of alienation are not only constructed through gender, but also affected by ethnicity, geography, class, race, ability, migrant status and geography. These factors continue to deeply affect educational opportunities (Hanson, 2020). To increase social cohesion requires adult learning and education to link status and political participation As George K. Zarifis (2019) states, 'adult education could be regarded as a means of bridging the gap between hegemonic and peripheral cultures' (p. 231). ALE in this regard can offer an inclusive approach to solidarity and democracy-building.

11.2.7
Indigenous citizens

Traditional knowledge systems and the teaching/ learning practices of Indigenous people are part of the global mosaic that should be required content of contemporary global citizenship education (ICAE, 2020). Thus, equally, the rights of Indigenous peoples and the preservation of their biological, cultural and linguistic identity are essential in the struggle to truly allow them to engage as responsible global citizens.

Indigenous communities worldwide – whether in the Americas, Africa, Asia or Oceania – have survived and resisted similar processes of genocide, enslavement, appropriation and, more recently, assimilation. In recent decades there has been a shift of emphasis in most countries with significant Indigenous populations, from national identity and assimilation to democratic inclusion and participation. This shift of focus, while a clear improvement on earlier policies that ought to erase indigeneity, has raised new challenges in terms of reconciling citizenship and Indigenous identities (Levinson and Elizarrarás, 2017). For example, in the late 20th century many Latin American countries granted special protected status to Indigenous groups, including land rights; however, few differentiated citizenship rights.

As countries across the globe adopt principles and practices of global citizenship education, there is a risk that it will reproduce and perpetuate inequities inherited from colonial times (Wals, 2020). At the core of this concern, Wals (ibid.) argues, is recognition that, even with the best intentions, global citizenship education perpetuates Western epistemologies at the expense of non-Western and Indigenous worldviews, teaching about global issues in superficial ways that avoid exposing ethical violations and reinforce colonial systems of power in the materials and approaches offered to learners (e.g. Blenkinsop et al., 2017; Martin, 2011; Pashby, 2012; Abdi, Shultz and Pillay, 2015).

Inherent to the work of ALE on civil society is the empowerment of vulnerable groups by filling gaps in educational provision and advocating the right to learn. Indigenous communities have, in recent decades, become a major target group due to increased recognition of the importance of their contribution to local and global development, especially to planetary sustainability and cultural diversity (ICAE, 2020). Indeed, many concepts inspired by Indigenous worldviews have found their way into discourses of sustainability and global citizenship. Accordingly, sustainable global citizenship involves understanding and 'living' these principles as well as fostering through ALE a sense of care for oneself, others and the planet, recognizing that the wisdom in Indigenous knowledge is related to our responsibility to others, to future generations and for the planet.

Latin America, perhaps more than any other region, provides insights into the challenges and opportunities of ALE and GCED for and from Indigenous communities. The concept of popular education, the movement that has fought for the right to education and social justice, inspired numerous projects and programmes (ICAE, 2020). Citizenship education in this profoundly heterogeneous region, rich in linguistic, cultural, ethnic and geographical diversity, faces many challenges, in particular deep structural inequalities. But at the core of the Latin American understanding of citizenship education is a sense of belonging to a culture with relationships based on solidarity, inclusion and social, economic, political and environmental justice. It is not by accident that the World Social Forum, although global, has its home in Brazil (ICAE, 2020).

The adoption by several Latin American countries, most notably Ecuador and Bolivia, of legal frameworks that expand and enhance the definition of citizenship to specifically protect Indigenous rights, philosophies and ways of living, is an encouraging development. Ecuador's 2008 Constitution incorporated Indigenous proposals to declare a social, intercultural and plurinational state. It also embraced the principle of harmonious coexistence with nature in a movement called Good Living or *Sumak Kawsay* in Quechua, which implies a harmonious and respectful state of life with nature as an objective for the entire Ecuadorian nation (Brown, 2020). Bolivia is another country that has redefined itself as a plurinational state, placing its long-marginalized Indigenous, *mestizo* and peasant cultures at the centre of its political life (ibid.).

Beyond Latin America, perhaps the most interesting and promising fusion of Indigenous and civic philosophies is in the African concept of *Ubuntu*, a universal bond connecting all of humanity. Le Grange (2007) and Kayira (2015) refer to *Ubuntu* as a mechanism that can help expose and breakdown the dominant truths espoused by Western thought (Wals, 2020). When blended with the capability approach developed by Amartya Sen (1980, 1985, 1999) and Martha Nussbaum (2000, 2002, 2012). *Ubuntu* may provide a normative framework to analyse and evaluate citizenship education in ALE

BOX 2.11
International Decade of Indigenous Languages

The United Nations General Assembly (Resolution A/RES/74/135) proclaimed the period from 2022 to 2032 to be the International Decade of Indigenous Languages. The aim was to draw global attention to the critical situation of many Indigenous languages and to mobilize stakeholders and resources for their preservation, revitalization and promotion. In its global action plan for the decade, presented at UNESCO's 41st General Conference in November 2021, UNESCO reiterated the principle that 'When peoples' freedom to use their language is not guaranteed, this limits their freedom of thought, freedom of opinion and expression, including artistic expression, as well as their access to education, health and information, justice, decent employment, their participation in cultural life, and other rights enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (2006) and the CERD General Recommendations XXX on Discrimination Against Non-Citizens (2002)' (41 C/INF.14, Annex – p. 6).

Source: https://en.unesco.org/idil2022-2032

related to environmental education, social justice and digital citizenship (Marovah, 2021). The capability approach with *Ubuntu* framing proposes a shift from a colonial model of education that focuses on the accumulation, utilization and commodification of knowledge to a more holistic model anchored in Indigenous knowledge systems (Piper, 2016). The colonial economic model 'promotes an understanding of knowledge as the foundation of a country's competitive advantage but leaves out the expansive civic role of education' (Marovah, 2021, pp. 4–5). Marovah points out that the tradition of collective deliberation and decision-making anchored in the African Indigenous concept of villagized participatory democracy is ideal for citizenship learning and citizenship engagement (ibid.).

New perspectives from the Global South have emerged through a variety of projects in scholarship and universities. With diversity being the trademark of globalization, there is a growing perception that societies are becoming multicultural, particularly in the global cities. Multiculturalism is a very elusive term, a 'sliding signifier' indicating that in contemporary societies cultural diversity and difference are major futures. Cultural debates cannot be excluded from the political agenda of societies, even less so within a globalized world where inequality within and outside nations is related to international migration and global families that produce massive transfers of income via remittances. The demands of Indigenous peoples and communities represent a need to reinvigorate the concept of citizenship, showing that the challenges posed by multiculturalism cannot be avoided (Tarozzi and Torres, 2016). This need is particularly acute for Indigenous citizens, who struggle to preserve their identities in cities.

11.2.8
Adult educators and citizenship education

Because there is no single definition of what or who is an 'adult educator', the issue of professionalization of ALE educators is complex and ambiguous. The literature is replete with strong arguments for the increased professionalization of adult educators, among them to enhance credibility, improve recognition and accelerate the formation of coherent identity, to improve earning potential and quality of life and to protect both adult educators and learners from misconduct and incompetence through the application of recognized competences and standards. However, arguments have also been made against the professionalization of this field, or at least against a professionalization analogous to that of other types of educators: it might erode the voluntary factor in adult education, result in educators surrendering autonomy or 'schoolifying' their practice;

it may reduce the art of working with adult learners to a technical craft; discourses of 'advanced skills' may erase discourses about the social and moral purposes of education (McIntosh, 2008).

The professionalization and training of educators is inextricably linked to the issue of quality in education and, in turn, to the realization of SDG 4, Target 4.7. Regarding this, the BFA states that 'the lack of professionalization and training opportunities for educators has had a detrimental impact on the quality of adult learning and education provision' (UIL, 2010, p. 13). The BFA also links the professionalization of adult educators to the quality of curriculum, teaching and learning. UNESCO's Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (UNESCO, 2016) also emphasizes the key role of training for quality in adult learning and education.

RALE's definition, aims, objectives and quality standards for adult learning and education provide insight into the possible roles, responsibilities and entitlements of adult educators, even though it lacks a definition of what an adult educator is. According to RALE, adult educators are expected to:

- guide lifelong learning journeys of children, youth, adults and elders;

- mediate people's life-worlds, experiential and specialized knowledges;

- equip peoples with the necessary capabilities to exercise self-determination;

- create quality learning opportunities in formal and non-formal educational environments;

- act as change agents and advocates, facilitating individual, communal and societal transformation.

RALE calls for: periodical monitoring and evaluation of adult learning and education policies and programmes; the relevance, equity, effectiveness and efficiency of adult learning and education; flexible and seamless learning pathways between formal and non-formal education and training; and the provision of learning environments conducive to quality adult learning and education (UNESCO, 2016, pp. 12–13).

UNESCO's publication *Global Citizenship Education: Topics and Learning Objectives* (UNESCO, 2015b) identifies what constitutes a 'good' educator in GCED. It states that GCED requires 'skilled educators who have a good understanding of transformative and participatory teaching and learning' (UNESCO, 2015b, p. 51). It articulates the role of the educator in GCED as follows: 'The main role of the educator is to be a guide and facilitator, encouraging learners to engage in critical inquiry and supporting the development of knowledge,

skills, values and attitudes that promote positive personal and social change' (UNESCO, 2015b, p. 51). In addition, 'Educators play a central role in creating an environment for effective learning. They can use a range of approaches to create safe, inclusive and engaging learning environments' (ibid.).

The research agendas for adult education and lifelong learning should consider the twin perspectives of education for sustainable development and global citizenship education. The following questions merit attention, and ought to be extensively investigated across teacher training programmes on all continents:

- What are the perceptions, aspirations, expectations and values of students, teachers, professors and administrators of teacher education programmes regarding issues of sustainability and global citizenship education?

- To what extent does a culture of sustainability exist within the work of teacher training institutions and, if it does exist, how is it represented within curricula, instruction and learning?

- What are the challenges and controversies in teaching sustainability and global citizenship education?

- To define the best policies, practices and values of sustainability and GCED, what are the similarities and/or differences between institutions with regard to the planning, teaching, evaluating and perceptions of sustainability and GCED?

- Do programmes of education for sustainability identify the principle of resonance between nature and humanity in modern culture, at the cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural levels?

11.2.9
Higher education and citizenship education

SDG 4 is embedded in a holistic and humanistic vision of education, which understands education as crucial for enhancing global citizenship and civic engagement. Higher education institutions (HEIs) can play a key role in this regard, given their long tradition of civic engagement (Anon, 2017) and instrumental role in nation building, scientific progress and public intellectual discourse. The capacity of HEIs to expose students to a diverse range of thought and experience, thus encouraging critical thinking and challenging traditions, norms and values, is fundamental to democracy (Dewey, 1916). However, while HEIs have enormous potential to shape society in a positive and constructive way, as part of the formal education system they also reflect and reproduce societies, including their flaws (Gadotti and Torres, 2009).

Global citizenship education and civic engagement in higher education have been subsumed under the term 'third mission' (in addition to the traditional missions of teaching and research). Changes in societies associated with demographic shifts, globalization and technological progress have given rise to extension activities that respond to societal trends and needs. Higher education institutions are increasingly expected to be economic, social and cultural contributors to their local environment. 'Third mission' activities may involve community projects and volunteering, intergenerational learning opportunities, cultural events and collaboration with cultural institutions, economic development activities and partnerships with local business, and advocacy work. Higher education institutions with a strong mandate also focus their teaching and research activities on issues relevant to the wider community, for instance on youth unemployment or local responses to climate change. The 'engaged' or 'socially responsible university' that emerges from the 'third mission' is a local stakeholder and feels responsible towards the community in which it is embedded. This implies a shift from educating young students coming directly from school to educating a diversity of learners entering or re-entering higher education at different ages and stages of life (Schuetze and Slowey, 2012; Schuetze, 2014).

In recent years, growing awareness of the environmental, social and economic impacts of climate change has motivated HEIs around the world to integrate sustainability into their work. It is the combination of all three missions – teaching, research and community service – that allows them to advance citizenship education and contribute to sustainable development. Global citizenship may be fostered by widening access to tertiary education programmes, by developing innovative teaching concepts, community engagement and partnerships, and conducting research. Widening access means purposefully attracting learners from various demographic, social and economic backgrounds and on different educational pathways. It may be achieved through digital learning, providing flexible (part-time) study programmes, following pedagogical concepts that consider the work and life experiences of learners, and by improving student support (Smidova et al., 2017). Moreover, flexible learning pathways, including the recognition and validation of prior learning, allow non-traditional learners, such as vocationally trained professionals or refugees without full documentation, to access higher education. Engaging with a diverse student body creates 'responsible citizens' who are more aware of global sustainability challenges and their responsibilities as individuals and as active members of society.

Another component of integrating sustainability into higher education is the decolonization of knowledge production, in particular greater openness to

BOX 2.12
Promoting Education, Altruism and Civic Engagement

In Algeria, the Promoting Education, Altruism and Civic Engagement (PEACE) project, involves Algerian university students and young leaders with special needs jointly addressing social problems within their communities. Project activities aim to achieve four primary objectives: enhance the capacity of Algerian universities and civil society organizations to collaboratively provide students with voluntary and career opportunities; provide project leadership, with planning and training on employable skills; increase student participation in community service projects; and maximize future programme sustainability by building on current government and donor initiatives, strengthening existing civil society networks, creating new partnerships and building local training capacity. Through a partnership with the Algerian National Federation of People with Disabilities, the PEACE programme works with existing networks to provide university learners and special-needs youth with meaningful voluntary experience that fits well with their interests, allowing them to make a valuable impact on their communities while building practical skills and enhancing their professional portfolios.

Source: https://www.worldlearning.org/program/promoting-education-altruism-and-civic-engagement/

knowledge and systems of thought originating from Indigenous peoples, minorities and cultures from the Global South (Chan et al., 2020). Stromquist and da Costa (2017) emphasize the civic responsibility that HEIs fulfil in collaboration with other stakeholders such as civil society organizations and local business. Through partnerships with local organizations, HEIs can use their academic expertise to initiate social change on the ground, for example local greening or waste reduction initiatives involving students and community members. To advance knowledge, HEIs can provide academic expertise on emerging societal issues, such as global migration, climate change, or economic and social inequality. Another way in which HEIs contribute to civic education is through the training of adult educators. Doyle et al. (2016) claim that the regulation and standardization of adult educator training through HEIs leads to a higher level of professionalism. Implicitly, they influence curriculum design and mindset, another way of embedding sustainability in adult education.

The commitment to the 'third mission' and promoting citizenship education varies across institutions and around the world. While some regions have a long history of citizenship education in higher education, it is a new phenomenon for others. Nonetheless, there are a number of promising examples. In a study of German universities, Jana Berg (2021) shows that increasing awareness among students of the situation of refugees, including the challenges of social isolation,

cost of living and lack of language skills, has led to a range of voluntary student-led initiatives. Examples include counselling and mentorship initiatives and social activities such as sports groups. Law students have started refugee law clinics to provide legal support, and social media has increasingly been used for information sharing. As a result, HEIs are more responsive to migrants' educational needs, leading to structural adjustments of educational programmes in order to accommodate family obligations, religious traditions and asylum-related appointments. Another example is participatory learning approaches between university students and community members. Virginia Commonwealth University, Virginia, created shared learning opportunities for students and prison inmates. Sustained contact with people from diverse backgrounds at the Richmond City Justice Center, a prison, led to greater awareness of privilege among students (Buffington, Wolfgang and Stephen, 2017). At the same time, the programme provided an opportunity for prisoners to engage as active social citizens. Social movements promoting global citizenship and sustainability hint at the goals of promoting a new global ethics that builds on the moral commitments of popular education in terms of equity, equality and inclusion (Morin, 1999; Tarozzi and Mallon, 2019). Learning from ecopedagogy and political ecology suggests that we may have entered the century of sustainability.

BOX 2.13
Germany's special provisions for vocational training

Germany's new government included in its policy programme special provisions for vocational training. It is committed to supporting personally motivated lifelong learning, expanding the education grant (BAföG), opening up the subsistence allowance for part-time training, promoting further training at the same level of the German qualifications framework, as well as for a second fully qualified training, significantly increasing the funding rates and allowances, and closing gaps in funding for BAföG.

Adult education centres and other non-profit educational institutions will be supported through investments in digital infrastructure. The recognition of competences acquired informally, non-formally or abroad will be simplified and accelerated. Civic education received a special mention with reference to its further strengthening along the education chain. For people who are unemployed and entitled to basic income support, fully qualifying training courses are funded as part of further vocational training, regardless of their duration, leading to an upgrading of professional qualification.

Source: www.bundesregierung.de

11.2.10
Citizenship and employability

Many in the ALE community have bemoaned the fact that education policy-makers frequently instrumentalize and subsume the field under continuing, professional or vocational education, ignoring or diminishing its wider impacts. Active citizens internalize democratic values and take an active role in their communities, working to create peaceful, inclusive, tolerant, fairer and more sustainable societies. Yet, the skills inherent in active citizenship also greatly enhance employability. For example, cognitive and metacognitive skills such as adaptability, creativity, the ability to learn to learn, and self-reflection are highly valued by employers but also fundamental to the development of civic participation. Communication and cooperation skills, essential to fulfil the role of citizen, are also an increasingly essential part of the contemporary workplace, where team and collaborative work are the norm, alongside intensive communication in more than one language and higher degrees of autonomy. Digital skills have also become a basic requirement of jobs at all qualification levels, and green skills are likewise increasing in occupational profiles of legal and administrative staff, among others. The rise of green skills can be seen as a pathway to the environmental awareness of workers, empowering them to develop positive actions for a more sustainable society (Moreno da Fonseca, 2020).

Adult learning and education has an important role in promoting the knowledge, skills and values and attitudes that support active and global citizenship. A common high-level strategy to integrate non-technical skills into lifelong learning is to adopt frameworks of core skills, key competences, transferable skills and other analogous concepts (see, for example, ILO, 2013 or CoEU, 2018). These frameworks reflect a range of abilities linked to the development of active citizenship in a globalized world. Such frameworks provide orientation for the integration of core skIlls in education and training, whether they are undertaken in formal environments, such as vocational training institutions (TVET), workplace contexts or in community environments.

In the context of vocational training, citizenship modules and contents are more common when training is aimed at migrants, with the clear purpose of facilitating social and economic integration. Vocational training tends to take the native population as a standard, under the assumption that a dedicated module is not necessary or not a responsibility of the TVET sector (Moreno da Fonseca, 2020).

Moreno da Fonseca argues that active and global citizenship nevertheless requires the development of higher-level skills and goes beyond a simple competence-building exercise. By definition, it implies that individuals are self-aware, self-questioning and capable of making complex decisions. It also means that they are sensitive to cultural differences, capable

of communicating and cooperating with others in a diverse environment and conduct themselves in an ethical fashion. Civic behaviour thus implies a high degree of autonomy and self-regulation (ibid.). Current transformations in the labour market brought on by the digitalization and automation of workplaces have been accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic. More than ever, workers are required to be adaptable, to take charge of their learning processes and to be mobile. While young people entering the labour market face great uncertainty, at the same time they can undertake new activities in new sectors. Core skills development has become highly valued by employers; they want dynamic, responsible and flexible employees, but it is also fundamental for learners and job seekers to deal with a shifting labour market.

The focus on core skills is a sign of a structural transformation of training, associated with the emergence of lifelong learning. Practical steps can be taken to expand the scope of core skills development in TVET and workplace learning, such as such as the revising of occupational profiles, formative assessment methodologies, training of trainers and mentors, cooperation with schools and communities, and the establishment of pre-apprenticeship programmes.

Industry 4.0 opens up an exciting landscape for learning, but its potential will only be fully harnessed if that learning occurs within a framework of lifelong learning that encourages the development of high-level cognitive and metacognitive skills that both hold economic value and contribute to the development of socially oriented and reflexive attitudes. Nevertheless, the application of lifelong learning principles does not dispense with the need for dedicated citizenship training (Moreno da Fonseca, 2020).

Other areas of good practice in citizenship education

COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRES

> **BOX 2.14**
> **Non-formal education with a focus on community**

In 2009, Thailand implemented an adult community education policy, led by the Office of Non-formal and Informal Education, to promote community learning centres and citizenship learning in community activities such as discussion forums, religious activities, art and culture programmes sports and democracy-related programmes. In the case of Japan, social education and *Kominkan* (public learning halls) have provided citizenship education. In the case of the Republic of Korea, after the enactment of its Lifelong Education Act, various levels of local and community learning centres were created, called *Pyeongsaeng Haksupgwan* (lifelong learning centres), where citizenship education was a major feature of educational programmes. In the People's Republic of China, following the concept of learning cities, larger cities such as Beijing and Shanghai rapidly adopted community learning centres, called *Shequ* schools or community colleges.

CLCs are a significant feature of learning opportunities in many Asian countries. According to the UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education in Bangkok, 'as many as 170,000 CLCs operate throughout the region, which is widely considered to have responded most rapidly and positively in recognizing the importance of institutionalizing lifelong learning at local level within easy reach of community members' (UIL and NILE, 2017). While further developing acquisition of knowledge and skills, CLCs enhance participatory citizenship for all.

CLCs are local institutions or learning venues outside the formal education system. They are located in villages and urban areas and are usually set up and managed by local people to provide various learning opportunities for community development and improvement of people's quality of life. The UNESCO Bangkok office has been a key facilitator promoting and monitoring the activities of community education.

The number of CLCs is rapidly expanding. While the programmes were developed to strengthen literacy and vocational competency, citizenship and local participation have been implicit features, with participants taking part in various activities related to aspects of citizenship within their community. The community was recognized as a vital platform for collective learning for sustainability.

Source: Han, 2020

BOX 2.15
Community learning centres and citizenship

The governments of Egypt, Lebanon and Oman have designed and used new curricula textbooks and related activities that deal with issues closely related to such civic and citizenship education practices as character development, human rights, peace studies and dispute resolution. Such programmes and projects are found in high-quality private schools in these Arab countries. The schools have developed their own civic education curriculum, complete with a mandatory community service component.

The *Escuela Red de Formación Ciudadana para la Participación* (School Network of Citizenship Education for Participation) brings together various actors (institutions, organizations and individuals) from diverse sectors (private, public, civil society and academia) involved in citizenship education. Established in 2015 by the city of Medellín, Colombia, the network supports its members in implementing transformative citizenship education, and organizes events, training and campaigns to raise public awareness to further citizenship education and promote civic and political participation. Another Colombian initiative is the *Fundación para la Reconciliación* (Foundation for Reconciliation), a non-governmental organization established in 2003 that promotes forgiveness and reconciliation in political culture and political values. F*undación para la Reconciliación* emerged from the experiences of its founder, Leonel Narváez Gómez, while acting as a facilitator in the negotiations between Colombian government leaders and guerrilla groups during the 1990s.

An interesting example of citizenship focused on political issues comes from Gambia, implemented in Banjul by the NGO Future in Our Hands. Using the tools of the active method of participative research (MARP) in Reflect circles (for instance, the discussion tree, classification, maps, diagrams, planning, etc.), the members of a Reflect circle mapped their village, which gave them a clear idea of the number of its inhabitants. During the elections in Gambia, the national electoral commission submitted a list of voters from the village. The comparison between the electoral commission's list and the village mapping list revealed that the electoral commission counted more inhabitants in the village. The village management committee therefore went to the electoral commission to challenge their list and demand that the list be corrected. Through this action, electoral fraud was thwarted (ICAE, 2020).

HUMAN RIGHTS AND POLITICAL EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

BOX 2.16
The Early Childhood, Family and Community Education Programme in Palestine

In an effort to promote access to education and general socioeconomic development, a group of Palestinian educators and social workers established the Trust of the Programme for Early Childhood, Family and Community Education (the Trust) in 1984 as a non-profit NGO with funding from the German government and several international foundations. The Trust primarily endeavours to: develop and maintain the Palestinian identity; improve quality of life for the Palestinian people; and promote social responsibility, community empowerment and development among Palestinians in Israel and the Palestinian territories through intergenerational and community/family-based educational and leadership training programmes. More specifically, the Trust implements the following programmes: Mother to Mother; Learn by Play; Young Women's Empowerment and the Prevention of Early Marriage; Women's Empowerment; Combating Domestic Violence; teacher training; and the International Palestinian Child Initiative.

Source: UIL, 2015

HEALTH EDUCATION

BOX 2.17
Community Action Networks

In South Africa, the Cape Town Together initiative was formed just as the pandemic was beginning. Public health doctors, who had experience in the containment of the Ebola virus, identified the need for an organizational structure that would mirror the novel coronavirus – it must be adaptable, invasive, quick-footed, non-discriminatory, learn on the job, be ahead of the game, and be continually developing. They recognized that COVID-19 combined with the lockdown would have serious impacts on every family in every community and that the most vulnerable people, from poor and working-class homes especially, would struggle (Walters, 2020). There are now about 200 self-organizing Community Action Networks (CANs) across greater Cape Town as part of the network. The CANs form partnerships across socioeconomic areas so that middle- and working-class communities mutually support one another. The philosophy which underlies the network is that this is not charity but social solidarity – it's in the collective interest for people to keep one another healthy. The network provides information, training materials and resources to assist people to self-organize. Within the broader context and in collaboration at times with Cape Town Together, there are a host of regular webinars on issues relating to food security, the climate crisis and its relationship to COVID-19, water and COVID-19, and inequalities across sex-gender, class, race and so on (ICAE, 2020).

BOX 2.18
Responding to the pandemic

In West Africa, ALE faced serious challenges even in the time before COVID-19, and civil society made considerable efforts to meet these challenges. COVID-19 hit the most vulnerable. The closure of adult learning centres had an especially negative impact. Unlike the formal education sector, where distance learning using radio and television is being introduced, the non-formal education sub-sector was mostly ignored by education planners. However, some initiatives have been taken by civil society organizations and activists. In Togo, for example, the facilitators of adult education centres are involved in a door-to-door awareness campaign on COVID-19 in national languages. In Benin, Pamoja Benin designed posters on hygiene measures and social distancing practices in four national languages. In Guinea, a picture kit was designed to raise awareness of infection, the symptoms of the disease and important hygiene measures (ICAE, 2020).

12

CHAPTER 12

GCED AND SUSTAINABILITY

12.1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses how adult learning and education may contribute to sustainability and global citizenship, with a particular focus on policy orientations and institutions.

Sustainable Development Goal 4.7 aims to ensure that, by 2030, all learners acquire the knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development, including through education for sustainable development and human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity. This is a very ambitious target. Goal 4.7 addresses a cluster of problems that include but are not limited to the following: persistent poverty; growing inequality; neoliberal globalization that has weakened systems of organized solidarity; education systems often still characterized by a teacher-centred philosophy and inadequate curricula; and destruction of the planet's ecosystem by the dominant predatory economic model.

The SDGs, more so than their predecessors the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), incorporate issues of ecology, environment and equity. Most of the goals focus on one of 'three Ps': people ('equity'), planet ('ecology') or prosperity ('economics') (Wals, 2020). It is hoped, Wals (ibid.) writes, that education for sustainable development and global citizenship education will provide the learning and capacity-building tools to help balance the needs of planet, people and prosperity by fostering the kind of citizenship that will allow for democracy, active participation, integration, mindfulness and sensitivity (English and Carlsen, 2019).

Global citizenship education responds to fundamental changes in human societies. These include knowledge-driven economies, increased migration and mobility (both internal and international), growing social inequality, public concern about sustainability issues, especially climate change and environmental degradation, and accelerating technological development. Each of these areas of change is momentous; together, they represent a period of historic transition.

12.2
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND CITIZENSHIP

What kind of citizenship is needed – both at individual and collective levels – to achieve the global transition to sustainable development? Given the great contextual differences in which citizens across the world find themselves, there is no single, conclusive answer. Still, some scholars have attempted to define the 'sustainable citizen', as Arjen Wals indicates in his background paper to the report (Wals, 2020). It may be someone who displays 'pro-sustainability behaviour, in public and private, driven by a belief in fairness of the distribution of environmental goods, in participation, and in the co-creation of sustainability policy' (Dobson, 2011, p. 10) or the citizen who appreciates the importance of ecological stewardship and the regeneration of ecosystems (e.g. Chapin et al., 2011). A broader definition encompasses an attitude of responsibility and care, not just for the fellow humans in our own proximity, but also for future generations and people living far away (Bullen and Whitehead, 2015) and, indeed, other species (Taylor, 2017, Häkli, 2018). Others posit a still more radical and disruptive idea of global sustainable citizenship, where, in light of the multiple and intersecting environmental crises wrought by the 'Anthropocene', citizenship becomes a site of struggle, in which established rights are (re)defined and (re) affirmed (Gilbert and Phillips, 2003). Most radical of all is the suggestion that 'sustainable citizenship' is a form of resistance to unsustainable development that recognizes the non-human world as having its own agency, rights and voices. In this vein, some prefer to speak of Earth citizenship rather than global citizenship (Wals, 2020) (**Figure 2.2**).

Figure 2.2
'Earth citizenship' as an alternative to sustainable citizenship

1	2	3	4	
Wellbeing	**Citizenship**	**Practice**	**Knowledge**	
What do I need as a foundation…	What kind of citizen should I be…	What do I need to be able to do…	What do I need to know…	…if I am to contribute to creating a sustainable society
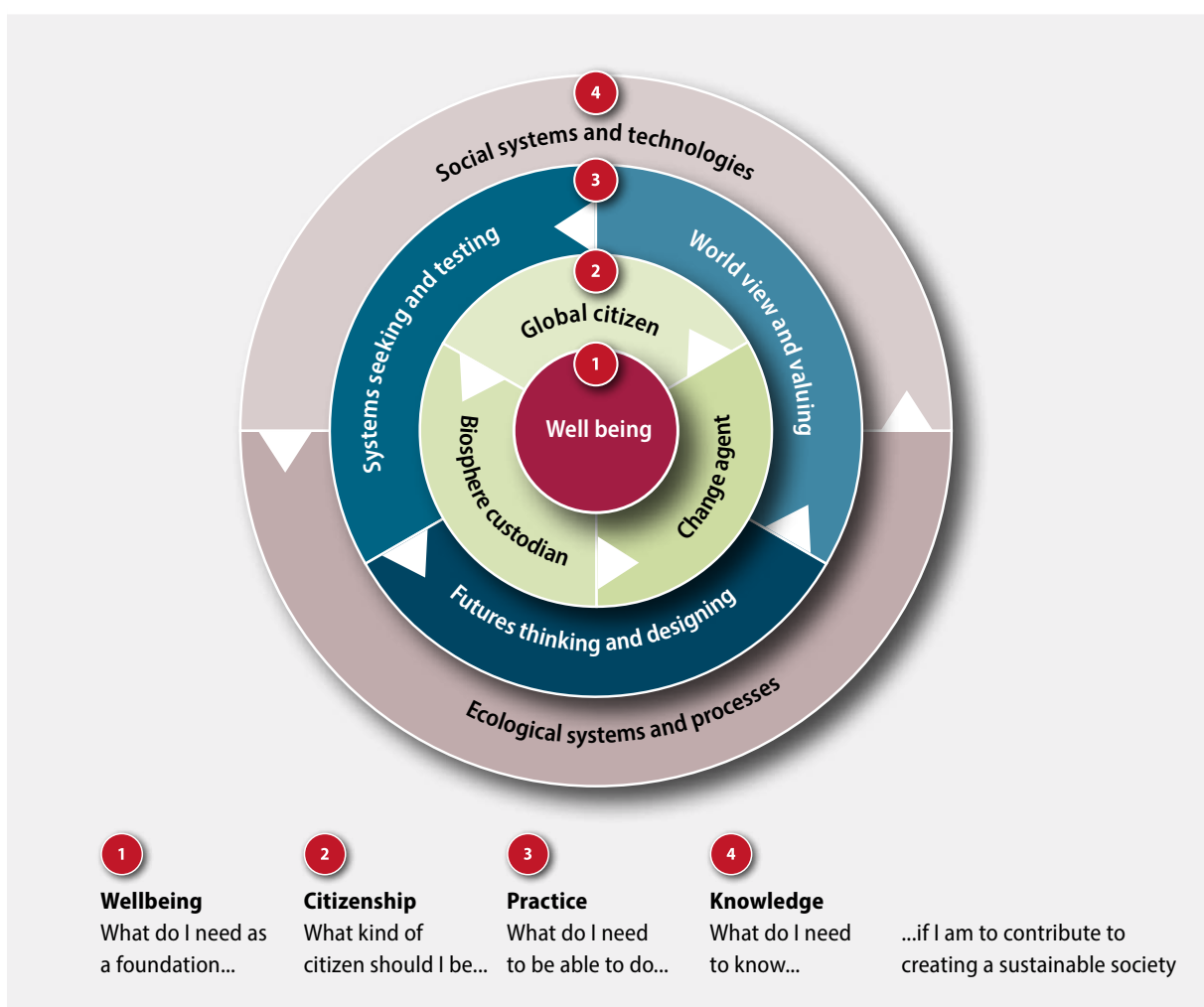
Source: State of New South Wales, 2009

Global citizenship education has the potential to realize the 'cosmopolitan imperative' – the economic equality and cultural diversity that may produce individuals who admire others more for their differences than their similarities (Beck, 1992). It is becoming evident that the protection of global commons needs to be supplemented by holistic conceptions of sustainability that encompass the three classical dimensions of ecology, economy and society.

12.3
ALE AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Wals (2020) notes that the distinction between instrumental and emancipatory ALE is analogous to different approaches to education (Wals et al., 2008). On the more instrumental side are professional training, instruction and modelling-oriented forms, whereas on the emancipatory side there are more participatory, dialogical and social forms of learning. Most contributions to citizenship education seem to prefer the latter, as emancipatory approaches push for a deeper transition to sustainability where education develops the capacities and qualities that support sustainable values and principles (Wals and Benavot, 2017). Emancipatory approaches also tend to promote action-oriented, collaborative, participatory

and transformative forms of learning. Education for sustainable citizenship thus entails understanding people's connections to each other and to the planet in order to tackle the root causes of environmental mismanagement and social injustice, and to move us towards more meaningful, equitable and sustainable societies (ibid.).

Huckle and Wals (2015) suggest combining the emerging theory and practice of sustainable citizenship with those of eco-pedagogy and global citizenship education. 'Eco-pedagogy' combines the critical pedagogy of Paulo Freire with future-orientated ecological politics (Gadotti and Torres, 2009). Through dialogue, learners cooperatively reflect on their understandings of the world, recognize false understandings (ideology and hegemony) and validate discourses that offer a more truthful interpretation of reality and the ways in which it may be transformed (Wals, 2020).

A critical transition to sustainable development will not be achieved merely by fine-tuning market-driven and commodified forms of education, learning and citizenship; deeper, more radical changes will be needed, which will require co-creation between a wide range of societal actors (ibid.). Through education for sustainable development, we must pay closer attention to the structural causes of unsustainable development, in particular the relationship between economic growth and sustainable development. A structural view is also required to address issues of sustainability in contexts of extreme poverty or survival (e.g. conflict or migration), where the concept of sustainable development does not immediately resonate with people (ibid.). In these contexts, ESD must consider people's specific living conditions, human dignity and the right to live decently (UNESCO, 2018).

Global citizenship education for sustainability requires an approach that is relational, critical, ethical, political and actional (Van Poeck et al., 2009, cited in Wals, 2020):

- **Relational** – allowing for, caring for, and connecting with, people, places and other species;

- **Critical** – allowing for critique and questioning;

- **Ethical** – opening up spaces for ethical considerations and confrontation of moral dilemmas;

- **Political** – confrontational, transgressive and disruptive of routines, systems and structures;

- **Actional** – allowing for agency and creating change.

There are growing calls for a more holistic model of adult and lifelong learning as a precondition for the realization of SDG 4. Many experts are also rethinking ALE in terms of global citizenship education (Milana and Tarozzi, 2020) and sustainability (Schreiber-Barsch and Mauch, 2019, p. 532). UNESCO proposes a model of ALE that adopts a holistic rather than an instrumental perspective; an ALE that aims 'to equip people with the necessary capabilities to exercise and realise their rights and take control of their destinies' (UIL, 2016, p. 8). The connection to sustainability is evident in UNESCO's argument that global citizenship education plays a direct role in sustainable development by enhancing solidarity, promoting peaceful coexistence and human rights and raising awareness of the need to protect the environment (UIL, 2016, p. 8).

At the World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development, held from 17 to 19 May 2021, stakeholders committed to taking concrete steps following 16 points to transform learning for the survival of our planet by adopting the Berlin Declaration on Education for Sustainable Development.

12.4
PROMOTING ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION THROUGH ALE: FINDINGS FROM THE GRALE SURVEY

Past GRALE cycles have both confirmed and promoted the benefits of ALE in enabling individuals, families and communities to 'become more … aware of environmental issues' (UIL, 2016, p. 107), in particular through spillover effects. An example is the link between literacy and prioritizing the environment over economic growth, as established, for example, by the World Values Survey (ibid., as cited in Post, 2016). The *GRALE 5* survey confirmed this link, even suggesting that environmental protection is more frequently included in ALE curricula than sustainable development (out of over 100 countries, 87% cited the former and 83% the latter). Biodiversity is included in 83% of ALE curricula and climate change in three-quarters of the 105 countries that responded.

Several countries provided examples of practice in covering topics related to environmental protection through various ALE activities. For example, Gambia, Germany, Iran and Palestine described programmes offered through community learning centres and civil

BOX 2.19
Romania's 'environmental knowledge' curricula for adult learners

The aim of Romania's teaching-learning process on environmental protection, conservation and biodiversity for a school-based 'second chance' programme is to deepen understanding and help learners understand the importance of science-based sustainability. The curriculum covers the following elements:

- Sources and consequences of air and water pollution and measures for prevention;

- 'Feeding relationships' with flora and fauna (including aquatic varieties) and activities of people in plains and mountain environments;

- Protecting natural and necessary resources of soils, rocks, minerals, fuels, wood and food;

- Forests, gardens and orchards as living environments and in relation to local communities and resources.

Source: GRALE 5 Monitoring Survey

society groups that cover this topic in different ways, packaged with other learning objectives, such as literacy and numeracy skills. Topics include education for sustainable development, environmental education, protection and conservation, consumption issues and the natural sciences. Niue also shared information about vocational training that teaches about climate change adaptation and biodiversity. Two countries (Malaysia and Slovenia) also submitted examples of how content on environmental protection is embedded within different areas of citizenship education through ALE in higher education settings.

In terms of inputs to the learning process, Oman reported that its curricula for teaching adult literacy includes an objective of learning to preserve and protect the environment and promote sustainable development, alongside many other objectives of citizenship education. Peru reported that its basic education curricula for adult learners has seven cross-cutting themes, one of which is the environment. As shown in **Box 2.19**, Romania provided an example of curricula on environmental protection, conservation and biodiversity for a school-based 'second chance' programme, which can be tailored to different adult learners' needs, building on their existing knowledge, skills and experiences. Referring to its training initiatives for adults, Senegal reported that there is a lot of content on environmental protection in learning materials. Latvia also shared information about a publicly available website that hosts environmental education materials, including videos, games and other resources.

This and other data submitted in the *GRALE 5* survey give us confidence that there are many ALE programmes promoting environmental protection. But what we cannot tell from the data is the extent to which teaching-learning processes on environmental protection, sustainable development and related content in citizenship education are critically engaging with underlying power structures, ethics and promoting new and disruptive approaches for transformation (Wals, 2020). It is important to reflect on which aspects of quality, relevance and inclusion in ALE would promote this level of engagement. It is important to have guidelines and checks in place to ensure that ALE is not inadvertently contributing to the problem by skimming the surface, but rather plumbs the deeper issues that drive environmental degradation and spurs people into action as if their lives depended on it (which they do!).

12.5
A MORE HOLISTIC APPROACH TO ALE

In promoting a more holistic model of ALE, two observations are in order. First, if adult learning and education is to advance global citizenship education, its focus must extend beyond enhancing regional, national or continental competitivity. Global citizenship education targeted at adults must embrace social solidarity as one of its fundamental principles – a principle the importance of which has been deeply underscored by the COVID-19 pandemic.

A second observation is that ALE must promote respect for all non-human inhabitants of our planet. The quest for sustainability must unite the drive for ecological planetary justice with that for social justice for human beings. As a recent publication puts it, adult education should be 'based on learning to be relational beings: in relation to and harmony with other humans and the rest of the cosmos' (English and Mayo, 2021).

What follows are the key elements needed to build a holistic model of adult learning and education. They include a systematic analysis of the risks and possibilities of planetary sustainability, dilemmas that cannot be ignored, the political economy of risk societies, and the roles of institutions of knowledge production, local and national governments, and popular education.

Global citizenship education and ALE may be seen as interlocked concepts, as both promote skills to enhance civic participation, aim for equality and social justice at global level, and pursue values-based and transformative learning (Milana and Tarozzi, 2021).

In the context of UNESCO's pledge to link global citizenship education with sustainability, let us consider just two situations. An argument that has gained currency in the past few decades is that while the Universal Declaration of Human Rights represents a major achievement in the history of human rights law, that legal framework needs to be updated to include the rights of nature and the voices, values and epistemologies of historically oppressed groups.[15]

The global Rights of Nature movement is gaining momentum alongside a growing recognition that we must fundamentally change our relationship with nature. As the US-based Community Environmental Legal Defense Fund (CELDF) argues, 'Making this fundamental shift means acknowledging our dependence on nature and respecting our need to live in harmony with the natural world. It means securing the highest legal protection and the highest societal value for nature through the recognition of nature's rights and associated human rights' (CELDF, 2022).

Some countries have already done so. Ecuador and Bolivia, both with large and politically active Indigenous communities, enshrined the rights of nature in their constitutions. In New Zealand, the Rights of Nature Laws recognize *Te Awa Tupua* (the Whanganui River) and *Te Urewera* (the forest) as legal persons with 'all the rights, powers, duties, and liabilities of a legal person' (Te Awa Tupua Act 2017, clause 14; Te Urewera Act 2014, Article 11). These rights grant procedural access to New Zealand's political and legal systems (Kauffman and Martin, 2018). An alternative literature is emerging, led by Latin American Indigenous leaders and intellectuals such as Ailton Krenak in Brazil (Ireland, 2021).

Unfortunately, human rights discourse still clings to the conventional concept of sustainable development which is solely concerned with human life and promotes environmental protection only insofar as it is necessary to maintain human 'progress' or 'development'. In this vision of 'sustainability' other forms of life are always considered peripheral (Ireland, 2021). This raises very complex questions related to the meaning of life and the social functions of education and learning as we contemplate the pluriverse of life (Ireland, 2021; Milana and Tarozzi, 2020; Dussel and Vallega, 2013)

12.6
DEVELOPING A LIFELONG LEARNING CULTURE OF SUSTAINABILITY

In this, the third decade of the twenty-first century, we face formidable social and economic crises, the transformation of many workplaces, rapid technological change, the continuing expansion of online culture and the advent of artificial intelligence. These factors are challenging the commitments to ALE by civil society, communities, social movements, grassroots organizations, intellectuals, academic institutions and governments.

Rather than retreat from this challenge, the adult education community – of research, practice and policy – needs to develop a convergent vision of ALE, lifelong learning, GCED and ESD that is technically competent, ethically sound, spiritually engaging and politically feasible. This will require, first and foremost, regional and international cooperation, as well as dialogue between all stakeholders. The result will be a new foundation for ALE as a paradigm of learner empowerment, and an ethically solid answer to the crises of civilization discussed above. It is certain that answers cannot be provided solely by the public sector or civil society, but must include partnerships and alliances with all sectors of society.

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15 For the last three decades, there has been a robust debate in the social sciences about the dominance of Western epistemology, which largely ignores the multiple layers of knowledge and wisdom from original inhabitants or the postcolonial traditions of the Global South. At the heart of this important question for adult education is the role of Indigenous knowledge, which does not refer exclusively to either Native American or Aboriginal culture, or original inhabitants, though they are included. Very often it relates to cultures born of popular education and social movements (Mayo and Vittoria, 2021).

Expanding on the tradition of CONFINTEA V and CONFINTEA VI, UNESCO's Futures of Education initiative highlights the transformative role of education in building global citizenship and sustainability. In the Commission, multiple voices advocated a new model of engagement in education in order to build a new social and civic culture, and a new model of collaboration between government institutions and civil society to promote ALE and lifelong learning. The Commission's report, published in November 2021, states that:

> Adult learning and education must look very different a generation from now. As our economies and societies change, adult education will need to extend far beyond lifelong learning for labour market purposes … rather than being reactive or adaptive (whether to change in labour markets, or the environment), adult education needs to be reconceptualized around learning that is truly transformative. (ICFE, 2021, pp. 114–115)

Lifelong learning may be seen as a new human right, particularly with regards to retraining for new jobs, tackling the expanding *precariat*,[16] and the ability to learn, unlearn and relearn as the precondition for multiple literacies. A lifelong learning culture shows us how to live together, to care for the planet, our societies and ourselves, and how to develop a model of happiness that is based on free and dialogical democracies. As *GRALE 3* showed, participation in ALE has clear and measurable benefits for health and well-being (echoed in SDG 3) and on attitudes to community and willingness to engage in civic action, which in turn can help contribute to meeting challenges such as climate change (SDG 13) and responsible consumption (SDG 12) (UIL, 2019, p. 14).

12.7
THE UNESCO GLOBAL NETWORK OF LEARNING CITIES: LINKING LIFELONG LEARNING TO ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP

Global citizenship is a necessary and decisive complement to national and local citizenship. Citizenship education can play a critical role in the shift of governance to local levels, in strengthening democracy and civic participation, and in promoting social cohesion. Despite differences in interpretation between regions, there is a common understanding that global citizenship refers to the feeling of belonging to a broader community and a common humanity, promoting a 'global view' that unites the local with the global and the national with the international. It is also a way of understanding, acting and relating to others and to the environment in space and time, based on universal values, through respect for diversity and pluralism. In this context, each individual life has consequences in the daily decisions that connect the local and the global, and vice versa.

UNESCO's Global Network of Learning Cities (GNLC) is an important supportive actor to that end. It provides expertise and best practice support for municipal governments, helps create learning communities which address a wide range of sustainability and citizenship issues that are interrelated at many levels. Launched in 2013, it offers inspiration, expertise and best practice support to municipal governments in developing lifelong learning systems. It stresses the importance of creating learning communities that connect with transformative social movements, addressing a wide range of intersecting sustainability and citizenship issues. The network is organized into seven thematic clusters, including one on citizenship education.

In its recent publication *Citizenship education for democratic and sustainable communities* (UIL, City of Larissa and City of Yeonsu-Gu, 2021), the UNESCO GNLC Citizenship Education cluster brings three crucial issues to our attention: lifelong learning and the new ways it finds to address contemporary challenges; learning cities as a new framework for community learning, taking into account the latter's long history and universal validity; active citizenship – an increasingly important field of education due to the growing threats to democracy, freedom and human rights we face today. Several case studies are presented in this publication, including the following:

- Contagem, Brazil. The city has established the *Oficinas* Integral Online project. Activities centring on dance, drama, music, arts and crafts, environmental education and sustainability, and citizenship values are sent to students through social media (WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram and YouTube).

16 This neologism refers to people in a condition of existence without predictability or security, affecting material or psychological welfare.

- Espoo, Finland. Espoo's eighth graders and older are encouraged to carry out acts of peace in their neighbourhoods through a programme called GutsyGo, which focuses on youth and refugees. For example, pupils arrange ice hockey lessons for refugees so that participants can get to know one another, thus promoting social integration.

- Gelsenkirchen, Germany. A programme focused on education for sustainable development, project management and event management trains participants to act as agents of change and multipliers for sustainable development. Through their work on specific projects, the providers improve their understanding of what works in promoting sustainability at the local level. (UIL, City of Larissa and City of Yeonsu-Gu, 2021)

12.8
MEETING EMERGING GLOBAL CHALLENGES THROUGH ALE

The great issues of our age include poverty, environmental degradation, global warming, migration, the exploitation of Indigenous populations and threats to tolerance and democracy in societies, as well as to multiculturalism animating public policy. Globalization, competition and individualism place unprecedented pressure on lifelong learning and adult education, especially their potential for advancing moral and social progress by imbuing values such as tolerance, respect, compassion, empathy and understanding toward the 'other', their capacity to enable individuals to develop foresight that transcends narrow self-interests, and their capacity to enhance individuals' understanding of themselves and the world they inhabit.

Policy-makers and civil society need to endorse a holistic approach to citizenship education within ALE, encompassing human rights, peace, diversity and environmental issues. The conceptual ambiguity of citizenship education has implications for formal and non-formal contexts, and, unless undergirded by tangible and measurable linkages to specific values and outcomes, could dissipate into a vague sense of solidarity.

13

CHAPTER 13

CONCLUSION

This report has considered one of the greatest challenges for modern education: how to contend with the changing nature of citizenship in a globalizing world. The concept of global citizenship implies a shift towards a broader understanding of citizenship. The classical view of citizenship as linked to a nation and to local realms of action has been rendered obsolete by technology, which has created communities of interest and impact that span the globe; by global economics that link human communities, from village to metropolis, through complex chains of supply and demand; by the emergence of global challenges such as climate change and planetary health; and, perhaps most visibly, by the physical movement of human beings across the globe at an unprecedented speed and scale. The classical citizenship values of responsibility and care have thus expanded to encompass not just our fellow countrymen and women, but also future generations, those living on other continents and, indeed, other species and the entire planet.

The 2030 Agenda calls for the entire human community to act in 'collaborative partnership … to heal and secure our planet' (UN, 2015). But what form should that partnership take, especially when we are referring not only to agreements between political and business leaders, but to all of humanity in its myriad individual and collective manifestations? What kind of citizenship is needed for individuals and collectives to meaningfully collaborate and contribute to sustainability?

Though the answers to those questions are still emerging, in relation to education the grand vision behind the SDGs is clear: to help people of all ages better understand the interconnected world in which we live and the complexities of the global challenges we face, empowering them develop the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to address these challenges effectively (UN, 2015). SDG Target 4.7 promotes humanistic education, emphasizing the role of culture in cultivating peace, social cohesion and sustainable development. By explicitly linking

global citizenship education, education for sustainable development and lifelong learning, it suggests that the best way to help balance planet, people and prosperity is by fostering the kind of citizenship that will allow our most truly human and humane values – of love, care and responsibility – to emerge.

As discussed earlier in this report, global citizenship education has three conceptual dimensions: the cognitive dimension concerns the acquisition of knowledge and ability to think critically; the socioemotional dimension concerns a sense of sharing values and responsibilities with all of humanity; and the behavioural dimension concerns active steps taken at local, national and global levels to bring about a more peaceful and sustainable world. The great challenge for policy-makers, curriculum designers and teachers is to build a praxis – and a community of practice – that unites those three dimensions.

This report examined certain key themes in relation to GCED for adults. First among these was literacy, arguably the primary precondition for democratic citizenship and demonstrably a social practice with great transformative potential. Second, we looked at the role of GCED in coping with migration, especially in the ways it challenges traditional views of citizenship and opens up opportunities for more inclusive and dynamic approaches. Third, we looked at how new technologies have altered our understanding both of what a citizen is and how citizenship is expressed. Digital citizenship clearly offers new modes of engagement while also harbouring a risk of disengagement and alienation from social and political life. The fourth theme was the relationship between citizenship and gender. Women and gendered minorities continue to experience limitations in their practice of citizenship, ranging from the often subtle masculinizing of social and political life to outright discrimination and exclusion. We then considered the situation of Indigenous people, who are frequently denied the full rights of citizenship and are alienated in the very land of their ancestors. The report

then considers three themes of practical significance: how to incorporate GCED into the training of adult educators; how citizenship education for adults can enhance employability; and the role of higher education institutions in developing a lifelong approach to global citizenship education. Finally, we turned to the overarching theme of sustainability and sought to place both ALE and GCED firmly within the 2030 Agenda.

As early as 1997, UNESCO's Hamburg Declaration, the outcome document of CONFINTEA V, drew an explicit link between active citizenship and adult education by declaring the latter to be '…both a consequence of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society. It is a powerful concept for fostering ecologically sustainable development, for promoting democracy, justice, gender equity, and scientific, social and economic development…' (UNESCO and UIE, 1997). As we approach CONFINTEA VII, it is wise to consider how well the concept of active citizenship has been embraced by adult education systems, and how GCED fits into the new social contract for education advocated by UNESCO.

UNESCO has already established that this new social contract 'must be grounded in human rights and based on principles of non-discrimination, social justice, respect for life, human dignity and cultural diversity, [that] it must encompass an ethic of care, reciprocity, and solidarity, [and that] it must unite us around collective endeavours and provide the knowledge and innovation needed to shape sustainable and peaceful futures for all anchored in social, economic and environmental justice.' (ICFE, 2021). This vision is largely indistinguishable from the vision of global citizenship articulated in this report.

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LIST OF COUNTRIES

| Region | Country | Narrative report for GRALE | | Participation in GRALE survey | | |
		GRALE 1	GRALE 2	GRALE 3	GRALE 4	GRALE 5
Arab States	Algeria	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Bahrain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Djibouti	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Egypt	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Iraq	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Jordan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Kuwait	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Lebanon	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Libya	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Mauritania	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Morocco	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Oman	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Palestine	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Qatar	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Saudi Arabia	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Sudan	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Syrian Arab Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Tunisia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	United Arab Emirates	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Yemen	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Asia and the Pacific	Afghanistan	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Australia	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Azerbaijan	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Bangladesh	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Bhutan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Brunei Darussalam	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Cambodia	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	China	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Cook Islands	No	No	No	Yes	No
	Fiji	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Indonesia	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Iran	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Japan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Kazakhstan	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Kiribati	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Korea, Republic of	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Kyrgyzstan	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Region	Country	GRALE 1	GRALE 2	GRALE 3	GRALE 4	GRALE 5
	Lao PDR	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Malaysia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Maldives	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Marshall Islands	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
	Micronesia	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Mongolia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Myanmar	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	Nauru	No	Yes	No	No	No
	Nepal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	New Zealand	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Niue	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Pakistan	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Palau	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Papua New Guinea	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Philippines	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Samoa	No	No	No	No	No
	Singapore	No	No	No	No	Yes
	Solomon Islands	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
	Sri Lanka	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Tajikistan	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Thailand	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Timor-Leste	No	No	No	Yes	No
	Tonga	No	No	No	No	No
	Turkmenistan	No	No	No	No	No
	Tuvalu	No	No	No	Yes	No
	Uzbekistan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Vanuatu	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Viet Nam	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Europe and North America	Albania	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Andorra	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Armenia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Austria	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Belarus	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Belgium	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Bosnia and Herzegovina	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Bulgaria	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Canada	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No
	Croatia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Cyprus	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Czech Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Denmark	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Estonia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Faroe Islands	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
	Finland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	France	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Georgia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Greece	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Hungary	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Iceland	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Ireland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Italy	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Latvia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Region	Country	GRALE 1	GRALE 2	GRALE 3	GRALE 4	GRALE 5
	Lithuania	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Luxembourg	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Malta	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Moldova	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Monaco	No	No	No	No	Yes
	Montenegro	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Netherlands	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	North Macedonia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Norway	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Poland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Romania	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Russia	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	San Marino	No	No	Yes	No	No
	Serbia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Slovakia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Slovenia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Switzerland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Turkey	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Ukraine	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
	United Kingdom	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
	United States of America	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Latin America and the Caribbean	Antigua and Barbuda	No	No	No	No	No
	Argentina	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Aruba	No	No	No	No	No
	Bahamas	No	Yes	No	No	No
	Barbados	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Belize	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Bolivia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Brazil	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Chile	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Colombia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Costa Rica	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Cuba	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Curacao	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
	Dominica	No	No	No	No	No
	Dominican Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Ecuador	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	El Salvador	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Grenada	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Guatemala	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Guyana	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Haiti	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Honduras	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Jamaica	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Mexico	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Nicaragua	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
	Panama	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Paraguay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Peru	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Saint Kitts and Nevis	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

Region	Country	GRALE 1	GRALE 2	GRALE 3	GRALE 4	GRALE 5
	Saint Lucia	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
	Saint Vincent and Grenadines	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Suriname	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Trinidad and Tobago	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Uruguay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic)	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Sub-Saharan Africa	Angola	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Benin	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Botswana	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Burkina Faso	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Burundi	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Cameroon	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Cape Verde	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Central African Republic	Yes	No	No	No	No
	Chad	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Comoros	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Congo	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Congo (Brazzaville)	No	No	No	No	No
	Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Equatorial Guinea	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Eritrea	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Eswatini	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
	Ethiopia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Gabon	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Gambia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Ghana	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Guinea	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Guinea-Bissau	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
	Kenya	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Lesotho	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Liberia	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
	Madagascar	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
	Malawi	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Mali	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Mauritius	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Mozambique	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Namibia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Niger	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Nigeria	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
	Rwanda	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Sao Tome and Principe	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
	Senegal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Seychelles	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Sierra Leone	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Somalia	No	No	No	Yes	No
	South Africa	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	South Sudan	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Tanzania	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Togo	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Uganda	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Zambia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Zimbabwe	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes